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Contents

Intersecting Language and Culture in the FL Classroom

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Abstract—This paper addresses the intersection of language and culture in the context of foreign language (FL) instruction. It is widely accepted that successful foreign language learning requires acquiring cultural competency corresponding to the language being taught, leading to the challenge of how to teach culture, what aspects of the culture or cultures in some cases. This paper contains discussions regarding the problem and offers suggestions for modeling communicative competence that is culturally relevant, the importance of "teaching culture," difficulties of teaching culture with language instruction, theories of communicative competence, and model elements to create a new meta-linguistic model.

Index Terms—teaching culture, communicative competence, language instruction, meta-linguistic model

I. INTRODUCTION

It is almost universally recognized within academic circles that teaching a foreign language requires knowledge and understanding of the culture associated with the language being taught. When teaching a FL, teaching culture becomes an inseparable task,

Despite this widely accepted notion, introducing cultural content remains a source of tension for language teachers, creating sometimes a feeling of guilt for what teachers describe as not "covering" enough culture. Many teachers conclude that they bring culture into the classroom only as tidbits of information added as a manner of appetizer or dessert for a lesson but not presented as the actual thread that ties language to a meaningful context.

The goal of this paper is to reflect on how teaching of culture evolved over time and propose a model that engages and encourages both teachers and learners to experience the culture they are studying from while studying the language.

II. THE TEACHING OF CULTURE OVER TIME

Historically speaking, some of the strategies that have been used for the advancement of intercultural proficiency included the following: audio-lingual drills, role-playing, detailed studies of a specific culture, and comparative/contrastive analysis of cultural variables. Most of these types of activities allowed the teacher to count those moments as "cultural activities". Another popular tool developed then that it is still utilized today is this concept of "culture capsule". This is an activity where learners are asked to create a project which contains information on various aspects of the target culture. While these tools were and remain beneficial, it is important to understand that in and of themselves these tasks do not resolve the issue of the compartmentalization teachers feel when approaching the teaching of culture this way, which aspects of culture are essential for culture teaching.

Around the 1970s, language instructors started having discussions about the definition of culture, and how to incorporate it into their language lessons. The most significant progress made in this decade included a fairly consistent definition of what culture meant, understood as a set of values, beliefs, and practices that are shared by a specific group of individuals (Choudhury, 2014). The field of sociology also contributed to the discussions of the teaching of culture during the 1970s. Increased focus was placed on nationality, on ethnographic approaches, that is, the study of crucial interactions between members of a culture (Meadows, 2016), and on "non-observable cultural aspects. These aspects of the culture were seen as are either guidelines informing suitable behaviors from a particular cultural group or as values and beliefs that underlie the observable behaviors. Teaching culture in a language classroom in the 1970s focused more on culture labeled as "Little-C culture". Within this mindset, rather than learning a word, phrase, or sentence in the target language in isolation from context it became common to either visualize or to play-act a conversation within the culture in which the word, phrase, or sentence would be used. A significant ideological shift was also occurring at this time. Instructors started to refrain from assuming that there were absolute cultural truths and the concept of cultural relativity was introduced. It became apparent that cultural representations needed to include despairing attitudes and beliefs between cultures and not accepting these differences would imply feeding prejudices (Thanasoulas, 2001).

In the 1980s, much of the shifts that had started in the previous decade were brought to fruition. The focus on non-observable elements of culture became more pronounced as well as the understanding that people should not value cultural experiences from a certain group as better or worse than another group but learn to appreciate the differences. In this decade, two brand-new lines of discussion emerged. One was a shift away from emphasizing specific parts of the culture to concentrating on general elements of the target culture. A reason behind this transition is that it became

significantly common for students to take a study abroad trip to countries in which the target language was spoken. Teachers preparing students for these study abroad experiences needed to take a more generalized approach when giving students tools to succeed abroad since it was too difficult to predict what types of interactions they would eventually have. The second line of discussion in research circles around that time was concerning the issue of whose cultural experienced needed to be taught, whose stories needed to be told. This brought to the fore front factors like race, ethnic background, and economic class that tended to be absent in previous culture teaching or research thereupon.

The 1990s saw the increasing impact of post-structuralism on language instruction (Shanahan, 1997). This reinforced the aforementioned hesitancy concerning whether to assume that cultures are to be objectively assessed according to ethical standards of one owns culture. Another result of this influence was a basic line of questioning concerning whether there is such a thing as the essence of a culture. This made it even harder for teachers than it had been to decide which cultural elements to include in language instruction. Culture began to be regarded as "a form of social practice and subjective schema of significance" (Meadows 2016, p. 155). As a part of the same shift, Western designs of language teaching and learning started to be challenged. Researchers started rethinking colonial and post-colonial relations between the west and target cultures' nations. Lastly, there was a move away from focusing solely on the dominant cultures in a specific country, state, or other geographical locations.

Much of these exact same trends continued at the beginning of the 2000s. Culture as a clearly defined concept was substituted with concepts of culture that embodied a framework that offered options for interpretation. More commonly, "the 2000s literature set a re-aligning of the concept of culture to be in tune with globalized realities" (Meadows 2016, p. 158). Culture teaching at this time moved toward promoting diversity in instructional models. A vital theoretical advancement during this decade was the realization of the lack of connection between scholarship on language and culture instruction on one hand, and the experiences of language and culture instructors on the ground, on the other. This issue will play a central role in the discussion that appears below.

In recent years, the conceptualization of culture continues to be seen as ever-more complex and variegated. Culture teaching is becoming increasingly intercultural in emphasis, and specific acknowledgment tends to be given to the fact that many cultures have actually been shaped by colonialism. There are, as we will see, challenges on how culture should be taught in the context of teaching a foreign or a second-language but first we will address the importance of teaching culture.

III. SIGNIFICANCE OF TEACHING CULTURE

One can envision an argument for the separation between teaching language and teaching culture. It is possible, at least in theory, to learn to speak, comprehend, and write in a foreign language utilizing nothing more than dictionary and a textbook. Why would this not be adequate, in a complete sense, as learning the language? A person can speak and comprehend the words themselves but lacks the context to successfully communicate and negotiate conversations in real life. Bennett (1993) reminds us that "a fluent fool is someone who speaks the language well but doesn't understand the social content of that language" (p. 16). In order to develop intercultural communicative competence and not be a "fluent fool" one has to familiarize oneself with the cultures where the language is spoken.

Intercultural competence is defined as the ability to communicate and relate successfully in multiple contexts (Bennett & Bennett, 2004). Successful intercultural speakers are those who can mediate between groups from different cultures. They can negotiate a system of values that is different from their own, and adjust their behavior as necessary. One theorist elaborates on what he calls "the three levels of learner results" as learning culture is concerned: (1) cultural understanding, (2) cultural awareness, and (3) cultural skills (Nguyen 2017, p. 145). Teachers have an easier time bringing elements of culture that promote cultural understanding and awareness but find it more difficult to create circumstances to experience and develop cultural skills.

Communicative proficiency needs proficiency of sociolinguistic and pragmatic aspects of language and culture. Two elements of this proficiency are the ability to express a message properly and to comprehend the kind and the value of background understanding that tends to be assumed to be in place in a lot of genuine cultural encounters (Brdaric, 2016). Constructing a message properly includes among other things, picking one of several expressions that might be counted as comparable in a dictionary. Even if a dictionary differentiates them, it can be difficult or almost impossible to know which expression must be used in which circumstance without acquiring understanding about a culture-- that is, communicative proficiency.

Additionally, research on intercultural communicative competence highlights the importance of preparing learners to engage in a global society by discovering the appropriate manner in which to interact with people from different cultures (Sinicrope et al., 2012).

IV. CHALLENGES IN TEACHING CULTURE

The challenges with teaching culture persist in spite of the fact that instructors appear to be generally knowledgeable about its importance (Gonen & Saglam, 2012). The most common factor cited by teachers appears to be the way the majority of the textbooks are designed. Although teachers have a certain degree of flexibility on how to design their curriculum, when teachers adopt a certain text, the text becomes the curriculum that guides instruction. Most textbooks

have a vocabulary, a grammar and a culture section. Cultural tidbits are sprinkled in every chapter throughout the text but at first glance, cultural curricular concepts appear separate from language concepts. This seemingly harmless organizational structure appears to be the main culprit to blame for the separation of language and culture.

Another less common but yet real reason as to why teachers find it challenging to incorporate culture as they teach language is that it is a tough and lengthy task to become an expert in a given language. When we honor the teaching of culture together with language, we are implicitly asking that those associated with language instruction become specialists on the target culture as well (Byram & Kramsch, 2000). Although it is possible for teachers to achieve high levels of cultural competence, it is difficult and at times intimidating. Scholars have found that foreign language teachers lack intercultural competence and are generally described as ethnocentric (DeJaeghere & Cao, 2009; Mahon, 2009; Wright, 2000; Yuen, 2010). Mahon (2009) found that educators that displayed ethnocentric attitudes tended to avoid confrontation when working with conflicting cultural concepts. Programs developed to help promote intercultural sensitivity will need to find ways of addressing the ethnocentricity not only in the learners but also in the teachers. Research shows that when teachers participate in professional development activities that focus on intercultural competence they show significant gains in intercultural awareness and in turn develop a curriculum that emphasizes cultural experiences for learners (MLA, 2007).

Another challenge is that cultural matters are not always without controversy, and they can differ within a single culture and a single language. For example, two Arabs who both speak Palestinian Arabic may appear the same but are different because one lives in Israel and the other lives outside the occupied territories in the West Bank, They both may very well have a different understandings of their shared culture. It is nearly certain that conservative and liberal Jews who reside in Israel have extremely diverse understandings of their shared culture, regardless of sharing a language along with a culture. This is not to say that there are no accurate and inaccurate ways to understand a culture. The point is that there can be genuine distinctions and conflicts in the way cultural elements are perceived and expressed by different people. The point is even clearer when we frame culture from a historical perspective. How history is told can be both questionable and conflicting (Daraselia & Jojua, 2016). The way history molds our understanding of culture is a lens that needs to be included in the discussion of cultural values that happens in the foreign language class.

The final challenge worth pointing out when it comes to the teaching of culture is linked to the training received during teacher preparation programs and more specifically the way those language teachers were taught when they were language learners themselves. It has been known to be challenging to break the pattern of teaching the way we were taught (Sandorova, 2016). Primarily because people feel it worked for them as successful learners of the language and they identify positively with the process hence they tend to repeat it. As pointed out earlier in the discussion of the teaching of culture over the years, the paradigm shift under which the current teachers were taught does not correspond to the current model of intercultural competence. Therefore, teachers have to not only break the mold on how they were taught but identify positively with a new model of teaching. Numerous language instructors are well versed culturally yet not always informed on the specific ways of teaching culture (Yang & Chen, 2016). The majority of teacher preparation programs and graduate programs have what they call "culture" classes in their curriculum but they tend to have not more than one class in their entire curriculum committed to the discussions around the how to teach culture.

As the pressure to promote language instruction that addresses multicultural components grows, professional organizations like ACTFL came up with frameworks that help teachers embrace a more holistic understanding of language teaching. The document put out by ACTFL "Standards for Foreign Language Learning in the 21st century" provides teachers with the framework for foreign language teaching with five major components designated as the five Cs of foreign language teaching: communication, communities, comparisons, cultures, and connections (ACTFL, 2012). All of these components are rooted in the understanding that foreign language study should expand the ability of the learner to recognize the differences between cultures, make connections and links aspects of their own culture with the target one.

Part of the topic for this paper is to consider a different lens for approaching the teaching of culture and evaluate the underpinnings of the model of communicative competence that guides it. It is to such proposed theoretical underpinnings that we now turn.

V. PROPOSED MODEL: EXPERIENCE CULTURE

In most of the issues presented in the challenges to teach culture section, the argument seems to revolve around how much cultural content do we bring in, how much time should we spend, when should this content be brought it, what cultural content should we discuss. A potential shift in thinking could be to affront these decisions following the approach already prevalent in the field of language acquisition that accentuates the importance of learning a language by using the language and not by talking about the language. In the same manner, we can work on experiencing culture as opposed to talking about the culture. As Ellis (2021) suggests the classroom should not be a place where learners are taught language, but where they experience it. We need to stop treating culture as a concept to teach and start trying to create opportunities to experience it.

Those who study the importance of study abroad experiences in developing intercultural competence have shown how vital those real life experiences are in taking the learner to higher level of competence (Scollon, 2004).

Unfortunately, not all learners can go abroad therefore it falls to the teacher to create those experiences that will render the most meaningful results in shifting intercultural competence.

The approach to intercultural competence (ICC from here on) teaching under this model is based primarily on an experiential model using what the literature refers to as critical incidents (Milner et al., 2013; Kolb, 1984) as the basis for how learners will explore culture. Critical incidents as defined in Richards and Farrell (2010) are unplanned events that occur without anticipation but serve as a trigger for teaching moments. Teachers can create experiences for learners that will likely provoke incidents that will serve as opportunities to reflect critically. These incidents are contextualized situations that allow the learner to reflect on social realities of the country being studied or narratives pertinent to the culture in question. There are multiple examples of "episodes" around us that could work as culturally relevant pedagogical moments that we can use to develop the awareness dimension of ICC. Curricular conversations and situations could incorporate critical incidents around interacting with people from a different culture. Teachers can draw from conversations learners already have with people from another culture in their daily lives. These incidents can be drawn from interactions students have as they shop, or reflect back to situations where some of their classmates in high school where non-English speakers. Have learners reflect on what would they would do different. Other options could be a potential scenario at a hospital ER room and the challenges around not being able to communicate. These critical incident scenarios create opportunities for learners to go out in the community and complete tasks that make them experience the culture and then reflect on it.

For ICC to feel real and experiential it has to occur beyond the walls of the classroom. These "out of the classroom" situations are more difficult to assess and control but if carefully planned and intentionally guided, these experiences can be brought back to the classroom by incorporation reflection and discussion tasks on what was experienced. Resolving those situations will help learners decenter themselves and overcome what initially were intercultural obstacles.

VI. CONCLUSION

As numerous theorists have discovered, it is much simpler to recommend a model of communicative proficiency than it is to test it empirically. The model recommended here is no different in this regard.

Developing ICC is a lengthy and arduous process which makes it difficult to fit within formal parameters of education (Dema & Moeller, 2012). Can we say we are making progress in developing learners' ICC in one semester of Spanish? Probably not but one thing that constantly occurs in the language classroom is that learners negotiate an intercultural linguistic space that by nature functions as a training ground in ICC. Blending what is done traditionally in foreign language classrooms with an experiential approach rooted in critical incidents can shorten the path to achieve intercultural competence. Incorporating a critical incident approach will create more self-awareness on the part of the learner and the teacher by putting them in situations where they will have to compare and make connections as suggested in the ACTFL framework.

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Beyond Written-Linguistic Modes of Meanings: Multimodal Representations to Extend the Range of Literacy Learning in EMI Students

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Abstract—The adaptation to the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) has meant a change from teacher-centered to student-centered education. Since the Bologna process, Spanish universities have promoted active methodologies, emotional intelligence in the classroom, assessment by competencies, and teaching in English. Thus, English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) courses have increased. This paper analyzes two EMI courses taught in Education degrees in a Spanish university, from the point of view of the teaching strategies that can ensure the content learning and the literacy development of mixed-language ability students through the systematic promotion of multimodal patterns of meaning. To do so, students' multimodal texts resulted from four class tasks were analyzed using a framework of interpretive strategies to assess to what extent they represented the meaning of the academic readings they were based on. The results of the descriptive analysis suggest that the promotion of multimodal meanings in the EMI classroom can extend the range of literacy learning and favor not only the development of linguistic skills but also digital, social, and cognitive skills likely to improve students' academic performance in the courses that they study in English. Moreover, this approach contributes to an improvement in students' degree of motivation.

Index Terms—English-medium instruction (EMI), multimodal meanings, higher education

I. INTRODUCTION

As a result of the increased internationalization of Spanish universities, following the implementation of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA), the number of foreign language medium instruction programs, mainly in English, has steadily increased (Dafouz & Smit, 2020). In a context that fosters the use of student-centered methodologies and competency-based teaching and learning, English as Medium of Instruction (EMI) poses the challenge of how to support mixed-language ability students so as to guarantee successful content learning (Nieto-Moreno de Diezmas & Fernández-Barrera, 2021) and assessment (Otto & Estrada-Chichón, 2021).

In the case of teacher education, the need for an effective training in English has been further enhanced by the growth of bilingual education programs in primary and secondary schools across Europe, in general, and in Spain in particular (Pérez-Cañado, 2018). Such programs respond to an increased pressure on educational systems to provide more extensive and effective foreign language training (Eurydice, 2020), particularly in English, as the world's lingua franca.

In the Community of Madrid, which provides the setting for this study, around 50% of primary and secondary schools have implemented the bilingual (English) education program (Comunidad de Madrid, 2020), which is based on the Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) approach. In this program, students learn not only English but also a number of subjects in English. Understandably, this scenario has placed increased pressure on initial teacher education programs, which must now prepare future students for the challenge of bilingual education (Gutiérrez-Gamboa & Custodio-Espinar, 2021). In general, universities have responded to this demand by increasing the credit load devoted to English as a foreign language (EFL) and, in about half of the existing primary education teacher training institutions, by offering partial EMI programs or streams (López-Hernández, 2021). However, no clear policy for entry levels has been arranged at university yet (Halbach et al., 2017), which results in students' difficulties in the foreign language (Pavón, 2018).

This paper describes an experience of effective development of content and language learning in two EMI courses taught as part of the teacher Education degrees at a Spanish university in Madrid. It offers examples of the effective development of students' linguistic and academic competences through the promotion of hands-on collaborative activities based on multimodal meanings that are supported by Information Communication Technologies (ICT). This study also hopes to contribute to the field of foreign language, EMI, and CLIL teaching at the tertiary level, by providing examples of how teachers can mediate students' understanding and processing of the content in mixed-language ability EMI contexts.

II. Theoretical Framework

The adaptation of higher education to the EHEA has promoted a change from the focus on transmission of knowledge to one in which professors are able to promote student competencies such as looking for complementary information to that provided in class, effectively communicating ideas to classmates or the teacher, selecting the best solution to the problems that arise, or assessing the technical, social and environmental consequences of the decision made (Zabalza, 2016). In order to face this context, since the Bologna process, Spanish universities have provided training actions in areas such as active methodologies, emotional intelligence in the classroom, assessment by competencies, or teaching in English (Torra-Bitlloch et al., 2012).

Turning to teacher education, among the key competences for lifelong learning promoted by the EU, the digital and technology-based competences should play a very important role in the education of future teachers (Pérez-Cañado, 2020). Technology, however, must be understood as a lever for educational change and not as a mere addition to the teaching process (Cabero-Almenara & Llorente-Cejudo, 2020). Indeed, if effectively used, ICT can result in strengthened scenarios for collaboration, interaction and building new ways of relating to reality in academic contexts.

EMI, CLIL, and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) are all different ways to teach disciplinary content in a foreign language in higher education. The common expectation of these forms of content-based language education is that "using the target language to teach and learn content creates authentic communicative contexts for the use of the target language and leads to a higher target language proficiency while simultaneously achieving content learning" (Lin, 2019, p. 5). In these learning contexts, as Tsuchiya (2019) suggests, "the practice of translanguaging is often observed" (p. 265). Lin (2019) goes a step forward from translanguaging, understood as the "multiple discursive practices in which bilinguals engage in order to make sense of their bilingual worlds" (García, 2009, p. 45), to transsemiotizing, "trans-semiotic system with many meaning-making signs, primarily linguistic ones that combine to make up a person's semiotic repertoire" (García & Li, 2014, p. 42), considering them key factors in the dialogic construal of content meaning in content-based education.

However, the relationship between learning and development processes in bilingual education is complex because, while independent, they can influence each other. Indeed, learning does not necessarily lead to development; it may, eventually, promote learner's development if the activities and scaffolding that teachers or peers provide (sharing goals, demonstrating, modelling, or breaking tasks into steps) help the learner to effectively perform at their particular Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (Vygotsky, 1978) in the EMI courses.

Stathopoulou (2015) also affirms that mediation not only serves in the building of relationships between students, but in facilitating the learning process. Thus, in any kind of content-based instruction such as EMI, mediation should involve the collaborative dialogue that helps students to build knowledge in the foreign language as language use mediates both content and language learning. In this educational scenario, transsemiotizing, as defined by Lin (2019), can play a key role in EMI students' knowledge construction.

As the New London Group stated in 1996, the use of multiliteracies approaches to pedagogy will enable students to achieve two goals for literacy learning. The first one will allow students to access (1) the evolving language of work, in this case teaching, (2) the power of (bilingual and multilingual) education, and (3) a sense of community understood as Ikeda's concept of "globalism" (2019, p. 24). The second goal is the development of critical engagement necessary for students to design their social futures and achieve success through fulfilling employment (Cazden et al., 1996).

Teacher education through EMI requires that learners are able to identify differences in patterns of meanings from many contexts: academic, linguistic, social, cultural and professional. Moreover, such patterns may be conveyed through a variety of channels: oral, visual, tactile, gestural, spatial, or audio. In this view of language from a social semiotic perspective (Lin, 2019), EMI instructors can help their students to develop a multimodal view of literacy likely to go beyond the traditional written-linguistic modes of meaning, which will ultimately have an effect both on themselves and on their future students.

Indeed, according to Kress (2010), "in a social-semiotic account of meaning, individuals, with their social theories, socially shaped, located in social environments, using socially made, culturally available resources, are agentive and generative in sign-making and communication" (p. 54). This multimodal account of meaning suggests that different students will combine different modes, which will have functions and relate in the text in a particular way to effectively convey the meaning required. Therefore, multimodality, understood as "the combination of different semiotic modes - for example, language and music - in a communicative artifact or event" (Van Leeuwen, 2005, p. 28) can be useful in EMI contexts to measure and evaluate different ways of meaning-making produced by students.

Moreover, as suggested by Zammit (2014), introducing the creation of multimodal texts mediated by technology, making use of a collaborative approach and formative assessment practices, can influence students' outcomes related to learning of content, knowledge, skills, and level of engagement in learning. Arguably, bringing multimodal representations into the classroom - particularly those typical of digital media - can make literacy learning more engaging for students, as it becomes closer to what they experience in their daily lives. In addition, such a strategy contributes to providing students with a "CLIL-ed" form of EMI in which scaffolding and mediation play a crucial role in the support of content learning and the development of students' language proficiency (Custodio-Espinar & López-Hernández, 2021; Ikeda, 2019; Pérez-Cañado, 2020).

III. METHOD

A. Research Context and Participants

Comillas Pontifical University offers the EFL specialist itinerary to all students of its Education degrees. To complete this specialization, or *mención en lengua extranjera*, students take a number of courses aimed at, firstly, strengthening their competence in the English language and, secondly, training them in the pedagogies of EFL and CLIL (Table 1).

TABLE 1
OVERVIEW OF THE ENGLISH-TAUGHT COURSES

Year	Course	Type
1	English for Education I (EFE I)	General English/ESP
2	English for Education II (EFE II)	General English/ESP
3	Teaching English as a Foreign Language I	Language pedagogy (EFL)
4	Teaching English as a Foreign Language II	Language pedagogy (EFL)
4	Content and Language Integrated Learning	CLIL pedagogy

It must be noted that, while in years 1 and 2 students are grouped by initial level of English, ranging from A2 to C1 according to the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR, hereinafter), in years 3 and 4 students can expect to find themselves in larger groups which include a much wider range of language abilities.

The analyzed data were collected from the courses English for Education I (EFE I) (year 1, levels A2-B1) and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) (year 4, levels B1-C2). Whereas the former is a combination of general English, textbook-based course, and ESP, the latter focuses on CLIL theory and pedagogy and makes use of co-teaching as a strategy for scaffolding (Murphy et al., 2015) and an opportunity to vary presentation, individualize instruction and monitor students' understanding (Graziano & Navarrete, 2012). Although both courses offer cases of mixed-ability groups, the CLIL course included a much more noticeable range of levels of language competence, ranging from B1 to C2 CEFR. The number of students who attended these courses is shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2
NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN THE EMI COURSES ANALYZED

EMI course	Academic year	N students
EFE I	2017-18	17
EFE II	2020-21	12
CLIL	2019-20	64
CLIL	2020-21	32
Total N students	2017-21	125

B. Research Design and Data Analysis

This study used a qualitative interpretive approach (Nunan, 2013) that can contribute to the domain of pedagogical approaches in EMI learning contexts. A semiotic perspective of language was employed to analyze student tasks that required the use of multimodal meanings. From the perspective of task design, the analysis made use of the analytical framework developed by Lin (2015), entitled The Multimodalities/Entextualization Cycle (MEC) (Figure 1).
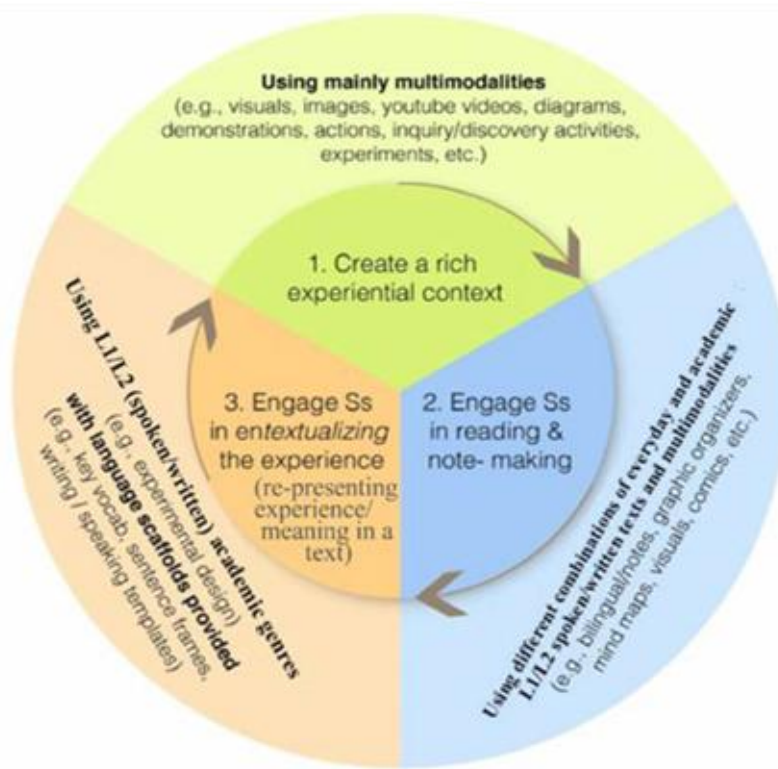
Figure 1 The Multimodalities/Entextualization Cycle (MEC) (Lin, 2015, p. 6) (Key: Ss = students)

The specific data collected were of two types. Firstly, instances of student multi-modal products, created as part of mandatory course tasks in the two subjects, were collected and analyzed. A description of the four tasks that led to the creation of such products can be found in appendices A, B, and C. Secondly, numerical course grades and attendance and participation records were obtained and used as indicators of academic performance and motivation, respectively.

Turning to student created products employing multi-modal texts, the analysis followed a framework of interpretive strategies based on Liu (2013) in order to assess to what extent they succeed in representing the meaning of the academic readings they are based on (Table 3).

TABLE 3
MULTIMODAL TEXT INTERPRETIVE STRATEGIES

Strategies	Functions
Meta-interpretative	The multimodality is not ornamental and has been thought out to better convey the meaning
	The multimodal meanings are complementary to an overall meaning that is more than the meanings conveyed by the separate modes
Perceptual	The visual and design elements support the meaning interpretation
Analytical	The interrelationships among the visual elements in the multimodal text support in understanding the meanings associated with them in the original academic texts
Sociocultural	The multimodal text includes some kind of social, political and/or cultural evidence that conveys meanings beyond the literal level

Note: Adapted from Liu (2013).

The students' produced materials were analyzed for the presence of these strategies, and the different functions were counted as present in the multimodal text as long as there was at least one occurrence/use. As to student performance and motivation, student grades and attendance and participation scores were compared with those of other EMI courses in which students only incidentally engage with multimodal representations to extend the range of literacy learning.

IV. DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

The results of the study will be presented in terms of (1) the description and analysis of the type of tasks that students perform, (2) the description and analysis of the multimodal texts that students produce from these tasks, and (3) the description of the academic performance and motivation of students in these EMI courses.

A. Description and Analysis of the Tasks

The first analysis provides an assessment of the tasks (Appendices A, B, and C) using the framework provided by Lin's (2019) MEC cycle from the point of view of their design and the type of multimodal materials they promote. Table 4 shows the result of the descriptive analysis of the four tasks presented in this study.

TABLE 4
DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF THE TASKS BASED ON THE MEC CYCLE BY LIN (2019)

MEC cycle Lin (2015)	Task 1 EFE I	Task 2 EFE I	Tasks 3-4 CLIL
Rich context	Websites Online documents for groupwork Storybooks (ICT) Demonstrations Formative assessment Sharing goals (metacognition)	Modelling Games Inquiry activity YouTube videos Formative assessment Sharing goals (metacognition)	Academic readings YouTube videos Cooperative work Demonstrations Use of ICT Formative assessment Sharing goals (metacognition)
Engagement in reading	Collaborative design of the group projects making use of the different online sources and ICT tools. Story boards E-book website	Notes Visual organizers: graphs Ppt graphs Research questions Research interviews Sample design	Notes Visual organizers Multimodalities: songs, videos, posters
Engagement in entextualizing	Collaborative writing, recording and illustration of stories using an e-book application. Genre: recount	Graphs Oral presentation of the results using a shared Ppt Genre: description and explanation	Oral presentation of content using the multimodal texts Genres: explanation and persuasion

As is evident from their design (see appendices A-B-C), these competency-based tasks involved an active role of the students, in particular in the processing of the information they were dealing with. Indeed, all of them went beyond the traditional pattern of Presentation Practice and Production (PPP) widely used in EFL classes. As Ikeda (2019) puts it, in these tasks students rather follow a pattern of Presentation *Processing* Production, in which they not only practice but analyze, describe, organize, design, or evaluate the information collaboratively.

Moreover, even in the case of task 2, which is the most EFL in nature of the four, the analysis of the task design following the MEC cycle (Lin, 2015) revealed that the level of cognitive demand was raised from lower order thinking skills (LOTS) to higher order thinking skills (HOTS). As described by Tsuchiya (2019), such emphasis on cognition may help to overcome the problem of lack of content in soft CLIL classes or, as in this example, in an EFL/ESP class.

It was also noticeable that, in all the activities, students used the multimodal materials both as a means and as a support for the understanding and/or creation of their own meaning. These examples of tasks reflect student-centered learning as described by Jacobs and Renandya (2016): students and teachers as co-learners, student-student interaction both face-to-face and online, learner autonomy, focus on meaning, curricular integration, diversity, thinking skills, alternative assessment, learning climate and motivation. And they also reflect what Ikeda (2019) defines as competency-based language education, in which learners not only learn content and language but develop cognitive, social and ethical skills that enable them to recall the information and reproduce the skills they learnt in other opportunities and contexts. This is what Lightbown (2014, cited in Ikeda, 2019) refers to as the "transfer-appropriate processing" hypothesis.

Indeed, these instances of "CLIL-ed" EMI task design reflect the "conspicuous features of CLIL lessons" stated in Ikeda (2012, cited in Ikeda, 2019, p. 25): they promote interaction and dialogic learning; they provide scaffolding and multimodal input; and they are developed in clear, authentic contexts likely to foster multiple-skill development through tasks that enhance the use of language and critical thinking. Therefore, it can be stated that these CLIL type activities developed in the EMI courses promoted deeper learning that students can put into practice in future similar contexts. Thus, the "CLIL-ed" EMI described in this work seems to be an excellent approach to language education in general (Ikeda, 2019), and at university level in particular, because it ensures a strong language focus in EMI courses (Pérez-Cañado, 2020).

B. Description and Analysis of the Multimodal Texts

The second analysis conducted centered on the materials produced by the students as part of the aforementioned tasks. First, all the materials produced in the two courses are shown. In Figure 2, the materials produced by the EFE I students in task 1 "The origami project" are shown.
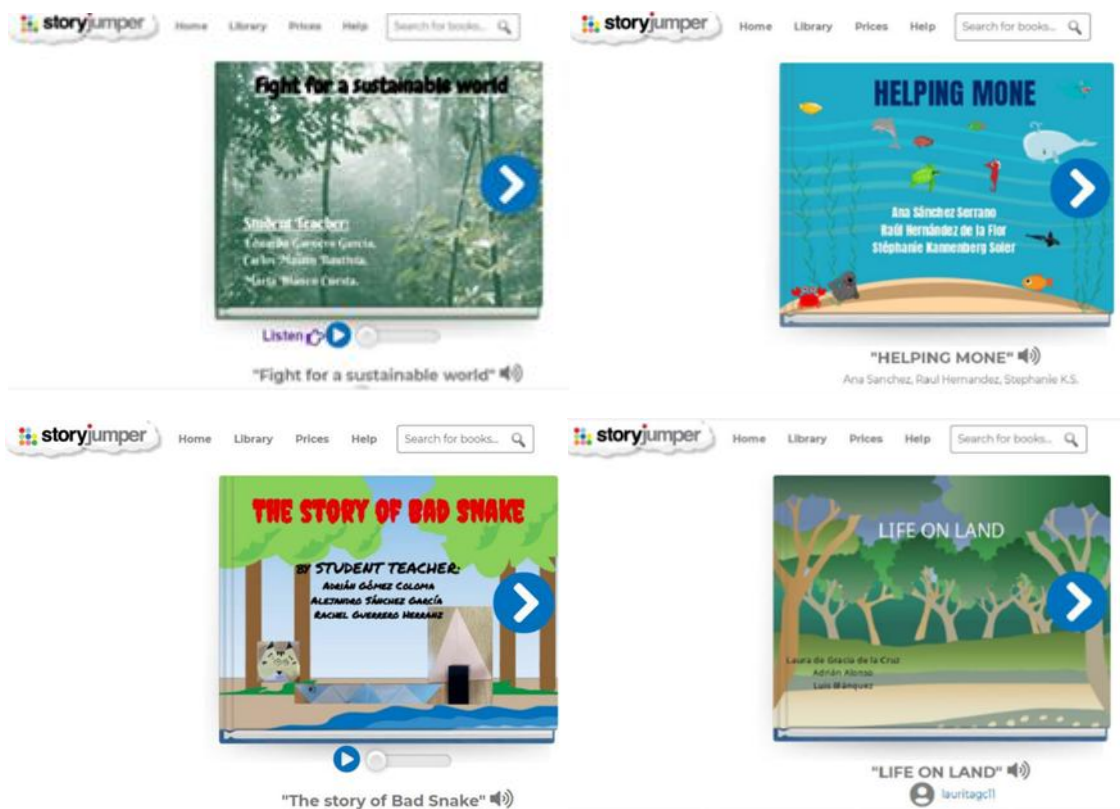
Figure 2 Task 1: The Origami Project. EFE I, Primary/Pre-Primary Education 2020-21

These four final products (ebooks) can be visited through the links in Appendix D. Next, Figure 3 shows the materials produced by EFE I students in task 2.

Figure 3 Task 2: Saint Valentine. EFE I, Primary/Pre-primary Education 2017-18

Figures 4 to 7 show students' materials produced in the CLIL subject in task 3, in which they were supposed to define the concept of CLIL based on their understanding of different academic texts.
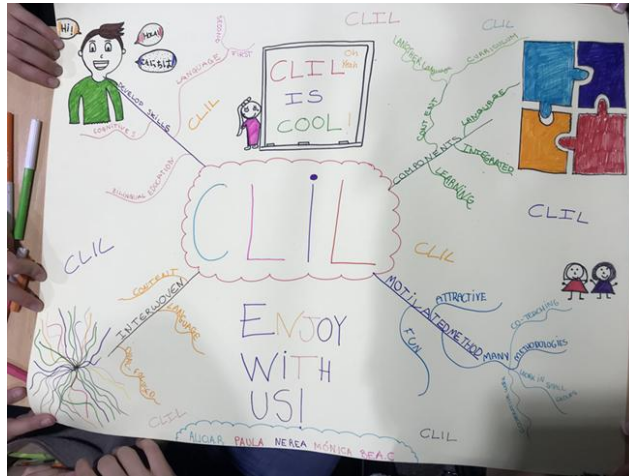
Figure 4 Task 3: Defining CLIL. CLIL Course, Pre-primary Education Group 2019-20
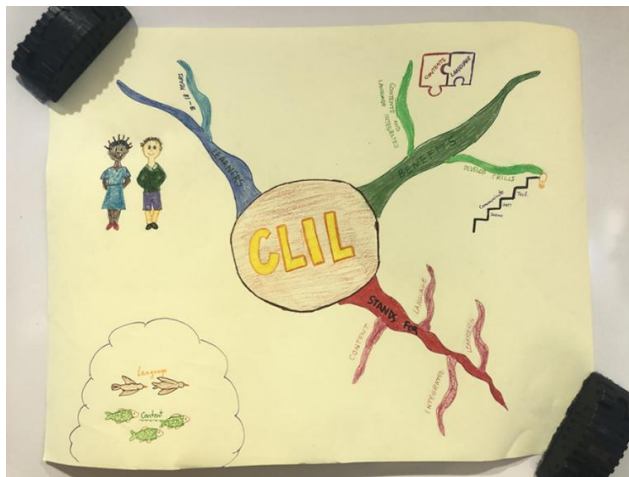
Figure 5 Task 3: Defining CLIL. CLIL Course, Primary Education Group 2019-20
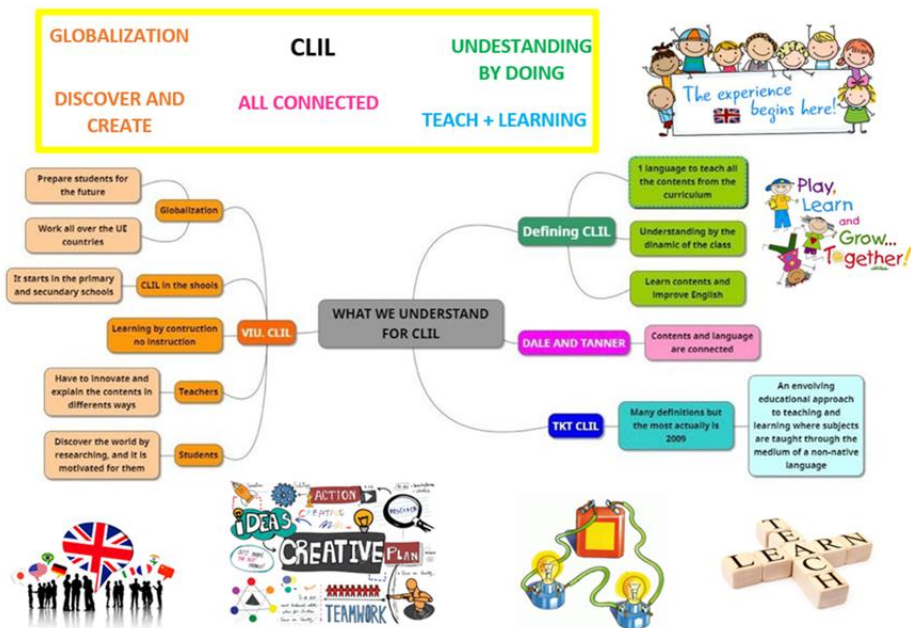
Figure 6 Task 3: Defining CLIL. CLIL Course, Pre-primary Education Group 2020-21
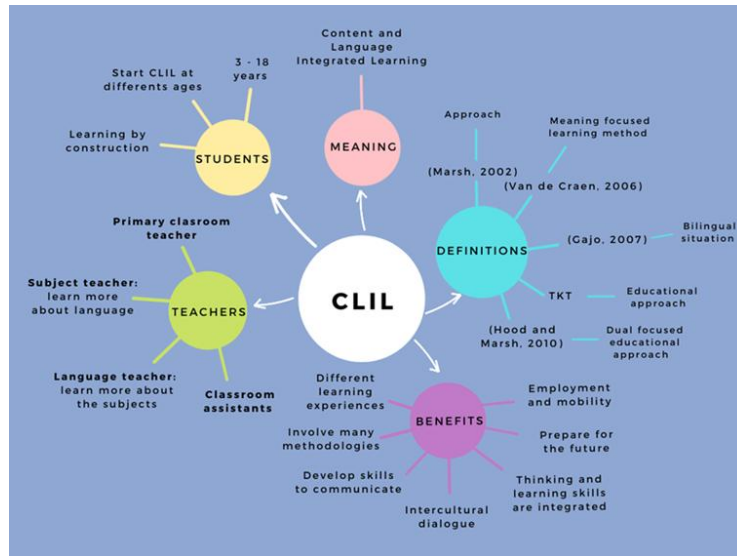
Figure 7 Task 3: Defining CLIL. CLIL Course, Primary Education Group 2020-21

Finally, Figures 8 to 11 show the examples of student productions to explain the benefits of CLIL in education. Again, students had to engage with several academic readings in order to obtain the necessary concepts and ideas.

Figure 8 Task 4: Benefits of CLIL. CLIL Course, Pre-primary Education Group 2019-20
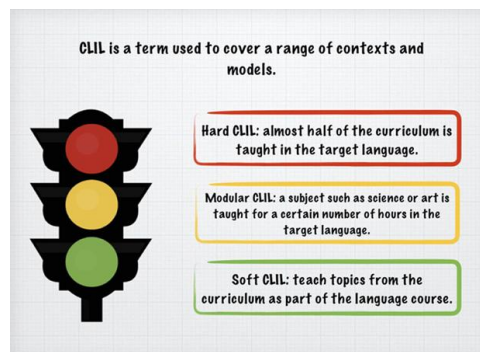
Figure 9 Task 4: Benefits of CLIL. CLIL Course, Primary Education Group 2019-20
https://sifo.comillas.edu/mod/kalvidres/view.php?id=1730688
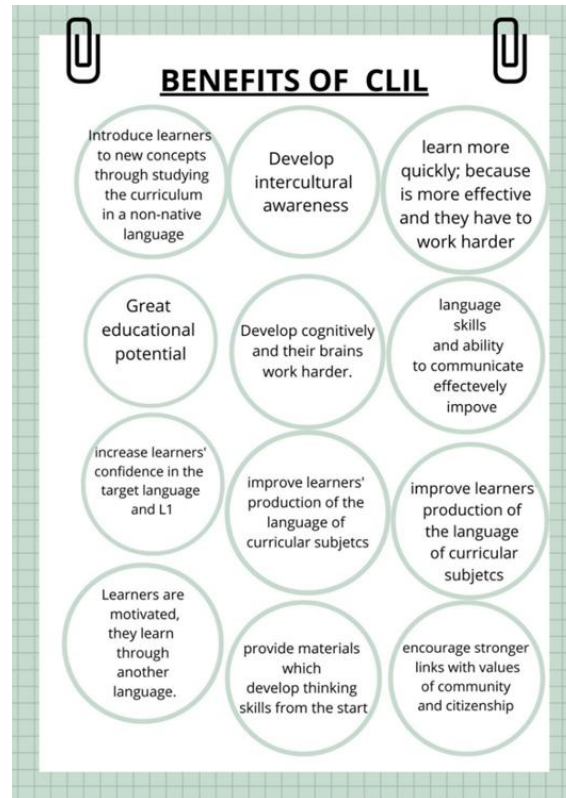
Figure 10 Task 4: Benefits of CLIL. CLIL Course, Preprimary Education Group 2020-21

Figure 11 Task 4: Benefits of CLIL. CLIL Course, Primary Education Group 2020-21
https://youtu.be/zcEoQvmtW5Q

In turn, the above materials were analyzed from the point of view of the multimodality they include, making use of the framework of interpretive strategies described by Liu (2013). The total number of multimodal texts analyzed was 29. Table 5 shows the distribution of these texts according to their type and the course they belong to.

TABLE 5
STUDENTS' MATERIALS FOR THE MULTIMODAL TEXT ANALYSIS

Course	Multimodal text	N of multimodal texts
EFE I	eBook	4
	Graph presentation	17
CLIL	Mind map	4
	Song	1
	Video	2
	Poster	1
	Total number	29

The result of this analysis reflected the relationships of the different patterns of meanings produced in multimodal texts and enabled an assessment of to what extent they managed to convey the meaning of the academic readings they were based on. The texts and related patterns of meanings were as follows:

- Mind map and presentation: spatial-visual-oral
- Songs: spatial-gestural-tactile-oral
- Infographic (poster) and presentation: spatial-visual-oral
- Videos: visual-audio
- Graphs: visual-oral
- E-books: spatial-visual-audio

The result of this analysis is shown in Table 6.

TABLE 6
ANALYSIS OF STUDENT PRODUCED MULTIMODAL TEXTS (MT)

Strategies	Functions	Occurrence of function (N=29 MT)
Meta-interpretive	1. The multimodality is not ornamental	100%
	2. The multimodal meanings are complementary	100%
Perceptual	3. The visual/sound/movement and design elements support the meaning interpretation	86.2%
Analytical	4. The interrelationships among the visual elements support in understanding the meanings associated with them in the original academic texts	89.6%
Sociocultural	5. The multimodal text includes some kind of social, political and/or cultural evidence that conveys meanings beyond the literal level	89.6%

Note: Adapted from Liu (2013).

The results presented above suggest that the process of creating multimodal texts involved a range of functions related to metacognitive strategies such as making decisions, understanding the relationship of the ideas, representing those relationships in a multimodal way, or relating the ideas, with the ultimate purpose of conveying meaning to an audience.

In relation to the perceptual strategy, the use of ICT enhanced the creation of such multimodal texts by increasing the sensorial elements of the final products. The effect of using ICT to mediate the learning experience allowed to move from the almost exclusive use of written-oral linguistic modes, such as story writing-story telling in task 1, to a multiliteracy approach in which students combined the written language with other means of communication including images, sounds, symbols, or movement. This result supports the idea that "creators of digital media in a Web 2.0 network do more than simply reproduce a narrow canon of fixed disciplinary content and print-based conventions" (Mills, 2010, p. 235).

Moreover, the majority of the multimodal texts analyzed showed a very strong interrelationship among the sensorial elements they include and used sociocultural conventions to convey meaning. Rather than failing to convey meaning from the original source, they were able to express multimodal meanings that went beyond the academic content. Students' interpretations or ideas were enriched from a semiotic perspective of the language and, therefore, improved the understanding of the original content. Such social semiotic approach, as suggested by Kress (2010), can help to enrich the variety of materials that students produce, making them more personal and more memorable, and thus, more likely to be reproduced in future performances. As Kress puts it "the use of modes in combination offers a fuller means for conveying meaning, richer than the comparatively sparse capacities of the linguistic modes of speech and writing" (2015, p. 57), which are usually favored at universities.

C. Description of Students' Academic Performance and Motivation

The means of the academic performance of the EFE I and CLIL course students, who studied this "CLIL-ed" form of EMI, were compared with the average academic performance of students of another EMI course, entitled Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL), in which EMI is implemented with less focus on multimodal literacies. Table 7 offers the results of this comparison.

TABLE 7
COMPARISON OF THE AVERAGE ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE PER COURSE ("CLIL-ED" EMI/NON "CLIL-ED" EMI) AND DEGREE

Course	Degree	Academic year	Average means
TEFL II	Primary	209-2021	7.99
	Pre-primary	2019-2021	7.52
EFE I	Primary & Pre-primary	2017-21	8.2
CLIL	Primary	2019-2021	8.23
	Pre-primary	2019-2021	7.67

The better academic performance of students in the "CLIL-ed" EMI courses, in both degrees, is another evidence of the benefits of this type of literacy pedagogy through collaborative ICT tasks in EMI, and is in line with the results of

Zammit (2014). Besides, given that attendance and participation can be considered indicators of students' degree of motivation toward the course (Vlachopoulos & Jan, 2020), another evidence of the positive impact of this type of learning is the average mark in these components of the analyzed courses (Table 8).

TABLE 8
AVERAGE MEANS IN ATTENDANCE AND PARTICIPATION MARKS IN THE CLILIZED EMI COURSES

Course	Degree	2017-18 means	2019-20 means	2020-21 means	Average means
EFE I	Primary & Pre-primary	7	---	9.56	8.28
CLIL	Primary	---	8.5	9.39	8.95
	Pre-primary	---	9.13	9.62	9.38

Although they can be attributed to many different factors, such high means appear to reflect their interest in hands-on learning and learner-centered education aimed at developing multiple competences (Ikeda, 2019). This interpretation is reinforced by the qualitative feedback students provided in the middle and end-of-course assessment activities they completed, in which, among other things, they expressed that they liked:

- *All the practice activities and work in groups.*
- *The activities to support what we learnt on* [sic] *each session.*
- *The fact that theory and activities are closely related.*
- *Active and participatory dynamics.*
- *Having practice related to theory so that we could see how it relates.*
- *That we have learned from real situations, real materials...*
- *Practical activities and real utility.*
- *The materials that use the teacher* [sic] *are very useful to me to understand better* [sic] *CLIL. The activities that we work in groups are nice to put in practice that* [sic] *we have already seen in class.*

V. CONCLUDING REMARKS

The use of multimodal representations of meaning in the English classroom, whether EFL, ESP or EMI, promotes learner-centered methodologies and provides conceptual redundancy, peer interaction and negotiation of meaning through hands-on collaborative activities likely to help students to make sense and transform academic input in the foreign language. As this study has shown, this process of knowledge construction is supported by the use of the MEC cycle (Lin, 2015) and a social semiotic approach to literacy development in the design of the tasks (Lin, 2019), and is reinforced by the integration of ICT tools, which can contribute to the development of multimodal texts that reflect students' experience and skills in their real life. In line with Wu and Lin (2019), such approach to instructional design has proven to have a positive impact on the students' flow of knowledge co-making.

In addition, this learner-centered multimodal approach to language and content learning in EMI courses generates a context for learning that goes beyond written-linguistic modes of meanings and involves the use of multimodal representations to extend the range of literacy learning. It is a form of competency-based education which provides students with the opportunity to produce or create something new with the information they have in order to show their understanding, by taking account of different patterns of meaning other than the written-linguistic mode that is the usual standard in most EMI courses. Therefore, it can be concluded that the promotion of multimodal meanings in the EMI classroom, that reflect the different patterns of meaning existing in our society, can extend the range of literacy learning and favor not only the development of linguistic skills but also digital, social, and cognitive skills likely to improve university students' academic performance.

As with any other study, this one comes with a number of limitations. Firstly, all the analyzed activities were produced by groups of students who were taught by the same instructor. In this respect, it would be necessary to compare the multimodal representations of students in different groups of the same courses. In addition, future studies should engage in a more systematic description and analysis of the relationship between the attendance and participation records and the degree of motivation, possibly by collecting richer data from the students in the form of questionnaires or focus group interviews. In line with the work of Wu and Lin (2019), a fine-grained multimodal analysis of classroom activities based on the Multimodalities-Entextualization Cycle (MEC) and the interactions of students during their performance could lead to a better understanding of their final multimodal representations. Finally, it would also be interesting to conduct a similar type of analysis with non-Education degree students, in order to explore the effectiveness of this pedagogical approach in other EMI contexts. As Macaro et al. (2017, p. 36) put it, "there are also insufficient studies demonstrating, through the classroom discourse, the kind of practice which may lead to beneficial outcomes" for language and content learning in EMI. In particular, they claim that the "lack of research evidence on the impact of EMI on improving students' English proficiency requires more focused and clearly conceptualized investigation" (Macaro et al., 2017, p. 69).

Despite these limitations, the authors of this study believe that its analytical framework and findings can contribute to shed light on the field of second and foreign language development in EMI contexts. In practical terms, it is hoped that valuable ways have been suggested to help practitioners to support students' understanding and processing of academic content in their collaborative construction of knowledge.

APPENDIX A. EFE I TASK 1 THE ORIGAMI PROJECT

Task 1 The origami project (EFE I-year 1-A2-B1 students, 2020-2021)	
Title and instructions	Origami Project: Collaborative writing In groups write a story based on one of the 17 goals for sustainable development (United Nations) using origami characters and an ICT tool to create e-books. The project should be developed in the Google Doc available on Moodle for each group and include: a title, a description of the characters and their photos, the script of the story, a moral, the goal for sustainable development, the link to the e-book and the rubric. The steps of the project are described in the Ppt available on Moodle.
Sources	Glossaries of materials, formal aspects of stories, onomatopoeias. Story telling bibliography. Website to create the origami characters. Website to choose one goal for sustainable development. Website to create e-books.
Assessment criteria (as described in the rubrics)	**Story writing (collaborative):** -The main characters are named and clearly described in text as well as pictures. - Many descriptive resources are used to tell when and where the story took place. - Title is creative, sparks interest and is related to the story and topic. - Students devote a lot of time and effort to the writing process (prewriting, drafting, reviewing, and editing). - The story is very well organized. One idea or scene follows another in a logical sequence with clear transitions. - There are no spelling or punctuation errors in the final draft. **Collaborative work skills:** - A definite leader who contributes a lot of effort. - Group does not adjust deadlines or work responsibilities because of this person's procrastination. - Brings needed materials to class and is always ready to work. - Almost always listens to, shares with, and supports the efforts of others. Tries to keep people working well together. - Always speaks in English with the teacher and almost always with the rest of the group members.

APPENDIX B. EFE I TASK 2 HIJCKING SAINT VALENTINE'S DAY

Task 2 Saint Valentine (EFE I-year 1-A2-B1 students, 2017-2018)	
Title and instructions	**HIJACKING SAINT VALENTINE S DAY: LOVE WITH CAPITAL LETTERS** General task description -Each class (groups A2 to C2) prepares a skit, a poem, a song… to celebrate friendship and presents it on the day of. **A2-B1 Group task description** 1. Prepare a questionnaire to check understanding about this festival. 2. Apply the questionnaire to your classmates and reflect the results in a graph. 3. Make an oral presentation with the results on Saint Valentine's Day!
Sources	Online sources to find out information and facts about the festival. Saint Valentines' Day materials to model the creation of the questionnaire (online games, questionnaires, lesson plans, etc.). Pdf with the description of different types of graphs, their formal aspects and how to create them.
Assessment criteria	**General task (Groups A2 to C2)** - Students show understanding of the Festival and can prepare a skit, a poem, a song… to celebrate friendship and present it on the day of. - Students can integrate language skills and do an oral presentation about their project. - Students' spelling, grammar and syntactic correctness is appropriate to their language proficiency of English according to their level. **A2-B1 Group task (as described in the rubric)** - The graphs portraits the information collected from the questions in the best possible way. - The description of the graph is complete, accurate and reflects the information included in the graph. - Stands up straight, looks relaxed and confident. Establishes eye contact with everyone in the room during the presentation. - The body language reflects an assertive communicative style and makes use of movements and gestures to reinforce the message of the oral discourse.

APPENDIX C. CLIL TASK 3 DEFINING CLIL AND TASK 4 THE BENEFITS OF CLIL

Module 1 Understanding bilingual education and CLIL	
(CLIL, year 4-team teaching-mixed-language ability students, 2019-2021)	
Title and instructions	**Module 1 Session 1 Jigsaw Reading Task** *Defining bilingual education and CLIL* Module I is taught following a task-based approach. Please refer to this document for the task descriptions, and publish your work underneath. This record complements the PowerPoint of the module, which will be published on Moodle. You will be assigned one of the tasks below. Please write your names
Task 3	**Tony Buzan Mind-map: Defining CLIL**
Sources	TKT Unit 1 p. 5 / Dale & Tanner (2012, p.3) + two videos: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ZM0zL0o4ykI https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=lB96NiuGf9E How to do a mind map: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MlabrWv25qQ
Assessment criteria	- The information is effectively grouped into categories (branches) - The most important ideas are selected, with an adequate level of detail - The mind-map is visually attractive
Task 4	**Creative product: Benefits of CLIL** Transform the information into a creative product that memorable for your peers. You may record a video, sing a song, write a poem or a rhyme...
Sources	TKT Unit 1 p. 6 / Dale & Tanner (2012, p.11)
Assessment criteria	- The information is effectively grouped into categories (branches) - Important ideas are selected -The product is engaging and memorable for your audience

APPENDIX D. TASK 1 EBOOKS

https://www.storyjumper.com/book/read/101172016/606eb87cbe86b
https://www.storyjumper.com/book/read/101170236/606ecdd7c9465
https://www.storyjumper.com/book/read/101171586/606eba6605e9c
https://www.storyjumper.com/book/read/101840716/606eb7ac3615d

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Effects of Rime-Based Analogy Instruction on English Word Recognition Ability of Ethiopian Children

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*Abstrac***t—Most children in Ethiopia, especially from economically disadvantaged families, often have no exposure to English before school and learn English in government-sponsored public schools with insufficient resources, semi-qualified or unqualified non-native teachers with poor teaching methods. Assessment results have shown that Ethiopian children's reading performance is below the standards set for each grade level and that they are poorly prepared for the next level of education. The present study aimed to determine whether a systematic and explicit rime-based analogy-phonics intervention could improve English word recognition ability in Ethiopian children. The participants were 3rd grade children (N=67) at two public primary schools in Hawassa, Ethiopia. A randomized pretest-intervention-posttest-control group research design was used, with half the children (N=33) randomly assigned to the experimental group and the other half (N=34) to the control group. The intervention was conducted for 40 minutes a day, 3 days a week for 12 weeks. Pre and posttests were used to measure the word recognition ability of the children and a t-test was employed to analyze the results. After controlling for the initial variables, posttest results showed that systematic and explicit rime-based analogy-phonics instruction led to significant improvements in children's word recognition ability. The study further indicated that such instruction could also be considered as a useful intervention tool to improve English reading performance of Ethiopian primary school children and contributed to the little-known literature on the subject.**

Index Terms—**EF word recognition, explicit rime-based instruction, analogy phonics intervention**

I. INTRODUCTION

Word recognition is an ability to quickly and correctly decode printed words in the process of accessing meaning, and is therefore one of the basic skills required for effective comprehension (Choi & Zhang, 2021). According to Han (2015), "Researchers seem to agree that comprehension is not possible without accurate and rapid word recognition" (p. 58). When children read words accurately and fluently, they minimize the cognitive load associated with their reading process, thereby freeing up resources for understanding (Ehri, 2005; Share, 2004).

Word recognition is an area of discussion and debate, and there is much theoretical and empirical knowledge about how to recognize a word. Most of the debate has been between proponents of the whole-word recognition approach and those who support the part-to-whole word recognition approach. According to whole-word philosophy, a word can be recognized as a unit by memorizing its entire orthographic pattern (De Graaff et al., 2009; Holmes, 2009). The second approach assumes that a word can be recognized by identifying its functional components or sound units (i.e., phonemes, rime and syllable) and sequentially blending them into a word (Walton et al., 2001; Walton & Walton, 2002). Proponents of the whole-word approach believe that children can learn phonic elements implicitly in the words or texts they read. While proponents of part-to-whole approach argue that children should be exposed to instructions that explicitly and systematically teach them phonic elements such as letters- sounds association and ways of manipulating the sounds to form words (Christensen & Bowey, 2005; Connelly et al., 2001).

Teaching methods within the explicit phonics approach vary in the extent to which letter-sound combinations are used. There are two phonics methods identified by the National Reading Panel in this regard, namely Synthetic Phonics, which teaches word recognition focusing on small linguistic units, phonemes; and Analogy Phonics, which emphasizes the decoding of words on the basis of larger linguistic units within a word (i.e., rimes) (The National Reading Panel, NRP, 2000).

Analogy phonics is often referred to as rime-based or onset-rime instruction. An onset is the initial consonant or consonants that precede the vowel in a syllable. A rime is a sound unit found within a syllable and formed with a vowel

followed by a consonant(s) (White, 2005). Analogy phonics requires reading words by identifying word parts (i.e., rimes) and replacing word parts of known words with unfamiliar ones (Hines, 2009; Goswami, 1993; Savage et al., 2003). Unlike rhymes, which sound similar but do not necessarily look the same, rimes are consistent both orthographically (visually) and phonologically (aurally) (Hines, 2009).

According to Zigeler and Goswami (2005); Gaskins (2004) knowledge of rime units can be helpful for both novice and poor readers for the following reasons. First, rime makes English spelling consistent since it greatly minimizes the inconsistency of the associations of vowel letters with sounds. This argument is supported by evidence from analysis of English words. For example Stanbach (1992), analyzed the rime patterns of 17,602 words from the Carroll's et al. (1971), word list and found that all words can be grouped under 824 rime units. In their study of whether using rimes as a reading strategy facilitates the development of basic reading skills for beginning readers, Wylie and Durrell (1970) selected and analyzed 286 rimes from early grade texts and found that 272 of these rimes contain vowels with the same pronunciation. In addition, the authors reported that knowing just 37 of these dependable rimes is enough for beginning readers to read up to 500 of the most common words.

Rimes are simpler and more accessible sound units compared to phonemes or syllables. It is relatively easier to segment word parts into onset and rime than to break them down into their phonemic components, and decoding the rime at the beginning reduces the amount of processing required to blend individual sounds into words (Booth & Perfetti, 2002; Goswami & Mead, 1992; Savage & Carless, 2004; Walton et al., 2001).

Different educators and researchers assessed the effectiveness of rime-based analogy- phonics instruction in acquiring and developing basic reading skills, including word recognition ability (see Evens, 2013; Hines, 2009; Walton et al., 2001; White, 2005). However, to our knowledge, no study has been carried out in Ethiopia on this, and most of the empirical evidence also comes from situations where study participants spoke English as their first language. Furthermore, most intervention studies have been conducted in children with dyslexia, where the implementers were either the researchers themselves or reading specialists. Therefore, the main purpose of this study was to implement and evaluate the effectiveness of explicit and systematic rime-based analogy phonics instruction on the word recognition ability of EFL primary school children and the degree of applicability of such instruction by the regular classroom teacher in the normal school environment with normally developing students.

II. BACKGROUND OF THE RESEARCH CONTEXT

The 1994 Ethiopian Education and Training Policy, which emerged from the 1991 regime change, proposed expanding access to basic education for citizens and using the nationality languages as the language of instruction in primary school, with English being taught as a school subject from the first grade and its use as a language of instruction in secondary and higher education (MoE- ETP, 1994). Over the past 20 years, the government has implemented a series of five-year education sector development plans that uphold ET policy. As a result, Ethiopia is now seeing a remarkable improvement in primary school enrollment and is on track to achieve the goal of universal primary education (MoE, 2017). However, Ethiopian children, especially children from low socio-economic backgrounds and children from uneducated parents, face numerous problems in primary education. Today these children learn in substandard schools with unqualified and semi-qualified teachers using poor teaching methods (Kim et al., 2021; Beilewe, 2016; Hugh, 2007; Fekede & Hailu, 2018; MoE- ESDP, I-IV 2003-2015). Because of these and other related factors, several assessments have reported that Ethiopian children's reading performance falls below the standards set by the Ministry of Education for each grade level and they are poorly prepared for the next level of education where English is used as the language of instruction (USAID-AIR, 2012, 2016; NOE, 2000, 2004, 2008, 2016).

One nationwide study that revealed the poor reading performances of children in Ethiopia is the American Institute for Research's (AIR), National Early Grade Reading Assessment (EGRA). The result of the assessment disclosed that almost two-thirds of the children examined were failed to exhibit the necessary knowledge and skills for the minimum learning competencies specified in the curriculum for each grade level. The result further revealed that a significant number of 2nd and 3rd graders could not read a single word of English (USAID-AIR, 2012, 2016).

Scholars like Akamatsu (2005): Han (2015); Koda (2007); Odo (2021); Jazmin (2021), argue that the type of instruction children receive, their EF experiences, input and exposure they have, and the orthographic nature and depth of their mother tongue are among the factors affecting the effectiveness of word recognition in second or foreign language. Therefore, scholars recommend that effective ESL/EFL literacy instruction in the early grades should carefully consider these factors.

Recent research findings (see Almaz, 2015; Belilew, 2016), have indicated that most teachers in Ethiopia, particularly in public schools; tend to teach basic reading skills through memorization. They often begin by teaching the names of the letters rather than teaching the sound each letter represents. Teachers then encourage children to learn common words or phrases as a whole, store the words in their memories, and recognize them by sight. The teachers usually point to the words written on the board, which are then sung by the children. This method prevents children from reading unfamiliar words so they can only read words they are familiar with. In addition, the method can help children who benefit from nurturing conditions and support systems, including home reading, role models and encouragement from others, and rich oral and written communication experiences (Ehri, 2005; Ryder et al., 2007).

However, according to Fekede and Hailu (2018); Hugh et al. (2007), most children in Ethiopia, especially those studying in public schools, often have no contact with English before school since their parents most likely cannot speak, read and write English and they live in an environment where they have limited access to books and other written materials.

Ethiopian languages use two types of orthographic systems. Languages from the Semitic family (e.g. Amharic, Tigrigna, Hareri) use the Ge'ez alphabet, an alpha-syllabic script in which a single symbol called *fidel* regularly represents a syllable (CV unit). On the other hand, most languages of the Cushitic (e.g. Affann Oromo, Sidamuu Affoo) and Omotic (e.g. Woalitatoo, Kefii Noonoo) families use the phoneme-based Latin script (Yri, 2004; Piper & Van, 2016). In most Ethiopian languages, a letter/fiddle consistently corresponds to a specific sound in phoneme-based Latin scripts and to a syllable (CV unit) in the alpha-syllabic Ge'ez script. Because of this, Ethiopian children can read new words in their L1 using the word's phonological information (Piper & Van, 2016). But that is not the case in English. English has a deep spelling system where the correspondence between written and spoken units is not always consistent. To read a new English word, children rely more on the word's orthographic information than on its phonological information. This is because; the actual pronunciation of a particular word cannot simply be guessed from its spelling. Knowledge of letter names or/and letter-sound correspondences (i.e., GPC) in English alone provides only part of the key to decoding new words, and therefore children need more than just phoneme-level knowledge to read new words in English (Ellis et al., 2004; Ziegler & Goswami, 2005; Goswami, 1998; Goswami & Bryant, 1990).

The researchers of the present study therefore argue that Ethiopian EFL children should be explicitly exposed to instruction tailored to help them transfer their L1 word recognition skills and strategies to more easily decode new words in English, given literacy skills can be transferred between the first and second language (Snyder et al., 2017). One strategy might be to explicitly and systematically teach children to decode new words by making analogies with other words they already know based on common orthographic and phonological units (i.e., rimes) of known and new words.

Objectives of the Study

The main purpose of this study was to implement and investigate the effects of explicit and systematic rime-based analogy phonics instruction on English word recognition ability (i.e., word reading accuracy and fluency) of primary school children in Ethiopia. More specifically, the study considered the following specific objectives. It aimed to:

1. evaluate the effects of explicit and systematic rime based analogy phonics instruction on Ethiopian children's accuracy and fluency of reading instructed words.
2. assess the effects of explicit and systematic rime based analogy phonics instruction on Ethiopian children's accuracy and fluency of reading pseudowords from learned rime patterns.
3. examine the effects of explicit and systematic rime based analogy phonics instruction on Ethiopian children's accuracy and fluency of reading novel (non-instructed) words from learned rime pattern.

III. MATERIALS AND METHODS

A. Research Design

This study was an experimental study. The participating children were assigned to the experimental and control groups randomly. The experimental group was taught word study lessons through the rime-based analogy-phonics method, while the control group's word study lessons were conducted through the conventional method. The outcome of interest was measured twice, once before the intervention - pretest and once after the intervention - posttest.

B. Research Settings

The study was conducted at two public primary schools, Nigist Fura and Tabor Primary Schools in Hawassa, Ethiopia. The researchers chose this site because it is the region where the highest number of non-word readers (68%) was found in the 2010 National EGRA (Piper, 2010). The participating schools are typical Ethiopian public primary schools, where the children's mother tongue is used as the language of instruction and English is taught as a school subject from the first grade. Children in these schools have 5 English lessons per week of 40 minutes each with non-native English teachers.

C. Participants and Sampling Technique

The target populations of the study were 3rd grade children studying in the two public primary schools in the second semester of 2021 school year. The 3rd grade was deliberately chosen as the official word study lesson, starting with this grade in Ethiopia. All of the children in this study spoke their native language (i.e., Amharic or Sidaamu Afoo) at home. The parents of these children are mostly lower or lower-middle-class citizens who would not communicate with their children in English at home. In general, children were only exposed to English at school in English classes. There were 70 students, 44 boys and 26 girls, who took the pretest and started the intervention and only 42 boys and 25 girls completed the intervention, and their mean age was 10 years.

Due to COVID-19 protocols, each public school was allowed a maximum of 35 students per class. The researchers used this number as a benchmark to determine the sample size and set it at 70. A mixed sampling design was used to select participating schools and students. First, the participating schools were carefully selected to ensure that the

schools were comparable in terms of students' socio-economic background, school resources, teaching methods, and English teachers' qualifications and experience. In order to ensure this, data on the schools were first collected from the city administration's education department and later confirmed by observations and interviews with school heads. Finally, based on the data, two schools were selected, Nigist Fura and Tabor primary schools. These schools were comparable in terms of resources and teachers' profiles, and consisted of large numbers of children from families with low socioeconomic backgrounds.

Sample children were selected from each participating school using probability sampling techniques. Therefore, two sections of the 3rd grade were chosen at random; one from each school consisted of 35 children. In order to compare the word recognition ability of the children, a pretest was carried out before the intervention. An independent sample t-test was then calculated and the result confirmed that there were no statistically significant differences in English word recognition ability of the children in the two schools. Finally, the children were randomly assigned into experimental and control groups.

D. Intervention Lessons

The children in the control group were taught the actual word study lessons from the students' existing textbook, while the lessons for the experimental group were designed based on 200 monosyllabic word families containing 37 common rime units compiled by Wylie and Durrell (1970); *ack, ake, all, ale, an, ame, ain, ank, ap, ash, at, ate, aw, ay, eat, ell, est, ice, ick, ight, ill, ide, in, ine, ing, ip, ink, it, ock, op, oke, ore, ot, uck, ug, unk and ump*. The words were selected from the existing Grade 3 English textbooks. The words were frequency words with CVC, CCVC, CVCC, and CCVCC structures (e.g., *cat, clap, pink, and shock*). The three principles suggested by White (2005), for designing an effective analogy-based phonics lessons were adapted and used to design the lessons. The principles are:

> 1. Either prior to or in together with analogy teaching, there should be classroom activities aimed at teaching rhyme, initial phoneme identity and letter sound knowledge, particularly initial consonants, digraphs and blends.
> 2. Instructional activities should ensure that basic words, which represent common spelling patterns, are well learned or overlearned. It can also be helpful to post the base words in a prominent place in the classroom (e.g., on a "word wall").
> 3. Children need to see multiple examples of words with the same spelling pattern in a format that encourages them to notice all the letters in each word (p. 26).

Based on these principles, a total of 36 lessons of 40 minutes each were prepared and used to teach the experimental group children. Some activities were also adapted from Gaskins (1989), Benchmark Word Identification Program and used in the intervention. 9 of the lessons were prerequisite lessons aimed at teaching letter-sound correspondences, the way how to blend individual phonemes to read words, word-initial consonants including blends and diagraphs, and rhyming and alliteration of words. The remaining 27 lessons were part of the main intervention lessons. The goal of these lessons was to help the children thoroughly learn the orthographic and phonological features of the rimes and keywords included in each lesson and use them as a basis to read new words by analogy. The rime units and keywords were placed on the word wall as they were introduced, fully analyzed and practiced in each session. The lessons were compiled into a manual and provided to the experimental group teacher to help her use it as a teacher's guide to conduct each lesson effectively. The manual contained detailed lesson plans prepared for each lesson, rime units and keywords, lesson objectives, a list of teaching aids, activity descriptions with time breakdown, and language and expressions used by the teacher.

E. Data Gathering Tools

Because there was no standard test in Ethiopia that aimed to measure children's EFL word recognition ability, three tests developed by the researchers were used to assess the children's fluency and accuracy in reading the given words both before and after the intervention program. In this study, word recognition refers to children's ability to read printed words accurately and fluently. Therefore, all tests were time tests and required the children to correctly read the given words within one minute. The reliability of the tests was checked by a test-retest reliability check before they were used to collect prospective data. The types and nature of each test are described below.

(a). Instructed Words Reading Test

The main purpose of this test was to measure children's ability to visually decode learned words presented in isolation. From the 200 keywords, 40 monosyllabic words with CVC, CCVC, CVCC and CCVCC structures were selected and used for this purpose.

(b). Pseudowords Reading Test

This test was designed to measure children's ability to phonologically decode isolated potential words without contextual clues. The words could only be read using phonemic information, knowledge of letter-sound and/or rime-sound correspondences. These words were 40 monosyllabic nonsense words with CVC, CCVC, CVCC, and CCVCC structures constructed using learned rime units and common English spelling patterns.

(c). Non-Instructed (Novel) Words Reading Test

This test provided a measure of children's ability to read isolated, novel words by analogy. The children were tested with words analogous to the keywords practiced during the intervention. The test contained 40 monosyllabic regular words with CVC, CCVC, CVCC and CCVCC structures.

F. Procedures of the Experiment

There were two participating teachers, one for the experimental group and the other for the control group, both of whom had English diplomas and were perusing their B.Ed. degrees in the summer in-service program. The average teaching experience of teachers in the experimental and control groups was 12 and 13 years, respectively. The experimental group children taught word study lessons through language-enriched explicit and systematic rime-based analogy-phonics method.

The intervention lasted 12 weeks, 40 minutes long, 3 days a week (Monday to Wednesday), with a total teaching time of 24 hours. The intervention was conducted by the Grade 3 classroom English teacher who was trained by the researcher prior to the intervention. The teacher was encouraged to conduct the training mainly in English and to use the children's native languages when the children could not understand the instructions and to explain why, how and when to use the strategies. During the intervention training, the researcher met with the teacher twice a week to review the children's progress, clarify learning outcomes, and collect the teacher's comments on the program.

Instruction was conducted using a competency-based approach. The teacher first demonstrates the activity, then conducts activities with the children, and finally lets the children do the activities themselves. Various multi-sensory activities (e.g. games, tongue twisters, songs) were used to model and practice the analogy strategy. At the beginning of each session, goals were set and rimes and keywords from the previous session were analyzed orally. Rimes and keywords of the session were introduced, their pronunciation modeled, and the words onset, rime, and vowel(s) identified to describe the word parts. Also, rhyming words with the keywords were generated and listed, keywords were selected and analyzed with a word analysis template, and spelling of words was practiced with the Elkonin box.

G. Reliability and Validity

The tests, training and teaching materials were made available to the research project supervisors, an educational psychologist, a primary school English teacher and two experienced EFL teachers from the university. They were informed about the purpose of the study and received background information about the study participants. All expert comments have been duly noted and taken into account to improve the tools and materials prior to conducting the study.

Inter-rater reliability was performed to check the consistency of assessors' ratings (N = 2). The data for checking the inter-rater reliability were generated during the assessors' training. First, the assessors were asked to observe and rate the responses of a colleague the researcher was testing. The researcher's and assessors' score sheets were then compared to see how closely they agreed in their assessment of the same observation. There were slight discrepancies among assessments, particularly on Assessor-1. Accordingly, discussions were held and appropriate feedback was given as to how the assessors' rating performance could be improved. Eventually, both assessors received new score sheets and were invited to individually score the researcher's responses while being tested by a peer. The scoring results were then used to calculate the agreement of the scores given by each assessor. The researcher then used Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient to examine the extent to which the assessors' ratings correlate on the same observation and found a very strong correlation between the ratings (r=0.98).

H. Fidelity to the Intervention Program

Treatment adherence was assessed by observing randomly chosen sessions and employing an independent rater observing the sessions with the researcher. A total of 14 sessions were observed. Of these, 7 sessions were observed with an independent rater. Researchers-developed rubrics were used to monitor and assess sessions. Overall adherence to treatment averaged 92%, ranging from 85% to 98%.

I. Methods of Data Analysis

Scores for each test were calculated as the number of words the child read correctly per minute. The variables were: total number of words read, number of wrong words, time remaining on the stopwatch. These data points were used to determine the total number of correctly read words per minute. CWPM = (Total Words Read – Total Wrong Words) / [(60 Time Remaining) / 60]. The test results were calculated by the researcher. The maximum score in each test was 40.

The results obtained were analyzed with the SPSS software package using parametric measurements. First, an independent-sample t-test was performed to examine whether there were statistically significant differences between the experimental and control groups both before and after the intervention on each of the study's specific objectives. Then the paired-sample t-test was used to measure the effects of the intervention (changes from pretest to posttest) on both the experimental and control groups. The effect size of the intervention was also calculated for all measurements using Cohen's d with pooled standard deviation. The criterion defined by Cohen (1988), $d \geq 0.2$ is a small effect, $d \geq 0.5$ is a medium effect and $d \geq 0.8$ is a large effect, was used to interpret the magnitude of the effect.

J. Ethical Issues

Informed consent to conduct this study was obtained from the city administration education department, and informed consent to participate was obtained from teachers, children, and their parents or guardians. On the day of the test, the children were informed about the purpose, type and procedure of the tests. The researcher, together with the school principal, confirmed to the children that the result of the test will not affect their school evaluation and will only be used confidentially for research purposes. They were also informed that if they did not want to take the test they had the absolute right not to take it and could even interrupt during the test. Finally, each child was given a personal identification code and asked to memorize this code and provide the assessor with their code upon request. All tests were conducted twice in one-to-one basis with instructions in Amharic or Sidamuu Affoo, the children's spoken language. Both the pre- and posttests were carried out in two separate classrooms (one for each assessor) by university English instructors (N=2) who received hands-on training from the researcher in administering the tests.

All items in the tests were administered orally, and the children did not see the copy of the score sheet for the data. A sample item was given before each test to ensure the child understood what was expected of her/him. The child was then given an A4 sheet of paper (i.e., children's stimuli sheet) with words arranged five in a row and asked to read the words out loud in order as best s/he could. The assessor then started the stopwatch, marked incorrect words with a slash (/), placed a parenthesis (]) after the last word read, and noted the time remaining on the stopwatch. Each test was stopped after one minute and also before one minute if the child could not read a single word in the first row of the stimuli sheet. Finally, score sheets were collected after each test for further statistical analysis.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

A. Comparison of Children's Word Recognition Ability

This study followed a pretest-intervention-posttest-control group research design, measuring children's word recognition ability (i.e., word reading accuracy and fluency) before and after the intervention. First, sample children from the two schools were pretested before the start of the intervention to measure their word recognition ability and also to assess their comparability. The result of the independent-sample t-test showed that there was no statistically significant difference ($p > 0.05$) between the children in the two schools in terms of English word recognition ability. After the children in the experimental group were taught word study lessons through a systematic and explicit rime-based analogy method for 12 consecutive weeks, both groups received a posttest to examine whether there was a significant difference in their word recognition ability. An independent-sample t-test was again used to compare the groups' posttest results, and Cohen's d was calculated to determine the effect size of the intervention. The mean and standard deviation of the posttest results of the groups with their comparison values are given below.

TABLE 1
RESULTS OF THE INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST (POST-TEST)

Tests	Experimental Group N=33		Control Group N=34		t	Df	Sig.(2- tailed)
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
Instructed words reading	27.66	11.48	13.47	7.27	6.02	65	.000
Pseudowords reading	24.03	10.09	13.17	6.67	5.17	65	.000
Novel words reading	25.84	10.65	13.35	6.87	5.68	65	.000

As shown in Table 1 above, the mean values for the experimental group for all tests at the posttest were higher than those for the control group. The results of the independent-sample t-test showed that this difference was statistically significant at $p<0.05$, indicating that the experimental group made greater progress than the control group in reading instructed words $t(65)= 6.02$, $p=0.000$, pseudowords $t(65)=5.17$, $p=0.000$ and reading novel words, $t(65)=5.68$, $p=0.000$. Effect sizes were large for all tests that favored the experimental group; reading instructed words (1.47), reading pseudowords (1.33), and reading new words (1.43).

B. Within Group Comparisons of Improvement

The paired-sample t-test was used to compare the effect of the intervention in each group (experiment and control) and the results are presented in the tables below.

TABLE 2
RESULTS OF THE PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Tests	Pre-test		Post-test		t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
Instructed words reading	14.36	9.91	27.66	11.48	-13.78	32	.000
Pseudowords reading	12.54	6.73	24.03	10.09	-15.03	32	.000
Novel words reading	13.66	8.61	25.84	10.65	-16.36	32	.000

According to the result in Table 2, there was a significant difference in all tests, with the experimental group showing a significant improvement from pre- to posttest at $p < 0.05$, $t(32) = -13.79$, $p=0.000$ for reading instructed words, $t(32)=-15.03$, $p=0.000$ for reading pseudowords and $t(32)=-16.36$, $p=0.000$ for reading novel words, respectively.

TABLE 3
RESULTS OF THE PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE CONTROL GROUP

Tests	Pre-test		Post-test		t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
Instructed words reading	13.05	7.30	13.47	7.27	-1.60	33	.119
Pseudowords reading	13.11	6.54	13.17	6.67	-.57	33	.571
Novel words reading	13.20	7.05	13.35	6.86	-1.30	32	.201

The result in Table 3 indicates that the change in the control group was not statistically significant for all tests at p>0.05 level, t (33) =-1.60, p=0.11 for reading of instructed words, t (33) = -0.57, p = 0.57 for reading pseudowords and t (33) = -1.30, p = 0.20 for reading new words, implying that the experimental group showed significantly higher scores and faster progress than the control group on all word recognition measurements.

C. Discussion

This study examined the efficacy of a systematic and explicit rime-based analogy intervention training embedded in word study lessons; conducted by a class room teacher on English word recognition ability in Ethiopian primary school children. The results of the intervention study produced three main findings.

First, after the word recognition ability of the children was controlled at the start of the intervention, the posttest result confirmed that the experimental group showed the greatest improvement in word recognition ability (i.e., word reading accuracy and fluency). The differences between the groups were significant and the effect size of the gains for the experimental group was large, leading us to conclude that there was an effect of the intervention on the experimental group's performance in reading instructed words, pseudowords, and novel words from learned rime patterns. It should be understood that in the control group, very little emphasis was placed on reading words, either by associating graphemes with individual phonemes and sequentially blending these phonemes into words (i.e., phonological decoding), or reading words by analyzing parts of the words (i.e., rimes) and replacing parts of known words with unfamiliar ones (i.e., reading by analogy). However, the emphasis was more on learning through the whole-word method, by copying and memorizing the entire orthographic patterns of the words. This suggests that the existing primary school reading instruction in Ethiopia, with its emphasis on exposing children to memorizing words and learning letter names, may not allow them to develop sufficient English word recognition ability, which is one of the basic skills required for the development of reading comprehension, since word reading ability and reading comprehension are closely related (Choi & Zhang, 2021). This is likely to result in children being ill-prepared for the next level of education, where they must use English as the language of instruction for learning other school subjects. Poor reading ability in the lower grades may also lead the children to underachievement, early dropout, and repetition in later grades (Hines, 2009; Ouellette & Beers, 2010).

Odo (2021); Jazmin (2021), argue that the type of instruction EFL children receive affects the speed and burden with which they acquire and develop English word recognition ability. Research findings have shown that (see Huo & Wang, 2017; Holtan, 2021; EdD & Savage, 2019; Burns, 2018; Irujo, 2007; Ehri, 2005; August et al., 2014; Dixon et al., 2011) phoneme-based methods are more effective than the whole-word method in developing children's EFL reading skills, including word recognition ability. Ehri (2005) further points out that phonics method shorten the time it takes children to become complete alphabetic readers. In the alphabetic phase, reading progress and associations in memory become morphographic (sequences of letters are quickly recognized as a unit). At this point, readers reach an automatism where the pronunciation of printed words can be instantly recalled with minimal decoding effort. Children who use the whole-word method rely more on context or visual cues when trying to recognize unfamiliar words.

Second, word study lessons conducted through a short, language-enriched and systematic analogy-phonics method with multi-sensory activities by the classroom teacher can be considered as a useful intervention for the development of English word recognition skills in EFL children in Ethiopia. Although the participants in this study underwent intervention for a relatively short period of time, children in the experimental group showed significant improvement in recognizing learned words by sight, in phonological decoding of pseudowords, and in reading new or uninstructed words by analogy. In contrast, the children in the control group experienced very little gain in recognition of learned words and almost none in decoding pseudowords and new words. It should be noted that the improvement was the result of the intervention, which lasted only 3 days a week for 12 weeks. The finding suggests that a systematic and explicit rime-based analogy-phonics intervention can also be used as a useful early reading intervention tool to improve the poor English reading achievements of Ethiopian primary school children.

Researchers have recommended that EFL children should be explicitly and systematically taught letter-sound and pattern (rime) sound correspondences and also how to apply this knowledge to read new words (Park & Jeong, 2005; Ng & Yiakoumetti, 2010; Zuriyatiaslina, et al., 2018). Further, in their L1 research findings (which could also be generalized to L2 settings) White (2005); Conrad and Levy (2011); Schnhal et al. (2012); Ouellette and Snchal (2008); Evans (2013), concluded that explicit and systematic rime-based instruction helps children to decode unfamiliar words using the phonemic and orthographic information of the word. Systematic instruction gives children the knowledge,

skills, and strategies needed to decode new words, and strategic instruction shows how the children can use these knowledge, skills, and strategies to independently decode unfamiliar words whenever they encounter them.

Third, an important implication of the present study is that rime-based analogy-phonics instruction can improve English word recognition ability in non-native children with transparent L1 orthographic backgrounds. Although there is a lack of research on this, the result of this study is consistent with the results of some other studies, such as Ng and Yiakoumetti (2010); Zuriyatiaslina et al. (2018). For example, Ng and Yiakoumetti found in their experiments that a systematic and explicit rime-based analogy-phonics intervention program resulted in significant improvements in word recognition ability of Hong Kong Chinese-speaking children. Similarly, Zuriyatiaslina et al. (2018) investigated whether or not the onset- rime instruction improves phoneme blending and word reading ability in Malaysian EFL learners and concluded that the use of the onset -rime instruction significantly improved students' ability to read new words.

V. CONCLUSIONS

The current intervention study provides evidence of the effectiveness of systematic and explicit rime-based analogy-phonics instruction on EFL children's word recognition ability and opens the door to such instruction as a potential intervention in Ethiopia, where English is becoming increasingly important but much support is lacking, to learn the language. We hope that future studies with a larger sample size, longer intervention periods, standard measures, and more effective interventions will provide a solid generalization of the effectiveness of systematic and explicit analogy-phonics instruction for the development of English word recognition ability in non-native children with a transparent L1 orthographic background who lack social and environmental support and exposure to English.

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History, Literary Re-Historicization and the Aftermath of War in Chinua Achebe's *There Was a Country* and Chimamanda Ngozi Adichie's *Half of a Yellow Sun*

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Abstract—**This article examines how Chinua Achebe's memoir *There Was a Country* and Chimamanda Ngozi Adichie's novel *Half of a Yellow Sun,* respectively, narrates and re-historicizes the Biafran War (1967-1970). More specifically, this article highlights the different ways in which each author questions the Nigerian Federal Government's countenancing or active supports of ethnic rivalry and marginalization in relation to the Eastern part of the country which is the major cause of the war as stipulated by both authors. While Achebe's book, his final one, is a memoir and Adichie's is a novel, their views on this and other aspects of the war have much in common, and this connection is only one of the many between the two Igbo-born authors. The present discussion also establishes the connection between Achebe's memoir on the Biafra war and Adichie's literary re-historizing of the Nigerian nation and the Biafra War. Paramount in both Achebe's and Adichie's treatment of this war is the foregrounding and condemnation of the human brutality that led and defined the war. This paper posits that war is not necessary for any form of correction or peace and should not be used as a measure to effect changes in any society. It rather causes psychological trauma for those involved, and those who witnessed it are left with horrifying reminiscences which are derived from trauma. The paper concludes that these can be avoided and war should be discouraged at all cost.**

Index Terms—**national history, rehistoricisation, postcolonial, West African story-telling, comparative literary study**

I. INTRODUCTION

Chinua Achebe wrote extensively on different subjects which expose the effect of colonial rule and the failure of the nationalist and postcolonial leaders to resolve the issue of ethnic conflict. His first novel *Things Fall Apart* (1958) is the most widely read novel in modern African literature. His other novels include *No Longer at Ease* (1960), *Arrow of God* (1964), *A Man of the People* (1966), *Anthills of the Savannah* (1987) and his last memoir, *There was a Country: A Personal History of Biafra* (2012) . Achebe wrote his novels in English and defended the use of English in African literature, despite the language being rejected for African literary purposes in some quarters as a "language of colonizers", His novels concentrate mostly on the rich cultures/traditions of Igbo's, the impact of Christian religion, as well as the problems between Western and traditional African cultures during and after the colonial era. He also makes use of folk stories, proverbs, and oratory in most of his works.

Chimamanda Ngozi Adichie is an award winning writer whose literary outputs has gained significant prominence all over the world. "Adichie is considered a disaporic writer as well as a "third generation" West African Writer and focuses her attention on African women and their challenges, resilience and wisdom; their love for the family, respect for their traditions and husbands and how some of them were able to resist forms of violence and subjugation. Adichie's female characters generally are complex and versatile" (Ngwaba, 2022).

Achebe's *There Was a Country* is his personal experience of the Biafra war which took place between 1967-1970. The novel records the events that led to the Biafra war, the hardship and killing of innocent people, the difficulties encountered by the Biafrans, and the aftermaths of the war. Chinua Achebe's memoir, no doubt are historically situated as may be seen in this memoir. Thomas Lynn observes that, "Achebe's own life merits examination as part of an analysis of language and politics in his narratives because he personally navigated competing, politically volatile structures of power. He demonstrated along the way a combination of respect and defiance toward tradition and authority that his fiction dramatizes" (Lynn, 2017, p.16).

The memoir presents Ojukwu as the leader of the Biafran people and how he came up with the idea of fighting a war in order to liberate the Igbo's. Most people criticized Ojukwu for coming up with such an idea. Achebe affirms that, "David Hunt wrote a memo to London describing Ojukwu as an over-ambitious man who had engineered the secession and manipulated his people into supporting him". Many people agree with Hunt's view, but Achebe's view differs,

> I believe that following the pogroms, or rather, the ethnic cleansing in the North that occurred over the four
> months starting in May 1966, which was compounded by the involvement, even connivance, of the federal

> government … secession from Nigeria and the war that followed became an inevitability.' The Igbo's were blamed for everything gone wrong in Nigeria, especially the coup, … But the most vital feeling Biafrans had at that time was that they were finally in a safe place … at home (Achebe, 2012, p.67)

Achebe foregrounds the historical issues that affect the Easterners and their various predicaments which led to the war. Namwali Serpell is of the view that,

> The Biafran war became one of the world's most well-known humanitarian crises as millions - mostly women and children - succumbed to starvation. Renowned author Chinua Achebe's latest work, *There Was a Country*, presents what its subtitle calls "a personal history of Biafra. The memoir articulates the connection between "the particular tension of war, and the kind of literary response it inspires" through an uneasy but often stirring amalgam of three genres: memoir, historical analysis and poetry (Namwali, 2012, p.2)

II. History and Re-Historicisation of the Biafra War

Chimamanda Ngozi Adichie's *Half of a Yellow Sun* richly develops the literary construction of the Nigerian woman in the colonial and post-colonial era through re-historicisation in the sense that Achebe's memoir serves as a guide to Adichie's novel. As earlier stated, literature is one of the major means through which female writers express their views on matters that affect them and the society at large. Gachari states that "Literature enlarges the perception of a culture by a reader through expanding their understanding of the projected world and conveying a distinct image of the people that compromise the setting in the literary work" (Gichari, 2007, p.5). Mugo, as cited by Gachari concurs with Gallagher and Lundin's note that 'it is a widely accepted fact that works of art including literature reflect the social structures of the societies from which they emanate. Literature and creative art in general thus help us to define specific cultural and social heritages (Cited by Gachari, 2007, p.5). Adichie in this novel exposes some of the issues that affect women and the female characters words and actions serve to debunk some myths about women. Adichie posits that she offers "an unapologetic Biafran perspective on Nigerian nationalism that subverts official narratives of post-war national reconciliation" (Adichie, 2007, p.3).

What *There was a Country* and *Half of a Yellow Sun* do in our contemporary world in a remarkable way is to expose the problems that Nigeria as a country had and still has. Nigeria is at crossroad with lots of political manipulations by the wealthy, tribalism, corruption and a well documented history of what led to the Biafran war and its horrifying manifestations. The novel is set in postcolonial era and dramatizes aspects of the Biafran war which took place between 1967 and 1970; it is also a love story. The flag of Biafra has half of a rising sun and the rising sun inspired Adichie's title, *Half of a Yellow Sun* since it focuses on the causes and consequences of the war. Chinua Achebe and Binyavanga Wainaina recognize Adichie's fearlessness, "asserting that it takes guts to take on the intimidating horror of Nigeria's civil war without looking away" (Achebe & Wainaina, 2008, p.1).

Achebe states that the essence of his memoir "*There was a Country*" is to educate Nigerians, for the future purpose (in a historical context: a political history, a non-fiction and an autobiography), on one of the most significant events in the history of Nigeria" (Achebe, 2012, p.9). Thomas Lynn notes that in, "*There Was a Country*, Achebe reflects on the psychic trauma suffered by the Igbo's due to the war and its linked circumstances: "The experiences of the Igbo community from the pogroms onward had different effects on different people. There were a multitude of reactions- anger, loathing, sorrow, concern, depression" (Lynn, 2017, p.12).

The paper highlights how the memoir and novel are deployed for purposes of literary historicisation and (re)historisation respectively and socio-political critique from the writer's perspectives while pointing out the essential divergences and convergences between the periods in which they wrote their novel. No doubt, Achebe and Adichie belong to different generations. Both writers use their literary work to narrate the history of the Biafra war and its disastrous consequences on the populace. Worthy of note is that both bring out marginalization of the Easterners as the major cause of the war and similarly, they both show the anti-Igbo pogroms in the North were a major precipitating factor that led to the war. Achebe's memoir serves as a guide to Adichie's re-historicisation of the biafran war.

Achebe's memoir tackles the effects of the war as well as the demise of his close friend, the poet, Christopher Okigbo. *There was a Country* is divided into four parts and each gives a detailed analysis of the author's life and experiences during the Biafran war. The novel is filled with series of poems which jolts the reader to the reality of war and its dehumanizing effects. It also celebrates utopic moments during his childhood, adulthood, the independence of Nigeria and the emergence of Biafra. The first part examines Achebe's family's background and his childhood days; the second part takes a look at the Biafra war and its effect especially on the Igbo's. Part three concentrates on the reasons why Biafrans surrendered during the war: there were lots of economic blockages and people were dying due to starvation. Part four examines Nigeria's painful transitions, corruption, indiscipline, state failure, rise of terrorism, state resuscitation and recovery.

Chimamanda Ngozi Adichie in her review of the memoir acknowledges its relevance to the younger generation when she states,

> History and civics, as school subjects, function not merely to teach facts but to transmit more subtle things, like pride and dignity. My Nigerian education taught me much, but left gaping holes. I had not been taught to imagine my pre-colonial past with any accuracy, or pride, or complexity. And so Achebe's work, for me

transcended literature. …his long awaited memoir of the Nigerian-Biafra war, is both sad and angry, a book by a writer looking back and mourning Nigeria's failures (Adichie, 2013, p. 1)

However, Achebe makes use of Igbo proverbs in his writing and this manifest greatly in the first page of the novel which starts thus, "An Igbo proverb tells us that a man who does not know where the rain began to beat him cannot say where he dried his body. The rain that beat Africa began four to five hundred years ago, from the "discovery" of Africa by Europe, through the transatlantic slave trade, to the Berlin conference of 1885" (Achebe, 2012, p.1).

For Achebe, Nigeria's independence did more harm than good to the country. The British left after independence and the period could be regarded as post-independence. A majority of the British left the shores of the country while those in the commercial sector and oil businesses stayed. This opened new job opportunities for most Nigerians especially those with university educations. Achebe affirms, "By the late 1950s, the British were rapidly accepting the inevitability of independence coming to one of their major colonies, Nigeria. Officers began to retire and return home to England, vacating their positions in Nigeria's colonial government. They left in droves, quietly, amiably, often at night, mainly on ships, but also, particularly the wealthier ones, on planes" (Achebe, 2012, p.67). The problem in Nigeria started immediately after they left as the populace is left to the good faith of their countrymen.

III. ETHNIC RIVALS AND CORRUPTION

Achebe gives an account of how the war started and horrors therein, he has first-hand information as regards to the war and a memoir is considered a historical account based on a writer's personal experiences and knowledge. In essence, it is not the writer's imagination but rather an event that occurs which he witnesses. For him, things began to fall apart soon after independence as there are lots of problems during election as to who will occupy different positions in the leadership realm. Corruption and misrule became the order of the day and ethnic rivalry took over the nation. Achebe states,

Within six years of this tragic manipulation, Nigeria was a cesspool of corruption and misrule. Public servants helped themselves freely to the nation's wealth. Elections were blatantly rigged. The subsequent national census was outrageously stage-managed; judges and magistrates were manipulated by the politicians in power. The politicians themselves were pawns of foreign business interests. The social malaise in Nigerian society was political corruption (Achebe, 2012, p.51)

Ethnic tussle became the order of the day in Nigeria and problems were analyzed based on the ethnic groups that were favored most. The Easterners were marginalized in several ways which led to the war. During the British rule, there were no traces of coups but once they handed over the power to Nigerians, plotting of coups began and the Igbo's were blamed for everything that went wrong in the country. On January 15, 1966, there was a coup to overthrow the government who created confusions in the mind of the populace. He describes the Igbo's as being receptive to change, individualistic, and highly competitive. These are some of the reasons that the Easterners started looking for a solution. They felt that having their own nation will be better where there will be no ethnic rival.

Consequently, military men and other intellectuals in the Eastern part of Nigeria called for a meeting to look for a way out of this terrible ethnic problem. Ojukwu who was a prominent figure in the military and very influential, came up with the idea of creating a Biafran state which would be for the Igbo's who were marginalized in Nigeria. He declared the Biafran State and they choose Enugu as the state capital. For Achebe, the nightmare began when, "On May 27, the Consultative Assembly mandated Colonel Ojukwu to declare, at the earliest practicable date, Eastern Nigeria, a free sovereign and independent state by the name and title of the Republic of Biafra" (Achebe, 2012, p.23). The war destroyed lives and property of mostly the Igbo's.

IV. WAR AND WOMEN: THE BIAFRAN EXPERIENCE

In all cases of war, women are most endangered and this reflects in the popular saying that "war hits home when it hits women and girls'. Women constitute the greater part of any nation and they are also entrusted with the natural role of caring for the entire family especially, children. War has always been a traumatizing event for those who experience it; it leaves indelible marks on the psyche of its victim especially, women. Women face different forms of abuse in war situations which ranges from sexual exploitation and injustice especially from soldiers. They have always been on the receiving end of most wars due to their gender which makes them vulnerable. Their vulnerability makes them susceptible to war situations due to the role they play in the society.

Through rehistoricisation, Adichie recounts the tragic events of the war with details from Achebe's and Chukwuemeka Ike's account in his novel, *Sunset at Dawn*. For her, the war affected mostly women and children, she is able to give the same account of the age of women, pregnant women were also raped and killed as declared by William Norris (Reporter, Sunday Times) cited by Ojukwu: I have seen things in Biafra this week which no man should have to see. Sights to scorch the mind and sicken the conscience. I have seen children roasted alive, young girls torn into two by shrapnel; pregnant women eviscerated, and old men blown to fragments. I have seen these things and I have seen their cause: high-flying Russian Ilyushin jets operated by Federal Nigeria, dropping their bombs on civilian centers throughout Biafra (Norris, 1969, p.319).

As a result of the series of acts of violence against women in war situations, the Beijing Platform for Action and the Geneva Convention Relative to the Protection of Civilian Persons in Time of War Art. 27 came up with some objectives that could help women during war situations. They include:

- Provide protection, assistance, and training to refugee women, other displaced women in need of international protection and internally displaced women.
- Promote women's contribution to fostering a culture of peace
- Provide assistance to the women of the colonies and non-self governing territories
- Reduce excessive military expenditures and control the availability of armaments
- Promote non-violent forms of conflict resolution and reduce the incidence of human rights abuse in conflict situations (International Organization, 2004, p, 1).

Furthermore, the image of the woman is painted as that of a sex object during the Biafran war; girls and women were raped by white mercenaries and their black brothers. Ugwu and other men who were conscripted into the Biafran army, joined in raping women. Women were used in exchange for material things during the war, In *Half of a Yellow Sun*, Eberechi who is considered as Ugwu's lover is offered as a gift to the Colonel in exchange for her brother's posting. The Colonel uses her as an exchange and she in turn becomes a sex object used by the man to satisfy his lustful desires. Eberechi describes how he did it quickly because she is considered a sex object that should be used and discarded afterwards. She sees her sexual encounter as a payback for helping her brother to get into the essential service in the army.

As the war progress, relief centers and refugee camps were established where mostly women and children live. Through this, Adichie presents collective and gender identity by which women are classified based on their roles in the society. Kainene has a refugee camp to help ease the sufferings of mothers and children; Father Marcel who is a religious leader is in charge of praying with and encouraging them. Unfortunately, the priest harasses the young girls sexually in exchange for food. He also impregnates most of them because they were vulnerable. Kainene is not aware of what is happening until one Urenwa confesses that it was Father Marcel who had sex with her. Da Silva argues that … "through confronting and graphic representations of what often are semi-ritualistic occasions of domestic violence, of rape and mutilation, the novels articulate an aesthetics of excess that calls attention to the difficulty of speaking the unfinished business of nation-making in the post-colonial nation" (Da Silva, 2014, p. 458). This further shows how women are victims in all situations.

Adichie also presents the relevance of women during Biafran war as they struggle for food for the entire family despite the risks involved with facing the soldiers. Olanna who took charge of Amala's abandoned baby becomes so worried when Chiamaka suffers from kwashiorkor and lack of appetite. Most women also become guards who watch out for their families and alert them to run for their lives anytime they notice the enemy's plane. Kandiyoti (1998) recognizes this fact when he states, "Women bear the burden of being 'mothers of the nation'…, as well as being those who produce the boundaries of ethnic/national groups, who transmit the culture and who are privileged signifiers of national difference. The demands of the 'nation' may thus appear just as constraining as the tyranny of more primordial loyalties to lineage…" (p. 377).

V. RE-WRITING THE NATION: BIAFRAN WAR AND ITS REPULSIVE REMINISCENCES

Consequently, anytime the name Biafra is mentioned, everybody remembers Ojukwu but the assertion below by Achebe succinctly states that it is not entirely his idea but that of some prominent Igbo people during that time. One could believe that the creation of the Biafran state is not out of the ordinary, something prompted it. The Igbo's were massacred at any slightest provocation with false accusations and as such, believe they are second class citizens in their country. There were a series of marginalization and mistreatment that prompted the Igbo's reaction by coming up with the idea of their own state. Achebe affirms,

> Beginning with the January 12, 1966, coup d'état, through the counter-coup (staged mainly by Northern Nigerian officers, who murdered 185 Igbo officers) and the massacre of thirty thousand Igbo's and Easterners in pogroms that started in May 1966 and occurred over four months-the events of those months left millions of other future Biafrans and me feeling terrified. As we fled "home" to Eastern Nigeria to escape all manner of atrocities that were being inflicted upon us and our families in different parts of Nigeria, we saw ourselves as victims (Achebe, 2012, p.95)

One could vividly see that Igbo's were marginalized and not treated as eligible citizens of Nigeria. As humans, they tend to react which led to the creation of the Biafran state. Achebe agrees with this fact when he states, "The Nigerian Biafra War began soon after Emeka Ojukwu's proclamation of secession. Gowon decided to first use the federal army's First Command in what he termed a "police action" in an attempt to "restore federal government authority in Lagos and the break-away from Eastern region" (Achebe, 2012, p.128). The move to capture the Biafran border towns of Ogoja and Nsukka proved to be a declaration of war. Following this, in July 1967, Nigerian troops attempted to cross the Niger Bridge into Biafra as he portrays.

Most of Achebe's reminiscences of the Biafran war are that of trauma, hopelessness, despair, anxiety and death. As events unfold, there were great efforts made by international organizations to foster peace and unity in the two warring

states but it was to no avail as Gowon, the then head of the Nigerian state avoided most meetings called by the Organization of African Unity (OAU).

It is obvious that Biafrans were gaining an upper hand at first but there was a decline along the way. Series of failures, hardships and hunger were on the increase. Nigerian leaders made all efforts to block avenues that could help Biafrans. They once shot down a Swedish Red Cross plane carrying humanitarian supplies and medicines to those who were sick and almost dying of hunger. It got to the extent that they detained some international Red Cross directors, all geared towards frustrating them so that they could give up but it strengthened them the more as they insisted on seeking their freedom through the creation of the Biafran state.

The absence of health personnel worsens the fate of those wounded during the war. Most pregnant women died as a result of poor health care and the absence of pre-natal care. These terrifying experiences leave an indelible mark in their psyche. Olanna also describes how she saw Uncle Mbaezi's body lying helplessly on the floor and his wife's butchered naked body during the period of the anti-Igbo pogroms. This gory site haunts her for life and most women who lost their husbands assume the role of the father in their various families. This suggests that women cannot be totally considered weak, and also they tend to disagree with the general notion of being regarded as inferior beings.

Adichie in this novel concurs with Laura Sjoberg's assertion about the Biafran war as she states, "While war has gendered causes, gendered practices, and gendered consequences, it is also lived and experience in gendered ways" (Sloberg, 2014, p.19). The gender identity of the woman comes into play during the war. Women also try their best in taking up their role as mothers and protectors of their family. Olanna takes over the responsibility of taking care of her family when Odenigbo's mother died which made him to be constantly drunk. Often, women watch helplessly as their children die as a result of malnutrition. They also trek amidst the dangers of being raped by soldiers to distant places in order to get food for their family. This signifies the sacrificial role of women and dismisses the notion of women as inferior or weak. It was Olanna's duty to scramble for food when Chiamaka, her adopted child, suffers from Kwashiorkor. Mama Oji and many other women dared the consequences of being raped and went to relief centers to struggle for food for their families. Adichie imbued in her characters an outstanding spirit of courage, perseverance and resilience. She posits that war wreaks havoc on the lives of women and girls and on the health and educational services they provide which is pertinent to the survival and development of the family and community.

Furthermore, federal troops were dispatched to the East and instructed to kill as many as they could so that the Nigerian nation could take over those areas. Achebe describes the Asaba massacre as the worst of its kind, as they killed so many people and destroyed their property. Defenseless men and boys were killed and more than half killed at Asaba are titled chiefs from the area. Their bodies were not properly buried which contradicts the tradition of the people and violates their rights as custodians of tradition of the area.

This could be regarded as the height of man's inhumanity to man, this level of atrocities attracted notable figures who were worried over the killings of their fellow human beings. This is a clear indication that Igbo's were right in looking for a way out of their predicament. It is sad that human beings can be slaughtered like animals without any remorse from the perpetrators and still, wants the victims to be united as one. No doubt, this must have left horrifying images and visions on the psyche of those whose loved ones were massacred during this period and even more on those who witnessed while this evil deed is being carried out.

In her essay, Half and half children: Third generation women writers and the new Nigerian novel, Jane Bryce argues that "a new group of Nigerian women writers offers a recognition of national realities in which the feminine is neither essentialized and mythologized nor marginalized, but unapologetically central to the realist representation of a recognizable social world" (as cited in Lecznar, 2016). Women of Adichie's generation, he suggests are "rewriting the script of national identity construction by empowering and centralizing female voices and identities in their works".

However, all effort proved abortive as more people were killed; the Nigerian troops seemed to have an edge over Biafrans as they had more deadly weapons that could wipe away an entire state. Achebe rightly states, "By the time the Nigerian forces were done they had shot at least 1,000 and perhaps 2,000 Ibos [sic], most of them civilians. There were other atrocities, throughout the region. In Oji River, *The Times* of London reported on August 2, 1968, the Nigerian forces opened fire and murdered fourteen nurses and the patients in the wards. In Uyo and Okigwe, more innocent lives were lost to the brutality and blood lust of the Nigerian soldiers…" (Achebe, 2012, p.137).

Raiding the hospitals and killing nurses is just the height of ruthlessness on the side of the Nigerian army. Patients who are almost at the point of death died instantly as they couldn't withstand any form of pain: they were already brutalized and dehumanized with this kind of torture. These are horrifying images of brutality and man's inhumanity to his fellow creatures. It takes Achebe a very long time to narrate this repulsive scene of murder and the Nigerian government's heartless attitude towards the war which focused especially on Igbo's.

These are a few instances of the gruesome nature of the war that rendered most people useless. It affected the psyche of those who witnessed it, and they always pray not to have a repeat of that.

Consequently, everyone seemed to be against Biafra; the death of the United Nations secretary general in an air crash in 1961 affected Biafrans as there were no more supports from the organization. Dr. Nnamdi Azikiwe, a onetime president of Nigeria pleaded with the United Nations to help end the problem in Nigeria, but his propositions were dismissed on the ground that it was 'unworkable'. Dr. Nnamdi Azikiwe withdrew his support for Biafra and some intellectuals believed that Ojukwu never consulted him before declaring the war. Dr. Okechukwu Ikejiani affirms, "His

[Azikiwe's] feeling was that when a leader of a nation wants to go to war, he should consult the people. Primarily Ojukwu should have consulted Azikiwe. Secondly, he should have consulted [Micheal] Okpara [premier of eastern Nigeria]. Thirdly, he should have consulted other leaders" (Achebe, 2012, p. 218). These are the issues that lead to the problems of Biafra which made them to look for a way out of their predicament as everyone seemed to be against them.

As a result of the constant killings of Biafrans and the high rate of malnutrition, Ojukwu and his members were considering ending the war. There are indications that the war are gradually coming to an end, Achebe accepts this fact when he states, "After failing many times over the thirty-month period, Gowon finally had Biafra surrounded on three fronts. In Mid-January 1970, after Owerri had been recaptured by the federal troops and Uli airport was under heavy air and land assault by federal troops led by Olusegun Obasanjo, I knew the end of Biafra was near" (Achebe, 2012, p.223). Achebe's feelings were confirmed and became a reality when Ojukwu announced on the radio that he was "leaving the People's republic of Biafra to explore alternative options for peace". This shocked most Biafrans as they never expected this from their fearless leader.

Moreover, some intellectuals believe there is no need fighting for battle that has caused them so much pain and misery. As such, Sir Louis Mbanefo and Philip Effiong met with a small group of Biafrans to discuss the way forward and how to end the war. Most people didn't accept to surrender but a majority of intellectuals like Chinua Achebe feels there is no need continuing a battle that seems endless and whose leader has abandoned the people. They encouraged the troops to lay down their weapons.

One could clearly ask the need for the Biafran war if the Federal Government ended up destroying property and inflicting injuries, killings and sufferings without achieving their aim. Then, the Biafran war is not worth fighting for considering the fact that it affected Biafrans and traumatized the psyche of those who witnessed and lost their loved ones during the war. There were a series of repulsive reminiscences and horrifying images of death as demonstrated in this Achebe's memoir, which is deeply disturbing. Achebe and Adichie approach some crucial issues such as ethnicity in a strikingly divergent ways which in essence reflects the thematic preoccupation of both writers. They tend to agree on some certain aspects like ethnicity and favoritism that lead to the Biafra war which is obviously historical.

VI. CONCLUSION

This paper has illustrated how Achebe and Adichie give a detailed account of the history as well as literary re-historicization respectively of the Biafra war. Achebe's memoir gives a vivid account of all the events in the war while Adichie draws credence from Achebe's and Chukwuemeka Ike's version. Both writers belong to different generations but their account of the war revolves around the marginalization of the Easterners and the disastrous effects which proves the Igbo's right. Each writer vigorously outlines the efforts of the Nigerian government to jeopardize the Igbo's effort of being free. It is clear therefore that the Biafran war is a reaction to the marginalization of the Easterners. The Easterners could vividly see the manifestation of tribalism and ethnic chauvinism. What *There was a Country* and *Half of a Yellow Sun* do in our contemporary world in a remarkable way is to expose the problems that Nigeria as a country had and still has. Nigeria is at a crossroads with lots of political manipulations by the wealthy, tribalism, and corruption, as well as a documented history of what led to the Biafran war and its horrifying manifestations. War is described in Achebe's memoir and Adichie's novel as a cultural, political, tribal and social phenomenon which exposes the high rate of tribalism and corruption in Nigeria. Achebe and Adichie challenge those who are corrupt and faced with lots of ethical issues which they extensively analyzed in their literary artifacts. They explore the repulsive reminiscences of war which left many psychologically dead and traumatized with many events of bloodshed. It is very disheartening for parents to watch their children die of starvation and much more deadly for children to see how their parents and relations are murdered in cold blood. The war caused a lot of environmental disasters as bombs were detonated which affected the productivity of the lands. War is not necessary for peace and most war renders its victims hopeless without achieving its aim. Nigerians, especially those from the Eastern part, should be provided with adequate post traumatic rehabilitation due to the effects of war, which has remained a haunting history for them. This paper posits that war is not necessary for any form of correction or peace and should not be used as a measure to effect changes in any society. It rather causes psychological trauma for those involved, and those who witnessed it are left with horrifying reminiscences which are derived from trauma. The paper concludes that these can be avoided and war should be discouraged at all cost.

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A Multi-Dimensional Analysis of English Writings by Chinese EFL Learners

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Abstract—The exponential growth in the population of Chinese EFL learners has fueled the study of Chinese EFL learner writing. A survey of relevant literature indicates that the majority of studies are confined to the exploration of individual linguistic features, with a few exceptions which employ a broader perspective that might involve multiple features. This work aims to investigate the English writings by Chinese EFL learners via Multi-Dimensional (MD) analysis, a corpus-based approach that combines both microscopic (i.e., individual linguistic features) and macroscopic perspectives (i.e., textual dimensions). A comparison between writings by Chinese EFL learners and native English speakers shows that the former are high on involvement, informativeness, and referential explicitness while the latter exhibit superiority on word-choosing, information integration, narrativity, and persuasiveness. Regarding their specific use of 67 MD linguistic features, the two writer groups also show certain significant but interesting differences. Analysis of Chinese EFL learner corpora from different English education levels indicates that writings by learners from higher levels are lower on involvement, but are higher on informativeness, narrativity, referential explicitness, and persuasiveness. This trend is manifested by their decreasing use of involvement features, but increasing use of features marking the latter four aspects.

Index Terms—multi-dimensional analysis, Chinese EEL learners, native English speakers, English writing

I. Introduction

Writing is commonly regarded as an outcome, a finished product that can tell "us about language" rather than "about meaning-making" (Hyland, 2016, p. 4). Among the measures designed to evaluate learners' language proficiency, writing stands out for being an indispensable role in language proficiency tests since it involves numerous elements of language, such as vocabulary, grammar, and style. In addition, compared with speaking, writing provides more convenient and direct access to real language materials for researchers or teachers attempting to explain how languages are acquired by learners. Conducting a writing study, therefore, has long been a centerpiece in the language acquisition study.

As one of the largest learner groups of English as a foreign language (EFL) in the world, Chinese EFL learners, along with their writings in English, have garnered enormous attention from researchers. Of the various approaches taken, Corpus Linguistics (CL) has gained in popularity owing to its empirical nature and heavy reliance on "both quantitative and qualitative techniques" (Biber et al., 1998, p. 4).

Nevertheless, scrutiny of the relevant literature reveals that most of the studies have adopted a microscopic angle, or more specifically, focused on individual or a limited number of linguistic features, whereas analysis of textual features, which might involve a broader range of linguistic features, is sparse. Admittedly, a microscopic angle may allow researchers to better manipulate their research (in terms of scope, feasibility, space, etc.) and thus achieve an in-depth investigation. This approach, however, can be problematic as it treats linguistic features in isolation, whereas in real language production, linguistic features, more often than not, co-occur due to their internal connections (Biber, 1995).

This study is dedicated to exploring the English writings by Chinese EFL learners via Biber's Multi-Dimensional (MD) analysis, an approach that the present study believes to be able to mitigate the paucity mentioned above since it combines macroscopic (i.e., textual dimension) and microscopic (individual linguistic feature) perspectives (Friginal & Hardy, 2014). Following previous studies, this study firstly intends to know the differences between Chinese EFL learners and native English speakers in English writing. It is hoped that by comparing their dimension scores and detailed use of linguistic features, the macroscopic and microscopic differences between them can be determined. In addition, this study also wants to know the differences in writing between Chinese EFL learners from different levels of English education. To this end, comparisons in terms of dimension scores and individual linguistic feature usage between the three groups of Chinese EFL learners, viz, Chinese English majors, Chinese non-English major undergraduates, and high school students are to be performed.

II. Previous Studies on Chinese EFL Learner Writing

The past decades after the opening-up of China have witnessed a remarkable increase in the population of Chinese EFL learners and a consequent surge of research interests in "Chinese English". To date, the Chinese EFL learner writing study has covered various aspects of writing and has been fruitful.

Similar to the EFL writing studies from other language backgrounds, plenty of Chinese EFL learner writing studies endeavor to investigate the influence of the Chinese language and culture on the writings of Chinese EFL learners with the aim of providing pedagogical implications for the improvement of writing instruction. A noteworthy study conducted by Zhang (2013) claims that the transfer of Chinese in Chinese EFL learners' writings in terms of lexicon, grammar, and grammatical metaphors can be attributed to the similarities and differences between Chinese and English in conceptualization and categorization. He further concludes that the transfers of Chinese are systematic, regular, and unique as compared with Austrian EFL learners whose writings are similar to native speakers. Among the rich literature of Chinese EFL learner writing study, the exploration of the unique features of Chinese EFL learner writing has occupied the central place. At the lexical level, the characteristics of Chinese EFL learner writing on the utilization of linguistic features such as phrasal verbs (Chen, 2013), adverbial conjuncts (Xu & Liu, 2012), collocation use (Chen, 2019), lexical bundles (Bychkovska & Lee, 2017), and cohesive device (Yang & Sun, 2012) have been explored exhaustively. At the syntactic level, Chinese EFL learners and native speakers exhibit different preferences regarding the use of inanimate subjects (Ji & Liang, 2015), non-finite clauses (Fang, 2014) and syntactic complexity (Ai & Lu, 2013), among others. With regard to the discourse features, Wen et al. (2003) confirm that Chinese EFL learners display an apparent oral style in writing. Liang (2008) points out that Chinese EFL learners' overuse of surface features such as pronouns and connectives does not contribute much to the coherence of their English writings. Much effort has also been made to examine the frequent errors made by Chinese EFL learners in compositions. It is shown that errors tend to cluster around the misuse of tense, determiners, prepositions, collocations, etc. (Ong, 2011; Liu, 2012; Darus & Subramaniam, 2009; Liu & Lu, 2020; Yang et al., 2013).

A prominent problem pertinent to Chinese EFL learner writing research is that most of it is limited to a microscopic perspective (i.e., focusing on individual linguistic features) while in texts linguistic features are more likely to work together (Biber et al, 2002), some researchers thus turn to macroscopic analysis to overcome the issues brought by microscopic analysis (e.g., ignoring the connections between individual linguistic features). Against this background, MD analysis, an approach that combines microscopic and macroscopic analyses and is originally proposed for analyzing register variation, is introduced into the study of Chinese EFL learner writing. Ma (2002) discovers that Chinese and American undergraduates show significant differences on nine out of 66 linguistic features examined in Biber's (1988) MD analysis. She states that writings of Chinese undergraduates appear to be more informational and formal, while American undergraduates show more features of involvement, personal affection, and postpositional elaboration of nominal information. Pan (2012) uses MD analysis to compare the writings by Chinese non-English major undergraduates and graduates with those by native English speakers (i.e., LOCNESS or The Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays). The results indicate that writings by the two groups of Chinese EFL learners are highly interactive and persuasive while those by their American counterparts are high in informative, narrative, explicit and abstract dimensions. It is revealed that there are different degrees of deviations between the native and non-native speakers when using function-related language features. Besides, internal variations are also observed inside the Chinese student group she examined.

Despite using the same MD analysis method and focusing on the same learner group, this study sets itself apart from these previous two studies in two main aspects. One is that the Chinese EFL learner group the current study targets is expanded. Unlike the two mentioned studies which pay special heed to college students, this study, in addition to college students (non-English major college students), also includes Chinese EFL learners who are at a lower English education level (i.e., high school students), as well as English majors who are trained for career pathways or academic purposes. The inclusion of the latter two Chinese learner groups is made to observe their writing developments or changes across different levels of English education. The second aspect lies in that the corpora selected in the present study are more balanced (in terms of genre, length, corpus size, etc.) and thus more representative. The corpora the two mentioned studies selected seem not comparable enough. Their results, hence, may face validity issues. Taking Pan (2012) as an example, the reference corpus and the Chinese learner corpora it employed vary greatly as far as essay length (800 words in LOCNESS versus 213 words in Chinese learner corpus) and genre (academic essays in LOCNESS versus argumentative writings in Chinese learner corpus) are concerned. This study, as we will see in the following section, is conducted on language data (both native and non-native data) that are more strictly controlled.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Multi-Dimensional (MD) Analysis

MD analysis derives from Biber's (1988) exploration of the variation between written and spoken registers. Based on the previous linguistic finding that some features co-occur in a relatively fixed pattern in a particular register to perform certain functions, Biber (1988) proposed the notion of MD analysis and conducted an MD analysis on the written and spoken registers extracted from the Lancaster-Oslo-Bergen Corpus (LOB) and London-Lund Corpus via factor analysis. In his study, Biber identified the following six dimensions of variation of spoken and written registers.

Dimension1: Involved versus informational production.
Dimension2: Narrative versus non-narrative concerns.
Dimension3: Explicit versus situation-dependent reference.
Dimension4: Overt expression of persuasion.

Dimension5: Abstract versus non-abstract.

Dimension6: Online production.

Every dimension (or factor) is determined and named through a functional interpretation of the linguistic features it contains. Of special note is that no single dimension is capable of profiling a register as some registers might be different from each other on one dimension but highly similar on another. *Official documents* and *broadcasts*, for example, resemble each other on Dimension 2 for both of them are not strictly narrative, but differ on Dimension 3 since the former is explicitly reference-concerned while the latter is situation-dependent. In the present study, the first five dimensions were applied.

To date, there have been generally two ways to conduct an MD analysis. One is to carry out a new factor analysis (also called full MD analysis) as Biber did in the late 1980s. Researchers firstly calculate the normalized frequencies of numerous linguistic features and then conduct a factor analysis on those frequency values to reach several new factors (or dimensions in MD analysis). New factors are then interpreted and named by researchers through qualitative interpretations of corresponding features. This way is widely used for identifying the co-occurrence patterns of specialized or newly born registers, for example, research article abstracts (Cao & Xiao, 2013), non-western languages including Portuguese (Sardinha et.al, 2014) and Chinese (Zhang, 2012), and Pop Songs (Dutra, 2014), among others. The other approach is called additive MD analysis. This approach applies Biber's (1988) dimensions directly and hence omits the factor extraction. Studies using additive MD analysis calculate the dimension scores of a text based on the mean frequencies for variables (i.e., linguistic features) provided in Biber (1988) [1] and then contrast the obtained dimension scores to the scores of registers in Biber's (1988) dimension scale to evaluate how the text under discussion is related to the wide variety of discourses investigated in Biber (1988). In discussing the application of additive MD analysis, Nini (2019, p. 91) argues that it sheds light on "the identity", "the location" and "the linguistic peculiarities" of a corpus.

The present study applied the latter method as it is comparatively less demanding for researchers to conduct an MD analysis in comparison with a full MD analysis due to the omissions of factor analysis and interpretation. Another benefit brought by this method is that other discourses that are investigated in the same way, along with the discourses in Biber's (1988) dimension scale, can provide rich reference information for a more fine-grained analysis. What makes this approach more feasible is a highly reliable tool called MAT (Multi-dimensional Analysis Tagger), a versatile piece of software which is designed by Nini (2013) specifically for conducting such an MD analysis. With this tool, researchers can be saved from tedious MD part-of-speech (POS) tagging and dimension score calculation. In this study, the newest version of MAT, MAT 1.3.2, was adopted.

B. Selection of Corpus Data

The language data explored in this study were sampled from three well-known existing corpora, namely, TECCL (Ten-thousand English Compositions of Chinese Learners), WECCL (Written English Corpus of Chinese Learners), and the Written Essay Module of ICNALE (International Corpus Network of Asian Learners of English).

TECCL, as its name implies, contains about 10,000 writings that are written by Chinese EFL learners at different education levels (Xue, 2015). According to the project initiator, Xu (2016), this corpus is representative in that it collects updated materials (writings completed between 2011 to 2015), features a wide range of topics or prompts (over 1000 different topics), corresponds to the actual proportion of universities of China, covers by far the widest spread of Chinese EFL learners (learners from mainland China, Hong Kong, and Taiwan), and involves diversified writing tasks(in class, after class, timed, and untimed). In this study, the Chinese High School Student (CHSS) writing corpus and the Chinese Non-English Major Undergraduate (CNEMU) writing corpus, were separately established by arbitrarily choosing corresponding argumentative writings from TECCL. The detailed information on these two sub-corpora can be seen in Table 1.

WECCL 2.0 is a sub-corpus of SWEECCL (Spoken and Written English Corpus of Chinese Learners) (Wen et al., 2005). This corpus gathers English writings by English majors in different grades from nine different Chinese universities. It takes into consideration the possible factors that might exert influences on learners' writings and controls context variables including time (timed vs. untimed), writing types (argumentative, narrative, and expository writing), length of writing (200 to 800 words), writing proficiency (Grades 1- 4) and student enrolling year. In total, 3578 writings were included. This study established a Chinese English Major (CEM) writing corpus by randomly extracting 50 timed and 50 untimed argumentative writings from WECCL2.0 (See Table 1). In addition, the selection threshold regarding the essay length was set between 200 and 300 words.

ICNALE is a corpus constructed for conducting contrastive interlanguage analyses on Asian learners of English (Ishikawa, 2013). This corpus is described as reliable as it encompasses the language production by Asian learners of English that are strictly controlled in terms of topics (2 topics), time (20 to 40 minutes), length (200 – 300 words), and reference use, etc (Ishikawa, 2013). The Written Essay Module of ICNALE contains writings by Asian learners of English from 12 countries or regions, as well as by native English speakers from 5 English-speaking countries. Currently, it contains approximately 5600 writings, totaling 1.3 million words. In this study, a reference corpus called

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[1] For a more detailed description, please see Van Vooy (2008, p. 276).

Native English Speaker writing corpus (NES) was built by randomly selecting 100 writings by experienced L1 English writers from ICNALE (See table 1).

TABLE 1
CORPORA

Corpus	Number of Writings	Number of Words
Chinese High School Student writing corpus (CHSS)	100	15375
Chinese Non-English Major Undergraduate writing corpus (CNEMU)	100	21986
Chinese English Major writing corpus (CEM)	100	26360
Native English Speaker writing corpus (NES)	100	22060
Total	400	85781

IV. RESULTS AND INTERPRETATION

A. Dimension 1

In Biber's 1988 MD analysis, Dimension 1 is the most fundamental parameter accounting for the variation across spoken and written registers. As a result, it contains the most linguistic features compared with other dimensions, with twenty-four positive loading features and five negative loading features included. As its name suggests, this dimension covers a continuum ranging from a focus on involved production to a focus on informational production, with the former occupying the positive pole and the latter taking the negative pole. The positive pole of Dimension 1 represents discourses that are "interactional, affective, involved purposes, associated with strict real-time production and comprehension constraints" (Biber, 1995, p. 115), for example, *telephone conversation*. Discourses at this pole often contain high frequencies of typical spoken language features that bear positive loadings, such as personal pronouns, present tense, and private verbs. As for the discourses distributed at the negative pole, they are highly informational and contain high frequencies of informational features that are with negative loadings, including nouns, adjectives, and prepositions. A typical example is academic papers.

In Table 2, all the corpora obtain positive dimension scores and therefore exhibit an involved and interpersonal focus. Among the three groups of Chinese learners of English, CHSS receives the highest score (8.15) and thus demonstrates a distinctive involved writing style. It is close to the dimension score of *email* (8.7), an internet genre (including both business messages and personal exchanges) investigated by Sardinha (2014). The other two Chinese learner corpora, CNMCS and CEM, however, score considerably lower (4.14 & 4.10). In Biber's (1988) scale, they resemble *romantic fiction* (4.3) – a genre that can be categorized into written registers. It is surprising to see that ENS (3.6) scores marginally less than their CNMCS and CEM, indicating that experienced L1 writers do not avoid involvement in writing.

Table 2 also presents the normalized (per 1000 words) counts of linguistic features of each corpus on Dimension 1, through which we can reach a microscopic understanding of the four corpora. Overall, native English speakers and Chinese EFL learners show different preferences towards the common linguistic features loaded on Dimension 1, including PRIV, THATD, CONT, VPRT, SPP2, PROD, EMPH, FPP1, CAUS, POMD, ANDC, STPR, NN, PIN, TTR, and JJ.

As regards the positive loading features, NES has a lower frequency of use of features that are considered as informal from the perspective of formal writing, including THATD, CONT, and SPP2. Besides this, native speakers seem to refrain from using the features that mark the involvement of the author/speaker, namely, PRIV and FPP1. Native English speakers also make less use of features that are frequently found in conversations or interactive discourse according to Biber (1988), including VPRT, PROD, EMPH, POMD, and ANDC. There is, however, one feature that is more frequently used by native English speakers than by Chinese learners of English: CAUS (because). Rather than the affect from spoken register/genre, this may be due to the transfer of Chinese, as Chinese relies "on semantic or logical comprehension rather than connectives in the juxtaposition of syntactic units" (Tse, 2010, p. 351). In other words, owing to the transfer from Chinese, Chinese learners are apt to omit the causal connector *because* in writing though it has a Chinese equivalent that is commonly used.

For the negative loading features which are used to mark informational production, it is surprising to see that NES surpasses its Chinese counterparts in terms of PIN and TTR counts while lagging behind them on NN and JJ, two features that form the basis of informativeness. The type/token ratio is associated with precise word choice (since it marks vocabulary diversity) and prepositions are an important device for information packing (Biber, 1988). Therefore, it can be concluded that writings by native English speakers feature high precision in word choice and high integration of information. In MD analysis, nouns and adjectives mark information richness. The Chinese learner corpora thus illustrate a higher degree of informativeness than the native English data, though their low type/token ratio reflects that the writings contained are short on vocabulary diversity. In addition, the low frequency of prepositions in the three written English corpora of Chinese learners seems to imply that the information in their writings is organized in a loose way. It should be noted, however, that the underuse of prepositions is perceived as universal to non-native English learners (Gilquin & Granger, 2011) since prepositions are considered to be "among the most difficult forms" that non-native speakers "have to master in learning the English language" (O' Dowd, 1998, p. 6). Overall, writings by Chinese

learners of English can be characterized by high informativeness, high vocabulary repetition, and loose information structures.

There are differences between the groups of Chinese EFL learners too. From CHSS to CEM, a pronounced decreasing tendency can be observed on the counts of several positive loading features including CONT, SPP2, EMPH, FPP1, PIT, BEMA, and POMD, indicating that involvement decreases as learners' English education level advances. As for negative loading features, we can see a trend that is in stark contrast to the above tendency. Table 2 shows that there is an increasing trend from CHSS to CEM in terms of AWL, PIN, and TTR, illustrating that Chinese learners' writings appear to become more informational as their English education level rises.

TABLE 2
DIMENSION 1

	NES	CEM	CNEMU	CHSS
Dimension Score	3.6	4.10	4.14	8.15
Loading features (Positive)				
Private verbs (PRIV)	19.58	23.7	17.4	21.1
Subordinator that deletion (THATD)	2.8	7.6	2.9	4.2
Contractions (CONT)	5.8	5.8	7.8	9.7
Present tense verb (VPRT)	74.6	79.1	77.2	80.1
2nd person pronouns (SPP2)	1.9	8.8	8.1	14.5
Do as pro-verb (PROD)	2.1	2.4	2.4	3.1
Analytic negation (XX0)	12.7	12.4	12.8	11.1
Demonstrative pronouns (DEMP)	7.0	4.2	3.4	4.1
Emphatics (EMPH)	11.5	15.5	16.1	20.6
1st person pronouns (FPP1)	27.6	35.8	45.6	52.4
Pronoun it (PIT)	16.4	12.9	15.1	17.4
Be as main verb (BEMA)	24.2	21.5	25.2	26.3
Causative adverbial (CAUS)	3.8	2.3	2.2	2.1
Discourse particles (DPAR)	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.5
Indefinite pronouns (INPR)	0.5	0.5	0.4	1.0
Hedges (HDG)	0.1	0.8	0.4	0.3
Amplifiers (AMP)	3.0	2.8	2.5	2.7
Sentence relatives (SERE)	0.1	0.9	1.2	0.9
Direct WH-questions (WHQU)	0.5	0.6	1.2	1.2
Possibility modals (POMD)	9.8	13.8	15.4	17.9
Independent clause coordination (ANDC)	3.8	5.8	5.2	4.1
Wh-clauses (WHCL)	0.4	1.2	0.5	0.5
Stranded preposition (STPR)	1.5	1.0	1.1	1.3
Loading Features (Negative)				
Nouns (NN)	180.6	201.9	205.7	207
Average Word Length (AWL)	4.6	4.7	4.6	4.4
Prepositions (PIN)	96.9	86.6	84	81.5
Type/token ratio (TTR)	131.0	126.2	119.0	96.3
Attributive adjectives (JJ)	61.6	64.9	72.3	64.5

From the perspective of language exposure, this is not necessarily surprising. Alhusban & Vijayakumar (2021), in their exploration of lexical bundles in Saudi EFL student writings, argue that language exposure and context knowledge (for example, register knowledge) play a determining role in learners' use of lexical resources. Being learners at higher English education levels, Chinese college students and English majors are more likely to outdo Chinese high school students with regard to exposure to written English given that writing is indispensable in their English learning. It is likely that they might acquire relatively more register/genre knowledge and accordingly choose the usage appropriate to the context (in this case, formal writing). Similarly, Gilquin and Paquot (2008) link the frequent "spoken like" features, especially involvement features, in novice L1 and L2 writings with writers' limited acquisition of the rules of academic writing and "lack of knowledge of more formal alternatives" (p. 56) and point out that developmental factor plays a key role. Moreover, learners' English proficiency may provide another explanation as advanced learners apparently have more linguistic resources at their disposal compared with less advanced learners and thus have fewer difficulties in word-finding and grammar. This superiority not only enables advanced learners to avoid those involved features that are commonly used and early acquired (for example, pronouns) without damaging the writing quality, but also provides a basis for them to include more complicated and more diversified vocabulary in writing.

B. Dimension 2

Differing from Dimension 1, Dimension 2 in Biber (1988) deals solely with narrative concerns (Biber, 1988). The features it contains hence are all with positive loadings and are serving narrative purposes. Discourses with high scores in this dimension, such as *fiction*, feature an abundance of narrative features, thus reflecting a narrative concern. Those with low scores, for instance, *expositive writing*, are often characterized as non-narrative due to the sparsity of narrative features.

TABLE 3
DIMENSION 2

	NES	CEM	CNEMU	CHSS
Dimension Score	-1.58	-2.25	-2.5	-3.45
Loading Features (Positive)				
Past tense verbs (VBD)	8.6	7.6	9.8	14.5
3rd personal pronouns (TPP3)	30.8	31.1	19.8	19.5
Perfect aspects (PEAS)	4.7	3.2	3.1	2.3
Public verb (PUBV)	5.7	4.4	4.5	4.9
Synthetic negation (SYNE)	1.7	2.4	2.4	1.4
Past participial clauses (PASTP)	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.1

As can be seen from Table 3, all the four corpora are located at the negative pole of Dimension 2, indicating that they are mutually similar in having a low narrative concern. This is not surprising considering that all the writings investigated are, by their nature, argumentative instead of narrative. Nevertheless, what is interesting about the distribution of the four corpora is that the native speaker corpus scores higher than all Chinese learner corpora. In Biber's (1988) dimension scale, it is close to *press reviews* (-1.6), a genre that is particularly opinionated. This is in line with Pan (2012). It therefore can be inferred that Chinese learners behave poorly in employing narrative devices to increase the persuasiveness of their writings. Moreover, a gently rising narrative tendency can be observed inside the three Chinese learner groups. CHSS's score (-3.45) is the lowest and shows a minor difference to *broadcasts* (-*3.3*) - the most non-narrative genre discovered by Biber (1988); CNEMU obtains a higher score (-2.5) and thus resembles the genre of *professional letters* (-2.6); CEM is the most narrative Chinese learner corpus (-2.25) and is close to the genre of *academic prose* (-2.2) in Biber's scale. This seems to suggest that learners with higher proficiency are more capable of utilizing narrative devices to achieve a persuasive purpose.

The normalized frequencies presented in Table 3 explain the distributions of the four corpora. On the counts of PEAS and PUBV, NES is clearly higher than the three Chinese learner corpora while on another major feature, TPP3, it is negligibly lower than CEM but much higher than CNEMU and CHSS. The explanation for the low frequency of PEAS in Chinese learner corpora might be the complexity of the tense-aspect system in English. In English, aspects are often interrelated with tenses, which poses great difficulty to Chinese learners whose native language is non-inflected and tenseless (Chou & Wu, 2007). As a result, Chinese learners might hold a cautious attitude in using the perfect aspects.

For the high frequency of PUBV in NES, this study tends to attribute it to native speakers' inclination to use public verbs, especially *agree*. The concordances of PUBV reveal that more than half of the PUBVs in ENS are used to state central claims (e.g., *I agree that*, *I say*, etc.) whereas in Chinese learner corpora, similar claims are expressed with private verbs (e.g., *I think*, *I believe*, etc.). Interesting findings can also be observed between the three Chinese learner corpora. CEM and CNEMU show a minor difference in terms of their dimension scores but vary significantly on the counts of VBDs and TPP3: CNEMU has a higher rate of VBD use while CEM has more frequent use of TPP3. The reason might be CME's low frequency of FPP1 but high frequency of VPRT (see Table 2) in comparison to CNEMU. For CHSS, although it contains the greatest amount of VBDs among the four investigated corpora, its rare TPP3, PEAS, and SYNE significantly reduce the narrativity and thus contribute to a salient non-narrative style. The reason, except for CHSS's frequent use of FPP1 (see Table 2), might be again the complexity of PEAS and SYNE (compared to the analytic negation "*not*").

C. Dimension 3

Dimension 3 in Biber (1988) is associated with reference making in a text. The two poles of it respectively represent two converse manners of marking referents: explicit versus situation-dependent reference. Accordingly, the linguistic features contained in Dimension 3 can be divided into negative and positive groups as well according to their factor loadings. Positive linguistic features in this dimension contribute to the referential explicitness of a text, whereas features with negative loadings serve to "mark the physical and temporal situation" (Biber, 1988, p. 144). Discourses with high scores on this dimension are explicit in referents, for example, *official documents*. For those discourses that are with low scores, context-dependent referents appear frequently. A typical situation-dependent form of discourse is *broadcasts*, in which situations and time are attached with great importance.

As can be seen from Table 4, all the corpora examined in the present study are placed on the positive side of Dimension 3 and thus display a shared tendency towards explicit references. NES is the least referentially elaborated, and in Biber's (1988) dimension scale, it scores close to the genre of *religion* (3.7). The remaining three Chinese learner corpora, with CHSS and CEM respectively representing the least and the most referentially explicit corpora, exhibit a moderately developmental tendency towards explicit reference. The genre in Biber's scale that is the closest to CEM and CNEMU is *press reviews* (4.4); for CHSS, the nearest genre is *religion* (3.7).

TABLE 4
DIMENSION 3

	NES	CEM	CNEMU	CHSS
Dimension Score	3.17	4.85	4.46	3.73
Loading Features (Positive)				
WH relative clauses on object position (WHOBJ)	0.5	0.1	0.4	0.4
Pied-piping relative clauses (PIRE)	0.5	0.3	0.5	0
WH-relative clauses on subject position (WHSUB)	2.8	2.8	2.3	1.8
Phrasal coordination (PHC)	7.8	9.9	9.4	10.3
Nominalizations (NOMZ)	20.1	32.2	28.6	20.9
Loading Features (Negative)				
Time adverbials (TIME)	2.6	4.0	3.0	3.8
Place adverbials (PLACE)	3.3	2.8	2.6	2.3
Total adverbs (RB)	47.3	41.2	39.8	41.9

Table 4 presents the normalized frequencies of the features of the four corpora on Dimension 3. For the major positive loading features, NES is outnumbered by its Chinese counterparts on PHC and NOMZ, reflecting a comparatively less concern over explicit and elaborated references. As for the negative loading features, NES has slightly fewer TIMEs but noticeably more RBs than the three non-native corpora, hence illustrating a relatively heavier reliance on physical situation references. CHSS, CNEMU, and CEM differ considerably in the usage of NOMZ, but are quite consistent in their usage of the remaining features. Overall, native English speakers favor situation-dependent references in writing while Chinese learners of English prefer an elaborated and explicit manner in marking referents. This finding echoes the difference in informativeness between Chinese learners and native English speakers that is confirmed in the discussion of Dimension 1, as Biber (1988), in his interpretation of Dimension 3, points out that "referentially explicit discourse" also tends to be "informational" (Biber, 1988, p. 110). For the rising tendency among the three Chinese learner corpora, this study is inclined to ascribe it to their differences in the use of features marking informativeness, in particular nouns (NOMZ, though special, can still be classified into the noun category).

D. Dimension 4

Dimension 4 is interpreted as "Overt expression of persuasion" as it concerns the presence of persuasive features in a text. In Biber (1988), this dimension distinguishes between persuasive and less-persuasive discourses. Discourses with high scores on dimension 4 are common in having extensive persuasive features, for example, *professional letters* and *editorials*. By contrast, discourses with low scores on Dimension 4 are not persuasive in nature and show a rarity of persuasive features. A typical example is the register *broadcasts*, which, as claimed by Biber (1988), is extremely non-persuasive since it is "a simple reportage of events" and does not "involve opinion or argumentation at all" (Biber, 1988, p. 151).

All the four corpora on Dimension 4 (see Table 5) are well above zero, exhibiting an overt persuasive tone. Even CNEMU, the corpus which receives the lowest score among the four corpora, surpasses *professional letters* (3.5) - the most persuasive genre in Biber's (1988) dimensional scale. Again, this is expected, given that it is mostly argumentative writing that is targeted in the present study and that the primary purpose of argumentative writing is to persuade readers. To observe the dimension scores of the four corpora more closely, a clear distinction can be found between the native data and the three Chinese learner corpora. NES obtains by far the highest score (8.96) and therefore can be seen as highly persuasive in tone. Although CEM scores second to NES and still can be viewed as highly persuasive, it is much less persuasive than NES and resembles more closely the remaining two Chinese learner corpora. CHSS has a score slightly higher than that of CNEMU and consequently can also be described as persuasive as the genre *professional letters*.

TABLE 5
DIMENSION 4

	NES	CEM	CNEMU	MSS
Dimension Score	8.96	5.46	3.98	4.43
Loading Features (Positive)				
Infinitives (TO)	30.4	26.1	24.8	24.9
Predictive modals (PRMD)	11.1	8.6	8.3	8.6
Suasive verbs (SUAV)	6.0	2.8	2.4	2.7
Conditional adverbial subordinators (COND)	6.6	4.2	3.8	4.0
Necessity modals (NEMD)	5.8	8.4	7.4	8.4
Split auxiliaries (SPAU)	6.6	3.5	3.3	3.1

Table 5 shows that there are differences between Chinese learners of English and their native counterparts concerning the usage of persuasive features. The three Chinese learner corpora are higher in the use of NEMD, but significantly lower than the native speaker corpus on the rest of the linguistic features. It may suggest that Chinese EFL learners, in addition to their limited use of persuasive devices, tend to increase the persuasiveness of their writings by means of emphasizing the necessity of their arguments. A close examination of the linguistic forms of NEMD in the four corpora reflects that Chinese EFL learners use *should* and *must* far more frequently than native speakers do. Given

that *should* and *must* indicate an obligatory or even authoritative stance (Biber et al., 1999; Zheng, 2010), the high frequencies of NEMD of the three Chinese learner corpora seem to signal that the Chinese learners are "forcing" readers to accept their claims or arguments. Regarding the overuse of the NEMD of the Chinese learner corpora, researchers have provided various explanations. One is that Chinese learners of English might incline to use early learned modals such as *should*, due to their consideration of reducing the possibility of making mistakes (Gu, 2014). Another major explanation offered by Liang (2008) and Zheng (2010) concerns the genre appropriateness of modals. It is argued that Chinese EFL learners fail (or at least partly fail) to understand the underlying generic features of necessity modals.

E. Dimension 5

Dimension 5 relates to the distinction between "abstract" and "non-abstract" focuses. It is used to distinguish between discourses with a highly abstract and technical informational focus and those with a non-abstract focus (Biber, 1988). Like Dimensions 2 and 4, this dimension includes only linguistic features with positive loadings. Features that mark the abstract information cluster in great numbers in some highly informational and abstract discourses such as *academic prose,* while appear infrequently in discourses that are non-abstract and less informational, such as *conversations*.

As can be seen from Figure 1, the scores of the four corpora are distributed towards the positive end of Dimension 5 with a tiny score fluctuation (2.5 to 3.07), which means that they have a consistent abstract concern. In Biber's (1988) dimension scale, the four corpora fall between *official documents* (4.7) and *religion* (1.4). The dimension score that is close to them in related literature is provided by Van-Rooy (2008) in his MD analysis of the Tawana learner English corpus (3.5) which consists of argumentative student writings. Taken together, it seems plausible to conclude that argumentative writing is generally having a relatively high abstract focus.

TABLE 6
DIMENSION 5

	NES	CEM	CNEMU	CHSS
Dimension Score	3.0	2.89	3.07	2.5
Loading Features (Positive)				
Conjuncts (CONJ)	4.1	5.9	6.8	7.1
Agentless passives (PASS)	8.7	8.5	7.1	5.8
Past participial clauses (PASTP)	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.1
By-passives (BYPA)	0.6	0.8	1.0	0.6
Past participial WHIZ deletion relatives (WZPAST)	1.3	0.6	0.8	0.3
Other adverbial subordinators (OSUB)	3.1	2.2	1.9	2.1

Despite the fact that the four corpora share a similar degree of abstract focus, they vary markedly in their use of the features loaded on Dimension 5, especially between the native and non-native corpora. In Table 6, Chinese EFL learners appear to overuse CONJ in English writing while NES has higher frequencies of WZPAST and OSUB, which suggests that experienced L1 writers are more flexible in their use of linguistic features that contribute to the increase of abstractness. The overuse of conjuncts in Chinese EFL learner writings is also observed by Xu and Liu (2012) in their comparison between Chinese learners and native English speakers on the utilization of conjuncts. The primary reason, according to them, is that Chinese learners use conjuncts not for the sake of cohesion, but to abide by certain grammatical rules or assessment standards that encourage the use of conjuncts.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper aims to conduct a comprehensive investigation into the writings of Chinese EFL learners. To achieve this aim, MD analysis, a corpus-based approach that combines macroscopic and microscopic analysis, was adopted. The MD analysis results reveal a couple of interesting facts regarding the differences between Chinese learner corpora and native English data.

On "Involved versus informational production" dimension, Chinese EFL learners show higher involvement and informativeness than their native English counterparts in English writing. A microscopic examination reveals that Chinese EFL learners favour the use of involvement features, nouns, and adjectives, and thus display an involved and at the same time informational writing style. Native speakers, by contrast, show a low involved writing style manifested by sparse use of involvement features. Besides, they surpass Chinese learners on type/token ratio and the use of prepositions, and therefore their writings can also be characterized by high precision of word choice and high integration of information.

As for the second dimension, "Narrative versus non-narrative concerns", the three groups of Chinese learners demonstrate a greater tendency towards non-narrative concerns than native English speakers because of their limited use of narrative devices, especially the perfect aspect and public verbs.

On Dimension 3, "Explicit versus situation-dependent reference", both Chinese learners and native English speakers tend to make frequent use of explicit references in writing, with the difference being that Chinese learners show a slightly higher degree. A close look at their use of linguistic features shows that phrasal coordination and

nominalization occur more in writings by Chinese learners than in those by native English speakers. Native English speakers, on the contrary, make relatively more use of situation-dependent features such as place adverbials and other adverbs.

On Dimension 4, which involves the persuasiveness of a text, Chinese EFL learners score markedly low on persuasiveness in writing compared with their native English counterparts. They are found to overuse necessity modals while underuse other persuasive devices such as infinitives, predicative modals, suasive verbs, conditional adverbial subordinators, and split auxiliaries, if native English speakers' corresponding uses are taken as the benchmark.

On Dimension 5, "Abstract versus non-abstract information", the two groups show a similar focus on abstract information, but again they exhibit different preferences in their use of the features included in this dimension. Chinese EFL learners are shown to overuse conjuncts in writing while native speakers make a somewhat greater use of agentless passives, past participial WHIZ deletion relatives, and adverbial subordinators.

Concerning the differences between varied Chinese EFL learner groups, some interesting findings are also worth mentioning. On the first dimension, it is revealed that writings by learners from higher English education levels tend to be less involved but more informational in style. This is manifested by their greater use of informational features but less use of involvement features. On Dimensions 2, 3, and 4, an ascending tendency is found. Writings by Chinese EFL learners at higher education levels become more informational, more narrative, more explicit in making references, and more persuasive, and the driving force is their increasing use of informational devices, narrative devices, devices marking referential explicitness, and persuasive devices.

The above findings may provide some pedagogical implications for L2 writing. First, raising learners' register awareness should be emphasized in learners' writing practices. The overly involved writing style of Chinese learners and some informal expressions (e.g., contractions) indicate that they lack an understanding of the basic differences between speaking and writing and cannot write as the register required. The excessive use of involvement features, in addition to causing high vocabulary repetition which might impact the evaluation of writings, also makes writings "drowning" in subjectivity and spoken like. While the present study proposes that improving learners' language proficiency and increasing the exposure to written language can contribute to the lowering of involvement in learner writings, it seems to be more efficient and less time-consuming to directly raise their register awareness, the lack of which lies at the root of the issue.

Second, some involvement features, though closely related to spoken registers and subjectivity, can perform important rhetorical functions and accordingly should not be entirely avoided in writing. To take first-person pronouns as an example, Hyland (2001, 2002a, 2002b) argues that first-person pronouns possess important rhetorical functions including emphasizing the author's contribution and guiding readers, and consequently points out that avoiding personal pronouns, which is encouraged in some writing manuals or instructions, might do a "disservice" to L2 learners. From Table 3, we can see that experienced L1 writers, also utilized a certain amount of involvement features in their writings. Therefore, to prevent EFL learners from one extreme (i.e., high involvement) to the other (i.e., high detachment), the special functions performed by involvement features should be properly imparted to EFL learners.

Lastly, Chinese EFL learners' underuse and overuse of specific linguistic features may help highlight the aspects on which their writings can be further improved. For example, on Dimension 4, non-native writers could draw on native English writers' usage of persuasive devices to increase the persuasiveness of their writings.

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Enhancing Reading Comprehension Skills of Prospective Teachers Using Suitable Reading Strategies

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Abstract—This study focused on using appropriate reading strategies to improve the reading comprehension of prospective teachers in two teacher education colleges in the Vellore District of Tamil Nadu, India. The paper begins by introducing the importance of English language in the contemporary environment, and then highlights the significance of reading comprehension for academic purposes. Three reading strategies were employed in the experimental study. The sample size and the testing methods employed in the experiment are described in the methodology section. The statistical analysis to determine the reading comprehension skills was done with mean, paired sample t-test and co-efficient. The results confirm that the use of appropriate reading strategies enhances the reading comprehension skills of the samples.

Index Terms—academic language, reading comprehension, reading strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

English is a major international link language that is predominantly used in the Internet, in commerce, politics, courts, industry, education, and entertainment. Therefore, it is essential to effectively comprehend English. It serves as a passport to higher education and offers a fillip in enhancing career prospects. The usage of the English language in modern-day communication, films, journals and newspapers and in social media has necessitated the "understanding of English" in all its dimensions.

A British Council report of 1999 claims that worldwide, there are one billion English language learners. In many communities, such as those in Cameroon or India, daily existence requires speaking more than one language. In addition to L2 users, linguistic minorities need another language for education or healthcare.

To provide learners with activities and skills that are appropriate for their language and academic performance, teachers need to implement creative aspects and employ innovative strategies to teach academic self-concepts and offer skills that are suitable for their academic and language achievement (Fareen, 2013). Learning a second language raises learners' awareness level and serves as a means of significant exposure to the mother tongue. It also enhances the learning of new cognitive skills. Learners widen their views and their outlook on society by mastering another language (Cook, 2007).

This paper addresses the issues and viewpoints of teachers as well as that of prospective teachers studying in education colleges (B.Ed.) to improve English communication skills in those colleges. Readers are usually unaware of the cognitive process taking place within their brain. Reading is a receptive process that consciously or subconsciously involves the use of one's fingers, eyes, brain, ears (in loud reading) and memory. Reading is more of a psychological interaction than a purely physiological process. This is demonstrated by the fact that many notable personalities have spent a significant portion of their lives reading.

A. Reading Comprehension Skills and Academic Language

Reading is a form of bi-polar communication in which the writer communicates with the reader or vice versa. It occurs in the physical and the mental realm. Reading is a transformational experience as well as a philological practice. Those who excel in reading also excel in processing and evaluating information. Understanding leads to acquisition of knowledge. In human memory, knowledge is arranged into components called 'schema' or 'schemata.' The information already stored in long-term memory is called schema, and it is activated by the development of information and by comparing it to the source that is already recorded in long-term memory. Knowledge, which is portrayed as a psycholinguistic model of reading, is a conceptual system for comprehending.

Alshumaimeri (2011) observed a positive impact of the reading method on Saudi EFL students' comprehension performance. He states that reading is an important skill for both learning and communication. Reading lessons,

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according to current educational trends, is a vital stage in the development of mental and linguistic talents. Reading quietly, reading with subvocalization (creating the sounds of the words while reading silently), and reading aloud to oneself are all examples of reading strategies. Whenever readers have adequately researched the subject, they understand the context better and also perform well linguistically. However, when they do not think about the subject beforehand and do not read adequately about the topic, they struggle to engage with the assignment or activity (Holme & Chalauisaeng, 2006).

The level of literacy competence of future generations is greatly influenced by prospective teachers. However, this circumstance also raises questions regarding the motivation behind reading and the attitudes of potential teachers towards reading skills. This study was done to examine these aspects. Academic, social, professional, and personal criteria were considered for analyzing the reading skills of the potential teachers. The data were examined based on the guidelines of content analysis. Each criterion was calculated using the frequencies and percentages of participant responses. The study reiterated that the reading skills of prospective teachers were vital for academic, social, and personal reasons. Practical education, a general cultural knowledge and professional competencies are required for teachers to perform well in their profession. The intellectual, social, and personal benefits of reading skills are directly related to the requirements. Reading is, therefore, essential for being a successful teacher (Dogan, 2014).

The units of reading are determined on the basis of contextual knowledge and an individual's reading abilities. Reading proficiency is crucial for academic success. The use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies can improve reading comprehension. For better comprehension, learners need to master the principles of reading skills. The first stage in learning a language is learning without comprehending the text. While reading comprehension is taught in schools and universities across the world, it is mainly taught using the traditional approach of comprehension, which seldom helps achieve the desired effect. When learners use the same strategy to grasp texts of various genres and levels, they are more likely to miss the crux of the material. If a learner excels in reading, he or she will excel in overall academics as well, which subsequently leads to success in academic and professional situations.

B. Reading Comprehension Process

Reading is a receptive, psycholinguistic process, which is similar for all the subjects, regardless of race, age or reading proficiency. All readers employ the three-cueing system, namely graphophones, syntactic, and semantic systems (Goodman, 1970). Before the turn of the twentieth century, attempts were made to comprehend the reading process. For instance, Huey (1898) contended that if we could comprehend reading, we might comprehend how the human brain functions. A reader's ability to recognize words and construct meanings is an important part of their reading process. According to the word recognition (WR) view, Writing is a secondary representation of communication because spoken language is spontaneous and easy to understand. The only way to access the meaning of words is by matching them to their verbal equivalents in the lexicon. This process of word recognition needs to become quick, precise, and automated for typical readers to read at the appropriate pace (Goodman, 1997).
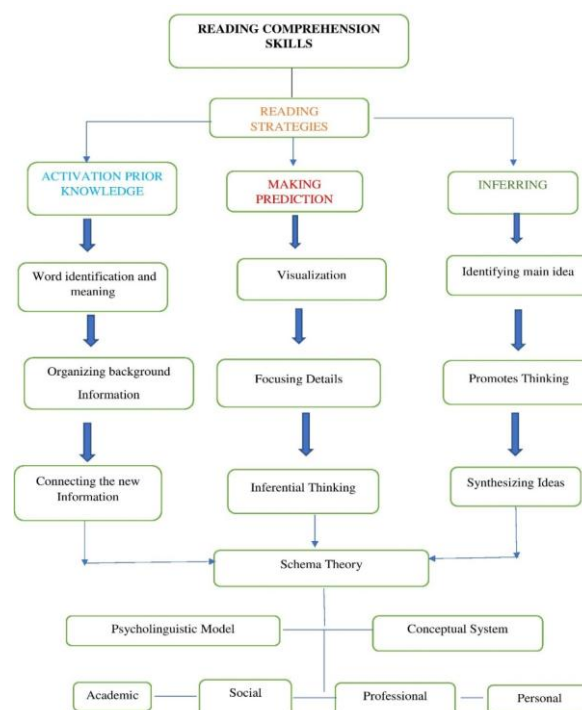

Figure 1

Figure 1 illustrates the conceptual framework of reading comprehension. In this study, three reading strategies, namely, activation of prior knowledge, making predictions, and inferring were employed to enhance reading comprehension.

C. Schema Theory in Reading

"Schema theory combines neuroscience's well-established terminology for levels of structural analysis (brain region, neuron, synapse) with a functional vocabulary, a framework for analyzing behavior that does not require a commitment to hypotheses on the localization of each schema (unit of functional analysis), but can be linked to a structural analysis when necessary" (Arbib, 1992). Even if the application of the schema changes from domain to domain, schema offers a high-level of language that is shared by brain researchers, cognitive scientists, connectionists, ethologists, and even kinesiologists. A person with good comprehension agrees that top-down processing aspects that go beyond schema availability should be given more attention. "Knowledge-based" approach denotes the "top-down" strategy, whereas "text-based" approach refers to the "bottom-up" approach.

Barsalou (1999) states that perceptual symbol system theory is perhaps the most renowned reading comprehension theory. In addition, he argues that sensory experiences (audition, vision, taste, smell, and touch) are directly stored in long-term memory. Schemata have also been proposed in cognitive linguistics as a mechanism to relate physical activities, perceptual experience, and semantic thinking. It is worth emphasizing that adopting feature schemata is more of an art than a science, while adding or removing a single schema seldom has a substantial influence on performance. However, the overall impact of a large number of well-chosen schemata may be remarkable (Charniak & Johnson, 2005). Having schematic knowledge offers the advantage of relying on default information.

D. Reading Strategies

It is important for proficient readers to actively engage with the text and be aware of their strategies for comprehending it. Through the teaching of reading skills, teachers may aid students in improving comprehension. Research has demonstrated that using strategies like prediction, making connections, visualizing, inferring, questioning, and summarizing can help readers understand what they are reading (Block & Israel, 2005). The following reading strategies were predominantly used in this study.

(a). Activation of Prior Knowledge

Learners need to have good reading skills when learning a language, which in turn, stimulates knowledge acquisition. Reading is not just a process of obtaining new knowledge, but it also helps make a connection between the prior knowledge of the readers and their understanding of the text.

A study says that this strategy was contrasted with a more conventional text-based strategy where the emphasis was on picking out crucial facts as the readers read, much like an innervation reading position (Spires & Donley, 1998).

Short story previews that emphasized on recalling previous information crucial to comprehending the text, as one of its components, were inspired by the strategy of 'Enhancing Prior Knowledge'. This has shown that activating such knowledge boosts comprehension. According to the study, learners' learning from stories was significantly enhanced when they read the previews before reading the stories (Graves & Cooke, 1980).

Current research seems to support the need for giving students the activation of their past knowledge or the creation of a foundation if one does not already exist. It is crucial to provide students with opportunities to use their collective experiences and past knowledge. Through this procedure, teachers help students transition from mere memorization of facts to meaningful learning. It also initiates the process of linking learning experiences rather than just retaining them as isolated facts. Prior knowledge is a crucial component in this effort to create meaning (Christen & Murphy, 1991).

(b). Making Prediction

Educators and academics more commonly refer to the use of previous information as guessing, whereas official psychological language typically identifies it as hypothesis testing. Reading is thought to be impossible without prediction, and as children only learn to read via reading, the chance to practice and improve prediction abilities must be an essential component of learning to read (Smith, 1975).

The strategy of making prediction is recommended for enhancing learners' comprehension of texts in the teaching–learning process. This paper confirms that making predictions enhances reading comprehension skills. This strategy is taught to learners to help them anticipate the text's content in light of their prior knowledge. Students learn how to arrange information before reading a book, compare it to information they have heard before, and then combine both sets of information after reading (Jufri, 2018).

Increased executive functioning, such as planning and organizing, is vital in improving reading comprehension skills, according to a more recent study (Locascio et al., 2010). Making predictions, keeping track of what they are reading, sequencing and retelling a text, and making conclusions are all part of planning and organizing. Several studies on these skills emphasize the value of imparting inference-making strategy.

(c). Inferring

Drawing conclusions from information that is indirect rather than explicitly stated is known as inferring. It is a crucial ability in reading comprehension. Inferring denotes drawing personal meaning from the content. Certainly, it is

the inference strategy, in which the reader attempts to comprehend and interpret the reading material by projecting his/her meaning on it. With prior knowledge about the content, the reader understands the link between obviously stated information and inferred information, and he/she draws inferences from it (Zwiers, 2004).

Qualitative studies have revealed similarities and discrepancies between the inference processes employed by young readers and adults (Linda, 1990). When a barrier is reached, focus declines. Readers who possess high proficiency and good background knowledge verify existing interpretation and empathize with the substance. Assuming default interpretations and withholding or repeating information are the strategies most commonly used with readers who are low in skill and have less background knowledge (Phillips, 1988).

Attaprechakul (2013) investigated the inference strategy required for effective reading of a journal article, and found that the learners frequently used bottom-up processing. They omitted challenging material, particularly the technical details and the graphics. To improve their comprehension, they asked peers for assistance. Samples were effective in understanding the thesis statement, the main idea of the section, and the definitions of the examined terms and clauses. The underlying thesis, the article's tone, and other people's perceptions of the research findings, on the other hand, were harder for them to infer.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Samples

The samples for this study were B.Ed. students from urban and rural areas enrolled in Vellore District, Tamil Nadu, India. B.Ed. is a two-year professional teacher training program, which aspiring teachers undergo after graduating in Arts or Sciences. B.Ed. is a prerequisite for a becoming a secondary level teacher in India. The samples comprising females and males were in the age group of 22 to 26 years. The majority of them had studied in Tamil, their native language, till their undergraduate Programs. Most of them struggled to comprehend what they were reading because they were reading in English.

The composite Vellore district has 43 B.Ed. institutions, which includes 42 private institutions and 1 government institution. For this study, a government institution and a private college were selected. The samples were split into two groups: controlled and experimental. The sample size was calculated on the basis of the Kerjcie-Morgan formula, Therefore, 120 samples consisting of 60 in the experimental and 60 in the control group from both the colleges took part in the study. The study's main objective was to enhance the reading comprehension abilities of samples using suitable reading strategies. The samples of both the private and the government college benefitted from enhancement in their reading comprehension skills using the strategies.

B. Methods and Materials

The study considered the significant positive strategies to improve reading comprehension skills. Research findings highlight the value of employing reading strategies to increase reading comprehension and enhance the overall English language and academic achievement. This is an important aspect with aspiring teachers because it will be reflected in their profession as full-time teachers.

C. Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were considered for this experiment.
- H_01: There is no difference in the mean value between the Control Group and Experimental Group of Private College.
- H_02: There is no difference in the mean value between the Control Group and Experimental Group of Government College.
- H_03: There is no enhancement in reading comprehension among prospective students.

Research methodology for the study employed was the pre-test / post-test design.

The experiment included:
- Pilot study
- Pre-test
- Treatment
- Post-test
- Data Analysis

(a). Pilot Study

To assess the Post viability of the research, a pilot study on reading comprehension was carried out at the beginning with 10% of the population. Following that, tests of reading comprehension were conducted based on the inputs derived from the pilot study. The strategies used in the main study and the pilot study were identical. Additionally, data on the participants' experiences outside of the classroom and their opinions were gathered.

(b). Questionnaire

To gather the necessary personal and academic data and to conduct the investigation, a questionnaire was distributed and collected from 150 samples.

(c). Pre-Test and Post-Test

The study used the pre-test and post-test design. Questions for the pre-test and the post-test were adapted from IELTS and the test items were attuned to the reading comprehension level of the samples. All the questions were of multiple-choice. The goal was to make the samples identify and use the information in the provided content. They had to determine the author's point of view, matching the data to the inquiries. Also included was a summary or inference of the data from the notes, tables, and flowcharts. The aim was to help the samples comprehend the questions and provide a brief response. Effective comprehension is required for sentence completion and sentence matching tasks. The validity and reliability of the pre-test and post-test were investigated prior to the pilot research. Following the pre-test, the experimental samples were offered 30 sessions on using strategies to enhance reading comprehension. To help them with better reading comprehension, flexible schedules were adopted. Strangely, the samples that had difficulty in understanding the 'content' had a clear understanding of the 'context'. The samples were instructed to read using the appropriate reading strategies. At the end of the experiment, the samples exhibited better comprehension than at the beginning.

The study confirmed a positive variation in the reading performance of the samples between the pre-test and post-test. The goal was to continuously track the samples' development over the given time. At the exit level, the post-test was administered. Statistical techniques were used for analyzing the data and assessing if reading comprehension skills among prospective teachers of Vellore district improved with the use of reading strategies.

(d). Reading Strategies Employed

The following reading strategies were employed in this study:
- Activating prior knowledge
- Making prediction
- Drawing inference

(e). Test Items

The 50-minute pre-test, which had five sections comprising five test items, employed the following test items. The questions did not test their memory, but were aimed at assessing their comprehension level. Multiple choice questions (MCQs) on reading comprehension were given. The total score of 50 marks was distributed as 10 marks for each section. The test items included:
1) Questions on topics that the samples had prior knowledge about
2) Completing sentences by guessing the content
3) Reading the instruction and guessing the recipe
4) Reading a news lead and comprehending it
5) Studying a picture and answering questions.

TABLE 1

Sl. No.	Test Items	Measuring Readers' Understanding of the Text	Marks	Time (Mins.)
1	Reading Comprehension	Understanding the Question and Gaining the Response	10	10
2	Vocabulary	Recognizing the Subject and Retrieving the Answer	10	10
3	Activation of Prior Knowledge	Building a Connection between the text and their prior knowledge (From the First-semester Syllabus)	10	10
4	Prediction	Prediction/ guessing the terms that they already know; if not, confirming it with proper reference	10	10
5	Inference	Drawing personal meaning from the text and presenting it clearly in their own words	10	10

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

The following tools were used for analyzing the data:
- Mean and Coefficient of variation
- Standard Deviation (SD)
- Paired t-test

To enhance the effectiveness of reading comprehension strategies, the mean and coefficient of variation of the pre-test and post-test scores of two separate groups were estimated.

TABLE 2

Private College - Control Group				
		Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Control Group	Pre-test	16.53	30	4.848
	Post-test	16.17	30	4.921

Table 2 shows the mean value of control groups. The pre-test mean value is 16.53 and the post-test mean value is 16.17. So, there is no considerable enhancement between pre-test and post-test among control group. There was no intervention and use of strategies in the control group.

TABLE 3

Private College – Experimental Group				
		Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Experimental group	Pre-test	15.20	30	4.483
	Post-test	18.77	30	3.645

Table 3 illustrates that after the use of reading strategies such as activating prior knowledge, making predictions, and drawing inference significantly influenced the reading comprehension skills of the experimental group. The pre-test mean value is 15.20 while Post-test mean value is 18.77. The samples' mean score showed a remarkable improvement and their reading comprehension skills were also enhanced. The strategies positively influenced the reading skills of the samples as seen in the improvement in post-test scores of the samples of the experimental group of private college. The samples could enhance their reading comprehension skills in the English language and the paired-test value of pre-test and post-test is shown in Figure 2.
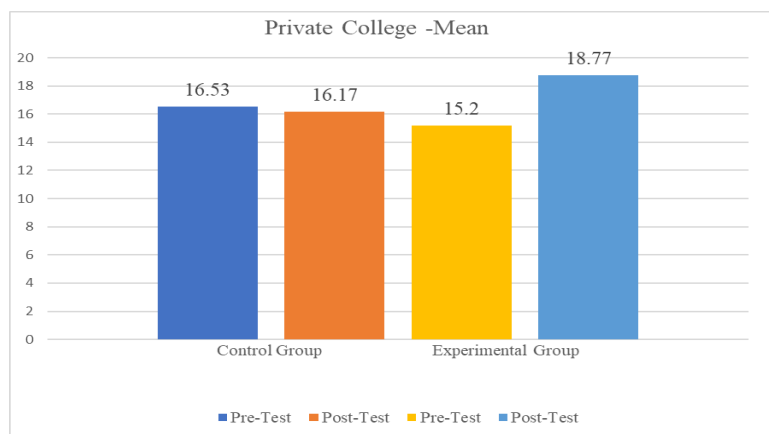
Figure 2

Paired sample T-Test

Figure 2 shows the variation amid the pre-test and the post-test value of the samples from private college. There was no considerable variation in the value of the pre-test and post-test of the control group while there was a noticeable improvement in understanding of the text skills of the experimental group samples. There were three reading strategies namely activating prior knowledge, making prediction, and drawing inference introduced for improving reading comprehension skills.

TABLE 4

Private College		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	T	Df	Sig.
Control group	Pre & Post Test	.367	1.245	.227	1.613	29	.118
Experimental group	Pre & Post Test	3.567	2.635	.481	7.414	29	.000

Table 4 shows the outcome of paired sample t-test value of private college. The control group significance value is .188 and the experimental group' p-value is below 0.05 and it is proved the effectiveness of reading strategies in enhancing reading comprehension skills amid prospective teachers of Vellore district.

TABLE 5

Government College		Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Control group	Pre-test	17.83	30	4.542
	Post-test	17.10	30	5.108

Table 5 shows the mean value of control groups of reading comprehension skills. The pre-test mean value is 17.83 and the post-test mean value is 17.10. So, there is no considerable enhancement between pre-test and post-test among the control group. They followed the same conventional method of reading. There is no intervention and strategies were implemented for the control group of the government college.

TABLE 6

Government College		Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Experimental group	Pre-test	15.20	30	4.483
	Post-test	19.67	30	3.565

From Table 6 it is evident that after the intervention of reading strategies - activating prior knowledge, making prediction, and drawing inference - the reading comprehension skills improved considerably. The mean score increased, which confirmed that their reading comprehension skills were enhanced, as seen in the paired t-test because the obtained t-value is greater than the critical t-value. The paired-test value of pre-test and post-test is shown in the figure.
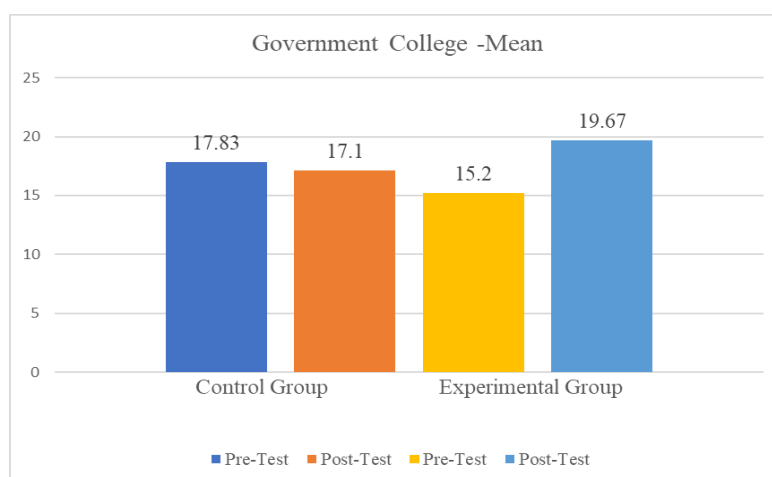
Figure 3

Figure 3 shows the variation amid the pre and post-test reading comprehension skills of government college prospective teachers of Vellore district. There was no noteworthy variation in the value of pre and post-test among control groups but there was a considerable enhancement in reading comprehension skills among experimental groups.

TABLE 7

Government College		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	T	Df	Sig.
Control group	Pre & Post Test	.733	3.832	.700	1.048	29	.303
Experimental group	Pre & Post Test	4.467	3.037	.554	8.056	29	.000

Table 7 shows the outcomes of paired sample t-test value of government college. The control group significance value is .303 and the experimental group' p-value is below 0.05 and confirmed the effectiveness of reading strategies in enhancing reading comprehension skills among prospective teachers of Vellore district.

The data in the graph shows that the post-test score of the experimental group was greater than the post-test values of the controlled group. Additionally, the percentage shows that it was higher than that of the controlled groups. This proves that the use of reading strategies to teach reading comprehension to the learners was successful with the samples.

IV. DISCUSSIONS

The difference in the mean value between the Control Group and Experimental Group samples of both, the Private College and the Government College, confirmed that there has enhanced in the reading comprehension skills among the experimental group with the use of reading strategies. We can infer that the reading comprehension of the prospective teachers of Vellore district improved significantly with the use of the reading strategies chosen for the study.

V. CONCLUSION

The results indicate that there is a significant difference in the pre-test and post-test scores between the experimental and control groups. The samples benefited from better reading comprehension skills as a result of using the reading strategies. Based on their performance in the post-test, we can conclude that the use of reading strategies had a positive effect on the reading skills of the samples. Regardless of the category of college chosen, the study suggests that strategies may be employed with graduate teachers to help them augment their reading comprehension. The statistical analysis of the research experiment conducted by the researcher exhibits the efficacy of the application of strategies in enhancing the reading comprehension in the English of the prospective teachers.

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The Effect of Presentation-Assimilation-Discussion (PAD) Class Model on Chinese Undergraduates' Business English Writing Performance

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Abstract—As China's economy and society keep expanding, the significance of business English in worldwide communication remains progressively crucial. Ensuring that China's business English talent training meets global standards is a priority. It has, therefore, become crucial and time-consuming to figure out how to help Chinese students enhance their business English writing skills. Zhang Xuexin, a Chinese professor at Fudan University, proposed the PAD (Presentation-Assimilation-Discussion) Class Model. Since it was presented, many academics and educators have supported it. This study involved 50 undergraduates from a Chinese university, including 25 in the experimental and control classes respectively. The 12-week teaching experiment was followed by interviews with a few students from the experimental class to investigate the influence of the PAD Class Model on the overall score and sub scores of Chinese students' business English writing, as well as the acceptability of the PAD Class Model. Through the analysis of the pre- and post-tests by SPSS, the results indicate that the utilization of PAD Class Model can substantially raise the overall score and the sub scores of content, language, appropriateness, grammar, and organization for undergraduate business English writing. Furthermore, by assessing the interview findings of the experimental class, compared to the conventional teaching model, PAD Class Model serves a more conspicuous role in boosting students' interest in Business English writing, and PAD Class Model is universally accepted by students.

Index Terms—business English writing, PAD class model, Chinese undergraduates

I. INTRODUCTION

Economic globalization has become an increasingly essential trend as the international economy has progressed through time. To facilitate commerce and cultural connections between China and other countries, Business English has emerged as a critical linguistic instrument for international business (Niu et al., 2021). English as a Second Language (ESL) instruction in China has benefited from the expansion of economic globalization. Particularly China's Belt and Road Initiative has strengthened international trade and raised the requirement for business English instruction at universities and colleges (Geng, 2019). Professionals working in international trade rely heavily on their ability to communicate effectively via the medium of writing, which is a key requirement of business English proficiency. Front-line educators at colleges and universities have been working on ways to improve students' abilities to write business English in a professional setting for quite some time. Consequently, Business English Writing serves a vital role in the education and training of business English abilities as an essential course in English major (Sun, 2020).

Business English writing instruction has undergone a wide variety of teaching methods, including outcome teaching, process teaching, genre teaching, case teaching, task-based teaching, etc (Zhang, 2017). However, in the current context, the outlook for business English writing teaching in China remains gloomy, and students' writing attitudes are incorrect, they lack excellent writing habits, and their writing competence is weak (Qiu & Zhang, 2014; Zhang & Gao, 2019). Meanwhile, teachers and students have varying levels of experience in different area, which affects the effectiveness of their instruction. Some colleges and universities, in particular, have issues with the teaching of business English writing, such as outdated teaching techniques, copying of the teaching methods of general English writing courses, low student enthusiasm, limited progress in writing ability, and so on and so forth (Wu, 2019).

How to effectively enhance students' business English writing ability is still an essential subject with a long way to go. Professor Zhang Xuexin of Fudan University, China put up a new teaching model named PAD (Presentation-Assimilation-Discussion) class (Zhang, 2014). This paradigm has evident advantages in educational ideas, techniques and evaluation. Since it was put forward, it has been favored by many scholars and teachers. Practice has demonstrated

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that the PAD model may effectively mobilize college students' learning passion and increase classroom efficiency (Chen, 2016; Li, 2016; Zhao & Zhang, 2018). Therefore, this study applies the PAD model to business English writing instruction and analyzes the effect of this model on Chinese undergraduate Business English writing performance.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. The Definition of PAD Class Model

The PAD (Presentation-Assimilation-Discussion) Class Model was suggested by renowned professor Zhang Xuexin as a new teaching mode in 2013. This instructional strategy divides class time into two segments. The first half is devoted to teacher explanations and the second half is dedicated to student collaboration and debate (half of the class time here can be changeable according to the specific classroom situation). Its objective is to space out the teacher's explanations and the students' discussion so that students have adequate time to absorb and assimilate the knowledge they have acquired (Zhang, 2017). The PAD Class Model splits instruction into three distinct time-stamped processes: Presentation, Assimilation, and Discussion. That is why the model is referred to be the PAD Class Model (Zhang, 2014). Similar to traditional classes, the PAD Class Model places an emphasis on teachers teaching first and students learning subsequently. What distinguishes it is the emphasis on the "assimilation" process, which includes "interactive learning" among students and "autonomous learning".

The PAD Class Model is classified into two categories. One is referred to as the "In-class PAD Class Model," while the other is referred to as the "Cross-class PAD Class Model" (Dong et al., 2017). The PAD Class Model is known to have three processes. Presentation, assimilation, and discussion are the three components. It will be a Cross-class PAD Class Model if the assimilation and discussion parts are arranged in the next class, and current class discusses the content of the prior class (Figure 1).
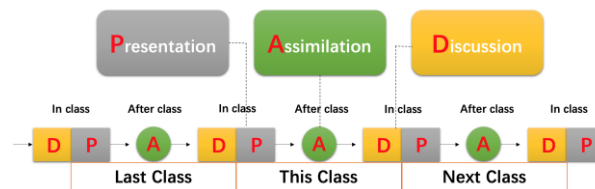
Figure 1. Cross-class PAD Class Model

It is an In-class PAD Class Model if the assimilation and discussion parts are combined in one class. According to the actual class situation and teaching tasks, the instructor can choose one time In-class PAD Class Model or many times In-class PAD Class Model (Figure 2).
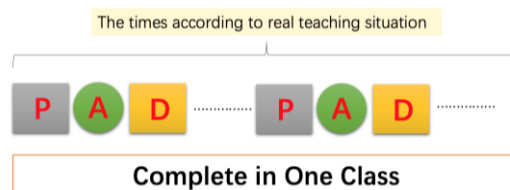
Figure 2. In-class PAD Class Model

B. The Implementation Procedure of PAD Class Model

The procedure of PAD Class includes five steps: Preparation, Presentation, Assimilation, Discussion, Assessment (Chen & Zhang, 2019). The Table 1 is the specific procedure of the PAD Class.

TABLE 1
PAD CLASS MODEL PROCEDURE

		Procedure
Step 1	Preparation	Teaching syllable and Time schedule Teaching objectives Teaching materials Teaching environment Students' analysis
Step 2	Presentation	Only half of the class period is dedicated to instruction by the teacher. Teacher conveys the framework of knowledge and its logical patterns to students. On a macro level, the teacher instructs students on what, why, and how to learn.
Step 3	Assimilation	In Cross-class PAD Model, students need to accomplish the tasks including reading, reviewing, independent thinking, and completing homework after the class. For In-class PAD Model, all the tasks are completed in the class.
Step 4	Discussion	Group discussion Class discussion Teacher's assistance
Step 5	Assessment	PAD Model emphasizes the formative assessment. Teachers usually evaluate students' performance by their behaviors and portfolios in the learning process.

C. The Research Status of PAD Class Model

Professor Zhang Xuexin of Fudan University, China pioneered the concept of "PAD Class" in 2014 with a paper titled PAD Class: A New Exploration of University Teaching Reform, laying the theoretical and practical groundwork for PAD Class (Zhang, 2014). In recent years, researchers have conducted pertinent studies and experiments, establishing a positive trend in PAD Class research. The following aspects summarize the current state of research and development for the PAD Class Model.

(a). Theoretical Research on PAD Class

Regarding theoretical study, scholars concentrate primarily on the substantial educational transformation brought about by PAD, elaborating on PAD's theoretical foundation, characteristics and benefits, teachers' and students' roles, instructional ideas, etc. By evaluating the connotation of PAD and constructivism, Tian et al. (2017) investigated the theoretical basis of PAD's Constructivism from the perspectives of constructivist knowledge, student view, and teaching view. Cheng (2019) examined the benefits, influencing variables, and successful techniques of PAD in English instruction, based on the connotation and features of PAD, and confirmed the viability of PAD in English teaching. Yang et al. (2015) dynamically analyzed the changes of teachers' and students' roles in different links of PAD from the perspective of teachers' and students' roles. In summarizing the theoretical study on PAD, it is evident that researchers are generally enthusiastic about the PAD teaching mode and recognize the decent role this new teaching mode plays in addressing educational issues and encouraging teaching reform.

(b). Experimental Research on PAD Class

In comparison to theoretical study, research on the PAD teaching model in practice is more substantial. Wang (2021), in conjunction with the Cross-class PAD Model and Production-oriented Approach, investigated the teaching mode of the combination of PAD and Blended-teaching and explored new approaches to better comprehend the driving, facilitating, and evaluative links in teaching. Deng (2021) discussed the applicability of the flipped classroom and PAD model in the Transportation Economics classroom. They developed a four-step approach of instruction consisting of Preview, Intensive Lecture, Collaborative Discussion, and Independent Digestion. A more successful flipped classroom model has been gradually developed via practice. Under the teaching concept of PAD, Wang (2020) proposed the "four element teaching" approach, consisting of Teaching, Independent learning, Group Discussion, and Q & A. Utilizing "DingTalk" and "Wing Class" as the teaching platform, she investigates the teaching model to enhance the effectiveness of online high school English instruction. Fu (2021) used the Web-class platform in collaboration with the PAD to teach college English. Students' learning passion has considerably improved after a semester of teaching.

Liu (2019) investigated the PAD-assisted college English vocabulary teaching paradigm and conducted a practical study with a middle school in Sichuan Province, China. The findings demonstrate that the majority of students actively participate in PAD, and that the effect of high school English vocabulary instruction has improved dramatically. Guo (2019) used the PAD teaching style in two sophomore English major classrooms to see if he could find a way to alleviate the problem of time-consuming and inefficient reading class teaching. Following a one-year teaching trial, it was discovered that students' reading levels had improved, as had their learning passion and autonomy. Additionally, their ability to think and innovate has been enhanced. Li (2020) developed PAD to address frequent issues in oral English classrooms, such as a lack of opportunities for oral practice and a poor impact of oral English instruction. The findings of the study indicate that using PAD boosted the effectiveness of oral English instruction.

The practical research on PAD is fairly comprehensive, exhibiting strong vitality and universal adaptability, as can be seen from the discipline and instruction stage of PAD application. PAD performs a real and effective function in enhancing classroom efficiency, improving learning effect, strengthening teacher-student relationships, and stimulating students' learning passion and interest, according to the results of practical research.

D. Business English Writing Instruction in China

As a required course for Business English majors, Business English Writing is critical in developing business English talent (Sun, 2020). According to the Teaching Guide for Undergraduate Business English Majors in Colleges and Universities (2020), the purpose of the Business English Writing course is to develop students' ability to select appropriate writing strategies for effective communication in an international business environment (Yan, 2020). In terms of instruction method of Business English Writing, Chinese scholars have mainly utilized the following methods: result-based instruction, process-based instruction, genre-based instruction, case-based instruction, and task-based instruction (Zhang, 2017). However, because teachers and students are at varying levels in colleges and universities, the teaching effect is quite different. Certain colleges and universities, in particular, have issues with the teaching of business English writing, including outdated teaching methods, copying the teaching methods used in general English writing courses, low student enthusiasm, and limited improvement in writing ability (Wu, 2019).

To summarize, relevant research on the PAD Class Model has made significant progress and yielded some results thus far. However, after reviewing and analyzing these literatures, it was discovered that the PAD approach has not been used to teach Business English writing. As a result, the influence of PAD on Chinese undergraduates' Business English writing competence is investigated in this study. Its goal is to find answers to the following research questions.

RQ 1: Is there a significant difference between the experimental and control groups' overall scores of Chinese undergraduates' business English writing taught by PAD Class Model?

RQ 2: Is there a significant difference between the experimental and control groups' scores of business English writing in terms of content, language appropriateness, grammar, and organization?

RQ 3: How do Chinese undergraduates feel about the PAD Class Model for business English writing instruction?

Pre-test and post-test are used to illustrate the first and second questions. The interview addresses the third question. After the experiment, the interview takes place. The tests are writing tasks to examine the influence of PAD Class Model on Chinese students' Business English Writing score.

III. METHOD

A. Research Design and Participants

Using the PAD Class Model, this study was able to examine how Chinese undergraduates' Business English writing performance was affected. Mixed-methods research is used in this study. The study employed quantitative data to address questions 1 and 2 of the study. Prior to and following the research process, both pre and post-tests were conducted. All examinations were based on BUSINESS ENGLISH CERTIFICATE (BEC) written tests to ensure the findings' reliability and validity. Business English writing performance on pre- and post-tests was evaluated using the public version of BEC writing and its rubrics, including content, language appropriateness, grammar, and organization. The results of the pre- and post-tests were analyzed utilizing SPSS software. Semi-structured interviews were used to gather qualitative data to address the third research question: how do students feel about the PAD Class Model? Fishbowl sampling was used to randomly choose eight students. In order to see if PAD may stimulate students' interest in Business English writing, their responses to questions concerning testing the acceptability of PAD will be analyzed. Recordings and transcriptions of interview participants' replies were made meticulously for later explore.

Two parallel classes of 25 local college undergraduates with the same language skill level took part in the study. The Oxford Placement Test Version 1.1 was utilized to ensure that all of the participants had the same level of language proficiency. The Business English writing classes were taught by the same teacher in both the experimental and control groups. The PAD Class Model was applied to teach Business English writing in the experimental class, whereas the control class employed the traditional product approach. The experiment lasted a total of 12 weeks.

B. Research Instruments

The Oxford Placement Test Version 1.1 was the first instrument for assessing students' language capabilities. The test consists of 60 questions, the majority of which are communicative vocabulary and grammar related. It was given an objective score. This test was used to ensure that the English levels of the experimental and control classes were comparable. The BEC writing test (part 1 and 2) was used as the second research instrument to evaluate students' capacity to write in Business English. This test was used as a pre- and post-test to observe whether the PAD Class Model is beneficial for students learning Business English writing (RQ 1 and 2). After the treatment, the experimental group participants were interviewed in a semi-structured interview. Three experts validated the interview, which comprised ten open-ended questions. Through this 15-minute interview, the researchers intended to discover more about the students' acceptance of the PAD Class Model (RQ 3).

C. Research Procedure

(a). Before the Experiment

Prior to the experiment, the researchers administered the Oxford Placement Test and a business English writing test to the experimental and control classes, respectively, to gain a better understanding of the participants' current situation and to ensure that the writing levels of the experimental and control classes were consistent. The researcher spent 45 minutes in the first week of the experiment to introduce the form and process of PAD Class Model to students, as well as explain the teaching needs to students, in order to help them better grasp PAD Class Model and cooperate with teaching activities.

(b). In the Experiment

This research involved a 12-week teaching experiment and 12 sessions of Business English writing training. During the procedure, the experimental class received PAD Class Model instruction while the control class experienced conventional writing instruction. Dr. Xiao, an experienced professor, led two classes. The researcher assisted with lesson planning and was primarily responsible for the PAD Class Model teaching design in the business English writing course. The uniformity of teaching material and progress between the experimental and control classes was assured by engaging in the centralized lesson preparation and following up in the classroom. The following is the teaching plan for business English writing in the two classes:
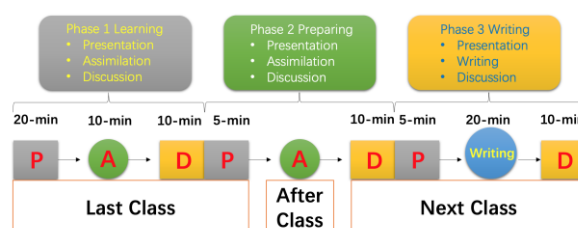
1. Experimental Class

Figure 3. Teaching Process of PAD Class Model in Experimental Class

As indicated in Figure 3, there are three phases to implementing the PAD Class Model in Business English Writing training in the experimental class:

(1). Phase 1: Learning (In-Class PAD Class Model)

Business English Writing Course was chosen as the textbook for this research. The textbook covers a wide range of knowledge topics, including business English writing genres and writing norms, and presents the essential procedures and characteristics of business English writing. As a result, the researcher devised a 45-minute in-class PAD Class Model to complete the presentation and assimilation of knowledge.

The first 20 minutes of class time are devoted to introducing students to the fundamentals of business English writing, followed by an in-depth discussion of a specific writing skill, including an explanation of its definition and characteristics, as well as concrete examples to help students better grasp the material. Keep the focus of the class on the course's most important concepts and challenges, while allowing students some time to process what they have learned on their own. The teacher then allows students 10 minutes to study and review alone by offering questions or assignments. In addition to the teacher's instruction, students must independently read books and materials, think and summarize, and perform teacher-assigned tasks. Teachers conduct classroom patrols to supervise and observe students' self-study behavior. Within the following 10 minutes, the instructor conducted a group discussion on the newly assigned problems. In the course of a conversation, students should completely exchange their perspectives, achieve a consensus on the topic, and document their differences. After the majority of group talks have concluded, the teacher picks a few students to report on the findings of the group discussion. After the group report, the entire class will communicate, that is, all students will be able to ask questions and talk freely to address problems collectively, with the teacher answering any difficulties that the class cannot resolve. After class discussion, the instructor should provide an appropriate summary.

(2). Phase 2: Preparing (Cross-Class PAD Class Model)

The researcher assimilated the concept of allowing students to independently collect writing materials in the PAD Class Model designed by Liu and Guo (2017), which is intended to guide students to conduct independent learning, collect composition materials, and design their own writing outline through the implementation of the Cross-class PAD Class Model. In the final five minutes of the first-class period, the instructor provided the writing assignment and helped students through the analysis of the topic. After completing this task, the teacher would assign homework, encouraged students to examine pertinent materials, collect and organize composition materials, and create an outline for the composition. Within ten minutes of the start of the second class, students would join the group discussion and share their own writing outlines. Then, select the group with the most reasonable writing structure and distribute it to

the entire class. Following the class discussion, the instructor would summarize and provide instruction on how to write utilizing acquired knowledge.

(3). Phase 3: Writing (In-Class PAD Class Model)

The primary objective of the third phase is to draft and edit the article. Teachers spend around five minutes explaining the fundamentals of writing to students, guiding them to enhance the article's structure, refining the article's concept, and elevating the language expression. The students then compose the first draft of the piece under the direction of the instructor.

Figure 4. Peer-editing Model in Group of Experimental Class

After completing the first draft of their writing, students would evaluate their peers' work in groups. Before that, instructors offer a mutual assessment checklist to aid students in evaluating each other's work more successfully. The technique of group mutual evaluation of compositions corresponds to Tan (2021)'s peer-editing model (see Figure 4). After the review, the students in the group discussed and summarized the group's shared challenges, and then choose the best group-written piece to share with the entire class. Finally, the instructor called a few students to debate the group discussion, to listen to the compositions of exceptional students, and to summarize the common issues in the students' writing.

2. Control Class

The control class utilized the conventional method of Business English writing instruction to teach Business English writing. Figure 5 depicts the core instructional procedure.
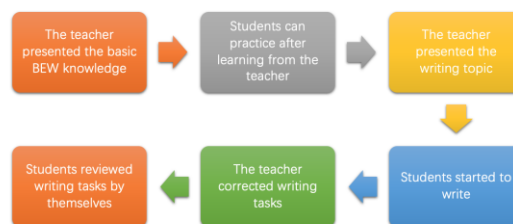
Figure 5. The Conventional Business English Writing Teaching Model

In the traditional method of teaching Business English writing, teachers would spend a great deal of time conveying writing expertise and strive to be exhaustive, thorough, vivid, energetic, and engaging. Simultaneously, when presenting the writing topic, the instructor should not only aid the students in analyzing the composition issue, but also in conceptualizing the composition's substance. The original form of instruction provides more advantages in terms of the comprehensiveness and interest of instruction, as well as the clarity of the instructors' leadership position. However, because the teacher's explanation is excessively explicit, the majority of students write articles based on the teacher's views, and the original model is not favorable to fostering students' capacity to think critically.

(c). After the Experiment

After the teaching experiment, the researchers administered a post-test of business English writing for all participants to see whether students' business English writing scores improved as a result of the experiment. Concurrently, five students in the experimental class were chosen equitably based on their student numbers for interviews to verify the application impact of PAD Class Model in Business English writing instruction. After the experiment, the researcher sorted and examined all of the experimental data and interview findings and evaluated and summarized the application effect of PAD Class Model in terms of quantity and quality. Using SPSS, this study did a t-test analysis on the overall writing scores and sub ability scores of the two classes before and after the experiment and examined the impact of PAD Class Model on the improvement of students' writing scores and ability. Simultaneously, combining the interview data, assessing the students' attitude and identification of PAD Class Model, this experiment gathered students' ideas on the PAD Class Model, and confirmed further the impact of PAD Class Model on the teaching of business English writing.

IV. RESULTS

The researcher conducted pre and post writing tests on the experimental and control classes to verify the effect of PAD Class Model on undergraduates' business English writing performance, as well as to check the impact of PAD Class Model on undergraduates' business English writing ability through the pre-test and post-test sub ability scores, namely content, language appropriateness (LA), grammar, and organization. In this study, the writing test score relates to the BEC writing part's sub scoring standard, and the content, LA, grammar, and organization are all rated separately before the total score is totaled. SPSS is used to evaluate and process the writing test findings, and an independent sample t-test of the experimental and control classes' pre- and post-test scores is performed. The following are the test and analysis results:

A. T-Test Results and Analysis of Overall Score

TABLE 2
GROUP DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE OVERALL SCORES OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL CLASSES

	Class	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test	EC	25	12.92	3.581	.716
	CC	25	12.88	3.456	.691
Post-test	EC	25	17.28	3.285	.657
	CC	25	13.88	3.444	.689

EC=Experiment Class; CC=Control Class

Table 2 shows the group description statistics of the overall scores of business English writing in the experimental and control classes. As can be seen from table 2, the mean score of pre-test in the experimental class is 12.92, while the mean score of pre-test in the control class is 12.88. The mean score of the experimental class (17.28) and the control class (13.88) in the post-test is higher than that in the pre-test. Regardless of the pre-test or post-test, the total score of the experimental class is always higher than that of the control class. However, from the mean score difference between the two classes, the difference (3.400) of the overall score of the two classes in the post-test is greater than that in the pre-test (0.040) (see Table 3).

TABLE 3
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST OF THE OVERALL SCORES OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL CLASSES

		Levene's variance equivalence test		Mean equivalence t-test						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Pre-test	Assuming equal variance	.150	.701	.040	48	.968	.040	.995	-1.961	2.041
	Assuming unequal variances			.040	47.939	.968	.040	.995	-1.961	2.041
Post-test	Assuming equal variance	.090	.765	3.572	48	.001	3.400	.952	1.486	5.314
	Assuming unequal variances			3.572	47.894	.001	3.400	.952	1.486	5.314

Independent sample tests of overall scores are shown in Table 3 for the experimental and control classes. Table 3 displays the significant probability of the two variables, as shown by Levene's variance equivalence test (Sig.). It is 0.701 and 0.765 respectively, indicating that the variance of the experimental class and the control class in the pre and post-test is equal. According to the data (Sig 2-tailed), the probability of significance for the pre-test is 0.968, which is larger than the significance level of 0.05, suggesting that there is no significant difference between the experimental and control classes in terms of pre-test scores. In addition, the 95 % confidence interval of the pre-test difference comprises 0, indicating that there is no significant difference between the two classes' overall scores. For the post-test, it can be seen from the data (Sig 2-tailed) that the significance is 0.001, which is less than 0.05, suggesting that there is a significant difference between the experimental class and the control class in terms of the overall score on the post-test writing section. This is further supported by the fact that the confidence interval for the post-test difference does not contain 0.

In conclusion, both the experimental class and the control class improved their overall scores after the experiment, but the advancement of the experimental class was more prominent, indicating that the PAD Class Model has more benefits than the traditional teaching method for enhancing undergraduates' business English writing scores. Furthermore, the results of the independent sample test show that while there is no significant difference in the overall scores of the experimental and control classes in the pre-test, there is a significant difference in the overall scores in the post-test, and the experimental class using the PAD Class Model for Business English Writing Teaching has higher scores than the control class using the traditional teaching mode, indicating that the application is effective.

B. T-Test Results and Analysis of Content Score

TABLE 4
GROUP DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE CONTENT SCORES OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL CLASSES

	Class	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test	EC	25	3.24	.831	.166
	CC	25	3.20	.866	.173
Post-test	EC	25	4.32	.690	.138
	CC	25	3.36	.952	.190

Table 4 shows that the experimental class's mean pre-test score in terms of Content is 3.24, whereas the control class's mean pre-test score in regards of Content is 3.20, and the experimental class is 0.04 points higher than the control class (see Table 5). The Content scores of the two classes have progressed to some extent in the post-test. The experimental class's mean Writing Content post-test score is 4.32, whereas the control class's is 3.36. The experimental class's Writing Content score is 0.960 points higher than the control class's (see Table 5).

TABLE 5
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST OF THE CONTENT SCORES OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL CLASSES

		Levene's variance equivalence test		Mean equivalence t-test						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Pre-test	Assuming equal variance	.136	.714	.167	48	.868	.040	.240	-.443	.523
	Assuming unequal variances			.167	47.917	.868	.040	.240	-.443	.523
Post-test	Assuming equal variance	4.297	.044	4.081	48	.000	.960	.235	.487	1.433
	Assuming unequal variances			4.081	43.771	.000	.960	.235	.486	1.434

It can be seen from Table 5 that Levene's variance equivalence test (Sig.). shows the significance probability of the two variables. It is 0.714 and 0.044 respectively, indicating that the variance of the two variables on the "Content (pre-test)" is equal, while the variance on the "Content (post-test)" variables is not equal. In the pre-test, the significance probability is 0.868, which is much higher than 0.05, indicating that there is no significant difference in the Writing Content between the experimental and control class. In addition, the 95% confidence interval of the difference of the "Content (pretest)" variable contains 0, which also shows that there is no significant difference in the Writing Content scores between the two classes in the pre-test. In the post test, the significance was 0.000, less than 0.05. It shows that there is a significant difference in the performance of Writing Content between the experimental and control class. This can also be proved from the 95% confidence interval of the difference of the "Content (post-test)" variable without 0.

Pre-test writing content score for experimental class is somewhat higher than control class, while post-test writing content score for experimental class is much higher than control class. There is no significant difference in writing content between experimental and control courses during the pre-test, but there is during the post-test. As a result of this, the experimental class scored higher than the control class, indicating that the PAD Class Model is more successful than the traditional method in increasing students' competence to express content in Business English writing.

C. T-Test Results and Analysis of Language Appropriateness (LA) Score

TABLE 6
GROUP DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE LANGUAGE APPROPRIATENESS SCORES OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL CLASSES

	Class	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test	EC	25	3.28	1.173	.235
	CC	25	3.20	1.118	.224
Post-test	EC	25	4.48	1.122	.224
	CC	25	3.48	1.122	.224

As can be observed in Table 6, the experimental class's mean pre-test Language Appropriateness score is 3.28, whereas the control class's mean pre-test LA score is 3.20. During the pre-test, the experimental class's LA score was 0.080 higher than the control class's (see Table 7). The performance of the two classes improved to some amount in the post-test. The experimental class's mean post-test LA ability score is 4.48, whereas the control class's is 3.48. The experimental class's post-test LA score is 1.000 point higher than the control class's (see Table 7).

TABLE 7
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST OF THE LANGUAGE APPROPRIATENESS SCORES OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL CLASSES

		Levene's variance equivalence test		Mean equivalence t-test						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Pre-test	Assuming equal variance	.200	.656	.247	48	.806	.080	.324	-.572	.732
	Assuming unequal variances			.247	47.889	.806	.080	.324	-.572	.732
Post-test	Assuming equal variance	.000	.985	3.150	48	.003	1.000	.317	.362	1.638
	Assuming unequal variances			3.150	48.000	.003	1.000	.317	.362	1.638

Table 7 compares the experimental and control classes' Language Appropriateness scores. The significance of the two variables is illustrated in Table 7 (Sig.). They are 0.656 and 0.985, showing that the variance of the experimental and control classes is equal. The data (Sig 2-tailed=0.806<0.05) reveal that there is no significant difference between the experimental and control classes in terms of pre-test scores. It can be further confirmed that the 95 percent confidence interval of the pre-test difference is 0. According to the data (Sig 2-tailed), the significance of the experimental and control classes in the post-test writing part is 0.003, which is less than 0.05. The fact that the post-test difference confidence interval does not contain zero supports this.

The experimental class progressed more than the control class, demonstrating that the PAD Class Model is more effective than conventional teaching methods in enhancing students' LA scores. On the other hand, the independent sample test results show that while there is no significant difference in the pre- and post-test LA scores of the experimental and control classes, the experimental class using the PAD Class Model for Business English Writing Teaching outperforms the control class using the traditional teaching mode.

D. T-Test Results and Analysis of Grammar Score

TABLE 8
GROUP DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE GRAMMAR SCORES OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL CLASSES

	Class	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test	EC	25	3.04	.935	.187
	CC	25	3.16	.987	.197
Post-test	EC	25	4.08	.862	.172
	CC	25	3.40	.866	.173

As shown in Table 8, the experimental class has a mean pre-test Grammar score of 3.04 whereas the control class has a mean pre-test Grammar score of 3.16. The experimental class's Grammar score on the pre-test was 0.120 points lower than that of the control group (see Table 9). On the post-test, the performance of both classes increased somewhat. The experimental class's mean post-test score for Grammar ability is 4.08, while the control class's score is 3.40. The experimental group's post-test Grammar score is 0.68 points higher than the control group's (see Table 9).

TABLE 9
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST OF THE GRAMMAR SCORES OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL CLASSES

		Levene's variance equivalence test		Mean equivalence t-test						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Pre-test	Assuming equal variance	.123	.727	-.442	48	.661	-.120	.272	-.666	.426
	Assuming unequal variances			-.442	47.860	.661	-.120	.272	-.667	.427
Post-test	Assuming equal variance	.244	.624	2.782	48	.008	.680	.244	.189	1.171
	Assuming unequal variances			2.782	47.999	.008	.680	.244	.189	1.171

Table 9 shows the Grammar scores for the experimental and control groups. The significance of the two variables as evaluated by Levene's variance equivalence test is shown in Table 9. (Sig.). The results are 0.727 and 0.624, indicating that the experimental and control classes' variances are equal. The findings (Sig 2-tailed) reveal that there is no significant difference in pre-test scores between the experimental and control classes (0.661). Also, the 95 percent confidence interval for the pre-test difference is 0, demonstrating that the Grammar test results of the two classes are not statistically different. The post-test writing portion has a significance level of 0.008, which is less than 0.05, suggesting that there is a significant difference between the experimental and control classes. The fact that the post-test difference confidence interval does not contain 0 confirms this.

It implies that compared to the control group, the experimental group has improved greatly in grammar. A significant difference in grammar between the experimental and control courses was found in the post-test, according to the independent sample test. As a result of this, the PAD Class Model exceeds the usual teaching technique in enhancing undergraduates' capacity to write in Business English.

E. T-Test Results and Analysis of Organization Score

TABLE 10
GROUP DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE ORGANIZATION SCORES OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL CLASSES

	Class	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test	EC	25	3.36	1.114	.223
	CC	25	3.32	1.030	.206
Post-test	EC	25	4.40	1.258	.252
	CC	25	3.60	1.041	.208

Table 10 demonstrates that the experimental class's mean pre-test score for organization is 3.36, while the control class's mean pre-test score for Organization is 3.32; the experimental class is 0.04 points higher than the control class (see Table 11). On the post-test, the organization scores of the two classes had risen somewhat. The experimental class's mean post-test score on writing organization is 4.40, whereas the control class's score is 3.60. The organization score of the experimental class is 0.800 points greater than that of the control class (see Table 11).

TABLE 11
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST OF THE ORGANIZATION SCORES OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL CLASSES

		Levene's variance equivalence test		Mean equivalence t-test						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Pre-test	Assuming equal variance	.349	.557	-.132	48	.896	-.040	.303	-.570	.650
	Assuming unequal variances			-.132	47.708	.896	-.040	.303	-.570	.650
Post-test	Assuming equal variance	1.267	.266	2.449	48	.018	.800	.327	.143	1.457
	Assuming unequal variances			2.449	46.370	.018	.800	.327	.143	1.457

The results of independent sample testing of organization scores for the experimental and control groups are displayed in Table 11. Table 11 shows the significance of the variables using Levene's variance equivalence test (Sig.). The pre- and post-test variances of the experimental and control classes are equal at 0.557 and 0.266. The statistics (Sig 2-tailed) indicate that there is no statistically significant difference between the experimental and control groups in terms of pre-test scores (0.896). Also, the 95% confidence interval for the pre-test difference is 0, suggesting that the two classes' organization scores are not significantly different. The post-test results (Sig 2-tailed=0.018<0.05) show a significant difference between the experimental and control classes in terms of the post-test writing section organization score. The fact that the confidence interval for the difference between pre- and post-test scores is not 0 verifies this.

Subsequently, both the experimental and control classes improved their organization scores after the experiment, but the experimental class's improvement was more noticeable, indicating that the PAD Class Model has more benefits than the traditional teaching method for enhancing undergraduates' business English writing organization scores. Furthermore, the results of the independent sample test reveal that, while there is no significant difference in the experimental and control classes' organization scores in the pre-test, there is a significant difference in the experimental and control classes' organization scores in the post-test, and the experimental class utilizing the PAD Class Model for Business English Writing Teaching has higher scores than the control class using the conventional teaching mode, demonstrating that the application is successful.

F. Analysis of Interview Results

After conducting the experiment, the researcher randomly chose and interviewed five students from the experimental class based on their student numbers in order to answer RQ 3. This interview consists of three questions about students' perceptions of the PAD Class Model, their business English writing skills, and their opinions on the PAD Class Model. The scheduled interview results are as follows:

The first question of the interview was to ask students' attitude towards PAD Class Model. This teaching model was praised by all responders. They all remarked they had never seen this model before, and that it was unique and intriguing. Three students indicated that they like the Discussion. They claimed that group discussions not only promoted peer learning but also fostered student friendships. To grow in this process, they needed to create united viewpoints on Teachers' challenges, and learned from one other. PAD Class Model also allowed students to participate in class discussions, which relieved boredom, made the classroom livelier. Similarly, two students stated that the

Assimilation in the PAD Class Model helped build self-study ability and reflection habit. This model allowed students to study and review in class, fostering independent thinking and evaluation. 12 weeks of instruction promoted autonomous thinking and summarizing contemplation.

The second interview question asked students whether they think PAD Class Model has improved their business English writing skill and what the key improvements are. All five respondents agreed that the PAD Class Model helped them enhance their business English writing skills. Four respondents claimed that the PAD Class Model broadens their writing thinking. Previously, teachers merely asked students to peer evaluate after writing. Inheriting this tradition, the PAD Class arranged students to discuss the composition outline before writing, which strengthened everyone's knowledge of the writing and mutual communication. Three respondents stated that using the PAD Class Model helped them improve their language skills, particularly their language appropriateness. Their capacity to substitute ordinary words with advanced terms has been boosted through teachers' purposeful nurturing. According to two respondents, using the PAD Class Model helped them organize their content better. Students assisted each other and improved the structure of their articles through two discussions before and after writing.

The third interview question seeks suggestions on the PAD Class Model. After sorting, five respondents offered key ideas. First, group reasonably. Some participants said teachers should categorize students based on gender and personality. Each group should include at least one student who can set the tone. Second, prolong the time for discussion. Some students stated that everyone enjoyed group discussions and the opportunity to learn from one another. They thought teachers would properly prolong discussion time so students could communicate more deeply. Finally, schedule self-study projects and time. Some respondents said that following each information point, the teacher assigns tasks that everyone can perform, but the thinking questions are occasionally challenging. The teacher did not allow enough time for self-study, thus they cannot complete it. They hoped the teacher could make appropriate adjustments in the future teaching.

V. DISCUSSION

This study examines the effect of PAD Class Model on Undergraduates' business English writing abilities using a 12-week teaching experiment in two parallel classes at a Chinese university, as well as a pre- and post-test and student interview. There is minimal difference between the mean scores of students in the two courses on the overall writing test on pre-tests, but there is a significant difference on post-tests. The mean score of the experimental group grew by 4.36 points, but the mean score of the control group increased by only 1.00 points. A substantial difference in writing scores between the two classes was seen in the post-test, and the mean score for business English writing in the experimental class utilizing the PAD Class Model was greater than in the control class. PAD Class Model may successfully increase the business English writing abilities of students (RQ 1). The interview conducted with experimental class students after the experiment also supported this finding to a certain degree.

According to the sub-ability scores of business English writing, there are no significant differences in the scores of content, language appropriateness, grammar, and organization between the two classes in pre-tests, indicating that the writing ability of the two classes prior to the experiment is similar in these four aspects. Before and after the experiment, the mean scores of students in the experimental class grew by 33.3%, 36.6%, 34.2%, and 31.0% in content, language approbation, grammar, and organization, whereas the scores of students in the control class increased by just 5.0%, 8.8%, 7.6%, and 8.2%. The t-test results also confirmed that there were significant differences in the sub-ability scores of business English writing between the two classes on the post-tests, indicating that the PAD Class Model has a greater effect on improving the content, language appropriateness, grammar, and organization of undergraduate business English Writing (RQ 2). Based on the findings of further interviews with students in the experimental class, the interviewed students also confirmed the model's favorable influence. According to the interview results, all the respondents enjoyed this new teaching model, indicating that students have a favorable attitude regarding PAD Class Model and a high level of acceptability (RQ 3).

VI. CONCLUSION

This study combines the PAD Class Model with business English writing instruction to investigate and assess the effect of this teaching method on the business English writing competence of undergraduates. The application effectiveness is evaluated from three perspectives: the overall business English writing score, the sub scores, and the accepting attitude of students towards the PAD Class Model in business English writing class. Before the trial, the overall scores and level of business English writing of students in the experimental class (mean score = 12.92) and the control class (mean score = 12.88) were similar based on the analysis of pre-tests score data. However, after 12 weeks of PAD Class Model instruction, the writing scores of students in the two groups were dramatically different, with the experimental class (increased by 4.36 points) significantly outperforming the control group. In addition, based on the BEC scoring rubric and a comparison of pre- and post-test performance data, it has been determined that the experimental class students' sub-abilities in business English writing, including content, language, appropriateness, grammar, and organization, have improved considerably. However, the range of improvement for the control group is limited and lacks statistical significance. The aforementioned findings indicate that the PAD Class Model may

successfully increase the overall and sub scores of undergraduate business English writing. By examining the interview findings of the experimental class following the trial, it was determined that students liked the PAD Class Model very significantly, were eager to continue using it, and even hoped to use it to learn other subjects in the future. Students have a high level of acceptance of the PAD Class Model in Business English writing instruction. This study validates the effect of the PAD Class Model on boosting the business English writing skills of Chinese undergraduates. In further teaching studies, it is envisioned that PAD Class Model will be applied to English Teaching in other disciplines and nations.

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Phonological Theory: Between the Hammer of the Effective Role It Plays in Teaching English and the Anvil of English-Course Teachers' Reluctance to Adopt It at the Tertiary Level

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Abstract—**Many English courses at the tertiary level are inaptly overlaid with language skills with the bare minimum of phonological and pronunciation ones. They are, in fact, merely lame attempts made to create as comprehensive, integral and perfect proficiency in English as possible from which learners would dubiously benefit. The purpose underlying this paper is to move on pronunciation skills and items from its narrow role played in English syllabus design into a newer and broader context that relevantly meets students' perspective needs of linguistic intelligibility. The absence, albeit the exclusion, of phonological theory from English courses implicitly leads to an untenable situation in which learners' goal of learning English is no longer communicative but rather becomes entirely individually oriented. The paper seeks to detect both the points of weakness and strength in light of the availability of phonological skills in two English courses taught in University of Petra/Jordan. One of the influential results reached by the paper is that phonological skills are not only basic components in any English-course syllabi, but they also form integrity with other linguistic ones.**

Index Terms—**phonological theory, syllabi, English courses, teaching English**

I. INTRODUCTION

The emerging consensus is that phonological theory has undeniably thrown its shining light on linguistic studies in general and language teaching studies in particular. It is reckoned as a de facto component of any language build-up side by side with other linguistic components. Though fully abstract and of a stealthy nature, phonological theory and its aspects have to be found, or activated, in the syllabi and curriculums of intermediate and upper-intermediate English courses at the tertiary level. This abstractness makes most, if not all, of teachers of such English courses as English 1 and English 2 eschew the inclusion of phonological theory in course plans and syllabi so that students of these courses would be very much banned from prior knowledge of what phonological theory is and how it works within the orbit of the linguistic 'tissue' of English.

On closer inspection, the really-frustrated element is that tertiary English courses aggravatingly fail to adjust their contents and items in line with the emergence of such linguistic areas as phonology and pronunciation. Most of English Foreign Language (henceforth EFL) teachers, whether being involved in teaching intermediate or upper-intermediate courses, have not persisted with designing English-course syllabi in favor of some sort of phonological items. They consciously or unconsciously adopt the 'open-door' strategy to teach grammatical, lexical and orthographical components whereas they begrudge phonologically-oriented material to be incorporated into the overall course plan. The English courses therefore would be burdened with unnecessary and redundant topics that, in a way or another, affect learners passively. The learners should positively be furnished with particular pronunciation skills as compromises made by EFL teachers in conformity with an academic use of English.

On this basis, the purpose served by this paper is to explore the extent to which phonological theory must take a prominent place in preparing and planning English-course material on a tertiary ground. The paper is a two-tack study: First, it provides a diagnostically-centered assessment of the English courses offered to students of University of Petra/Jordan (UOP) whereby a procedure of scrutinizing very fully and detecting very thoroughly the syllabi is adopted. The offered courses are taught in two forms: an intermediate course under the name of English 1 (Appendix A) and an upper-intermediate one labeled as English 2 (Appendix B). The second tack is a remedially-based solution in which glitches of these course syllabi would be elucidated and then eliminated by presenting recommended models (Appendix C and D).

II. PEDAGOGIC IDENTIFICATION OF PHONOLOGICAL THEORY

No doubt, the core of English-course material has to scale up the phonological task for those who are involved in by attracting more pedagogic attention on the syllabus items that more contribute to intelligible pronunciation. Prioritized as it is, the phonological task is not only very much relevant to EFL communication, but it is also reasonable and logic

in meeting the requirements of classroom success. It may be argued that the main issue at stake here is The First Language (L1) phonological transfer which seems a deeply rooted and far-reaching pitfall in dealing with English courses. The account of transfer is not only doomed to phonological items, but rather it is a general and comprehensive phenomenon covering all aspects of language. The factors and motifs on the learners' part that facilitate the manipulation of erroneous L1 phonological form in place of the counterpart L2 form play a central role in making teachers' attempts to be vain in as far as such transfer is expected to relinquish and to reduce (Sajavaara, 1986; Odlin, 2022).

Both teachers and learners are to be seemingly aware of the special importance of the adequate performance required for the daily purposes of communication. A plenty of time should be devoted to pronunciation and to what level of phonological performance is urgently needed for efficient acts of communication. It is widely supposed that for a learner, when achieving a higher phase of adequacy in lexis and grammar, there is no escape from acquiring a little bit rudimentary ingredients of English pronunciation (Kenworthy, 1987; Brown, 1991). Such propositions imply that attempts must be made on EFL teachers' part to allot a space of reality to practice in the phonological skills when English courses are intended to design.

Teaching phonology in general and pronunciation in particular may issue certain challenges as to how the material is accessibly presented and as to which level of learners the course is hopefully targeted. Admittedly, grammatical elements of sentences can possibly be taught sequentially adopting the linear order in building up their constructions and in representing their rules. Lexical items can also be complied on the ground of how they are frequently occur in the presentation of early grammatical structures and on the ground of the extent to which they are very much employed in everyday situations and special purposes. Pronunciation, comparatively speaking, does not accept such straightforward treatment simply because most, if not all, of phonetic and phonological facets are likely offered from the very beginning (Hewings, 2004; Revell, 2011).

The centrality of phonology has overtime been emphasized to other sectors of social and linguistic meaning. Phonology must be available and cannot be dealt with as something accidental or arbitrary to language learning (Pennington & Richards, 1986). Based chiefly on communicative-oriented perspective to English phonology, the philosophy of teaching English tertiary courses suggests that EFL learners must be equipped with various options in their learning activities. Moreover, learners' inevitably individual conditions should be fully prioritized to reach the targets of language learning. Urgent needs are basically stressed in providing as much phonological inputs as possible to choose modes of performance that are apt for particular learners (Esling, 1987). These arguments go up the curtain that the predominant part played by EFL teachers becomes one of furnishing students with broad experiences concerning how much quantity the language input should be in the way of reinforcing its own phonological skills.

Fine-tuning EFL courses pedagogically unleashes much consideration on what is teachable and what is learnable. In fact, the line of demarcation is not supposed to be so blurred between them. The dichotomy relies on the tradition that classroom teaching does not give birth to classroom learning (Allwright, 1984; Seidhofer & Dalton, 1995). Phonology seems the very essence of plumbing the depths of how a distinction can thoroughly be drawn between the learning process which is the product of teaching and the one which comes into being externally via exposure to the language. Some aspects of pronunciation are extremely construed on teachable/learnable scale in the sense that such topics as consonant and vowel productions are lucidly accounted for and generalized on a teachable footing. In other cases, topics like those which are tacitly doomed to intonation/tone patterns are notably of outside-classroom activities relying heavily on learners' circumstances.

Central to linguistic intelligibility of which the principal objective of EFL courses is tacitly concerned is that of phonology (Brown, 1995; Bamgbose, 1998; James, 1998). Phonological intelligibility introduces itself as being an inevitable option to obtain successfully on learners' part in classrooms regardless of how much time is consumed and of how much laborious effort is exerted by teachers. When offered to tertiary students, EFL courses have to be mapped to harmonize very well what is convenient or relevant to phonological intelligibility with what is realistic to teaching. Thus, there is a growing tendency for learners' motivation to be appealed to pinpoint precisely what is missing in these course syllabi. This is really a matter-of the-heart issue subsumed chiefly under the following state of affairs: when students perceive phonologically-based relevance, they are considerably motivated to learn certain pronunciation skills, while they do not potentially make a concerted effort required for gaining phonological competences when turning their back on such relevance.

A mere glance at phonological intelligibility and its exuberant contribution to effective communication may re-frame a syllabus design-based scene to be more productive and receptive as far as pronunciation skills are concerned. Outstanding as its status is, phonological intelligibility poses two pivotal issues. In the first place, students are necessarily required to improve the ability to concatenate their pronunciation with the communicative setting in which they are engaged. This situation stipulates that learners are called to converge towards their listeners and they are urged to activate their phonological intelligibility for the dialogists around them. Next, teachers must accept the truth that perfectly target pronunciation is no longer expected simply because a particular amount of L1 phonological transfer has to be included within the realm of teaching, especially at the preliminary stages of teaching EFL courses (Milroy, 1999).

III. METHODOLOGY

The paper is a painstaking scrutiny of English courses (English 1 and English 2) offered to one-year UOP students. It is mainly looked upon as being a profoundly two-in-one study. First, English-course syllabi are to be evaluated in a diagnosing way so that their merits and demerits would be shown up. The procedural treatment adopted here in assessing the syllabi is transparent and intriguing in that items of these course syllabi would nearly be investigated not only for the sake of deploring them or castigate syllabus designers, but also for the purpose of illustrating the shining side according to which English-course teachers have strived for settle them down in their final version. In a word, the first part of the paper is a merely major critique of English 1 and English 2 offered to UOP students – cemented with particular amount of systemization and supplied with such and such 'harmless looking' repertoire widely used in such a discussion.

The second part is holistically devoted to be an au fait with the first one whereby it is a remedially-based amendment of English course syllabi to cover phonological skills side by side with other available skills. Once again, the remediable amendments reflect how far pronunciation material is viewed as being a 'flesh and blood' dimension aiming to enrich the syllabi of English 1 and English 2. The wholly strategic arguments made here take the forms of attaching and distributing phonologically-skilled items within English-course syllabi to be equally convenient, satisfactory and plausible (See Appendix C and D).

IV. SAMPLES

The study samples are the syllabi of such courses as English1 and English 2 taught to one-year UOP students (Appendix A and B). The general material of the two courses and their syllabi items are overwhelmingly repeated in nearly every semester though there seems some sort of newly minor items added and adopted occasionally. Teaching English 1 and English 2 is firmly governed by the item of 'Course Description' which is available in students' academic plans (To have the grasp of course descriptions, visit the UOP site: https://www.uop.edu.jo and Admission and Registration site: uop.edu.jo/en/Admission/Pages/default.aspx).

V. SYLLABUS DESIGN OF UOP ENGLISH 1 AND 2: REALITY AND AMBITION

Being remarkably unanimous in pervasiveness and priority of syllabus design for the realm of education, language teaching and learning, many scholars believe in how course syllabi are best built up to meet both learners' academic needs and the pedagogical requirements on which any study plan is based (Widdowson, 1990; Reigeluth, 1999; Robinson, 2007; Robinson, 2011). Course syllabi are not merely a schedule-like program serving the purpose of guiding students to study topics covered. Rather, they look like a tandem 'agenda' whose contents are intrinsically fallen under a binary system: linguistic units of lesson activity and their sequential presentation. The symmetrical correlation between the two systems is of an overwhelm importance not only because they are saliently organized on a two-fold ground, but also because they contribute vividly in crystallizing the syllabus content.

What makes linguistic units of a particular syllabus has more idiosyncrasy than their sequential order is that they should deliberately be adopted in determining the extent to which the syllabus content is geared pedagogically, communicatively and culturally for EFL learners. The principal rationale behind prioritizing syllabus units over their sequence implies that EFL courses are tended to be highly internalized, accessed and acted upon as being cognitive processes leading to successfully learning performance. UOP syllabi of English 1 and English 2 honestly fit into the general standards of syllabus design in accordance with lesson units and their sequences. Nevertheless, the demerit from which they have suffered is that they lack the phonological skills and items that make them completely linguistic. Phonological theory and its pedagogical applications represented by pronunciation skills, items and drills are totally slipped away from the syllabus components of English 1 and English 2 as if they were metaphorically looked upon as a "requiem mass" for these courses and this explicates why attempts are to be made in this paper to restore, albeit survive, the phonological scene within the realm of English courses (See Appendix C and D).

Teachers and syllabus designers of English 1 and English 2 have relegated teaching pronunciation items to the overall of course material and , in doing so, they have contravened the linguistically prima facie 'norms' of EFL courses which are supposed to include phonological component in line with the grammatical and lexical ones. Linguistic units of any English course syllabi underline certain commitments adhering to both learners' pedagogical and psychological orientations. Units should sequentially be mapped up on the ground of the language to be learned in accordance with various axes of symmetry. First, learners should not be a bit barred from covering phonological-based units that are designed to fulfill the function of constructing the linguistic pyramid's base of a syllabus and then to make sure of their convenience and suitability to go ahead for other units. Next, a series of grammatical constructions are to be offered cautiously taking into consideration the way they are graded in difficulty. Thirdly, twined with phonology and grammar, lexical and vocabulary items have to be taught in such a way that they are graded in frequency and this would make so direct an impact on setting up the overall of students' morphological knowledge.

Wide assortment of syllabi units and the host of harmonic items inter alia must be enriched very fruitfully in UOP English 1 and 2 so that learners' linguistic attention would be engaged actively and their phonological curiosity would be stimulated effectively. On account of the concept of integrity (Habanek, 2005; Bohane, 2008) with which syllabi of English 1 and 2 must be concerned, issues of structuring units beginning with phonological ones and ending with

semantic ones are to be included inevitably, and methodological configurations of material content should be formatted to convey what is phonological, morphological and grammatical. Teachers and course planners of UOP English 1 and 2 are supposed to be fully aware of 'a cyclic nature' of introducing and then offering the linguistic items of their own syllabi whereby each item does not only complete one another, but each one also heralds the beginning of the other and paves a sequential way for stepping towards a regularly inner circle.

Eclectic and extensive as they are assumed to be followed by UOP teachers of English 1 and 2, syllabi units are entirely reckoned as "a mirror image" that portrays the identity of their sequence-based representation. Though receiving high priority over their sequential presentation in syllabus designs, units would lose their own focal centre of interest if they are modulated in a 'chaotic' order. For instance, grammar is offered before pronunciation, speaking and vocabulary or writing is taught before vocabulary and grammar. When spectacularly failed in covering linguistic units inclusively, syllabi of English 1 and 2 would suffer severe shortcomings of sequencing criteria that firmly monitor the 'tempo' of arranging material items, whether being from specific to general options, or being from more to less frequent ones.

The curtain of reality goes up to demonstrate that UOP teachers of English1 and 2 have scarcely ever be acquainted with designing English-course syllabi: a syllabus is a 'prismatic' picture drawn with different colors; the most striking ones are those which imply a prospective and fixed standard of what to teach and of which order. The burning ambition to be fulfilled is that UOP English syllabus designers have to propose at least an English course of a synthetic-syllabus favor. It is one of the commonest syllabi in the realm of teaching English courses all over the world (Widdowson, 2003; Ellis, 2009; Long, 2015). Its design necessitates meeting the specification of the elements of any language system serially and linearly like pronunciation skills, grammatical structures or language functions: the more communicatively redundant and accessible ingredients of a language system lead a learner to amalgamate and consolidate them accumulatively in the real-world performance and daily self-expressions. On the premise that a synthetic-oriented syllabus is adopted by UOP teachers of English 1 and 2, a learner would assume the role of reckoning language use and structure as long-term communicative 'gains'. Next, the syllabus, by itself, is the paramount consideration of developing an inter-linguistic system whose components (phonological, morphological and grammatical) are to blend homogeneously with each other.

VI. CRITIQUE OF UOP ENGLISH 1 SYLLABUS

English 1 was offered a hand-in course for a one-semester-intermediate English, academic year 2019-2020 (see Appendix A). Class members (students) met for 50 minutes three days per week. The course was indented to work on four major areas: (i) grammar, (ii) vocabulary items, (iii) speaking and (iv) writing (in spite of being apparently involved within the last two weeks, it did not definitely chip away at improving students' writing performance). Though those areas were the real syllabus topics or skills which were basically taught to students, other skills were debatably tacked on the course-description section.

What is more overwhelmingly observed in English 1 syllabus is that enormous shortcomings come to light in as far as its detailed design is concerned. Besides lacking the availability of phonological material embodied in pronunciation skills, the course itself can possibly be seen by any specialist's lenses as an offbeat amalgam of units managed under deplorable conditions of acclaiming chaos and precluding sequences. For instance, the sequential order of the syllabus units is tediously fluctuated. They are haphazardly 'scattered over' the course. In the first two weeks, grammar, vocabulary and speaking are offered with bizarre coincidences. Next, the second two weeks incorporate the same units but with different priorities: speaking, grammar and vocabulary. In the last two weeks, a 'new comer' enters the scene of the syllabus units at the expense of the originally-settled-down order: writing, grammar, vocabulary and speaking are provided with every nook and cranny.

Looking over English 1 syllabus once again plainly reveals a pitfall of the sort that the study material devoted to be covered within the grammar unit is merely concerned with the rudimentary English tenses like the present tense, the present progressive and so on. Teaching tenses as such may mistakenly imply that English grammar is the sole study of tenses and no more options can possibly be furnished to students. In spite of introducing English verb tenses as single options of teaching the grammatical items of the syllabus, teachers of English 1 are to inhabit the 'retraction' of the phonological side of material when verb tenses, for instance, are partially accounted for as to what and how they are produced and shaped phonetically.

A further lingering problem can possibly be traced when detecting how the speaking skill is managed and then offered to English 1 students. The binding or the core principle of making learners practice speaking is that teachers, from the very beginning, have to elucidate which model of pronunciation would be more conveniently credited so as to meet learners' speech-output experience: British English represented by BBC English, formerly known as RP or American English embodied by General American (GA). Teachers of English 1 are to be fully aware of making decisions about the 'appropriateness' of the pronunciation models with which their students are concerned in acquiring speaking-skill communications. The question of whether BBC English is more appropriate than GA or vice versa should not give an impression that one accent wipes out the other in its entirety.

What shines through in the syllabus of English 1 is the nature of topics and situations with which students are involved in speaking to each other and the types of words and expressions which shape their own lexical perception.

Harmonizing the relationship between exuberantly speech-based situations and abundantly lexical items oriented self-expressions evinces the degree to which teachers of English 1 show a maverick gambit in creating conditions ripe for students to have grasps of copious expressions to be effectively used in the speaking skill. No doubt, the vocabulary skill draws back the curtain on how wide a variety of its exemplary domains can best be derived from a plenty of semantic and lexicographical perspectives. As being detailed in the syllabus, teachers of English 1 have equipped their students with eye-popping sets of lexical items that contribute exclusively to determine their own age, gender, function field and style. For instance, in the first two weeks, students have been trained to tackle vocabulary items touching on jobs and occupations, aspects of environmental campaigns and so on. In other weeks of teaching English 1, teachers have offered their students words and expressions taken from different texts and passages of the textbook entitled *Oxford Discover 4 Student's Book* by Kampa and Vilina (2014).

VII. CRITIQUE OF UOP ENGLISH 2 SYLLABUS

English 2 provided a one-semester-upper-intermediate course, held in academic year 2019-2020 (see Appendix B). The course was designed in a way that students were taught three-credit-hour lectures per a week. The course syllabus was a matter of the same ingredients as those of English 1: writing, grammar, vocabulary and speaking. On the face of the course description, two crucial issues emerge. In the first place, English 2 is a natural continuity of English 1 and this tacitly underlines that the teaching/learning procedures and plans would be rather similar, albeit identical, since both courses constitute 'unilaterally pedagogical unity'. However, English 2 is not radically initiated to straddle the gap which may not be plugged by teaching English 1 nor is it a compensatory 'privilege' offered to students in case that recalcitrant problems may occur in their linguistic performance.

The second issue is that like English 1, negligence is very much obvious on the course teachers' and syllabus designers' part when pronunciation skills are abandoned in favor of making students more attentive to the basic skills than to other supportive ones. Moreover, it has rather relentlessly been stated that the demanding target of teaching students English 2 is to achieve a higher scale of communication from which students would benefit in their academic life. Communication in general and linguistic communication in particular can worthy be built on every cons and pros of language skills including phonological ones. Because English 2 is a course set up to cover further study staves in learning the English language, it has to be constructed to include other effectively far-reaching items of language (e.g. pronunciation skills, situational conversations, and cross-communicative dialogues) than the basically well-known ones. Teaching English 2 entails some sort of breadth of vision in which teaching models and goals match perfectly: they are not at opposite poles; they are inevitably two poles of the same component.

Turning back to the units of English 2 syllabus guides us to remark fundamental flaws. On the threshold of organizing its items or skills, the syllabus frame shows up that phonological items are always lost and even a fleeting reference to them has eluded the course teachers. Writing is at the forefront among other units except for the fourth and fifth weeks in which it has leaped into the second stage. Students are at a considerable advantage when they have exercised and trained how letter and report writing are, to a great extent, conducted.

Since grammar is the hub of syllabus-design organization, it is not staggering that teachers of English 2 have actively stuck to principles and have positively made decisions on adopting an advanced line of grammatical argument when topics like model verbs, word-formations and phrasal verbs are vigilantly exposed and taught. However, the crux of the problem is always popping up. It has been possible to give students some heavy hints on how word-formations look like phonetically or how phrasal verbs behave phonologically.

Unlike those of English 1, the vocabulary and speaking items of English 2 are spuriously mapped to give students practically nothing. Course teachers either have churned out topics and situations formerly tackled in English 1 or they have equipped their students with items which are nothing to do with students' communicative competence of vocabulary and norms of speaking. This, for instance, casts nagging doubts and concomitantly begs the question of whether or not the validity of teaching procedures is still in a state of flux. Nonetheless, it remains the lesser evil that students are provided with vocabulary items taken from the passages of the textbook, *New Success at First Certificate* (O'Neill et al., 1997).

VIII. AN OUTLINE DESCRIPTION OF THE RECOMMENDED SYLLABUS OF ENGLISH 1

So far it has been explicated with much discussion that both English 1 and English 2 markedly lack a conspicuous absence of phonological items and to some extent a kind of consistency. There is instead an accelerating propensity for having a chaotic syllabus design. A knee-jerk reaction to such a shortage of skeletal components of course syllabi might be to resort to draconian measures like building up highly recommended, albeit viably alternative, course plans of both English 1 and 2 (See Appendix C and D respectively).

The first task is that it is not only of great importance to bear in mind the incorporation of phonological items into the entire syllabus of English 1, but it is also to merge their integration into a wide pedagogical network with the other items. Accordingly, pronunciation skills would homogeneously cope with grammar, vocabulary and speaking ones where necessary. In the first and third week, for example, students would be offered pronunciation skills as to how -ed adjectives are articulated in terms of the number of syllables and as to how the schwa /ə/ behaves phonetically in

different suffixes. This type of pronunciation skills are closely associated with material content of the vocabulary items of the two weeks (See Appendix C). The pronunciation items of the second-week course plan deal with strong and weak forms which are, in turn, in line with the grammar skills whose content is strongly oriented towards teaching modal verbs and present simple and continuous tenses. Other phonological skills, such as the pronunciation of words ending in -ate, the /dʒ/, /j/ and /ju:/ sounds, natural rhythm presented in the remaining weeks, are concerned with a considerable amount of topics whose raw material is different words and expressions dispersed in each unit.

Casting a long hard look at the grammatical items of the recommended syllabus of English 1 exposes the degree of homogeneity, comprehensiveness and variety of the topics given to students. A striking illustration of such and such an account lies at the heart of how the grammatical subject matters are gradually ranging from the general and basic to the specific and a little bit advanced taking into consideration a transparent and flexible transition required among them. They, for example, start with question forms and variously selected verb tenses. Then, topics of somewhat complex nature such as conditional clauses and active/passive sentence-constructions are offered systemically.

What is so methodical in setting up a syllabus is that learners should not be stunned with miscellaneous ingredients nor should they be debilitated with an avalanche of unrelated topics. This state of affairs presupposes that teachers of English 1, including, of course, the course syllabus designers, must assiduously cultivate the support of their learners by giving them some sort of fresh impetus to conceive of the concept of a subtle gradation of topics.

As for other skills, namely vocabulary, speaking, reading and writing ones, it is apparent that momentous changes have taken place in terms of the quality and the quantity of the topics taught to students and above all in terms of how they are coherently and cohesively combined to each other. This simply means that the same topics are dealt with and discussed from the different angle of each skill. Examples of these topics include but are not limited to the following: musical words and expressions of the fourth week, makeup your mind of the sixth week, get healthy of the ninth week and so on (See Appendix C).

IX. AN OUTLINE DESCRIPTION OF THE RECOMMENDED SYLLABUS OF ENGLISH 2

On the surface, the same procedural strategy as that of English 1 is followed in preparing the recommended syllabus of English 2 (Appendix D). The pedagogical tools are thoroughly employed to make the phonological skill work as an add-on dimension to other language skills. The learning-based styles are deliberately adopted to cast some shadow on enabling students to keep up with the communicative development and interaction of English. The general frames of building up the syllabus units and their sequential orders are dexterously set forth to provide a kind of a linguistic analogy so that they overtly become a great 'melting pot'.

What notably characterizes the recommended syllabus of English 2 is that it follows the same line of argument in dealing with the units, items and skills. The phonological material has dominating presence alongside other items in attempt to accomplish a higher scale of integrity. The language skills represented by the different lessons are gradually graded from simple to complex ones and from general to particular ones. This procedure prohibits students' mental and psychological distraction when proceeding with the syllabus units.

The instances that are worth-dwelling on illustrate an outstanding principle based on averting the accumulation or the satiety of irrelevant items and keeping an eye on the flexibility and flow of information which each unit provides. In the first lesson, for example, there seems a close interrelationship drawn among vocabulary, grammatical and speaking skills in terms of the topics discussed. Phonological skills are once again provided to tackle some issues extracted from grammatical material as in stress and rhythm of conditionals (Lesson Three) and from vocabulary material as in word stress of compound adjectives (Lesson Six).

Finalizing this section leads us to look into the rich texture of the phonological items of which English 2 course is composed. As an upper intermediate course as it is, English 2 manipulates the phonological material to reflect mostly the supra-segmental side (i.e. above the segmental level of words) rather than the segmental one. So, in most of lessons, the focus is drawn to teach stress and rhythm of different linguistic items. The Illustrative examples are clearly shown in Units 2, 3, 4, 7 and so on (Appendix D). This methodological 'tactics' would do much to stimulate students' interest and inquisitiveness to broaden their knowledge of how these purely phonological issues are applied to and approached by virtue of vocabulary items, grammatical structures of different sentences and spoken skills. They are fundamentally referred to as being aspects of connected speech. The value of teaching aspects of connected speech pedagogically resides in the fact that students tend to identify some kind of an entire 'feel' of the pronunciation of English being learned. Getting such a feel for the importance of English pronunciation would definitely be reinforced when making learners produce word stress, practice rhythm and do exercises related to them.

X. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Different findings have emerged from the whole arguments presented in the foregoing sections. The most important, if not preponderant, result is that the material of English 1 and English 2 should inextricably be bounded up with the skills and items provided by phonological theory, ranging from primarily simplified ones to finally advanced and complex. The 'traditional paradigm' represented by offering students only with vocabulary, grammar, reading and writing skills has to be , to a greater extent, minimized so as to give way to the 'new paradigm' embodied by employing

very considerably pronunciation items to establish itself as a sustainably and effectively teaching mechanism. In doing so, English would be able to fulfill completely students' needs of being socially, albeit cross-culturally, interacted with different participants of international communication.

Next, besides activating students' overall interaction with others, the question of mutual intelligibility tends not to be severely constrained pedagogically to minority non-native-English-speaking situations. When learners increasingly develop the ability to make their pronunciation as viable and comprehensive as other skills, they would be easily intelligible in any acts of communication and they would above all make use of English as a native-like repertoire to serve the purposes of linguistic reciprocity.

Once phonological theory is positively crystallized in a form of different teachable pronunciation items in line with other classroom skills, this would satisfy the demands of identity of such courses as English 1 and English 2 to all students who are assumingly prepared to involve into more specialist courses of linguistic disciplines. Consequently, the nature of phonological material including skills, items and drills, impose some sort of learning criteria on the two-course students whereby they need to exert considerable efforts to understand a plenty of aspects of pronunciation, from the way of producing various sounds through different spoken contexts to the shift of stress placements and regularities of rhythmical sentences.

If English 1 and English 2 are consciously set up to be road plans for opening new horizons of the futurity of teaching English at the tertiary level, then they will certainly display the ability to reconcile the two dichotomies: the necessity of linguistic intelligibility and the obligation of pedagogical identity. On the other hand, spoken English entails that phonological material is the common denominator. It is the property of the language (English, in our concern) that enables speakers to preserve their own second-language identity. Since phonological theory has unfairly been dwindled away to almost nothing in teaching English, circumstances could be more propitious for it to be a 'relic' retained from the realm of linguistic knowledge.

The central functions phonology serves in enhancing linguistic skills are not often quite restricted only to cover speaking. Phonological items, particularly pronunciation ones contribute more to how words are easily recognized in reading and writing. Because the whole properties of linguistic proficiency are closely related, spoken fluency gives strength to a sort of fluency in listening, reading and writing. The more considerably spoken fluency augments, the more obviously fluency in reading and writing develop. Moreover, many grammatical items involve phonological phenomena and hence they are to be looked upon by means of using phonological tools. For example, the derivation and inflection of some grammatical classes essentially stipulate a change in pronunciation and are chiefly based on phonological rules.

XI. CONCLUSION

It conclusively becomes evident that the abandonment of phonological theory from being part of teaching UOP English 1 and 2 is by all means at the pale. Presenting pronunciation in a broad context of English-course syllabi permits learners' goals to be a matter of expanding communicative repertoire. When chiefly based on a comprehensive bundle and a strict framework of linguistic skills, including phonological ones, English courses would undoubtedly ease an analysis of learners' needs and monitor teachers' instructions to sever those needs. It is notoriously difficult to exclude pronunciation material from a syllabus principally designed to teach linguistic items, particularly listening and speaking ones. Whether having a minor or a major part (relatively depending on teachers' estimates) in a pedagogical realm of English, phonology remains an effective parameter according to which it is possible to determine the inevitable functions that are naturally concentrated on a proper target for getting phonological proficiency.

On the whole, phonological theory has to be frankly viewed not as a disgraceful intrusion into the teaching and learning of tertiary courses of English. It is certainly a de facto component of the English language and learners' linguistic and communicative competence.

APPENDIX A. A COURSE SYLLABUS OF UOP ENGLISH 1

University of Petra Department of English Language and Literature		

Course Syllabus

Year: 2019/2020
Semester: Summer course Semester

Course No.	Course Title	Prerequisite	Co-requisite	Credit Hours Lectures /Lab.
9400121	English 101	Placement exam	None	3 hours

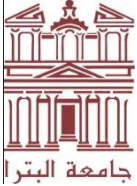| Instructor Name	e-mail	Office No.	Office ext.	Office Hours
Amina Azzam El-Asir				

Course Description	This course is a continuation for the previous 099 English course. It aims at building on students' English skills and preparing them for further study of the English language at university level. The course covers a variety of popular topics, and the content includes the most common range of language skills that they are expected to encounter in their everyday lives. Reading, writing, speaking and listening are taught as integrated skills of equal importance.

Weeks	Themes	Skills	Book pages	Outcomes	Activities
1-2	Module 1: Work and Play	*Grammar*: adverbs of manner, simple present – progressive *Vocabulary*: chosen vocabularies from the reading comprehensions *Speaking:* an interview for a part-time job	5-18	**A.** Students will be able to use present simple - present progressive, stative verbs, **B.** Students will be able to appropriately use some vocabulary such as: different jobs / elite/ padded/ meditation/ environmental campaign **C**. Students will be able to understand the reading passages and answer questions about them.	Work book activities
3-4	Module 2: Culture and stories	*Speaking:* Expressing opinions. *Grammar*: past progressive vs. simple past *Vocabulary*: Chosen vocabs from the reading comprehensions	19-32	A. Students will be able to write and speak using the past tense. B. Students will be able to write an e-mail. C. Students will be able to use vocabs from the passages. D. Students will be able to express their opinions.	Workbook activities
5-6	Module 3: Helping Hands	*Writing:* A letter giving news *Grammar*: present perfect *Vocabulary*: Chosen vocabs from the reading comprehensions *Speaking*: offering and asking for	33-46	A. Students will be able to use present perfect tense in writing and speaking. B. Students will be able to create their own sentences using the vocab words. C. Students will be able	Second exam

	help			to	
Assessment method		**Grade**		**Comments**	
First Exam		15			
Second Exam		20			
Homework and quizzes		5		**During class**	
Interaction in class		10		**During class**	
Final Exam		50			
Total		**100**			

1- Textbook (s): *Discover (4)*

APPENDIX B. A COURSE SYLLABUS OF UOP ENGLISH 2

جامعة البترا- عشرون عاما Petra University Anniversary		جامعة البترا	جامعة البترا- عشرون عاما Petra University Anniversary
University of Petra **Department of English Language and Literature**			

Course Syllabus

Year: 2020/2021
First Semester

Course No.	Course Title	Prerequisite	Co-requisite	Credit Hours Lectures/Lab.
9400122	English 2	Placement exam	9400122	3 hours
Instructor Name	**e-mail**	**Office No.**	**Office ext.**	**Office Hours**
Samia Shihada	.	*6326*	6326	
Course Description	This course is a continuation for the previous English 1 course. It aims at building on students' English skills and preparing them for further study of the English language at university level. The course covers a variety of popular topics, and the content includes the most common range of language skills that they are expected to encounter in their everyday lives. Reading, writing, speaking and listening are taught as integrated skills of equal importance.			

Weeks	Skills	Book pages	Outcomes	Activities
1	*Writing*: Rewriting sentences using different words. *Grammar*: Modals *Vocabulary*: Understanding the meanings of similar words *Speaking:* Discussing different means of transportation and the advantages and disadvantages of each.	1-5	**A.** Students will be able to guess the meaning of new vocabulary through context and definitions. **B.** Students will be able to appropriately use new vocabulary **C**. Students will be able to understand the reading passages and answer questions about them.	Textbook activities
2-3	*Writing*: Recognizing the elements of a formal letter. *Grammar*: Understanding verb and noun combinations. *Vocabulary*: Understanding the meanings of similar words *Speaking:* Expressing opinions using recent vocabulary	6-11	**A.** Students will be able to guess the meaning of new vocabulary through context and definitions. **B.** Students will be able to appropriately use new vocabulary **C**. Students will be able to understand the reading passages.	Textbook activities
4-5	*Speaking:* Expressing opinions. Discussing different *Writing*: Utilizing recent vocabularies in sentence formation. *Grammar*: Understanding word formation. *Vocabulary*: Chosen vocabulary from the reading comprehension.	13-18	**A.** Students will be able to write and speak by expressing opinions. **B.** Students will be able to write a formal letter. **C.** Students will be able to use vocab from the passages to create their own sentences. **D.**	Textbook activities

			Students will be able to express their opinions	
6-7	*Writing:* Recognizing and exercising general punctuation. *Grammar*: Recognizing Phrasal verbs with take, look and run. *Vocabulary*: Using phrasal verbs in addition to small words with big meaning. *Speaking*: Exploring opinions.	19-25	**A.** Students will be able to use phrasal verbs in writing and speaking. **B.** Students will be able to create their own sentences using the vocabularies words. **C.** Students will be able to express opinions and clarify concepts.	Textbook activities
8-9	*Writing:* Understanding structure and language for a report. *Grammar*: Recognizing usage of verbs and prepositions. *Vocabulary*: Finding the meaning of words *Speaking*: Asking for permission.	27-36		Textbook activities
10-11	Review course material before final exam		Students will be reminded of the most useful concepts learnt throughout the course	

Assessment method	Grade	Comments
Mid-term exam	30	
Assignments	10	**During class**
Presentation	10	**During class**
Final Exam	50	
Total	**100**	

1-Textbook (s):
New Success at First Certificate (available at university campus)

APPENDIX C. A RECOMMENDED COURSE SYLLABUS OF ENGLISH 1

Weeks/ lessons	Lexical Items	Grammar	Pronunciation	Speaking	Reading	Writing
One	Words with like and dislike Prepositions with adjectives	Question Forms: positive and negative verb forms and phrases	-ed adjectives	Happiness	Laughing is the best remedy	Things make me happy
Two	Gradable and non-gradable adjectives	Present simple and present progressive	Strong and weak forms	My daily habits	Ways of cooking	Global food habits
Three	Word building: noun and adjective suffixes	Present perfect simple and progressive	Suffixes with the schwa /ə/	My travel experiences	The greatest travelers in the world	The best holidays
Four	Collocations	Past simple and progressive	The production of the letters (or)	Museums and galleries	The weirdest museums in the world	Music
Five	Phrasal verbs	Comparison and contrast	An overlapping pronunciation of /dʒ/, /j/ and /ju:/	Memorable events	Three thrilling places	A memorable birthday
Six	Synonyms	Conditional clauses	Words suffixed with (-ate)	Traditional celebrations	Luck and destiny	Myths
Seven	Computer and IT programs	Model verbs	Rhythmical patterns of words	Global networks	Social media	The internet
Eight	Weather and nature	Active and passive constructions	An overlapping pronunciation of /ɪə/, /eə/ and /ɜ:/	Natural disasters	Good and bad weather	Appalling conditions
Nine	A healthy body	Relative clauses and subordinating conjunctions	The production of the letters (-ough)	Body stimuli and responses	Diets	Patient-doctor relations
Ten	Communicative interactions	Quantifiers	Linking and intrusive /r/	Relatives and friends	Guests	A wedding
Eleven	Jobs and occupations	Reported speech	Words suffixed with (-tion), (-age) and (-ture)	Job interviews	Secrets of l jobs	A job application
Twelve	My daily important moments	Wishes	Elision	Superheroes	Super-men	Personal wishes

APPENDIX D. A RECOMMEND COURSE SYLLABUS OF ENGLISH 2

Weeks/ lessons	Lexical Items	Grammar	Pronunciation	Speaking	Reading	Writing
One	Words with like and dislike Prepositions with adjectives	Question Forms: positive and negative verb forms and phrases	-ed adjectives	Happiness	Laughing is the best remedy	Things make me happy
Two	Gradable and non-gradable adjectives	Present simple and present progressive	Strong and weak forms	My daily habits	Ways of cooking	Global food habits
Three	Word building: noun and adjective suffixes	Present perfect simple and progressive	Suffixes with the schwa/ə/	My travel experiences	The greatest travelers in the world	The best holidays
Four	Collocations	Past simple and progressive	The production of the letters (or)	Museums and galleries	The weirdest museums in the world	Music
Five	Phrasal verbs	Comparison and contrast	An overlapping pronunciation of /dʒ/, /j/ and /ju:/	Memorable events	Three thrilling places	A memorable birthday
Six	Synonyms	Conditional clauses	Words suffixed with (-ate)	Traditional celebrations	Luck and destiny	Myths
Seven	Computer and IT programs	Model verbs	Rhythmical patterns of words	Global networks	Social media	The internet
Eight	Weather and nature	Active and passive constructions	An overlapping pronunciation of /ɪə/, /eə/ and /ɜ:/	Natural disasters	Good and bad weather	Appalling conditions
Nine	A healthy body	Relative clauses and subordinating conjunctions	The production of the letters (-ough)	Body stimuli and responses	Diets	Patient-doctor relations
Ten	Communicative interactions	Quantifiers	Linking and intrusive /r/	Relatives and friends	Guests	A wedding
Eleven	Jobs and occupations	Reported speech	Words suffixed with (-tion), (-age) and (-ture)	Job interviews	Secrets of 1 jobs	A job application
Twelve	My daily important moments	Wishes	Elision	Superheroes	Super-men	Personal wishes

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Using Motivational Strategies to Develop University EFL Students' Reading Skills

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Abstract—This study aims at examining the effectiveness of motivational strategies in promoting the reading performance of Saudi female students learning English as a foreign language (EFL). The quasi-experimental pretest-posttest control group design was employed. Two university EFL classes were randomly selected. One class, the experimental group, was taught reading through motivational strategies. Another class, the control group, had regular reading instruction. Results showed that the experimental group outperformed the control group on the post-test in overall reading performance as well as in each reading skill after the implementation of the teaching strategy based on motivational strategies. It can be concluded that motivation is vital in learning EFL reading comprehension through making students positive and enthusiastic in their classrooms. Teaching motivational strategies should have its place in Saudi EFL reading classes. EFL teachers should devote sufficient time and make their efforts to exploit these strategies with their different types.

Index Terms—motivation, motivational strategies, reading comprehension, reading skills

I. INTRODUCTION

In the field of foreign/second language (L2) learning, motivation is the basic force to learn the L2 and afterwards the continuing stimulus to support language learning. Motivation enables learners, with varied faculties, to achieve their aspired goals. Dörnyei (2001) states that language teachers frequently use the term motivation when describing successful or unsuccessful learners. This emphasizes the fact that during the long process of learning EFL, the learner's interest, involvement, and perseverance are key factors of success or failure.

Motivating L2 learners to be engaged in the learning process involves several things, ranging from directly persuading them to indirectly exerting influence on them by organizing the circumstances in a manner that they are likely to pursue a specific course of action. Most discussions on motivational strategies center on the idea that all learners can be motivated to learn effectively once they are provided with appropriate instruction in a suitable classroom environment (McCombs & Pope, 1994). Nevertheless, this supposition does not apply to all learners all the time. Not every learner can be motivated to learn everything. In addition, motivated students do not necessarily possess equivalent interest in every language area.

On the other hand, classroom practice shows that L2 teachers can boost their learners' motivation. In the literature, it is found that teachers mostly resort to rewarding and/or punishing as the common means for encouraging their learners' L2 performance. However, research on motivations presents a wide array of functional motivational strategies that are diverse enough to make plausible that at least some of the strategies can certainly work. The key idea here is that motivational strategies are significant for L2 learning. Therefore, it is fundamental to empower teachers with a multitude of motivational strategies to help their learners develop a solid base for L2 learning.

Simultaneously, successful EFL reading is a fundamental means for independent learning, and it is a requisite skill for academic performance (Koda & Zehler, 2008). Reading a text represents a problem-solving activity (Pressley et al., 1992), and efficient readers constantly regulate their reading behaviors to address the text difficulty, task requirements, and varied contextual factors. Gradually, they become conscious of the cognitive and linguistic processes they go through to grasp, comprehend, and analyze the information in a reading text. These traits and other related characteristics differentiate between effective and less effective readers (Koda, 2005; Schramm, 2008). Meanwhile, motivational strategies represent a learner-centered approach where learners are viewed as diverse personalities with varied sources of motivation. As a result, these learners with distinguished motivation types employ a multitude of varied motivational strategies that lead to felicitous or inappropriate outcomes in the reading classroom. This study examines how reading skills might be enhanced if they are learnt through varied motivational strategies.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Motivation is a complex issue. When a student is described as 'motivated', we conceptualize him/her as a dedicated learner who has good reasons for learning, who studies with enthusiasm and concentration, and who has enough

perseverance to overcome the obstacles he might encounter in the learning process (Dörnyei, 2001). Motivation is therefore necessary for all language learners to achieve language success, and learners with strong motivation can even achieve high levels of L2 proficiency.

A. Motivation in the L2 Classroom

Importance of motivation as a factor in learning is generally given due importance in any classroom. In second language acquisition (SLA) literature, the powerful role that motivation plays in attaining language proficiency is practically and unanimously acknowledged. Therefore, over the past 50 years there have been hundreds of studies investigating various aspects of motivation within the field of L2 instruction (Moskovsky & Alrabai, 2009). Dörnyei (1998) explains the importance of motivation as follows: "Motivation provides the primary impetus to initiate learning second language and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process" (p. 117).

Motivation in the L2 classroom has emerged as a topic of contemporary research to investigate the essence and components of this versatile construct and the ways it influences L2 teaching and learning. Around the 1990s, a plethora of studies adopted an education-oriented approach in motivation research (e.g., Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1994; Williams & Burden, 1997). This rising trend spread the L2 motivation model by (1) enhancing the cognitive aspects of motivation, particularly the learner's self; (2) incorporating motivation with effective educational theories of the time; and (3) centering on aspects of classroom practice.

B. Motivational Strategies in the L2 Classroom

Motivation is a main variable in defining progress in L2 learning, and motivational strategies represent an essential component when analyzing L2 motivation. There is a proliferation of research on the effective design, implementation, and assessment of motivational strategies in the language classroom (e.g., Alison & Halliwell, 2002; Chambers, 1999; Williams & Burden, 1997). In 1998, Dörnyei and Csizer did a study on Hungarian teachers of English who evaluated a list of 51 motivational strategies. They analyzed the value they considered for these techniques and the frequency of using them. They concluded with the 'Ten commandments for motivating learners', a list of the 10 most important motivational macro-strategies based on the teachers' feedback and teaching experience. In 2001, Dörnyei presented a list of more than 100 practical motivational techniques in a comprehensive theoretical framework.

A number of schemes have been proposed in literature for organizing motivational strategies in separate categories. The current study follows an approach focusing on the different phases of the process-oriented model of motivation. This approach is adopted because of its comprehensiveness. It covers the motivational process from the first stage of arousing motivation, following by the stage of engaging in the motivated learning situation, and finally completing and evaluating that learning situation. Specifically, this motivation-based process has the following stages (Dörnyei, 2001): "1. Providing the essential motivational conditions; 2. Initiating motivation; 3. Sustaining and ensuring motivation; and 4. Promoting positive self-evaluation."

C. Related Studies on Motivational Strategies & Promoting the Leaning Process

Significant research has been written on the role of motivational strategies in the L2 classroom. Practitioners focus on the role of motivational strategies in facilitating the teaching and learning process. Komarchuk et al. (2000) conducted a study to develop high school students' academic performance. The students in three schools in Chicago participated in the study. The students' low performance was ascribed to a number of reasons: teacher-student communication, relevance of curriculum, family related problems, teacher expectations, lack of motivation, and previous academic records. Treatment centered on motivational strategies, e.g., strengthening student-teacher relationship and communication and providing academic choices to the students through multi-modal instruction. As a result, half of the students showed improvement in their motivation. In particular, cooperative activities were the most effective in boosting the students' learning success.

Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) examined the teachers' use of motivational strategies in the language classroom. Therefore, they studied a sample of Korean instructors' use of motivational strategies in their classrooms. In addition, the researchers administered a questionnaire to explore learners' motivation and a post-lesson evaluation checklist to examine the instructors' motivational practice. Results showed that the instructors' performance was significantly related to increasing their learners' motivation and learning performance as well as motivational state. Based on their teaching experience, proficient instructors showed better knowledge about the strategies that worked more suitably and feasibly for their students.

Kubanyiova's longitudinal study (2009) focused on 8 Slovakian teachers of English who attended an in-service program on motivation-sensitive and autonomy-enhancing approaches to teaching. Results showed that the degree of teachers' active engagement with the input of the training program. Development of their teaching was shown to have depended on (a) the degree that the training content and its pedagogical guidelines were relevant to their motivation; (b) the degree they identified a mismatch between their present and aspired goals; and finally (c) they degree they were motivated to diminish this mismatch. The teachers experiencing this mismatch between their present and aspired goals employed self-regulatory strategies to reduce the impact of contextual constraints on their progress. Some teachers expressed the need to give students more autonomy if they did not comply with their expectations.

Deniz (2010) examined the importance that student teachers attributed to motivational strategies in EFL teaching and the degree of using these strategies in their courses. The study involved 179 student teachers attending the English Language Teaching Department of Mugla University, Turkey. The student teachers thought that motivational strategies were crucial in learning EFL, and that their instructors used some of these strategies but did not use other important strategies. Through semi-structured interviews, the student teachers stated that studying the EFL cultural values facilitated language learning, use, and retention.

Al-Mahrooqi et al. (2012) explored Omani EFL teachers' use of motivational strategies. Specially, they examined the significance of EFL teachers' strategy choice for motivating their students to learn EFL. Therefore, they monitored the number of times these teachers employed motivational strategies in teaching their students. It was found that Omani EFL teachers favored using all motivational strategies. However, the most frequently-used strategies were those focusing on the teachers' instructional performance in their classrooms.

Önemli and Yöndem (2012) examined the impact of a psycho-educational group study concerning self-regulation in learning on the students' motivational beliefs and academic performance. The sample involved 10th grade students at Anatolian High School in Turkey for 8 weeks. ANOVA and ANCOVA tests were conducted to analyze the data and results showed that the psycho-educational group study raised the students' motivational beliefs and academic level. Improvement in motivational beliefs did not differ in relation to the students' gender or study field.

Guilloteaux (2013) explored the EFL instructors' choice of motivational strategy in the language classroom. Specifically, the researcher examined the main strategies that Korean EFL secondary-school instructors rated as most significant to promote their students' motivation. The second objective was examining which motivational macro-strategies were particularly underused. The researcher collected the data from the instructors during 4 in-service courses. Results indicated that Korean EFL instructors did not exert enough efforts in motivating their students. Also, they seldom employed motivational strategies to provide an encouraging classroom atmosphere.

Alshehri (2014) examined EFL instructors' and learners' perspective of the motivational strategies employed in Saudi EFL classrooms in order to address the mismatch between their current and desired end-states. A mixed methods approach was employed to collect quantitative and qualitative data in 3 universities in Saudi Arabia. In the first phase of the study, the researcher employed semi-structured interviews with 6 EFL instructors and 5 learners. Data obtained from the interviews were used to build a questionnaire on the instructors' and learners' perspectives of motivational strategies in the EFL classroom. After that, the questionnaire was administered to 96 instructors and 345 learners. In the final phase of the study, individual, in-depth interviews were carried out with 3 instructors and 3 learners to explore important issues based on these participants' perceptions. It was shown that both the instructors and learners valued the instructors' role in motivating their learners. Nevertheless, they differed in their perspective regarding the specific strategies employed by the instructors to motivate their learners. The instructors were of the opinion that their learners were motivated by strategies that led to academic success. Therefore, they focused on the motivational strategies that met academic requirements. Conversely, the learners said they were motivated by the motivational strategies that adhered to the real learning process and that enhanced the social dimensions of learning, e.g., participation, cooperation, and interaction. The learners also supported the role of social learning in promoting L2 motivation. This included communication with native speakers and using English when visiting other countries.

Helwa and Abdel-Hamid (2014) designed a program based on integrating a number of motivational strategies to promote EFL university students' argumentative writing and to overcome apprehension among students in the writing classroom. The experimental learned argumentative writing via employing a teaching strategy built on a number of relevance and confidence strategies while the control group received regular writing instruction. After that, semi-structured interviews were conducted with the experimental group students. Results showed that the experimental group students outscored the control group in argumentative writing. They also showed positive views of learning writing as a result of employing motivational strategies. Also, the students' writing apprehension level was significantly decreased.

Vibulphol (2016) examined L2 students' learning and motivation as well as the ways in which the teachers promoted their students' learning and motivation. The researcher administered questionnaires to the teachers and students and collected data from 12 English language classrooms in Thailand. Moreover, each lesson was observed by 2 observers. The researcher triangulated the data to identify the students' learning and motivation, in addition to the teachers' motivational strategies. Results showed that the students exhibited a significantly high level of motivation. Most students showed internal interests in learning English. However, a few students in every class indicated some degree of a lack of motivation. The teachers used varied motivational strategies including autonomy-support and controlling motivational strategies. Results showed that it was important to employ motivational strategies that did not only initialize but also nurtured the students' intrinsic motivation with the aim of promoting ongoing learning of English in and outside the classroom.

Suo and Hou (2017) explored the role of motivational strategies in a university English flipped classroom. The study was initiated on the premise that stimulating students' motivation was mandatory to exploit the full potential of the flipped classroom. Consequently, motivational strategies were employed to develop the students' language performance. Specifically, promoting the students' motivation in the flipped classroom was based on Dörnyei's model of motivational strategies (2001). Results showed that proper design and timely implementation of motivational strategies promoted the

students' motivation and ensured their autonomous learning in the flipped classroom. This, in turn, raised the students' overall language performance and cooperative learning.

Lai and Aksornjarung (2018) used content-based instruction (CBI) to develop Thai EFL university students' attitudes and motivation towards learning English. A number of 71 university sophomore students responded to a questionnaire on attitudes and motivation, in addition to 6 open-ended questions on CBI. Results showed that the students had significantly positive attitudes towards the CBI, and they had moderate levels of motivation towards EFL learning. A significant conclusion was that instructors adopting CBI courses should employ motivational strategies to promote instrumental as well as integrative motivation of their students.

Clearly, research shows that motivation is a prerequisite for L2 learning. In this regard, teachers' effective employment of motivational strategies is a crucial factor in enhancing learners' motivation. Nevertheless, there is a gap in research on using motivational strategies to improve Saudi EFL students' reading comprehension skills. Therefore, the researcher investigated the impact of teaching motivational strategies in Saudi EFL reading classrooms. This was done through identifying the impact of motivational strategies on enhancing Saudi EFL university students' reading skills.

III. PROBLEM AND QUESTIONS OF THE STUDY

Traditional methods of teaching could probably decrease the students' interest towards learning, which results in difficulty and failure to recall what has been learnt. In the field of L2 teaching and learning, previous research also reveals that many students have low motivation (e.g., Bandura, 1997; Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). Considering the significance of students' motivation in EFL learning, it is expected that due attention be given to employing motivational strategies in the learning process. In the Saudi context, little research has examined the impact of motivational strategies in the language classroom. This study was conducted to answer the following questions:

1- What is the effect of using motivational strategies on developing Saudi EFL university students' overall reading comprehension?
2- What is the effect of using motivational strategies on developing Saudi EFL university students' each reading skill?

IV. DESIGN AND SAMPLE

The researcher employed the quasi-experimental, pretest-posttest control group design. Two intact classes were randomly selected; one class (20 students) taught by their classroom teacher through motivational strategies to represent the experimental group and another class (20 students) receiving regular instruction to represent the control group. A pre-post reading test was given to the two groups before and after the treatment.

As for sampling procedure, the study included two classes from level-2 students at College of Science and Humanities, Sharqra University. The students in the two classes were all females. The students registered in Level-2 Reading Course during the second semester of the academic 2021-2022 participated in the study.

V. TEACHING STATEGY

A proposed teaching strategy was employed with the experimental group students. This strategy was based on employing motivational strategies in teaching reading comprehension to the experimental group students. The teaching strategy went in the following stages.

– *Arousing students' interest in the reading classroom based on motivational strategies*

In the first class, the teacher enhanced the students' positive impression of the EFL reading classroom based on exploiting their motivational strategies. This was accomplished through getting them introduced to learning reading based on motivational strategies. The teacher highlighted the following issues: (variance of learning reading based on motivational strategies as compared with the regular method of reading instruction, the advantages offered by learning reading based on motivational strategies, and finally the interactive procedure of reading evaluation based on motivational strategies.)

– *Setting motivational goals*

These goals stimulated the students' instrumental and integrative motivation. On the one hand, the goals were suitable for the students' instrumental orientations, e.g., performing well in exams, achieving academic progress and communication, as well as ensuring career success. On the other hand, the students' integrative motivation was boosted via making them familiar with the L2 culture with the aim of maintaining and prolonging their high motivation levels. This was done because instrumental motivation was expected to decrease after the students passed the exams or acquired the required skills. The teacher's final goal was to incorporate the students into the wider world by grasping sufficient information about it. At this point, all communication, especially academic communication, reflected intercultural insights about other countries' civilization, history, customs, and traditions. This grasping of the target language culture, in turn, had a significant impact on promoting the students' interest in reading classes.

– *Setting specific and manageable objectives, plans, requirements, and evaluation standards*

Detailed information clarified what to learn and how to learn it, which worked as a guideline for the students to manage their own reading lessons, increased their goal-orientedness, and facilitated their self-evaluation and peer evaluation. This motivated them to work harder to get praise from the teacher and classmates.

– *Creating motivational learning situations*

Four motivational elements were employed to create motivational learning situations: challenge, curiosity, control and imagination (Malone & Lepper, 1987). Meantime, reasonably challenging activities boosted the students' confidence and brought them the biggest intrinsic motivation. As such, activities and tasks of autonomous learning became suitable for the students' skills and were within their zone of language levels.

– *Offering students personalized guidance*

Special and individual guidance raised the students' sense of progress and self-esteem. Therefore, the students were trained to solve their own problems. The help was within an appropriate point. This help was in the form of a scaffold; therefore, the students were enlightened to think and process information openly instead of giving them direct instructions.

Tailored communication with the students provided them with the feeling of being cared for, enabled them to nurture a good teacher-student relationship and ensured their participation and motivation. Through communicating with the students, the teacher learned about their problems in the reading lessons, which helped in designing reading activities that were relevant to the students in addressing these problems. Consequently, the students started to share in reading activities and tasks.

– *Offering motivational evaluation and feedback after the reading activities*

The teacher put adequate emphasis on formative evaluation in the EFL reading classroom to track and motivate the students' autonomous learning. Evaluation centered the following important issues: the students' reading skills, the effectiveness of the students' cooperative activities, and their progress in reading lessons. Therefore, the teacher followed some important steps in evaluating the students' reading. First, the teacher provided positive feedback on the students' reading. Even the simplest signs of achievement were highlighted to originate the idea that the process and progress itself mattered most. Second, when the students made mistakes, the teacher considered their problems by taking their position. Thus, the teacher had a more accurate and personal understanding of the students and thereby forgave their mistakes. This relieved the students of their fear after making mistakes and gave them the feelings that the teacher still had expectations of them instead of giving them up, which motivated them to live up to the teacher's expectations. Third, the teacher gave informational feedback to help the students make an objective analysis of their strengths and weaknesses, as well as their development and inadequacy in reading lessons. Only the teacher's detailed and specific feedback supported the students to perform the future reading tasks and activities more independently and successfully.

– *Setting a good example to the students with teacher's own behavior*

Dörnyei (2001) considers the teacher's behavior as the most influential factor in promoting the students' motivation. An effective and significant teacher's behavior in the classroom is initiating and sustaining students' participation. Accordingly, the teacher conveyed enthusiasm and deepened it in the students via words and behavioral models. In addition, the teacher valued the students' reading as a meaningful contribution on their part that produced satisfaction and enriched their life. In this way, the students' learning and involvement in L2 reading was facilitated.

VI. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section presents and discusses the results in relation to the research questions and previous literature. The experimental and control group students' performance was compared before and after conducting the study. This was done to examine the impact of motivational strategies on developing the students' reading skills.

TABLE 1
T- TEST RESULTS OF THE PRE- TEST COMPARING THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS IN READING PERFORMANCE

Group	N	M	SD	DF	t value	Significance level
Experimental	20	13.50	2.65	38	3.13	Not significant at 0.05
Control	20	13.75	2.40			level

Table 1 showed that t- value was (3.13) for the reading performance of the two groups on the pre- test. It was found that the estimated t- value was not statistically significant. Hence, it is concluded that the two groups had a similar level with reference to reading performance before the intervention. Therefore, any significant variance that might occur between the two groups would be attributed to learning reading via motivational strategies.

A. Results Related to the First Research Question

What is the effect of using motivational strategies on developing Saudi EFL university students' overall reading comprehension?

To examine this question, the researcher employed t- tests for independent samples on the students' reading performance on the post- test.

TABLE 2
T- TEST RESULTS OF THE POST- TEST COMPARING THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS IN OVERALL READING PERFORMANCE

Group	N	M	SD	DF	t value	Effect size	Significance level
Experimental	20	33.35	3.88	38	-9.237	2.64	Significant at 0.05
Control	20	23.25	2.97			Large	level

Table 2 showed that the estimated t value (-9.237) was statistically significant. This meant that the experimental group did significantly better in overall reading than the control group on the reading post-test.

B. Results Related to the Second Research Question

What is the effect of using motivational strategies on developing Saudi EFL university students' each reading skill? T-tests for independent samples were employed regarding each reading skill as presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3
T- TEST RESULTS OF THE POST- TEST COMPARING THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS IN EACH READING SKILL

Skill	Post-test	Mean	S.D.	t- value	Effect size
1-Extracting the main idea of the text.	Exp.	5.87	1.41	4.86	1.98
	Cont.	4.12	1.73		Large
2-Identifying a specific detail.	Exp.	6.98	1.21	6.21	2.03
	Cont.	4.36	1.90		Large
3-Identifying cause-effect relationships.	Exp.	6.62	1.83	4.61	2.05
	Cont.	4.56	1.97		Large
4-Noting significant inferred details.	Exp.	6.97	.93	5.21	1.60
	Cont.	5.08	1.62		Large
5-Drawing conclusions.	Exp.	6.91	1.25	4.44	1.41
	Cont.	5.13	1.40		Large

Table 3 showed that the experimental group performed better on the post-test than the control group in each reading skill. The effect size values were also large and significant for the experimental group students on the post-test.

The two research questions were thus supported by the results. The study addressed the issue of providing reading instruction based on motivational strategies at the university level that bridges traditional instruction to a model of teaching that aims to serve all learners in the reading classroom. The positive findings of the study proved the significant effect of reading instruction based on motivational strategies on developing the experimental group students' overall performance in reading, in addition to their performance in each reading skill. This important role that motivation plays in the EFL reading classroom is supported by previous research (e.g., Dörnyei, 1994; Gardner, 1985). The study is also consistent with the results of previous research which proved the effective role of employing motivational strategies in developing students' L2 performance such as the studies of Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008), Deniz (2010), Al-Mahrooqi et al. (2012), and Ajegbomoguna and Popoolab (2013). This registered progress in the experimental group students' reading performance might be attributed to several factors.

First, the students' performance in reading was enhanced through employing varied motivational strategies in the reading lessons. These results receive support from the findings of Arnold and Fonseca (2004) and Dastgoshadeh and Jalilzadeh (2011) that it is necessary to provide opportunities for all learners to represent their aptitudes for language achievement. In addition, supporting the social and collaborative atmosphere was also one of the priorities in this motivational strategies-based reading classroom. In this regard, encouraging student talk was extremely beneficial during the reading process. Reading was viewed as an interactive process that flourished in a social context where much talk surrounded the process of reading comprehension. When allowed to think out loud while reading, the students helped one another clarify meaning by asking challenging questions and offering suggestions or explanations about the ideas presented. Positive outcomes from using motivational strategies also include increased student collaboration, interpersonal relationships, self-reflection, and problem-solving skills. These results are supported by Hoerr et al. (2010) who assert the need to provide learners with sufficient, real-life situations to work independently and to co-operate in different learning activities.

In all stages of reading via motivational strategies, freedom was given to the students to make choices and control their learning. This was reflected in the objectives of the reading lessons, for example to teach the students to learn through helping them plan their work over a time span and set themselves realistic objectives. Accordingly, the students were offered more than one activity to choose from, in addition to allowing them to personalize their learning process.

Another factor was that the students were encouraged to form positive attribution. For example, the instructor expressed confidence in the students' capability and motivated them to express their reading problems and to employ adequate strategies to address confusions they encountered in the reading lessons. As for the students who did their best but the result was not satisfactory enough, the instructor motivated them by stressing their current achievement and confirming that L2 reading development represented a long-term process that required time and sustained efforts. These results are consistent with Weiner's attribution theory (1992) that a person's attributions as to the reasons why they achieve or miss the goal at a task define the degree of endeavor the person needs to engage in in the future.

A final major factor that possibly enhanced the experimental group students' reading comprehension was the stimulating environment that the instructor furnished in the classroom. This result shows that instructors can positively enhance learners' motivation to learn by engaging them in a supportive learning environment. Referring to this idea, Lightbown and Spada (2006) stress instructors' motivational impact on their learners. Meanwhile, when assessing learners' skills, instructors employing motivational strategies should focus on learner strengths and look at a broader range of abilities. In this regard, assessment should be multifocal, tapping as many contexts as possible. This conclusion receives support from Habib (2016) who asserts that assessment of reading comprehension entails using varied techniques and strategies.

VII. CONCLUSIONS

It can be concluded that motivation is vital in reading instruction. It makes L2 learners involved in the learning process and enthusiastic about their reading tasks and activities. Motivation also initiates the impetus in learners to maintain their success in learning the L2 and to engage in effective and productive classroom communication. Besides, experience of fulfillment and achievement has an influential correlation with motivation. Alongside, it is paramount that there be mutual communication between the instructor and learners in the L2 reading classroom.

It is also motivation that assists in preparing and creating efficient reading learners by rooting the seeds of self-confidence and perseverance in L2 learners' minds. Thus, motivation effectively produces learners eager to read and keep learning in the L2 classroom. To achieve these valuable goals, instructors need to employ a number of motivational strategies depending on the specific conditions of their classroom and their learners' characteristics. Another conclusion is that language instructors should be encouraged to construct a versatile view of motivational strategies in the language classroom to ensure involving all learners effectively in the learning process. A related conclusion is that using visual support including pictures, photographs, and graphs significantly facilitates EFL students' reading performance. Furthermore, using a wide range of interesting materials and discussing familiar topics increase students' involvement in the reading process and foster their reading performance. Finally, in order for reading students to become motivated, instructors need to engage them in using diverse motivational strategies appropriate with the context of reading, which might be different from one student to another. It is also necessary to foster multi-mode interaction by building trust between instructors and students so that much communication in the reading classroom is properly developed.

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Critical Literacy in an EFL Setting: Lecturers' Perception

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Abstract—This study intended to determine lecturers' understanding of critical literacy, how they applied it in reading class, and their reasons for continuing to teach critical literacy to students. This study involved five English lecturers as the subjects of the study. The researchers used various techniques to obtain data, namely interviews, documentation, and observation. The collected data were analyzed qualitatively using the interactive data analysis model. This study found that the lecturers' have different ways of defining critical literacy. However, their understanding of critical literacy aligns with the concept of critical literacy in general. Furthermore, lecturers' understanding influences their strategies to promote critical literacy in their English as a foreign language class. Thus, they applied various teaching strategies to ensure that the students could improve their critical literacy. In addition, they also have strong reasons for promoting critical literacy sustainably. Detailed findings are discussed in this article.

Index Terms—critical literacy, EFL, language proficiency, reading, tertiary education

I. INTRODUCTION

Teaching reading with a critical perspective is greatly strengthened by connecting reading with the activity of seeing, explaining, and describing culture (Muspratt et al., 1997). An ideology embedded in a text to further understand the representation, the author's subjectivity, and position on a particular issue should be the intention of current reading learning in tertiary education. Liu (2017) asserted that the distribution of knowledge and power in society is the scene of reading. Undergraduate students' cognitive level certainly needs those above, particularly English as a Foreign language (EFL) learning, by considering the essentials of transformative critical pedagogy and focusing on mastering language skills at a certain level.

For those reasons, tertiary education must construct their learning according to the obligations of producing critical students. Students' participatory role as global citizens necessitates being prepared by understanding the various socio-political perspectives. Critical literacy has been in the spotlight for many years in Western Education, notably through first language (L1) classes. In the context of EFL, Ko and Wang (2009) remark that, in an EFL classroom, critical literacy theory and its implications are still inadequate. However, in recent years, literacy practitioners have explored critical literacy in stages. The primary or secondary education levels are the targets of these studies. It means that the tertiary education level has not yet investigated critical literacy in EFL.

Critical literacy is defined in various ways by some scholars. Huang (2011) asserts critical literacy as a social practice encapsulated in language learning. Students undergo the process of knowing themselves as social agents. They are concurrently increasing their expertise and language development. Meanwhile, M. Yun Ko & Wang (2013) argue that critical literacy should be considered socio-political. It is an approach linked to theory or practice but not yet a unit. Kuo (2014) views that a particular society's discursive system references texts' ideological development. Students recognize ideological messages by enriching themselves with critical literacy insights and social forces encoded in the text. Furthermore, Izadinia and Abednia (2010) reinforces that students' social identity is implicated in language learning. It is a complex phenomenon; thus, critical literacy skills are inherent to explore.

In the Asian context, Koo's (2008) research emphasized that tertiary education students still reflect literary practice in schools and have not articulated what they think. The EFL examination system and memorization practice in EFL teaching show low students' critical literacy (Huh, 2016). A lack of understanding of students' need for critical literacy is why they lack critical literacy practice and knowledge and skills about its application in non-Western contexts (Park, 2011). Students are frequently in a submissive position. When it is not polite to express critical opinions to the teacher,

it implies a cultural reason characterized by a hierarchical structure that turns students passive (Bobkina & Stefanova, 2016).

A similar thing happens in Indonesia. Thus the studies on critical literacy were mostly about improving students' critical literacy (see Novianti et al., 2020; Mbau & Sugeng, 2019; Afifuddin, 2017; Aimah & Purwanto, 2019). Moreover, critical literacy investigation that explains its practice in tertiary institutions is scarce, such as research conducted by Setyaningsih (2019) and Setyorini (2018). However, those studies are insufficient to ensure that critical literacy is already part of the education system. A profound investigation of teachers' perception of critical literacy is needed to see whether building students' critical literacy is already a part of their daily instruction. Thus, this study was intended to address this gap by converging on exploration and in-depth breakdown of the current state of critical literacy learning and the feasibility of integrating it into reading activities in tertiary institutions. Various learning tasks in critical literacy learning require students to complete them all. Therefore, this study dissected multiple perspectives, emphasized ideas, and reported language learning specifically.

II. METHOD

This study can be classified as a case study that involved five respondents. This study's participants were five English lecturers who teach at a state college in Bali, Indonesia. Since there were only five English lecturers in that college, the researchers took all of them as the respondents. In other words, the researcher used a saturated sampling technique where all of the population was taken as the study sample. The researcher used R1, R2, R3, R4, and R5 to substitute their names in this study. The letter R means respondent.

In-depth individual interviews were conducted with the respondents. The researchers also collected the respondents' lesson plans to teach English to their students. In addition, the researcher also observed the teaching and learning process conducted by the respondents. In other words, the researchers collected the data using three different methods, interview, documentation, and observation. The researchers used three different methods of collecting the data because the researcher used the data triangulation technique to ensure that the data were valid and reliable. The collected data from the interview, documentation, and observation were analyzed qualitatively using the interactive data analysis method. There were three steps in this method, namely: data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing/verification (Miles et al., 2014).

III. FINDING AND DISCUSSION

A. Concepts of Critical Literacy in EFL Learning

In this study, the researchers tried to identify the lecturers' perception of critical literacy. Perception is someone's views, opinions, and ideas from an observation or experience. It denotes how someone perceives and reacts toward a particular subject. It relates to the attitude of receiving information through the senses (Matherne, 2015; Maba, 2017). They can broaden their ideas on a specific matter, consider problems they face, and develop conclusions and solutions through senses (Qiong, 2017).

The researcher examined five respondents' understanding of critical literacy even though they had comprehended this concept earlier through various workshops; then questioned their ideas in proposing critical literacy when EFL teaching took place. The five respondents admitted blending the critical literacy concept into their respective teaching and were driven by a strong will that grew from themselves. However, the concepts of critical literacy were slightly different from one another. R1 emphasized that students' ability to generate ideas while reading articles and respond critically to each discussion was what he meant by critical literacy. After reading a text, they can analyze and provide detailed input.

R2 asserted that critical literacy advances students' creativity in presenting personal interests linked to previous reading material. The reading is more meaningful than earlier reading if, later, it can be discussed with a definite mind and wholly reviewed on each side. R3 stated that the most valuable task as a reader is reading and finishing the text, noticing essential elements, questioning sides that have not been recognized, and presenting input according to former knowledge. R4 stated that to have a critical understanding of a text. Sometimes it takes more than three times of readings to get every point comprehensively. By cultivating students' critical literacy, they are more stimulated to think precisely. R5 declared that critical literacy could perform students think about whether the article they read is an issue that needs a solution or just a daily reading so that later it is supposed that they can follow up with various resolutions regarding the issues.

What R5 conveyed is under the concept of critical literacy. Students were expected to understand the connection between a foreign language and its strengths by studying various texts; this is a learning approach (Luke, 2012). R5 revealed that they required critical thinking to determine whether a text comprised problems that necessitated resolution. The text's significance linked to the topic was critically analyzed by students, such as social justice or power. Students were given actions, critical attitudes, and responses to these texts' problems. Setyaningsih (2019) strengthened what Luke (2012) announced, mainly that critical literacy is often manifested through reading and writing, which refers to the process of realizing one's experiences relative to power relations.

Multiple learning environments and cultural contexts are areas where critical literacy can occur. Students are encouraged to reconstruct, accept, or reject the text's ideas in their reading and writing process. Critical literacy needs a

topic to discuss or a unit to study and should be seen as a frame or perspective for teaching across all subjects (M. Y. Ko, 2013). A way of life that provides students with a continuous, critical orientation to text and practice is a critical perspective of critical literacy learning. It invites students to write down the messages they see, as mentioned by R1, R2, and R3, such as taking a photo at a place, cutting out an advertisement from a magazine or public transportation, and reading the daily text they encounter critically. Furthermore, (Mbau & Sugeng, 2019) states that encouraging a deeper understanding of socially constructed concepts is facilitated by actively reading texts from a critical literacy perspective, such as inequality, power, or social relations. Students are encouraged to question and understand values and attitudes in critical literacy.

B. The Application of Critical Literacy in EFL Teaching

R2's foremost concern regarding implementing critical literacy in Indonesian tertiary education is that, unlike students in European or American countries, Indonesian students tend to find it challenging to express their ideas autonomously. This is because they are accustomed to passively accepting what the lecturer says (Pertiwi et al., 2021). So critical literacy is vital to enforce. But, according to her, most students are not critical in seeing problems in the text and tend to ignore them.

In contrast, R4 concerns students' English language skills who cannot comprehend the text more comprehensively. However, according to her, this is still understandable, and she is looking for a solution gradually. According to R4, the process of designing teaching or selecting reading material must be carried out carefully by the lecturer. A list of words or sentences can be prepared before applying the text to understand the suit words. It is one of the solutions before carrying out further discussion. Expressing English ideas will not be easy for all students, notably those at the middle and lower levels. In this case, the teacher must help them to experience the text first. R3 also offers another concept. According to him, the material should be linked with students' lives to discussion material.

According to R1, alternative literacy for students with low English proficiency levels can be adopted from lecturers' various sources. The lecturers should be accurate in gathering information initially. In expressing ideas, students adapt their ideas to their language skills. R5 assumed that literacy is not an act of linguistic decoding but a stage followed by other stages. It is a continuum. R5 agreed with R3's opinion; students were asked to think more if the given context was well known to them. Focus on decoding is performed more in foreign contexts. This decoding process is not only for students with low English proficiency levels; lecturers can still include critical literacy elements, and decoding skills are only a matter of proportion. R3's hesitation is ensuring that students think in English while reading. This still requires much practice because the students' mastery of English is still insufficient. Critical literacy cannot be fully achieved if students still think in Indonesian when reading the text. In this case, literacy is broadly interpreted as Indonesian literacy if it is forced to think about critical literacy in Indonesian. Students can discuss critical literacy in EFL teaching and think about it in English.

R1, in the interview session, explained that he was concerned about students' autonomy presently. He continued explaining that he was a student and taught by his lecturer. He then compared that his former lecturer would not teach a complicated matter related to grammar or vocabulary unless a student ordered it. The R1 lecturer regularly discussed the reading text until the time ended. At that time, no one complained about it because, according to him, R1 and his friends were autonomous learners and knew what to do at a particular moment. That is what students currently do not have, he said.

Further, R1 said that lecturers do not need to give autonomous students much consideration in language teaching. Other students may require instruction about language. Initially, adjusting to critical literacy takes time and a process. However, students will learn that both language learning and critical literacy can complete each other in a sufficient time. Other concerns he has besides student autonomy are politics and teaching resources. R1 conveyed that he did not find it challenging to talk about social problems abroad. However, he must handle them with care regarding his household matters.

Ultimately, the five respondents' concerns are cultural differences, English language skills, teaching resources, and student autonomy. Lecturers can make efforts in their teaching design to overcome students' English language skills problems; lecturers can also pay more attention to students' abilities through scaffolding. One thing that can prevent students from achieving critical literacy skills is a culture that values submission, such as eastern culture. Therefore, lecturers may initiate well-known texts or sign systems to encourage students' discussion as simple critical literacy techniques. Correcting social inequality through action is one of the principles of critical literacy. Moreover, a controversial political or social issue would be the perfect material for teaching critical literacy. Different voices and tolerating students' opinions make lecturers have to be optimally open-minded.

From the explanation above, the lecturers understand that their students have a problem with reading comprehension and try to help them improve their reading comprehension before promoting critical literacy. They tried to select the reading materials in line with the students' English mastery and use contextual reading materials to build students' background knowledge of the text. Making the learning material suit the students' English mastery and building students' prior knowledge is important in helping the students to comprehend the text being read (Sason et al., 2020; Smith et al., 2021). When they understand the text, there is a possibility that they will involve in the discussion about the text (Kovpik, 2020). In other words, it means that there is a tendency for the students to become more active during the discussion session if they understand the text well.

C. The Reasons for the Need to Continue Teaching Critical Literacy to Students

The five participants acknowledged that it was deemed necessary to have critical literacy in teaching English as a foreign language to stimulate students in their learning. It can additionally generate meaningful learning circumstances. R1 and R3 further emphasized the significance of thinking in learning. Hence, their view is identical; owning a good living in the prevailing socio-economic system and seizing a better job is important for students' language skills.

However, education is more than just teaching work-related skills. Students should apprehend the importance of critical literacy, and they necessitate to consider it rather than seeing it as a teaching method. It is better to recognize it as a teaching philosophy (R2). Students need to reveal to foreigners in the international world their thoughts. It will not be achieved if it is never stimulated out. There is no point in only training grammar proficiency by a group of students and vocabulary. In essence, communication and literacy are required to combine. Building communication skills entails a solid foundation, namely, literacy.

The goal of learning is not the language itself; it is just a tool. Solving students' problems through language is the next lecturer's goal. However, mastery of language is not the ultimate goal of a learning process; the real goal is to prepare students to think. According to R4, critical literacy is not a method but a philosophy. Like R2's idea of communicative language teaching and critical literacy, R2 further argues that communicative language teaching focuses primarily on the skill of speaking. Still, the originality of ideas issued by someone is not measured by the fluency of his/her communication. If English is seen as a learning tool, interpreting literacy should be from literacy as a communication tool. According to R5, critical literacy is decisive to be taught to students. When acts of corruption cause countless crises, it is time for students to realize and understand what is happening. The choice is up to them to do something for humanity to create an ideal world.

The five respondents admitted that education's ideal goal could be achieved if critical literacy, an educational philosophy, and enhanced language learning, mainly reading and writing. If it is seen as a pedagogical method, it will pass through without impacting students. The modern world's propaganda demands to be examined with critical and independent thought; thus, it is not easy to become a victim of a particular situation (De Paor & Heravi, 2020; Lutzke et al., 2019). Students should realize the value of thought. They can re-emphasize the greatness of critical thinking skills that learn words in a foreign language and read the world's direction with multiple purposes. The lecturers' idea aligns with the global concept that critical literacy is crucial in this digital era, where information spreads easily through a digital platform, and the students have to filter it (Polizzi, 2020; Purnama & Nurdianingsih, 2019).

IV. CONCLUSION

Active learners confer a critical attitude to what they see, read, experience, smell, touch, and work together. Society wants them to counter the increasing demands that remain to progress. Thus, through modern language education, critical readers and writers are formed. Therefore, critical literacy is required in 21st-century education, where students become active participants in their learning. This study explored the perceptions of five lecturers who incorporated elements of critical literacy teaching into EFL learning, notably for reading subjects. Besides, this study revealed concepts and the suitability of critical literacy in further EFL teaching, the use of critical literacy in EFL teaching, earlier and further teaching based on the five participants, lesson plans for teaching critical literacy-based texts, and the reasons for continuing to teach students critical literacy.

This study showed that critical literacy was considered necessary by the five respondents to continue its integration into EFL learning. If they pay attention to students' ability to speak English and enhance learning design, lecturers can implement it successfully. In addition, all respondents emphasized teaching a balance between critical literacy and language learning, focusing on students' abilities to acquire and understand vocabulary. If it is ensured that it can be held well, the lecturers will direct their students to use particular critical literacy to participate in critical discussions. Respondents felt that other hidden aspects of reading are essential for students to see; it is not enough to equip students with the four language abilities in EFL teaching. They need to recognize social inequality to encourage them to take social action.

This study focused on the lecturers' perception of critical literacy and how they implement their concept in teaching EFL to help the students build their critical literacy. A further study needs to be conducted to see how effective the implementation of their strategies to promote critical literacy is based on their perception and concepts. The study should involve students as the study subject to confirm the lecturers' ways of promoting critical literacy, the student's opinions about the teaching and learning process, and the students' critical literacy competence after they have been taught using the strategies.

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The Motivational Orientations of Undergraduate Students to Learn Arabic in a Dubai Private University[*]

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Abstract—**This study aimed to provide insight into the expatriate students' motivations and attitudes toward Arabic Language learning at a private university in Dubai. This is a qualitative case study that utilized a cross-sectional descriptive approach and is underpinned by Gardner and Lambert's Socio-Educational Model of Second Language Motivation, wherein the motivational orientation is bifurcated into instrumental and integrative orientations. The study sample consisted of 24 undergraduate students enrolled in Arabic language courses. As there is a drastic lack of motivation literature in the field of Arabic Language Learning and adult learning within the context of higher education in the emirate of Dubai, UAE, this research strives to become a substantial addition to this under-researched topic and unique context. This study highlights the motivations of expatriate students by providing a rich description of the learners' profile and contributes to research on motivation as it concerns the learning of languages other than English (LOTE) and ultimately aims to contribute to social change (transformation) by encouraging an interest in researching the teaching and learning of Arabic in Dubai context. The study revealed that integrative motivations appear to be more pervasive than instrumental ones. This means that universities need to promote the importance of learning Arabic through authentic teaching, immersive experiences, cultural activities, and events, instead of the instrumental 'end goal' of the degree program. Research limitations arise from the limited sample size, focus on the learner's vantage point, and the use of one instrument to collect data (a questionnaire).**

Index Terms—**Arabic Language, Dubai, learner profile, motivational orientation, University students**

I. INTRODUCTION

Arabic is the official language in the United Arab Emirates (UAE). However, expatriates living and working in Dubai emirate comprise 92% of its total population (Dubai Statistics Center, 2020). This Dubaian multicultural milieu which is comprised of many nationalities, led to the dominance of English as the Lingua Franca (Randall & Samimi, 2010). Since Emirati locals are considered a minority in their homeland, the demographic imbalance engendered a deep concern towards Emirati cultural identity especially the loss of mother tongue, Arabic Language (henceforth AL). However, the UAE strives to offer the best learning opportunities to all students whether at school level or higher education (Eppard & Baroudi, 2020). At the national level, initiatives were announced to improve and preserve the status of AL such as making it a compulsory subject for non-Arabs in all UAE schools (Randall & Samimi, 2010) and offering AL courses at universities such as Zayed University (Hedaiat, 2004). Though most expatriates living in Dubai communicate in English, some adult expatriates opt for learning AL formally through tertiary education and language institutes (Piller, 2017), and informally through private tuition and tutoring (Razem, 2020a, 2020b). Based on this context, this study aims to shed light on the learners' profile and understand the motivations of expatriate university students to learn AL, while exploring their attitudes towards the learning of Arabic at a private university in Dubai.

This case study seeks to answer the Key Research Question (KRQ): What are the motivational orientations of expatriate university students to learn AL in a private university in Dubai?

Sub-research questions that will help unpack the KRQ include the following:

1. Are student motivational orientations integrative, instrumental, or both, what other factors interplay to create or steer learners' motivation?

2. Also, do Heritage Language Learners (HLLs) and Non-Heritage Language Learners (NHLLs) as well as Arabic Heritage Language Learners (AHLLs) and Muslim Heritage Language Learners (MHLLs) differ in their orientations? If so, how and why?

3. In what ways can students be encouraged to embark on the journey of learning AL in their universities?

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II. Review of Literature

A. Conceptual Framework

The key concepts that relate to this study comprise of motivation and orientation, attitude, heritage and non-heritage learners.

(a). Motivation and Orientation

Traditionally, theories of motivation had contesting viewpoints on how to define and measure motivation. For instance, motivation is defined as "a state of self that moves a person to carry out certain activities to achieve the desired goal" (Solichin et al., 2021, p. 948). Motivation has been considered from different vantage points: the learner, the learning process, the nature of the language, the teacher, and the learning context. It has also been approached from several theoretical frameworks: behavioural, cognitive, and constructivist (Brown, 2007). Throughout this paper, the vantage point of the learner will be the focus of this study. Moreover, within the field of Second Language (L2), scholars have recognized two major dichotomies in motivation. On one hand, motivation was perceived as the result of internal or external factors, hence distinguishing between *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* motivations (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In comparison to extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation is considered the most important type of motivation that relates to students' persistence and grit in learning (Schunk et al., 2014). Intrinsically motivated language learning is the one sustained out of interest and enjoyment as it satisfies the innate psychological need for competence and autonomy.

On the other hand, one views the propensity toward language learning in terms of *goals*. People vary not only in their level of motivation but also in the orientation of their motivation. In other words, *motivational orientation* "concerns the underlying *attitudes* and *goals* that give rise to action—that is, it concerns the why of actions" (Ryan & Deci 2000, p. 54). Hence, language learning is either *integrative,* which echoes a sincere interest in the second language culture and a desire to identify and communicate with members of that community, or *instrumental,* which encompasses economic, career, educational, or even religious gains (Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Lambert, 1972).

Nonetheless, some researchers in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) expanded the scope of motivational orientations to include other variables and perspectives within a constructivist paradigm as it emphasizes social context as much as individual personal choices (Oxford & Shearin, 1994). For example, Dornyei & Ushioda (2021) reconceptualized the integrative motivation and linked it to 'self-concept' theory which in turn broadened its scope to include identifying with the global community instead of an ethnolinguistic one. In other words, "motivation is something that can be global, situational, or task-oriented" (Brown, 2007, p.87).

(b). Attitude

Several SLA studies have discussed the difference between motivation and *attitude* (Brown, 2007; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Stern, 1991). Brown defines *attitude* as "the learners' overall perceptions of the speakers of the target language and their culture" (2007, p. 85). Stern (1991) on the other hand, adds to it the attitudes towards learning languages in general and the target language itself. For this paper and as means to capture a deeper depiction of motivational orientations, *Attitude* would mean a combination of both Stern's (1991) and Brown's (2007) constructs, in which attitude includes the perceptions towards learning languages in general, learning the target language in specific, the speakers of the target language, and the target language culture.

(c). Heritage and Non-Heritage Learners

In the case of AL learners' profiles, scholars in this field identified an essential nominal definition by classifying learners according to their background into three distinct groups: Learners of Arab descent, non-Arab Muslim learners, and learners of different ethnic and cultural backgrounds other than the first two groups (Husseinali, 2006). According to Husseinali (2006), the first two are commonly collapsed into one type called Heritage Language Learners (HLLs) versus the third group which is referred to as Non-Heritage Language Learners (NHLLs). In other words, HLLs can have one or more affinities to AL whether it be religion, identity, or family, while NHLLs have no cultural or personal affiliations to AL. The importance of such definition and identification of HLLs arise from their distinct needs and different factors that interplay as ultimately the motivation that drives students to learn AL will vary.

B. Theoretical Framework

From a behavioural paradigm, motivation is regarded as the result of rewards and reinforcement, hence a behaviourist would define motivation as the expectation of reinforcement. In contrast, a cognitive framework considers rewards and reinforcement to be powerful concepts yet contends that this definition is only a part of the whole picture since the sources and the power of motivation differ (Brown, 2007).

Nevertheless, with further emphasis on social context and individual personal choice, the *constructivist framework* emerges as the most recent approach. In their seminal research on the role of motivation and attitude in L2 learning, Gardner and Lambert's (1972) and Gardner's (1985) studies distinguish between two types of motivational orientations: instrumental and integrative. Although the breakthrough of Gardner and Lambert's model in motivation research is well acknowledged, it was critiqued by certain researchers (Dörnyei, 1998; Oxford & Shearin, 1994). Most criticisms questioned the dichotomous classification of the integrative and instrumental orientations, as well as their definitions.

Different researchers and participants perceived the terms in diverse and sometimes opposing ways. Therefore, the position of this study coincides with the conceptualization that motivation is "a process that starts with orientation, increases with goal setting and goal achievement, results in learner satisfaction, and finally leads to higher L2 achievement" (Zabarah, 2015, p. 109). Hence, the theoretical framework that this paper adopts links to Brown's (2007) assertion that "each person is motivated differently and will therefore act on his or her environment in ways that are unique" (p. 87). Subsequently, motivation to learn a second or foreign language can be intrinsically or extrinsically driven (Ryan & Deci, 2000) and integratively or instrumentally propelled, as illustrated in Figure 1.
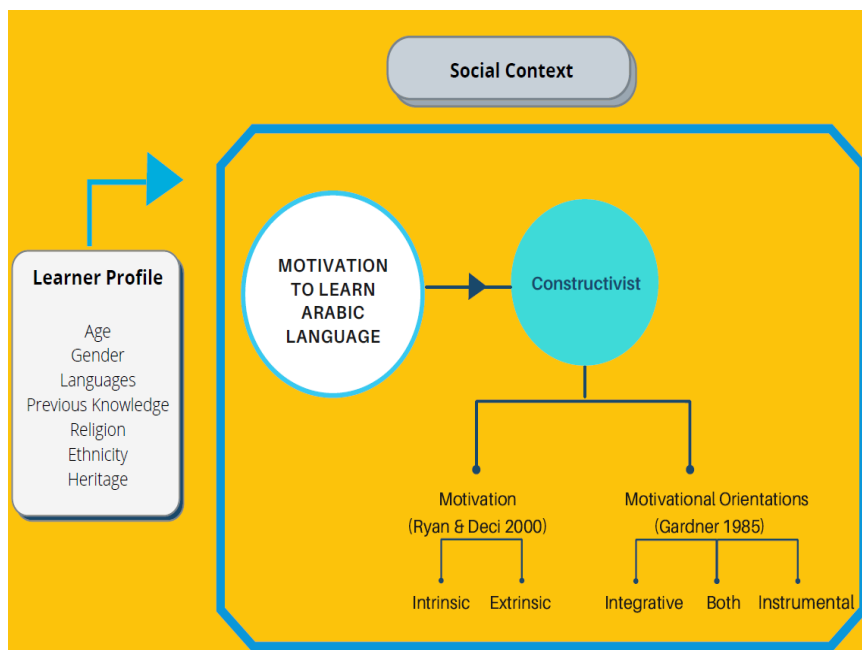
Figure 1: Theoretical Framework

C. Literature Review

In reviewing the pertinent literature, quantitative and qualitative studies were cited. The relevant and current literature identified two main motivational orientations that play a crucial role in a learner's decision to learn AL: instrumental and integrative. These orientations were studied along with the L2/FL historical and socio-political learning context in empirical studies conducted in the USA, Malaysia, Jordan, India, KSA, Nigeria, and UAE. This resonates with a social-constructivist approach that places further emphasis on social, cultural, and political milieus. For example, learning AL for political and security reasons or patriotism (instrumentality reasons) in the USA has shown an exponential increase after the events of September 11, 2001. Thus, knowing Arabic became more valuable from the point of view of a future job (Belnap, 2006). Moreover, learning AL for religious reasons (which is generally considered both an instrumental and integrative orientation) by Muslim HLLs was highlighted in countries such as: India, Malaysia, and Nigeria (Abu Bakar et al., 2010; Al-Mekhlafi, 2010; Aladdin, 2010; Ajape et al., 2015). Additionally, learning AL in a safe study-abroad country was underlined in Jordan- where both instrumental and integrative orientations are cited (Dajani, 2006; Dajani et al., 2014).

Many key variables emerge from the literature that have a pivotal role in steering the learners' interest in AL. The AL learners' profile resembles one crucial factor that affects motivational orientations. A large number of empirical studies have acknowledged and bifurcated learners into AHLLs, MHLLs or HLLs, and NHLs which was aforementioned in the conceptual framework (Abu Bakar et al., 2010; Ajape et al., 2015; Aladdin, 2010, 2014; Belnap, 2006; Weger-Guntharp & Winke, 2006; Zabarah, 2015). In her study, Zabarah (2015) stressed that HLLs and NHLLs have different skills, needs, and reasons to study the language, thus addressing the needs of HLLs as opposed to NHLLs in the class will allow for reaching higher proficiency levels. Although research on Arabic as a heritage language is considered fairly limited compared to other languages such as Spanish and Chinese (Husseinali, 2012), the findings of the studies have shown significant differences between HLLs versus NHLLs on instrumental and identification orientations. In other words, NHLLs were mostly instrumentally driven, HLLs were highly integratively motivated (Abu Bakar et al., 2010; Belnap, 2006; Husseinali, 2006; Weger-Guntharp & Winke, 2006). This links to the sub-research question: *do HLLs and NHLLs as well as AHLLs and MHLLs differ in their orientations? If so, how and why?* and provides evidence from the literature that HLLs/NHLLs do differ as they mostly have divergent motivational orientations.

Moreover, few studies have explored the link between the learners' perception of the difficulty of AL and their motivation to learn it (Ajape et al., 2015; Aladdin, 2010; Belnap, 2006; Husseinali, 2006; Nichols, 2010). Responses to surveys indicated that the majority of Arabic learners feel that Arabic is a difficult language to learn (Aladdin, 2010;

Belnap, 2006). Dajani et al. (2014) explained that "Some sounds used in the Arabic language might be difficult to learn for non-native speakers, and the duality in the Arabic language makes it difficult to learn since there are a lot of differences between classical and colloquial" (p. 923).

Furthermore, one of the most interesting findings of this review was highlighted in Brosh's (2013) study as an emerging motivation that springs from learners' perception of belonging to a global community as a result of globalization and advancement in technology. Therefore, learning Arabic, which is the fifth most commonly spoken language in the world (University of Wisconsin, n.d.), made learners feel like global citizens. This adds to the breadth of integrativeness in the motivation literature to include the desire to belong to the world community and links to the 'Self-concept' theory as Dornyei and Ushioda (2021) theorized an individual's self-concept which articulates that wishing to establish a greater identity motivates learners to learn foreign languages. According to Brosh (2013), this "comes from inner self processes rather than identification with a specific reference group" (p. 34).

The literature also reveals that learners demonstrated a high interest in Arabic for employment reasons, travel and world culture orientation, political reasons, and even religious purposes, which seems to be commonly articulated for this particular L2 (Ajape et al., 2015; Al-Musnad, 2018; Husseinali, 2006; Weger-Guntharp & Winke, 2006). Several studies asserted that Arabic is important not only because it is the language of Arab countries, but also because it is the language of Islam.

Therefore, it is evident that no single reason exists for a learner's language choice, but rather a combination of factors that reflects the complexity and dynamic nature of motivation as a concept. Although the vast majority of the research papers used a quantitative approach through 'surveys' that were derived and adapted from the theories mentioned above to capture certain features of motivational orientations (Al-Musnad, 2018; Aladdin, 2010, 2014; Brosh, 2013; Husseinali, 2006, 2012; Silverman, 2013; Weger-Guntharp & Winke, 2006; Yusri et al., 2011; Zabarah, 2015), few scholars approached the RQs at hand in a qualitative approach based on a narrative methodology such as open-ended questionnaires, individual interviews, focus group interviews, classroom observations and field notes (Aladdin, 2014; Nichols & College, 2014; Rashed, 2013). Of those that did follow a qualitative methodology, two of the studies had small numbers of participants. An American and Emirati study had as few as just three participants (Husseinali, 2006; Rashed, 2013) while quantitative studies had over a hundred (Abu Bakar et al., 2010; Ajape et al., 2015; Al-Musnad, 2018; Brosh, 2013; Taha, 2007; Weger-Guntharp & Winke, 2006; Yusri et al., 2011). The critical implication of mostly using quantitative methods leads to the conclusion that more qualitative studies are needed to provide in-depth explorations of motivations and corroborate earlier studies and their findings.

Researching this topic unravelled a drastic lack of motivation literature in the intersection of Arabic (ASL/AFL) and adult learning within the context of Dubai-UAE, albeit one qualitative Emirati study conducted on three adult expatriate learners (Rashed, 2013). Though AL is the official language in the UAE, the Dubai context reveals a unique phenomenon in which AL seems unnecessary to learn. Calafato and Tang (2019) contend that "they (students) do not really see a strong reason to study it" (p. 10). AL is also generally considered 'super-hard' for native English speakers (Foreign Service Institute, n.d.). This can be due to its diglossic nature and its linguistic distance from Indo-European languages (Deyoung, 1999). Many Dubai expatriates -regardless of their first language- are content to communicate in English only, whereas relatively few venture to learn Arabic, which raises an interesting question on the reasons that drive adult expatriates to pursue this journey (Calafato & Tang, 2019). Whether it be for enhancing employment opportunities in an Arab country or learning about Emirati culture, passing a university requirement, or better understanding religious texts in Islam, this study will explore the motivations of expatriate undergraduate students within the scope of a Dubai-based private university.

III. METHODOLOGY

This qualitative case study considers the participants' thoughts, beliefs, and attitudes and examines socially constructed meanings; hence, it applies the interpretivist paradigm (Creswell, 2012; Ezzy, 2013).

A. Context and Site

The site is a private university based in Dubai which was founded in 2008. The degree programs offered are mostly STEM-based as the majority of the undergraduate programs are that of Engineering and Computer Science, along with several degrees in Business. The AL courses offered consist of Beginning Arabic I, Beginning Arabic II and Intermediate Arabic I. To be eligible to take such courses students are required to complete a language pledge form in which they declare that they are not a native speaker of the language. While there is no requirement to take AL, it can fulfill the requirements of a 'concentration' or an optional Minor at this university. The researchers worked closely with the AL faculty member to conduct the questionnaire and obtain the relevant data for this study. The needed ethical approvals from the researchers' side and the university site were granted to conduct this study.

B. Participants

This study applied a purposeful sampling technique and recruited undergraduate expatriate learners who were enrolled in Beginning Arabic 1 (a total of 9 students) and Beginning Arabic 2 (a total of 18 students). The total number

of enrolled students was 28. However, only 24 participants signed the informed consent form and answered the questionnaire, rendering a response percentage of 86%.

C. Data Collection Instruments

The data collection instrument employed in this study was a semi-structured questionnaire that was divided into two sections. The rationale behind using the semi-structured questionnaire is to unravel the subjective reasons behind learning AL and unfold the learners' profile.

Semi-structured Questionnaire

The researchers devised the questionnaire on Google Forms and sent the virtual link to the faculty member teaching Arabic 1 and Arabic 2 courses. Students were encouraged to participate and complete their responses in English as they are all proficient in English language. The estimated time of filling out the whole questionnaire was around 20 minutes.

The first section of the questionnaire (Appendix B) started with preliminary demographic questions that aimed to explore any emerging trends across the learner profile: age, sex, nationality, languages, nationality, number of years living in Dubai, heritage affiliation to being of Arab origin or Muslim. The second section consisted of a set of semi-structured questions that emerged from the literature review and were underpinned by the theoretical framework. These questions were related to:

- The previous language learning experience of AL.
- Reasons to learn AL at university.
- The benefits of learning AL.
- Attitude towards learning languages in general.
- Intrinsic motivation to learn AL related to enjoyment and interest.
- Attitude towards Arab people.
- Attitude towards Arabic culture.
- Perceived difficulty of learning AL.
- Reasons to learn Arabic in Dubai.
- Recommendations from university students to encourage other students to learn AL in Dubai.

The questionnaire was sent to students at the beginning of Fall Term 2020 and was open for two weeks.

D. Piloting the Instrument

The draft questionnaire was piloted and two colleagues responded with their feedback and comments to test its effectiveness and provide their diverse views and opinions to enhance it (Travers, 2013). The questionnaire was modified accordingly.

E. Data Analysis

After collecting the data from the questionnaire, this study implemented content analysis as a data analysis strategy and interpretation method.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The results of this study have been divided into several sections to first describe the profile of those participating in the study, followed by their perceptions of AL, and finally, the answers to the sub-research questions.

A. Learner Profile

Based on the findings, 83% of participants were between the ages of 20-22 years old, while 8.4% were between the ages of 18-19, and 8.3% were 24 years old. Additionally, there were slightly more male participants (58.3%) than females (41.7%). These findings of age and gender align with what would be expected of an undergraduate student cohort. The slightly higher male representation may be because the university in question has more STEM-based program offerings, which tend to traditionally be viewed as male-dominated fields.

In line with the literature, it was also important to understand the students' heritage affiliation to AL to better understand their motivational orientations. Thus, students were asked to declare if they were of Arab origin as well as their religious affiliation as either Muslim or non-Muslim (see Figure 2 below). Of the 24 participants, 79.2% were non-Arab, 16.7% were of Arab origin, and 4.2% preferred not to answer the question. Moreover, 70.8% were Muslim, 25% were non-Muslim and 4.2% preferred not to answer. While the significantly higher non-Arab population and Muslim representation are to be expected in an AL classroom of a Muslim country, it is interesting to note that 16.7% of these students were of Arab origin but are passport holders of a Western country. This in turn would mean that these students are culturally Arab with little-to-no knowledge of their own heritage language.
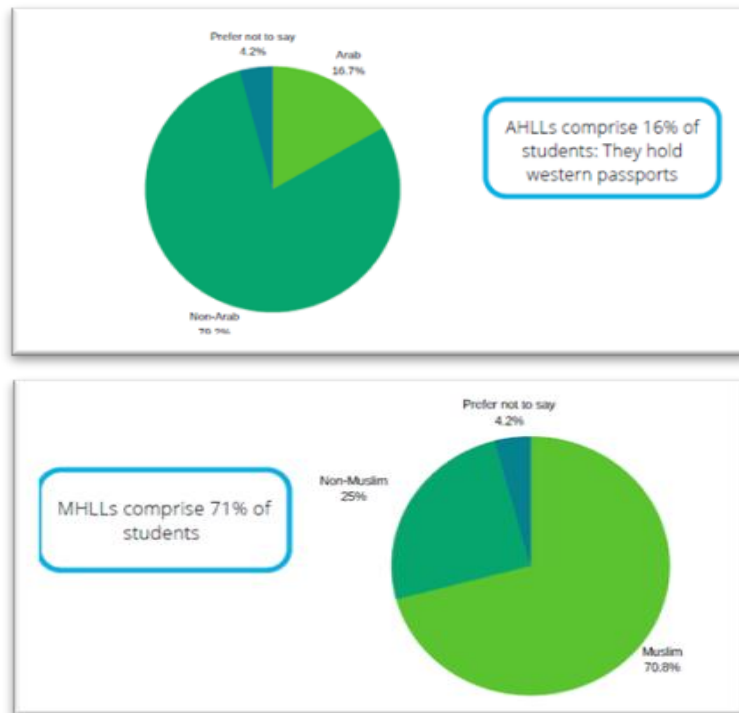
Figure 2: Heritage Affiliation to Language and Ethnicity

In order to better understand the language and cultural backgrounds of the participants (as even those who declared an Arabic origin were Western passport holders), students were asked to declare their nationalities. The top three nationalities were Indian (50%), American (12.5%), and Pakistani (12.5%), however, over seven nationalities were declared among the 24 participants (Figure 3). Students were also asked to declare the languages that they speak. 100% of the participating cohort identified themselves as speakers of English, in addition to fourteen other languages. Some of these languages were even reported by 25% (or more) of participating students, specifically Hindi, Arabic, and Urdu (Figure 3). Such results are representative of the diverse nature of Dubai as well as the reality that exists in the UAE of English being a Lingua Franca. Since it may seem surprising that over 25% of the population would declare being an Arabic speaker in an AFL classroom, this prompted our next question regarding years of studying in the UAE.
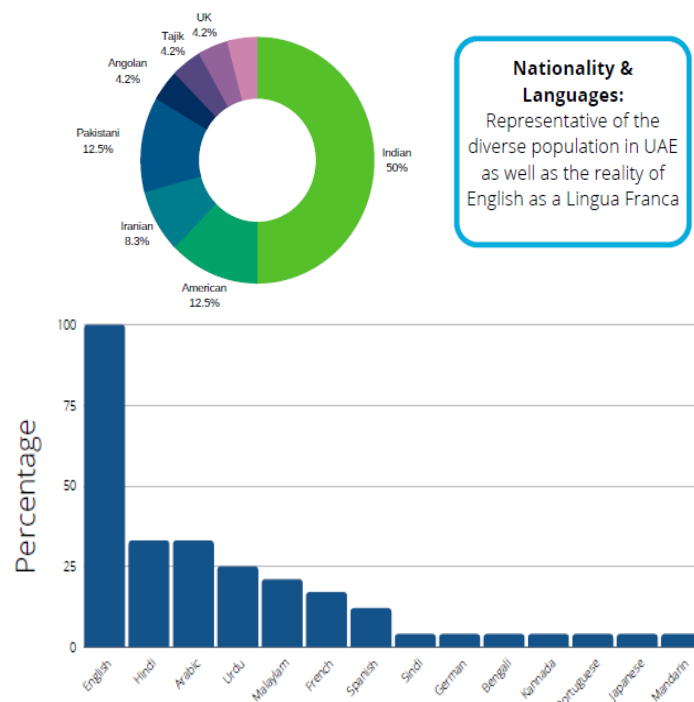

Figure 3: Nationality and Languages of Participants

The final question that contributed to the learner profile involved the participants' years living in the UAE as well as their length of studying Arabic (Figure 4). The years living in the UAE link to over 25% of the respondents that claim to have knowledge of AL, as Arabic is a compulsory subject in UAE schools. Hence, the above results in turn align with the 70% of students who have been living in the UAE for at least the past 6 years, comprising some of their years in K-12 education. There was an additional 20.8% of participants who reported living in the UAE for anywhere between 1-5 years, and a surprising 8.3% of the population who reported 0 years of living in the UAE (something that has become a possibility thanks to online learning during the Covid-19 pandemic). In both instances, this could mean that students were never required to formally study AL or had minimal contact with the language in a formal setting, which further results corroborated that 25% of students reported between 0-3 years of formal study of AL. Another 25% of the population reported between 6-12 years of AL instruction and an astonishing 20.8% responded that they have formally studied the language for more than 13 years. While this may seem like a significant amount of time studying a foreign language, it can be assumed that these educational experiences with AL did not prove sufficient and hence prompted the enrolment in the courses in question.
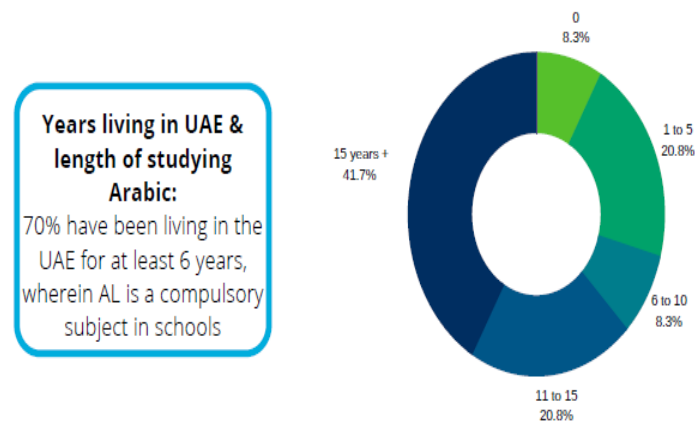

Figure 4: Years Living in the UAE

While the above helps in better understanding the profile of those who participated in the study, the next step was to ascertain participants' notions regarding the level of difficulty that the AL presents and their perceptions of the language and culture therein. Such data would later prove useful in interpreting the motivational orientations at play.

B. Learner Perceptions of Arabic Language

To better understand student perceptions towards AL, participants were asked a series of questions on the perceived level of difficulty of the language as well as mental associations.

When students were asked about the perceived difficulty of AL learning, 53.8% mentioned it was a difficult language to learn, 19.2% were undecided and nearly 27% claimed that it was not difficult. The latter response would correlate with the findings shown above where approximately 29% of the population has lived in the UAE for six or more years, wherein AL would have formed part of their compulsory secondary education. However, it was of interest to the researchers to find out the reasons why 73% of the population either felt that AL was difficult or was undecided. Hence, the following reasons were most cited (in order of highest occurrence): (1) nature of the language based on student perception of writing, pronunciation, and grammar, (2) difficulties encountered as an NHLL, and (3) comparing AL to other languages such as English, (4) learning skills and teaching skills, and (5) interest and will to learn. While the vast majority of these reasons can be inherently attributed to the language itself, it is important to note reasons 2, 4, and 5 which have to do with external factors such as learner profile, learner aptitude, and instructor engagement, as well as sustained motivation.

It was also important to understand student associations with the AL to gauge if the language was positively perceived. This was confirmed by the responses when students were asked 'What comes to mind when you think of AL and Arabic people?' The most common responses are included in word clouds below in Figure 5 and demonstrate a theme of a unique and close-knit culture (many students also cited various cultural symbols) with people who are philanthropic in nature.
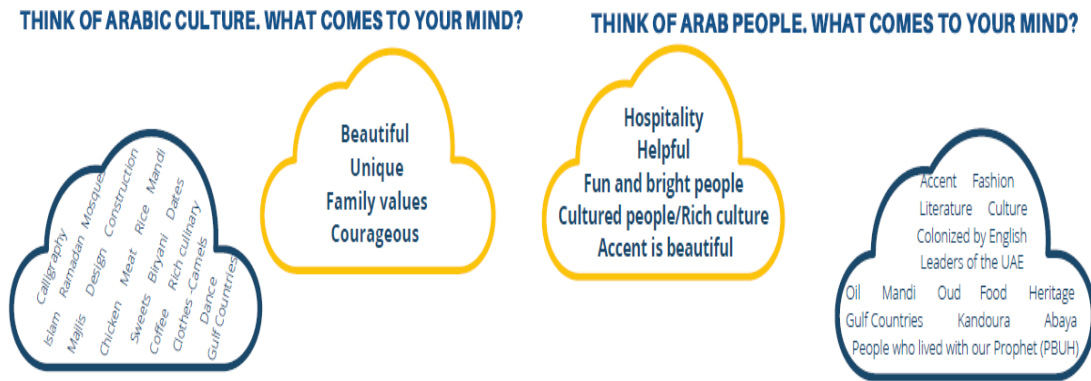
Figure 5: Perceptions of Arabic Culture and Arab People

Such responses tend toward the likelihood of an integrative motivational orientation among the population studied, as it can be assumed that when students positively perceive a target language (the yellow clouds), they are more likely to want to further their studies in efforts to more closely connect and more efficiently communicate with native speakers of that language. However, to examine the exact motivational orientations that were present among the surveyed population, the following sections will examine relevant survey results while answering the three sub-research questions of the present study.

Sub-Research Question 1 - Are student motivational orientations integrative, instrumental, or both, what other factors interplay to create or steer learners' motivation?

In efforts to begin to answer this question, students were asked to complete the following open-ended sentence: 'I am taking Arabic because…'. Qualitative results were tallied and coded and the most popular responses can be seen in Figure 6 below.
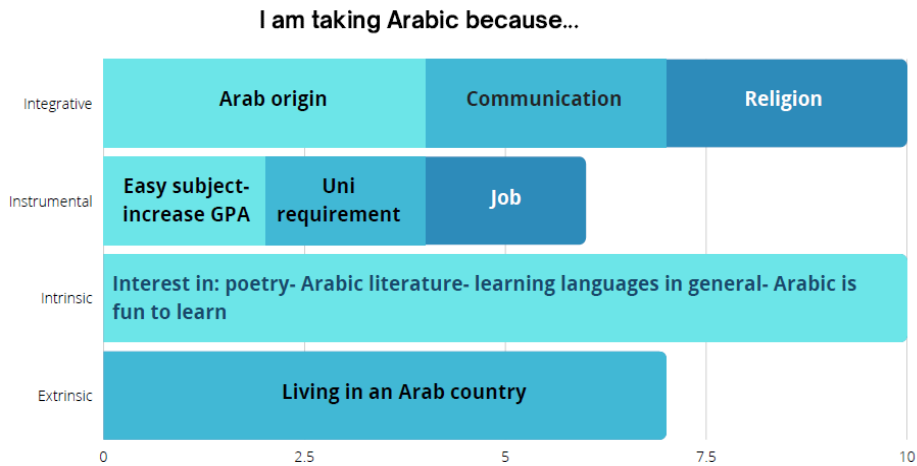

Figure 6: Motivation for Studying AL

As seen in the figure above, the majority of student responses fell under either integrative or intrinsic motivational orientations. Students either wanted to integrate into the target culture given their affinity to Arab origin, the ability to communicate with native speakers, or to more closely affiliate with their religion and/or religious community. Additionally, some of the cultural symbols that were mentioned in Figure 5 were reiterated here as a personal interest, for example, Arabic poetry and literature. Other intrinsic motivational concepts were also mentioned such as personal interest in learning languages and/or the perceived pleasure of learning AL. Integrative and intrinsic motivational orientations were followed by extrinsic and instrumental orientations (in order of popularity) as students cited the reality of living in an Arabic country (extrinsic), as well as the perceived ease of the subject, a university requirement, and the possibility of AL benefiting students in the search for a job.

These results mirror those ascertained when students were asked to answer the question: 'Why learn AL in Dubai?' (Figure 7). Over half of the respondents (51.2%) mentioned reasons that mapped to an integrative motivational orientation, 20.7% linked to extrinsic factors, 15.9% aligned with instrumental reasons, and 12.2% could be interpreted as both integrative and instrumental.
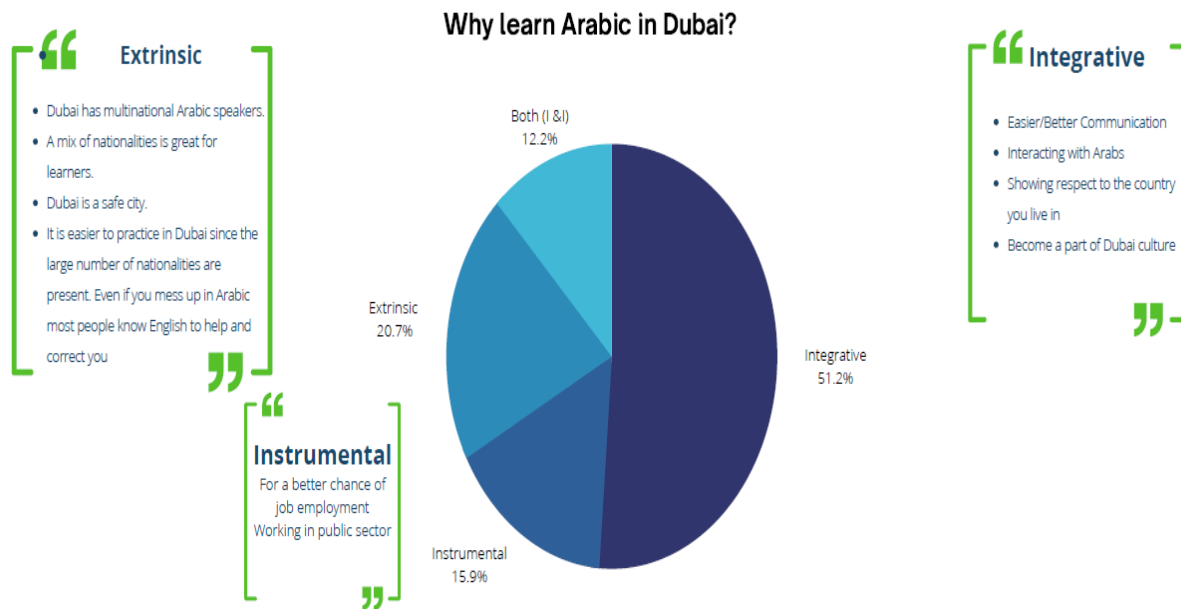
Figure 7: Reasons for Learning AL in Dubai as Classified by Motivational Orientations

Hence, the order of representation of motivational orientations in terms of popularity appears to be consistent throughout, where integrative motivational orientations have the strongest presence.

Sub-Research Question 2 - Do HLLs and NHLLs as well as AHLLs and MHLLs differ in their orientations? If so, how?

Responses to this question showed no differences among HLLs and NHLLs in terms of attitudinal constructs which diverges with the previous literature. Instead, 100% of the respondents agreed that AL is useful for communication (as well as learning any FL) and enjoyable. More specifically, when asked why AL is useful, over 16% of students once again referenced notions that align with an integrative motivational orientation (such as communication) followed by that of instrumental motivation, where over 12% cited employment. Adding together other responses that also link to an integrative stance, such as religious reasons and being of Arab origin, the integrative motivational orientation once again well surpasses that of instrumental with a total of approximately 25% of the responses (Figure 8).
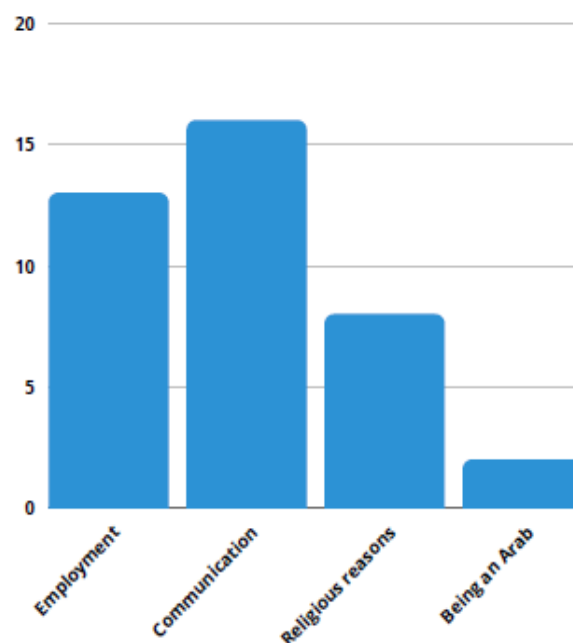

Figure 8: Why is Learning AL Useful?

Interestingly, when asked why learning AL is enjoyable, the most commonly recorded responses linked to extrinsic motivation; such as ease, the fun/interesting nature of the language, as well as the uniqueness/beauty of the language. These results were followed by integrative factors such as understanding religious texts and communication.

The above results lead to a potential conclusion that while students enroll in a course for purposes of use (integrative motivation), extrinsic factors are also a primary factor in their sustained enjoyment of the subject. This hence leads us to the final sub-research question of how students can be encouraged to study AL.

Sub-Research Question 3 - In what ways can students be encouraged to embark on the journey of learning AL in their universities?

54% of student recommendations emphasized the need to nurture integrative motivations. Such open-ended responses included: 'Teaching conversational Arabic and a dialect (instead of MSA),' 'To immerse students in the language by creating language and cultural activities and events wherein communicative language and speaking happen more often,' 'Highlight the importance of AL in society,' and 'Creating material that has cross-cultural relevance such as Islamic History or Global Islam.' This was followed by 25% of students who stressed the need to promote the importance of AL in the job market and 21% of students who had no suggestions or wrote vague answers.

The above tends toward the conclusion (once again aligning with the results above) that in efforts to foster motivation, universities and relevant departments need to emphasize integrative means.

V. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

From the above results and discussion, it is clear that the motivational orientations of expatriate learners are primarily integrative, followed by notions that are instrumental in nature. It also appears that inherently integrative concepts are those that assist in formulating more positive attitudes towards the language and sustain learner motivation over time, this may be due to the inherent connection that learners strive to achieve with both AL and native speakers. Both findings point to andragogical implications wherein integrative means should be emphasized and highlighted in the curriculum as a means of fostering motivation to learn AL. Additionally, higher education institutes need to connect with AL learners on an extrinsic level by teaching the language in a way that is accessible to sustain interest and foster language use and practice in and outside the classroom (linking to notions of ease, fun, and interest cited throughout the responses).

The present study posed the main RQ: 'What are the motivational orientations of expatriate university students to learn AL in a major university in Dubai? And how do students perceive their attitude and motivation towards learning AL in Dubai?' While the sub-research questions analysed above contribute to answering this question, some additional conclusions can be drawn. It is evident that motivational orientations are multifaceted and the interplay of contextual factors with individual subjective factors (i.e. learner profile) resulted in favourable attitudes towards AL culture and people, which in turn motivated learning. As previously mentioned, integrative motivations appear to be more pervasive than instrumental ones. This hence means that universities need to promote the importance of learning AL through valuing Arabic as a language of communication, providing authentic learning experiences, and offering language immersive experiences through cultural activities and events, instead of highlighting the instrumental 'end goal' of the degree program and the courses taken therein.

Finally, based on the above results, it should be noted that AL faculty can contribute to increasing the integrative motivation (and hence inherent motivation towards learning AL) through applying the communicative approach, creating opportunities to speak Arabic with native speakers, and introducing a dialect instead of emphasizing MSA only.

Limitations and Future Areas of Research

While the above findings may prove significant to the specific context being studied, they are not generalizable due to the size and scope of the study. Hence, further investigation is needed involving multiple universities, with a larger number of participants to add a wider spectrum of learners' motivational orientations. Another limitation arises from the fact that this study is based on the learner's vantage point and uses one instrument to collect data; a questionnaire, and hence no triangulation was possible. To dig deeper, taking into account the faculty members' viewpoints would help in the triangulation of not only theoretical frameworks but also vantage points and data sources. Despite these limitations, the findings of this study contribute to understanding the reasons that drive expatriate undergraduate learners to learn AL in Dubai context. It is in the contention of the researchers that the present study affords valuable data as preliminary work for further studies in the field of SLA, motivation, AL, and the UAE context in particular.

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Online Collocation Dictionary in L2 Writing: How Learners Use and Perceive Its Effectiveness

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Abstract—**This study examined how Vietnamese advanced language learners used and perceived the effectiveness of the Oxford online collocation dictionary as a supportive tool in their L2 writing. Eighty-one English major students were asked to do a writing task and were encouraged to use this dictionary to search for collocations that they want. Their use of the dictionary to look-up collocations while doing the writing was observed by using the recording sheets. Immediately after completing the writing, the participants were asked to do the questionnaires. Eight of the participants were then invited to participate in semi-structured interviews. The results of the recording sheets showed that learners approach the dictionary for help with collocations of adjective-noun and verb-noun grammatical patterns most frequently. They made very limited use of the dictionary to look-up collocations of noun-noun and adverb-adjective pattern. The results of the questionnaires and thematic analysis revealed that learners are very positive towards the use of the dictionary. However, non-plentiful content, lack of pronunciation and suggestions of look-up words are drawbacks and are expected to be improved.**

Index Terms—**dictionary use, collocation use, learners' perceptions, L2 writing, online dictionary**

I. INTRODUCTION

The pedagogical value of the dictionary as a source of information for language learning has long been emphasized by lexicographers (Wright, 1998; Hornby et al., 1974; Sinclair, 1987). Different kinds of specialized dictionaries focusing either on the scope or the coverage of subject (e.g., medical or legal dictionaries) or a specific aspect of language (e.g., dictionaries of idioms, proverbs, and collocations) have been compiled taken specific users' needs into account (Bogaards, 2003). There have been quite a lot of studies investigating learners' dictionary use and perceptions to different kinds of dictionaries (e.g., paper/electronic dictionaries, monolingual/bilingual/bilingualized dictionaries) (Cubillo, 2002; Fan, 2000; Nesi, 2014; Chan, 2011; Jin & Deifell, 2013). Those studies on the use of dictionaries for collocation look-ups suggest that learners did not gain much (Dziemianko, 2014; Laufer, 2010). The ineffective use of general dictionaries for collocation look-up is attributable to several reasons, the first and most frequently mentioned of which is learners' lack of collocational awareness, even those at advanced level (Herbst, 1996; Laufer & Waldman, 2011; Nesselhauf, 2003). Other reasons include either these dictionaries do not contain many collocations even those that frequently occur or learners cannot find collocations that they want to look for since they are hidden in examples (Laufer, 2010; Benson, 1990). In recognition of the importance of collocation use to language learning and learners' failure in using dictionaries for collocation look-up (Laufer, 2010), lexicographers have constantly improved the presentation of collocations in general dictionaries (Benson, 1990). The improvement is in the direction of making collocations prominent typographically (by colour or bold print) and organizationally (by grouping them into boxes) (Dziemianko, 2014; Herbst, 2010).

If as Herbst (2010, p. 225) puts it, 'the difficulty for foreign learners is not to understand what *weak tea* is but to actively produce *weak tea* and not *feeble tea* or *light tea*', learners' approach to dictionaries will be more on encoding rather than decoding purposes. As such, efforts of presenting collocations prominently seem not enough. Decision on what collocations to be included and how they are presented are probably of no less importance. These are the two main challenges that lexicographers had to deal with when compiling the dictionaries (Lea, 2007). According to Lea (2007, p. 267), the principle for making the decision on what collocation to be included could not 'be based solely on frequency, nor on statistical significance' from a large data base but was informed by both of these. The decision was also informed by judgements of editorial board concerning the usefulness of collocations, which was understood as unpredictability to learners (Lea, 2007). The unpredictability as a central character of collocation, however, has aroused concerns since it is an uneasy job for the lexicographers, who are from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds to learners, to decide if a collocation is predictable or not (Nakamoto, 1992). It is undoubted that the significant difference between general dictionaries and collocation dictionaries is the number of collocations included though.

With regard to the second issue, how collocations should be presented, Hottsrnonn (1991) formulated principles which suggest that collocations need to be presented at the base entry. This is based on the argument that when generating a collocation learners will start with a base and then look for a collocate to complete the phrasal meaning. The Oxford online collocation dictionary (OOCD) is adhered to the rule (Lea, 2007). Collocations in this dictionary are grouped according to lexical-grammatical structure. For instance, at a noun entry which is also the base of combinations

containing nouns, collocations are arranged into structural sets such as adjective + noun, quantifier + noun, verb + noun, noun + verb, noun + noun, preposition + noun, and phrases. Within each grammatical structure category, collocates are presented according to semantic sets of similar meanings (see Figure 1). This way of presenting collocations is believed to be useful in encoding (Lea, 2007; Heid, 2004). Collocations in some general dictionaries (e.g., OALDCE8, LDOCE5, CALD4, COBUILD7, and MEDAL2) (see Figure 2), though prominent by being highlighted or presented in boxes (LDOCE5, MEDAL2), are practically impossible to find quickly, if at all, by learners (Burkhanov, 2003). They are often 'hidden' because Hausmann's (1989) principles concerning presenting collocations at the entries of bases are not applied (Burkhanov, 2003). In the microstructure of general dictionaries, they are placed within the demonstration not in the definition part in the microstructure (Bahns, 1991), and as Benson (1990 p. 23) notices their treatment is 'inconsistent and incomplete'.

Figure 1: The OOCD Entry for the Word *stress*

Dictionary	Entry
Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (LDOCE5)	**1 ABOUT WHAT IS ALLOWED** [countable] an official instruction that says how things must be done or what is allowed, especially in a game, organization, or job **rule of** 🔊 the rules of the game **under the rules/according to the rules** 🔊 Under the rules, the company must publish its annual accounts. **COLLOCATIONS** **VERBS** **break a rule** (also **violate a rule** *formal*) (=not obey it) He had clearly broken the official rules. Any one who violates this rule will be severely punished. **obey/follow a rule** She wasn't going to obey their silly rules. **comply with/abide by/observe a rule** *formal* (=obey it) All members must comply with the rules of the organization. There is little that one country can do if another fails to abide by the rules. We expect you to observe the general rules of conduct as set out below.
Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English (OALDCE8)	of activity/game 1 👁 [countable] a statement of what may, must or must not be done in a particular situation or when playing a game • to *follow/obey/observe* the rules • It's against all *rules and regulations*. • to *break a rule* (= not follow it) • This explains the rules under which the library operates. • Without *unwritten rules* civilized life would be impossible. • Normal competition rules apply. • She laid down strict rules for her tenants including prompt payment of rent. → SEE ALSO GROUND RULE
Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary (CALD4)	**B1** [C usually plural] **an accepted principle or instruction that states the way things are or should be done, and tells you what you are allowed or are not allowed to do:** A referee must know all the rules of the game. The first/most important rule in life is always to appear confident. Before you start your own business you should be familiar with the government's rules *and regulations*. You must *follow/obey/observe* the rules. You must not *break* the rules. In special cases the manager will *bend/stretch* the rules (= allow the rules to be broken slightly). You can trust Ruth because she always *plays (it) by/goes by/does things by* the rules (= follows instructions, standards, or rules). [+ to infinitive] It's *against* the rules (*of/in* boxing) *to* hit below the belt.
Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners English (MEDAL2)	1 [COUNTABLE] a statement explaining what someone can or cannot do in a particular system, game, or situation *We need new club rules before we start looking for more members.* **rule of**: *the basic rules of the game* **break a rule (=not obey a rule)**: *Anyone who breaks the rules will face disciplinary action.* **follow/obey a rule**: *You should always follow these simple rules when using electrical equipment.* **against the rules**: *You can't do that, it's against the rules!* **rules and regulations**: *They complain that businesses are being hampered by too many rules and regulations.* Collocates: rule ▼ Verbs frequently used with **rule** as the object • bend, break, flout, follow, obey, play by, relax, stick to, stretch
COBUILD Advanced Learner's Dictionary (COBUILD5)	1. countable noun **Rules** are instructions that tell you what you are allowed to do and what you are not allowed to do. *...a thirty-two-page pamphlet explaining the rules of basketball.* [+ of] *Sikhs were expected to adhere strictly to the religious rules concerning appearance.* *Strictly speaking, this was against the rules.* *...the amendment to Rule 22.*

Figure 2: Collocations at the Entry Rule in Some Online Dictionaries

Besides identifying the differences in the presentation of collocations in a collocation dictionary and general dictionaries, it is important to examine features that are media-related. At macrostructural level which refers to the procedure of accessing entries (Béjoint, 1983), electronic dictionaries are highly evaluated in terms of search speed (Hua & Woods, 2008). In a study on learners' use and perceptions of online dictionaries, Jin and Deifell (2013) also found from the data generated from a group of 250 participants of different language backgrounds (e.g., Arabic, Chinese, French, Italian, Japanese, Russian, and Spanish) that 74,9% of learners are positive about free access, fast search speed, and ease of use. It is undeniably true that electronic dictionaries liberate the user from alphabetical searching skill (Atkins, 2015; Nesi, 1999). At microstructural level, electronic dictionaries are not space bound. As such, a word can be stored in different classification system; full forms can be used instead of their abbreviations. However, it seems that some online dictionaries have not utilized this potential. They are reported to be incomplete and 'lacking contextual information and grammatical explanations' (Jin & Deifell, 2013 p. 12). Jin and Deifell (2013) also found that pronunciation, which is inherently absent from all printed dictionaries, is the most highly appreciated feature. In terms of inter-structural level, external links and cross references are claimed to be among the most prominent benefits of online dictionaries. There have been quite a lot of studies investigating learners' dictionary use and perceptions to different kinds of dictionaries, but little is known about learners' look-up behaviours and their evaluation on the effectiveness of the use of collocation dictionaries. This study, therefore, aimed at providing a portrait of how learners use the OOCD, which is aimed at serving learners' encoding purposes (Bogaards, 2003; Nuccorini, 2003), and how they evaluate the dictionary.

The study attempted to answer the following research questions:

1. How do the students use the Oxford Online Collocation Dictionary to support their use of collocations in L2 writing?
2. How do the learners evaluate the use of this dictionary in support of collocation use in their L2 writing?

II. METHODS

A. Research Design

In an attempt to monitor the use of the OOCD under as natural conditions as possible the author asked learners to write a 350-word essay on a given theme in 45 minutes with the support of this dictionary. Learners were allowed to use other dictionaries if they wished to; however, they were encouraged to use this dictionary for all collocation check-ups. In order to provide a portrait of how learners used the dictionary to support their writing, the author chose what Atkins and Varantola (1997) call a 'paper approach' to record step by step what was going on when learners turned to the dictionary. The use of observation with recording sheets (see Appendix A) allowed us to gather similar information as well as every single move of quite a big group of participants, and more importantly, information that could only be obtained when spelled out by participants would be less likely to be missed. Besides recording information in order to portray how the process occurred, including what entries users were looking for, whether or not they were able to find what they were looking for, whether they used the dictionary being considered in combination with other dictionaries, and how they evaluated each search, the author asked some more questions to gain insights into learners' use of the dictionary, such as the purpose of each check-up, whether or not the participants knew how to use the collocations that they found from the dictionary, or what types of collocations sent them to consult the dictionary.

To address the research question about learners' evaluation of the OOCD as a supportive tool, the author used Likert scale attitude questionnaires which comprise a series of 17 statements. In an effort to gain in-depth understandings the reasons underlying their attitude towards the OOCD, the author used semi-structured interviews after the questionnaire data were collected. The interviews aimed to explore the likeable, dislikeable, and desirable features about the dictionary. They were conducted informally face-to-face. Eight participants were chosen for the interviews based on their choice of future use of the OOCD (statement 10 in the questionnaires). To gain a broad range of student perspectives on the use of the OOCD to support writing, the author chose participants equally from the four choices of the Likert scale.

B. Setting and Participants

The study was conducted at a university in Ho Chi Minh city, Viet Nam. Participants of this study were students at the Faculty of English Linguistics and Literature. The majority are female. They include 81 second-year English major students at, on average, upper intermediate to advanced level. They all had completed integrated language skills, reading with writing and listening with speaking, in the first three semesters and had passed an English proficiency test designed at around upper intermediate to advanced level.

C. Data Collection Methods and Analysis

Before the start of the writing activity, the author gave instructions on how to record the recording sheets carefully to all the students. To resolve the possible drawbacks of this method of observing students' use of the dictionary- learners not behaving normally-, the author asked them to approach to OOCD as naturally as possible and emphasized its importance to the results of the study. In so doing, the problem of learners' unnatural use of dictionaries might be

resolved, or at least minimized. The participants were arranged to work in pairs, one partner using the OOCD, the other recording every check-up on the recording sheet. The purpose of so doing was to make sure that no collocation check-up would be missed, and more importantly, that those doing their writing would not be distracted. Participants in charge of recording dictionary use were to be arranged to sit behind their partners, who were supposed to do their writing at the time in order to ensure the minimum possible interference. Most of the information was completed by the participants doing the writing right after they had finished their written work, except for column 2 (what headwords were checked up) and column 7 (whether the dictionary users used the OOCD in combination with other dictionaries). The participants were requested to exchange roles after the first half of the participants had finished their writing.

Every time the OOCD was used for checking up, the headword would be recorded. As the OOCD could only be used to check for collocates of a word if users remembered its spelling, sometimes participants had to start with an English-English dictionary. If they started with an English-English dictionary for spelling checking, this step was not recorded. Neither was it recorded if the participants used Vietnamese-English dictionary to look for an equivalent word to express an idea. If, after consulting the OOCD, participants turned to other dictionaries for the same headword, it needed to be noted down as being used in combination with others. After all the participants had completed their writing and recording sheets, they were provided with Likert scale questionnaires. The author made herself available for answering any questions regarding the content of the questionnaires. Paper-based questionnaires, distributed in person, seemed to be the most direct and effective way to collect immediate responses from the participants. All 81 questionnaires distributed were collected.

After the questionnaires were collected, the author made arrangement for the interviews, which took place the day after. The author emailed the participants some guiding questions beforehand. In this way, they had time to prepare answers or could make notes on what they wanted to share in the interviews. The face-to-face semi-structured interviews were recorded by the author with the approval of all participants. Each interview took between 20 to 25 minutes during which the author asked them questions about how they evaluate the use of the dictionary as a supportive tool, what they like, dislike and desire the dictionary to be changed, and if they have any difficulties in using the dictionary to support their writing.

To find the frequency and percentage of agreement-disagreement among the participants regarding the survey questions, the author used descriptive statistical analysis on SPSS to process the data. Information from 81 questionnaire papers was imported into SPSS. With regard to recording sheets, they contain both quantitative and qualitative data. As well as recording how learners used the OOCD as a supportive tool, they gathered statistical information on types of collocation, the percentage of successful look-ups and evaluation of satisfaction with individual look-ups, based on a five-point Likert scale from *very dissatisfied* to *very satisfied*. The data were processed partly using SPSS and partly using NVivo. NVivo was used to process the only qualitative question in the recording sheets (question 8: Further comments/Why did you use other dictionaries? If yes).

III. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The author tackled the two research questions by combining findings from the analysis of the survey, the recording sheets and the interviews. The answer to the question about how learners use the dictionary is presented in two sections as follows:

A. When Learners Approach the Dictionary for Help

The participants reported that they often used the OOCD as an assisting tool whenever they do a piece of academic writing (72.7%); more than one-quarter of them (27.3%) only occasionally used it. In response to this same question in the interviews, seven out of eight replied that they use the dictionary every time they write, but the extent of their search depends on the individual writing task. The participants sometimes approach the dictionary not because they do not know collocations to express an idea but to look for a different way of expressing it to avoid repetition. Another wise reason for consulting the dictionary is to look for a hint for an idea rather than a collocation to express some intended idea. One participant shared that '*I sometimes search the dictionary for a hint rather than looking for a word to express an idea that I have already had in my mind.*'

Findings from the recording sheets suggest that most of the look-ups (94.3%) were done while students were doing their writing. The learners tended to approach the dictionary for help immediately when need be rather than at the end when the writing was finished. Three of the participants from the interviews shared that looking for collocations immediately when they get stuck is their habit. This reason seems to be closely associated with a feeling of certainty that was shared by most of the participants. It helps them feel confident that what they have written is correct and complete. One student reported that *I often consult the dictionary immediately when I get stuck. Using it to look for collocations right away reassures me*. The interview data also shows that the time constraint for in-class writing is another reason why they tend to consult the dictionary while writing. Having no spare time for drafts induces them to search for help to complete every sentence of the writing. Two of the interview participants also shared that they only search at the end of the writing for collocations in which one of the elements is optional, such as adjective-noun, adverb-adjective, or adverb-verb, and this was to add something or to check if combinations they had used were correct.

Findings from the recording sheets also show that on average learners use the dictionary four times for looking up collocations when doing the writing. The highest number of check-ups in an essay was eight and the lowest was one. More check-ups (54.3%) were done to look for collocates to construct collocations than for checking if the collocations they intended to use were correct (43.8%). They approached the dictionary for help with collocations of adjective-noun pattern the most (40.6%). 68 out of 315 check-ups (21.6%) were of verb-noun collocations. Table 1 below summaries the number of collocations of each pattern looked up from the recording sheets.

TABLE 1
DISTRIBUTION OF THE COLLOCATION PATTERNS LOOKED UP IN THE OOCD

Collocation patterns	Verb-noun	Noun-verb	Adjective-noun	Noun-noun	Noun-of-noun	Adverb-verb	Adverb-adjective	Total
Number of look-ups	68	43	128	10	15	35	16	315
Percentage	21.6%	13.7%	40.6%	3.2%	4.8%	11%	5.1%	100%

From the recording sheets the author found that there were twelve cases in which the learners used the OOCD to search for another way of expressing ideas. For most of these cases the participants responded quite clearly to the purpose of the look-ups except for the second *stress* in recording sheet 27B. *Minimize stress* was used after that search, and the participant only wrote on the recording sheet 'to look for synonyms'. It was probably used to avoid repeating *avoid stress* or *handle stress*, which the participant had used before in the writing.

B. How Learners Use the Dictionary to Look for Collocations

The learners did not have problems with the alphabetic search, which is a skill needed to use paper dictionaries effectively (Koren, 1997). The interview data show that to look for a collocate to complete the intended phrasal meaning, after typing in a base word, learners scan through the list of collocates provided quickly. As two of the participants shared in the interviews, this is quite an easy step since collocation patterns are all set in red capitalised letters. Collocates of similar meaning are grouped together and are in bold. They can quickly locate the position of words of some particular part of speech.

All informants responded that they often used the dictionary together with other dictionaries - an English-English, English-Vietnamese dictionary or a thesaurus to look for meanings of collocates. This seems consistent with the survey data, with 67.7% participants responding thus. Data recorded from the recording sheets nevertheless shows a quite different picture. In only 32 out of 315 look-ups (10.2%) do learners use this dictionary together with other dictionaries. This is understandable since their responses from the interviews and surveys were just their general estimations without considering some factors such as topic of the writing, the kind of writing (academic or free writing), and writing conditions (with or without time constraint). As one participant shared, due to the limited time span of this writing, when searching for collocates of a word in the OOCD, she often opted for a collocate that she already knew rather than consider choosing other collocates that she did not know. When doing assignments at home, in contrast, to enhance the writing she often considered choosing 'strange words' (collocates) after searching for their meanings from other dictionaries. Another participant shared that, when time allowed, in order to avoid repeatedly using some combination she used a thesaurus to look for another way of expressing the same idea. (S7: *I don't want to use repeatedly the same collocation and because the dictionary only provides a limited number of collocates of a headword, I looked for synonyms of a collocate from thesaurus*.) This 'creative' strategy is somewhat risky since obviously combining words based on synonyms of collocates suggested by the OOCD might lead to an unacceptable combination. Synonyms of words do not necessarily convey exactly the same meaning, so this strategy might lead the learners astray by opting for a synonym that is not appropriate in a certain context (East, 2008). S5 expressed her worry of being distracted from her writing: *I tried not to look at another dictionary because I'm afraid that if I use this dictionary with another dictionary I might get distracted from my writing. But sometimes when I could not find a suitable collocate, I have to use an English-English dictionary*.

Flow of thought is deemed another factor affecting how learners use the dictionary. When writing with new ideas continuously coming to mind, they will leave a blank and then go back to find words to complete the idea. Conversely, if they have not come up with what to write next, they will consult the dictionary to find collocates to accomplish the phrasal meaning. Some even shared their 'strategies' for dictionary use:

S3: *I try to avoid that habit (looking for collocations while writing) since it sometimes distracts my writing. I train myself to use the dictionary after finishing the writing. I reread it and use the dictionary to add collocates where possible.*

S8: *I use the OOCD while writing...actually it depends on the flow of thought. If at that time no new ideas come to mind, I will stop to look up collocations from the dictionary to complete that sentence. If, however, the flow of thought continues, I will leave a space and come back to search for a word to fill out later. It is often with collocations of which one element is not required like adjectives in adjective-noun, Adverb in adverb-adjective and adverb in adverb-verb collocations. In this way, I can avoid being distracted.*

The answer to the question about learners' perception relates to three aspects: assessment of satisfaction, perceived effectiveness, and accessibility and ease of use.

C. Assessment on Satisfaction

Findings from the recording sheets show that students are satisfied with more than three quarters (77.4%) of the results found in the dictionary. The satisfaction assessment was also based on their responses to the questionnaire survey regarding different aspects pertaining to using the dictionary to search for collocations. In particular, as can be seen in Table 2 below, 89% of the participants felt confident when expressing ideas in writing, and 93.9% of the participants believed that the dictionary helped them expand their collocation knowledge. Almost all of the participants shared that they would use the dictionary to support their writing in the future. The high proportion of participants (86%) reporting that they would introduce the dictionary to their peers also proves that they highly appreciate the dictionary as an assisting tool.

TABLE 2
STUDENTS' SATISFACTION TOWARDS OOCD USE

ITEMS	VARIABLES	N	STRONGLY AGREE %	AGREE %	DISAGREE %	STRONGLY DISAGREE %
5	Confident in expressing ideas	79	14.2%	74.8%	11.0 %	0%
6	Helpful for expanding collocation knowledge	81	63.6%	30.3%	6.1%	0%
7	Use more collocations	81	33.3%	57.6%	9.1%	0%
8	Help improve my writing	81	48.5%	42.4%	9.1%	0%
9	Prefer the OOCD to other dictionaries	81	24.6%	57.2%	18.2%	0%
10	Use the OOCD to assist my writing in the future	81	50.5%	46.5%	3.0%	0%
11	Recommend using the OOCD to my friends	81	40.5%	45.5%	14.0%	0%

Learners' high level of satisfaction about the use of the dictionary as a supportive tool for collocation search was confirmed by the interview data. All the interview participants were of the same opinion that the OOCD is a useful tool and that they feel confident when using it to support their writing (*S1: It helps me to prevent translating Vietnamese to English word for word. It's also quite convenient for a student like me to find a natural expression of a word; S2: It's really useful; it saves me time in writing…Finding and discovering one collocation make me more confident because I know that I'm in the right direction…; S5 (recording sheet): It is convenient. When I search the word stress, I can find many useful collocates that I can use later.*) For the purpose of collocation check-ups, the encouraging assessment is understandable since the focus of this specialized dictionary is on collocations whereas there is a basic lack of collocations in other general British monolingual dictionaries (Hottsrnonn, 1991, p. 230), or they are hidden in examples (Laufer, 2010).

Two of the participants expressed their trust in the dictionary since it is provided by a famous publisher, Oxford University Press, especially when comparing it to other sources for collocation search like "hello chao" or "google translate" (S4: *it is a reliable source for collocation check-up since it is compiled by a famous publisher*). 90.9% of the participants in the survey thought that their writing would improve due to enhanced collocation use and that they would use more collocations if they could use the dictionary to assist with their writing. From the interview data, one participant shared that the dictionary offers a wide choice of native-like lexical collocations, which could help her avoid repetition in her writing (S5: *it makes my writing more natural like the way native speakers write; it also helps me avoid repetition in my writing*). Another participant also shared that she is in the habit of learning new words and the dictionary is a good source of collocations to learn from. However, it should be noted that the results of this study do not provide evidence as to the effectiveness of the dictionary.

The results from the survey data also show that preference for using this dictionary over others for collocation look-up was high among the students (81.8%). However, they also reported in the interviews some negative attitudes towards the dictionary. A reason for not preferring this dictionary to others is sometimes a waste of time; they shared their expectation of the dictionary to have the meanings of each collocate group presented. S6 noted that *'it would waste me more time if I did not find the collocates that I wanted, or if I found some collocates but did not know their meanings.'* This suggestion is worth considering since evidence from a study by Cao and Deignan (2019) looking at learners' use of the OOCD to support their collocation use in L2 writing shows that learners did not always use collocations found from the dictionary contextually appropriately. Providing meaning of each collocate group is also expected to help reduce search time for their meanings in other dictionaries. In this way, the dictionary could be helpful to learners at lower levels, whose vocabulary store is more limited.

Another no less important factor contributing to the students' dissatisfaction is the dictionary not providing descriptions of pronunciation of headwords. Though this neither directly affects nor is necessary for their collocation use in writing, it literally is a drawback to dictionary users for their other receptive skill, speaking. It is true that, as can be seen in Figure 3 below, pronunciation description is not given. One compared it with other dictionaries:

S1: It does not provide pronunciation description of all headwords. It could be ok if I use it for writing purpose but for speaking skill it is a disadvantage. Other dictionaries provide not just pronunciation but indicate differences in pronunciation between British and American English. Learners at this level, like me, can read the phonemic transcription, so human voice articulating words is not very necessary.

stress *noun*

¹ state of tension

ADJ. **acute, considerable, extreme, great, high, severe** *Separation is a time of high emotional stress.* | **excessive** | **greater, increased** | **low** | **daily** *the daily stress of teaching* | **emotional, mental, psychological, social** | **economic, financial** *The high mortgage payments put them under severe financial stress.*

suffer *verb*

ADV. **a lot, badly, greatly, severely, terribly** *This area suffered very badly in the storms.* | **needlessly** *Thousands of children in the world today suffer needlessly.*

difficult *adj.*

VERBS **be, look, prove, seem, sound** | **become, get** *It is getting more and more difficult to find a job.* | **make sth** *The fog made driving very difficult.* | **find sth**

Figure 3: OOCD Search of *stress*, *suffer*, *difficult*

Perceived effectiveness

Looking at the effectiveness of the dictionary use rating across all participants gives the results shown in Table 3 below. As can be seen in this table, most of the participants (94%) contended that they can easily look up collocates of a word from this dictionary. Though lower, recording sheets recorded 80.9% of times participants found the collocations that they wanted to express their ideas in writing. Interview data also validated this. Two participants shared that most of the time they found collocations that they wanted to use (S2: *When I want to find a verb for* **success***, I can use* **achieve***,* **obtain***, or* **have** *… a lot of collocates I can use. It is very useful when you are at intermediate or advanced level in IELTS.*)

Another participant shared that the dictionary is effective in that in one search she could find different collocates that can go with a headword, so she could use them later in her writing to avoid repetition. For example, when searching for the word *stress*, she came across the collocation *level of stress*, which, as she reported, was made use of soon after that. Finding several useful collocations in one search could be seen as an advantage of the OOCD over other general dictionaries.

TABLE 3
EFFECTIVENESS OF DICTIONARY USE

Items	Variables	n	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	Easily look up collocates of a word	81	27.3%	66.7%	6.0 %	0%
			Always	Often	Occasionally	Never
12	Get instructions on collocation use	81	21.2%	51.5%	24.2%	3.1%
13	Get information needed	81	0%	69.7%	27.3%	3%
14	Use the dictionary in combination with other dictionaries	81	9.1%	57.6%	30.3%	3%

However, more than a quarter of the participants (27.3%) responded that they only occasionally or even could not find instructions on how to use collocations through examples. This coincides with the result of the observation data (see Table 4 below), which showed that in nearly a quarter of the searches (22.2%) participants did not find instructions on collocation use. The percentage of responses to this question (85.4%) is not really high though. This is because, as the author explored in the interviews, although they could not find examples illustrating how the collocations they found were to be used, they knew how to use them grammatically correctly by looking at other examples.

TABLE 4
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS FROM RECORDING SHEETS

Items	Questions	Yes	No	Missing
3	Did you find the word you were looking for?	256 81.3%	51 16.2%	8 2.5%
5	Did you find instruction on how to use it?	199 63.2%	70 22.2%	46 14.6%
6	Did you use the OOCD in combination with other dictionaries?	32 10.2%	283 89.8%	0

The survey data showed that 30.3% of the participants only occasionally or even never found the information they wanted. 57.6% of the participants responded that they had often used the collocation dictionary in combination with other dictionaries, mainly to look for meanings of collocates. This could relate to non-plentiful content, a dislikeable feature about the dictionary that participants shared in the interviews. Three of the participants said that they were not

very satisfied with content of the dictionary because it is not rich. It only has a limited amount of words; it does not contain academic words like *abnormal, anomalous, acquire,* or *face* (a verb) and many more words that they learn in SAT and GRE. Also, for each word that it presents, it provides fewer meanings than other general dictionaries. An example that one participant used to illustrate the point is the word *policy*. The OOCD gives two meanings, while in the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary *policy* has three meanings:

OOCD: 1. *Plan of action*
      2. *Insurance contract*
OALD: 1. *A plan of action agreed or chosen by a political party, a business*;
      2. *A principle that you believe in that influences how you behave*;
      3. *A written statement of a contract of insurance*

The participants expressed their concern, stating that the dictionary does not provide many collocates that can accompany the headword being considered. Failure to present combinations that they believe to be used by native speakers confuses them. They also suggested that it can hinder their creativity in combining words. S1 shared:

S1: It (the OOCD) just lists down some of the most common combinations. I know that native speakers use some combinations that are not in the dictionary. I feel that the OOCD hinder my creativity. I don't know if I can combine some new adjectives that I've learned with a noun or not, so I sometimes get confused and not comfortable when I use a collocation from the dictionary.

Their concern regarding content of the dictionary is undeniably true. There is a substantial difference in the number of word combinations and examples between the online dictionary and its installed electronic version. The online dictionary provides around 150,000 combinations and 50,000 examples while the electronic collocation dictionary presents over 250,000 combinations and over 75,000 examples (McIntosh, 2009). According to Benson (1989b), it does not provide learners with collocations that are predictable. However, the decision of which collocations are predictable and which are not is not always easy to make since lexicographers are often from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds from learners. In reality, learners are still struggling with collocations that lexicographers consider 'predictable', such as *see a doctor* (Nakamoto, 1992), or *improve (public) transportation, improve the traffic, improve life, reduce exhaust fume,* and *internal factors* (Cao & Deignan, 2019). It seems important for the dictionary users to know that compared to the installed electronic version the online dictionary provides fewer word combinations and examples. Learners can rely on it as a facilitator to look for suggestions for collocations, but should not restrict themselves to the collocations provided.

Lack of examples to illustrate how a collocation should be used is also one of the factors that make the dictionary less effective. Having no illustrative examples sometimes contributed to the users' perplexity. One participant shared on the recording sheet that '*There is no example in some cases, so I don't know if I use the combination found in the dictionary appropriately in meaning in a particular context.*' Regarding this, the author argues that the dictionary has given a fair number of examples as illustration for usage. There are almost always examples for each semantic set; in cases that there are not, the collocations are quite straightforward to use. Learners are supposed to be able to construct them based on their syntactic knowledge without difficulty. Take, for example, the headword *challenge* in Figure 4 below. Adjectives that can collocate the noun with its first meaning *sth new and difficult* are many, but there is only one example provided. Similarly, in the case of *challenge* as a verb, one group of adverb collocates (e.g., *successfully, unsuccessfully*) is given without examples to illustrate. However, for learners at upper intermediate level upwards the use of these collocations is deemed quite simple. They only need to combine them based on their syntactic knowledge. This argument is backed up by a response from the interviews, stating that there is no difficulty in using collocations provided by the dictionary in terms of syntactic structure. However, the suggestion should not be ignored since an online dictionary does not have space restriction as a paper dictionary does. With good planning it can provide learners with more examples, or at least one for each collocate group, without detracting from clarity and accessibility.

Figure 4: OOCD Search of the Word *challenge*

D. *Assessment on Accessibility and Ease of Use*

Table 5 below presents the survey results pertaining to learners' evaluation of accessibility and ease of use. Findings show that language learners can access the dictionary easily when the internet is available (91%). This is also what six of the interviewees like about the dictionary, stating that the dictionary can be accessed from any technological device and can be opened very quickly, while for other electronic dictionaries it often takes a little while. This finding is in agreement with Chon (2009), who showed that the availability of the online dictionary also helps learners to get rid of the burden of carrying with them bulky paper dictionaries or installing an electronic dictionary on their technological devices ready for use. Yet learners can only access it if the internet is available. To some others, this turns out to be a drawback since internet is not available everywhere. Even if it is available it does not always guarantee fast and efficient access. Internet speed decides how fast a look-up is. In reality the participants in this research at times experienced slow and interrupted searches, which might have affected their flow of thought.

The online collocation dictionary could be a solution for the problem of time involved in flicking through the dictionary pages and subsequent disruption of the flow of writing which concerned students in Dziemianko's study (2010). This could encourage learners to do more exploratory browsing (Nesi, 2000) and so learners can learn more from the language input (Laufer, 2010). However, concerns that information that can be retrieved so quickly and painlessly from electronic or online dictionaries will be forgotten easily (Nesi, 1999) are not irrational and therefore need to be further researched. Faster searching time could be their general assessment based on their intuition of the time for a word being looked up to appear on the screen compared to the time to find it in a paper dictionary. If the author consider the check-up time as the whole process starting from a word being typed in until a collocation is found, learners' responses to this feature could have been different.

TABLE 5
ACCESSIBILITY AND EASE OF USE

Items	Variables	N	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
2	With internet availability I can access this dictionary easily	81	50.5%	40.4%	9.1 %	0%
3	Save time for each check-up	81	63.7%	36.3%	0%	0%
4	The layout of meanings, grammatical use and frequently used expressions is user-friendly	81	20.2%	64.6%	15.2%	0%
			Always	Often	Occasionally	Never
16	I have difficulty in making a choice of collocates found	81	12.1%	21.2%	54.5%	12.2%
17	It takes me time to look for collocates from other dictionaries	81	15.2%	27.3%	48.5%	9.0%

84.8% of survey participants responded that the layout, grammatical use and frequently used expressions are user-friendly. Responding to this question, three interview participants shared that the dictionary is clear and well-organized. This could be an element contributing to the high level of satisfaction with the dictionary discussed earlier. The use of different colours, uppercase/lowercase letters, or words in bold or italic help them scan for the position of the part of speech of words that they want to look for fast and easily. Also, the arrangement of words with similar meanings together assists them in using collocations regardless of the limited number of examples. One participant shared '*It puts collocates of similar meaning together. Even if you don't know meanings of some collocates, you can find it in that group they have similar meaning and figure out meanings of words in that group.*'

However, finding from the interview showed that its interface is also an aspect that needs to be improved. Compared with other webpages that also assist English learners, one participant assessed that it is quite plain and tedious, not professional. She supposed that if there were more pictures to illustrate, it would be more attractive, and hence could help learners learn more easily. However, the author believes that there is no need to expand the dictionary in that way because the audience the dictionary is aimed at are upper intermediate to advanced level, and more importantly its primary purpose is to provide collocates for productive use rather than providing meanings of headwords.

87.8% of the participants reported in the questionnaires that they have difficulty in making a choice of collocates for a headword, so sometimes it takes time to look for collocates from other dictionaries (according to 91% of participants). As one of the participants stated, she has almost no difficulty in using grammatically correct collocations found in the OOCD in her writing. What matters is that she does not know the difference in meaning between collocates instead. Another difficulty that participants sometimes experienced in using the dictionary is that when typing in a word in the search box, it does not provide a list of words suggested based on the first initial letters of the word being searched.

The presentation of the noun-noun collocation in the dictionary is an issue that needs examining. If, as confirmed by the dictionary compilers, the presentation of collocations in the dictionary is at the base entry, which learners will think first, then the presentation of noun-noun collocation seems not to comply with the rule. Vietnamese learners, in order to express an idea like *chính sách giáo dục* (*education policy*), tend to start thinking of the second noun *policy* (*chính sách*), which is not the base. This means that in order to search for a noun-noun collocation, learners have to remember which of the two nouns is the base. One participant shared that *It's a bit confusing. I think it's (N-N collocation) different from others (collocation patterns). Like for the case of a bunch of flower, it's clear that you start searching with flower, but for this case (work experience) we don't start with experience, which is the main noun.*

IV. CONCLUSION

Findings from the study show that learners were generally positive towards the use of the OOCD for collocation searching. The majority of learners felt more confident that their collocation use is native-like and believed that the dictionary helped them expand their knowledge of collocations. They approached the dictionary for help most frequently with collocations of adjective-noun pattern, followed by the verb-noun pattern. However, lack of plentiful content was found to be one of its limitations, alongside with lack of pronunciation and suggestions for looked-up words. When introducing the dictionary to the learner, it is believed to be important for the teacher to give them sufficient training on how to make full use of it. They need to emphasize to the learners that the dictionary provides support with possible collocations; nevertheless, the list is not exhaustive. Awareness-raising about what the dictionary can offer is significant since in this study failure to do that caused unnecessary confusion for the learners. Evidence from the study also showed that the dictionary sometimes failed to provide learners with information that they needed to use collocations correctly in meaning. Therefore, it would be a good idea for the dictionary compilers to provide the learner with the meanings of collocate groups. Another possible solution for this is that they might consider creating links between this dictionary and the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary in providing the meaning of each collocate. One important limitation that the author was fully aware of is the possible impacts of her role as a teacher in this study. Playing the two roles at the same time, to some extent, affected the participants' responses to the questionnaires, interviews, and behaviour towards the dictionary. Many attempts were made to minimize them as the author mentioned above; however, it is hard to say for certain how far those resolutions worked.

Findings of the study show that learners highly evaluate the dictionary as a supportive tool although it was not found to bring about positive results (Cao & Deignan, 2019). Cao and Deignan (2019) found that more odd collocations occur when learners writing with the dictionary support than without. However, in that study they only looked at impact of the dictionary on learners' collocation use in L2 writing whereas in reality learners not only consult the dictionary when they are doing the writing but also expand their store of vocabulary in their learning process. Accordingly, an investigation of learners' collocation competence after a period of using the dictionary would be interesting to carry out. Research in that direction is worth conducting since in the longer term learners are expected to be able to use collocations confidently without relying on any supporting tools. Also, most of the general dictionaries contain collocations and the presentation of collocations in these dictionaries is constantly improving. It, therefore, would be interesting to carry out research comparing the effects of the use of general dictionaries and this specialized dictionary on learners' collocation competence, as well as their perceptions of the dictionaries.

APPENDIX. RECORDING SHEET

Dictionary user's number:

1. What entry were you looking up?	2. What types of collocations were you looking for?								3. Did you find the word you were looking for?	4. Why did you look up the word?		5. Did you find the instruction on how to use it?	6. Did you use OOCD in combination with other dictionaries?	7. How satisfied were you with what you found? *Choose the scale from 1-5 with 1: very dissatisfied to 5: very satisfied*	8. Other comments/why did you use other dictionaries? If yes
	V-N	N-V	Adj-N	Adv-V, V-Adv	Adv-Adj	N-N	N-of-N	Others		Finding (F)	Checking (C)				
Discuss (v)				√					Y		√	Y	N	4	

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-   Cao, D., v à Badger, R. (2021) Cross-linguistic influence on the use of L2 collocations: the case of Vietnamese learners. *Applied linguistics Review.* https://doi.org/10.1515/applirev-2020-0035

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Language Reflecting Society and Culture in the Provincial Folktale Literature of Northeastern Thailand and Its Value: With Special Reference to Ekarattana Udomporn's Written Work

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Abstract—**The objectives of this study were to explore linguistic strategies used in the folktales of Northeastern Thailand and to explore the ways in which society and culture are reflected through folktales in Ekarattana Udomporn's written work and the value of the tales. The conceptual framework of this study consists of (1) use of strategies of language for communication namely, expression, diction and level of language and (2) reflections of society and culture, namely, beliefs, the ways of life of people in society, and the value of the language and the knowledge of the tales. A qualitative method was employed, and the data included 41 stories of provincial folktales collected by Ekarattana Udomporn. The findings revealed that there were uses of different kinds of expressions. There was use of explanative diction, exemplificative diction and descriptive diction, and among these, explanative diction was found to be foremost in the folktales because of the explanative purpose of folktales. Formal language, semi-formal language and colloquial language was found in the folktales, and among these, semi-formal and colloquial language was used primarily in order to facilitate understanding. Folktales of this region reflected not only the beliefs in society, namely, Buddhism, spirits, death, seniority, but also the way of life, namely, clothes, food, castes and relations of people in society that accorded with belief of people in society. Furthermore, the values of language, of society and culture, and of knowledge as well as other values, were also found in the folktales of Northeastern Thailand in Ekarattana Udomporn's written work.**

Index Terms—**language, society, culture, value, folktales**

I. INTRODUCTION

A tale is a literacy work that originated from the human intellect and imagination and language and plays a major role in society. The way of life of a people is handed down from generation to generation through language (Uche, 2020). Naturally, human beings have an interest in listening to tales for entertainment and to gain general knowledge. A folktale is an important branch of literature that has long been continually created from early times up until the present day.

The folktale literature of Northeastern Thailand originated together with the lives of Northeastern people. Those tales are stories that local people told each other and have continued to tell each other. Such tales include those that convey moral teaching, those that are traditional and cultural stories, and those telling about the origins of different places in Northeastern Thailand. Presently, the different folktales of Northeastern Thailand and the specific aspects of those tales are noteworthy for their use of language and their reflection of society and culture, and their value in gaining knowledge of the Northeast. Such aspects of the folktales of Northeastern Thailand are very important for research; particularly, the studies on the provincial folktales of Northeastern Thailand must be done to obtain useful knowledge concerning language use, society, and culture of the region.

As observed generally, the folktales of Northeastern Thailand reflect not only the language but also socio-cultural aspects. For these reasons, the folktales are of significant value. Regarding culture, the cultural issues in the world arising from differences in certain styles can be traced back to sociological factors, which both inform and are informed by those styles; relevant factors include religious affiliation, and local or national customs (Munmun & Katharina, 2020). Especially, before appearing as the present-day society and culture, there is a relationship between the past (always judged by the scopes of the present) and the present-future. The dialectic approach emphasizes realizing analytic equilibrium in approaching the past and the present (Hamza, 2021).

In Thailand, there are many people with many doubts. These doubts have arisen as a result of inadequate knowledge regarding the language and the society and culture reflected in the folktales of Northeastern Thailand. These problems of doubt have grown seemingly to infinity. As these problems grow and remain undealt with, other issues crop up, such

as altercations and, in many cases, brawls. These create even greater disagreement for many people concerned as well as for posterity.

For this research study, there are two research questions, namely, 1.What are the linguistic strategies as used in the folktales of Northeastern Thailand? and 2. Why is this research necessary to study the reflection of society, culture and value in the provincial folktale literature of Northeastern Thailand as written by Ekarattana Udomporn?

From a survey of prior research works, it can be strongly affirmed that there was no research work that dealt with language and the reflections of society, and culture in the folktales of Northeastern Thailand, and especially, no researcher who studied the written work of Ekarattana Udomporn in terms of language use, analysis of society and culture, and assessing the value of the tales was found. Mostly, the prior research works on folktales of Northeastern Thailand were focused on Thai words and expressions; studies of language and reflections of society and culture in the provincial folktales of Northeastern Thailand written by the writer Ekarattana Udomporn in the technological age in recent decades were not found.

In particular, when talking about the very rapid developments in the age of technology in recent decades and years, Tatyana et al. (2021) stated that we can see the impact of this significant growth on the cultural, religious, and social characteristics of societies. The increasing speed of the media has had different consequences in the cultural-religious and national spheres in societies. This view is an interesting issue to be taken into account in the present world for research on classical materials like folktales.

Therefore, it is premise of this study regarding the usage of language, the reflection of society and culture, and assessing the value of the tales that attention be paid to analytical study of the contents of the tales and thoroughly study the language that reflects society and culture that appear in the provincial folktales of Northeastern Thailand and their value amidst the very rapid developments in the age of technology. Doing this will contribute to academic discourse concerning language and the reflection of society and culture in the provincial folktales of Northeastern Thailand and the value of these tales.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. The Folktale as Literature

According to the classification of the Northeastern literature, it can be said that the folktale is held to be one of the several categories of Northeastern literature in Thailand by considering the relevant content.

Atthakorn (1976, p.42) clearly stated that the folktale is a prose narrative from the past, and it was a way to express villagers' thoughts and feelings. As to the purpose of the folktale, it can be said that it mostly aimed at the entertainment of listeners, followed by providing useful knowledge.

Ooytrakool (1977, p. 18) stated that the folktale is a story that people passed on by word of mouth. Thus, it may be thought of as a form of composition similar to a letter. However, it is important to say that such narration must be done by local people or villagers in order to reflect their way of life in the context of their society.

Thongprasert (1979, p.110) stated that a folktale is a narrative that was composed by local people in different areas over a time extending long into the past and focused on entertainment and encouraging people to perform good actions according to the religious beliefs current in the local society and community, which held virtues such as loving-kindness, gratitude, honesty and generosity in making donations in high regard.

Manirat (1979, p.111) stated that a folktale is a narrative has been told by villagers or local people since early times. Hence, the word 'folktale' means all the narratives were related by local people in each region.

Punnothok (1990, p.14) stated that the folktale is an activity carried on for entertainment that human have done from the past up to present. It can be said that folktales are found in every nation and language, the only difference being the contents of folktales in each country.

B. Folktales in Each Region of Thailand

Truly speaking, the folktales in each region have different aspects according to the context of the area. To describe the folktale, Thai scholars delineated the folktale as follows: Satawethin (1974, p.46) stated the folktale had the following five characteristics: 1. It is a narrative, 2. The narrative is composed in prose, 3. The narrative is delivered by word of mouth, 4. The narrative expresses the thoughts and beliefs of the villagers, 5. There may be stories based on these tales circulated in Thai society. Moreover, Mallikamas (1975, p.42) also explained that the folktale possess the following three important features: 1. It is a narrative in prose, not poetry 2. It has been passed on by word of mouth for a long time, and it may have been recorded in written form later 3. The name of the original narrator is not known, and it is simply a narrative passed down by word of mouth from a storyteller who is regarded to have been an important person in the past.

Punnothok (1990, p. 132) stated that the Northeast is rich in tales because they are a form of entertainment that has enjoyed wide popularity for a long time. They present many interesting issues to be studied and researched. Generally, folktale literature has aimed primarily to provide content that was entertaining. However, the anonymous authors also inserted ethics and doctrine in the content and characters' behavior to serve as a model in the Buddhist way of life.

C. Related Researches

Among the researches relevant to this study, Jeennoon (2020) studied research works in relation to tales and religion. It was found that the researcher mostly focused on the components of the texts, and the research in this group was comprised a total of 58 works such as the study of Tuna (2543) on the worldview in the Northeastern literary work Sang Sinxay and the research work of Phonkham (2546) entitled Analytical Study on Principles of Buddhist Ethics in Northeastern Tales. Not only this, Wannaudorn (2007) conducted a comparative study of the Northeastern Thai and Lao versions of the tale of Busaba etc. On the basis of the research works, it can be said that a folktale is a story that has been continually told by local people in each region from the past to the present.

D. Usage of Language to Reflect Society and Culture, and Values

To communicate the content on society, culture, and values reflected in provincial folktales of Northeastern Thailand, researchers adapted and applied the principles of word uses of Rodhetbhai (1979) for analyzing the linguistic strategies relevant to Thai for communication such as compound words, repeated words, reduplicated words, loanwords from foreign languages, expressions, diction, and the use of use language of different levels have been employed and taken into account. Moreover, the reflections of society and culture, and values regarding the way of life and the different dimensions of Northeastern society such as family and marriage that appear in the provincial folktales of Northeastern Thailand have also been studied to find how the provincial folktales play their important role in Northeastern Thailand (Thammawat, 2000).

After this review of the relevant literature, the researchers were able to devise a conceptual framework and proceed to conduct this study on the provincial folktales of Northeastern Thailand with special reference to Ekarattana Udomporn's written work.

III. Research Methodology

This study is an analytical research focused on language to present the socio-culture and values reflection in the provincial folktales of Northeastern Thailand. Descriptive writing of research was adopted through data collection from 41 provincial folktales collected by the writer Ekarattana Udomporn. Research was conducted by a qualitative method within an overall inductive framework. The methodology used in the study was as follows;

1. Data surveying and data collection related to language use and reflections of society, culture and values in the provincial folktales of Northeastern Thailand were done.

2. The collected documents were classified into groups, categorized, analyzed and explained.

3. Descriptions and analyses of the provincial folktales of Northeastern Thailand were written.

4. The results of the research and concluding remarks were presented.

IV. Research Results

According to the objectives of the research study as obviously mentioned above, the results of the research study were found as follows;

A. Expressions

Expressions are beautiful honeyed words used in the Thai language. They consist of about 2-3 spoken words that collected contents and displayed artifices as well as meanings of the long stories and details. Mostly, Thai expressions are derived from different sources such as nature, the environment, tradition and religious literature, for example:

(a). Rhymed Expression

(1)

ยังมีสามีภริยาผู้ยากจนเข็ญใจคู่หนึ่งกำลังอยู่ในช่วง**ก่อร่างสร้างตัว** มีชีวิตหาเช้ากินค่ำ

แต่ก็มีความสุขตามประสาคนจน

/yaŋ mi: să: mi: pha-rí-ya: phû: yâ:k con khěn cay khû: nừŋ kam-laŋ yù: nay chûaŋ <u>kɔ̀: râŋ sâ:ŋ tua</u> mi: chi: wít hă: cháw kin khâm tè: kɔ̂ mi: khwa:m sùk ta:m pra-să: khon con/

(There are a couple of husband and wife who are building up a fortune. They have the tough lives. However, they are happy as poor people)

(Si Sa Ket, Hen Kae Dai: 185)

(b). Comparative Expression

(2)

อาจีเห็นเป็นโอกาสดีจึงขอพระราชทานที่ดินสักเล็กน้อยคือเพียง**เท่าแมวดิ้นตาย**เท่านั้น

/Ɂa: ci: hěn pen Ɂo: kà:t di: cɯŋ khɔ̌: phrá-râ:t-cha-tha:n thî: din sàk lék nɔ́:y khɯ: phiaŋ <u>thâw mɛ:w dîn ta:y</u> thâw nán/

(Ajee saw it that was a good opportunity and so he begged for the king's grant him a small piece of land--only about enough for a cat writhing in its death throes.

(Khautee Sangban Taomaew Dintai, Surin: 13)

(c). Repeated Expression

(3)   ลูกเอ๋ย พ่อแม่จึงอยากให้เจ้าไปสร้างกระท่อมอยู่ในที่ดอนนอกหมู่บ้าน ได้**เปิดหูเปิดตา**
        รู้จักสร้างชีวิตให้เจริญรุ่งเรืองอย่างคนอื่นเขาบ้าง

/lûːk ʔɤ̌ːy phɔ̂ː mɛ̂ː cɯŋ yàːk hây câw pay sâːŋ kra-thɔ̂ːm yùː nay thîː dɔːn nɔ́ːk mùː bâːn dâːy pɤ̀ːt hǔː pɤ̀ːt taː rúː càk sâːŋ chi: wít hây ca-rɤːn rûŋ rɯaːŋ yàːŋ khon ʔɯ̀ːn khǎw bâːŋ/

(Oh Son! We would you to build a hut outside the village. That would open your eyes and ears and teach you how to build a prosperous life and flourish like other people)

                                                                                        (Ai Ba Kancha, Roi Ed: 193)

     Regarding the expressions as used in Thai language, there are three categories, namely; 1) rhymed expression, 2) comparative expression and 3) repeated expression. Observation of the expressions used in the provincial folktales of Northeastern Thailand, all the categories of expressions were found to be used in Ekarattana Udomporn's written work in order to communicate the content.

B. Diction

     Diction means the rhetorical writing or literary style of speaking. Diction is divided into a total of five types namely; 1) explanative diction 2) descriptive diction 3) analogical diction 4) exemplificative diction 5) sermonizing diction.

(a). Explanative Diction

     Explanative diction means narration or explanation of several stories according to priority of situations focusing on the key messages, facts and ideas, as for example:

(4)   เรื่องผีบุญนี้เป็นนิทานมีที่อ้างอิงเพราะเป็นเรื่องจริงที่เกิดขึ้นจริงในสมัยกรุงรัตนโกสินทร์
        ตรงกับรัชสมัยของพระบาทสมเด็จพระจุลจอมเกล้าเจ้าอยู่หัว (พระปิยมหาราช)

/rɯ̂aːŋ phǐː bun níː pen níː thaːn miː thîː ʔâːŋ ʔiŋ phrɔ́ pen rɯ̂aːŋ ciŋ thîː kɤ̀ːt khɯ̂n ciŋ nay sa-mǎy kruŋ rát-ta-na-koː-sǐn troŋ kàp rát-cha-sa-mǎy khɔːŋ phrá bàːt sǒm dèt phrá cun-la-cɔːm klâw câːw yùː hǔa (phrá pi-yá ma-hǎː râːt/

(The Phi Bun story is one that has support because it based on actual events on the Bangkok Period during the reign of King Rama V, the Great Beloved King)

                                                                                        (Phi Boon, Roi Ed: 112)

(b). Descriptive Diction

     Descriptive diction means language that helps readers understand and appreciate the story through the use of images, feelings and imagination in the process of transmission, for example:

(5)   ขณะนั้นท้าวหูดสามเปาได้คำนึงถึงหน้าตาของตนที่มีหูดผุดขึ้นเต็มไปหมด ตะปุ่มตะป่ำ เม็ดเล็กเม็ดน้อย
        ดูน่าเกลียดน่ากลัวยิ่งนัก   แต่ก็คิดว่านี่เป็นโอกาสที่ดีที่จะทำให้ตนมีหน้าตาหล่อเหลาเสียที
        จึงได้อธิษฐานจิตและตีกลองขึ้น

/kha-nà nán tháːw hùːt sǎːm paw dâːy kham nɯŋ thɯ̌ŋ nâː taː khɔ̌ːŋ ton thîː miː hùːt phùt khɯ̂n tem pay mòt ta-pùm-ta-pàm mét lék mét nɔ́ːy du: nâː klìat nâː klua yîŋ nák tɛ̀ː kɔ̂ khít wâː nîː pen ʔoː kaːt thîː di: thîː cà tham hây ton miː nâː taː lɔ̀ː lǎw sǐa thiː cɯŋ dâːy ʔa-thít-thǎːn cìt lɛ́ tiː klɔːŋ khɯ̂n/

(At that time, Hood Sam Pao considered his face completely covered with warts, little ones and big ones, all knotty and bumpy, How frightfully, disgustingly ugly! However, he thought that this was a good chance for making his face look good. So, he started praying fervently and beating the drum)

                                                                                        (Hood Sam Pao, Si Sa Ket: 183)

(c). Analogical Diction

     Analogical diction is used to support a story. The storyteller likes to use analogies in order to illustrate the story and clarify contents. It must enable the listeners to understand clearly, for example:

(6)   ขณะที่พระองค์ทรงกำลังต่อไก่ป่าอยู่นั้นได้พบกวางทองสวยงาม**ประดุจ**นางฟ้าจำแลง

/kha-nà thîː phrá ʔoŋ soŋ kam laŋ tɔ̀ː kày pàː yùː nán dâːy phóp kwaːŋ thɔːŋ sǔay ŋaːm pra-dùt naːŋ fáː cam lɛːŋ/

(While trying to lure a jungle fowl, the king saw a deer as beautiful as if transformed by angel)

                                                                                        (Fa Dad Soong Yang, Kalasin: 130)

(d). Exemplificative Diction

     Exemplificative diction means presenting important and relevant examples in order to help the listeners understand the story clearly, for example:

(7) ครั้นสร้างถนนเสร็จแล้ว พญาคันคากก็คืนร่างเป็นคางคกตามเดิม ยกกำลังทหารสารพัดสัตว์ เช่น เสือ ครุฑ นาค

มด ปลวก แร้ง กา ลิง เป็นต้น ขึ้นไปบนฟ้า

/khrán sâ:ŋ tha-nǒn sèt lɛ́:w pha-ya: khan khá:k kô khɯ:n râ:ŋ pen kha:ŋ khók ta:m dəːm yók kam laŋ tha-hǎ:n sǎ:-ra-phát sàt chên sɯ̌a khrút nâ:k mót plùak rɛ́:ŋ ka: liŋ pen tôn khɯ̌n pay bon fá:/

(After building the road, the King of Toads turned himself back into a toad as before and led his army of tigers, Garudas, Nagas, ants, termites, vultures, crows, monkeys and other creatures up into the heavens.)

(Phaya Khan Kag, Udon Thani: 119)

(e). Sermonizing Diction

Sermonizing diction means language used in order to teach, persuade, and reason, for example;

(8) ชีวิตเป็นเรื่องลึกซึ้ง ละเอียดอ่อน จึงไม่ควรปล่อยให้ดำเนินไปด้วยความประมาท หากแต่ควรมีสติ มีสัมปชัญญะ

มีอัปปมาทธรรม จึงจะมีความเรียบร้อยและงดงาม

/chi: wít pen rɯ̂a:ŋ lɯ́k sɯ́ŋ la-ʔìat ʔɔ̀:n cɯŋ mây khuan plɔ̀:y hây dam nəːn pay dûay khwa:m pra-mà:t hà:k tɛ̀: khuan mi: sa-tì mi: sǎm-pa-chan-yá mi: ʔàp-pa-ma:-tha-tham cɯŋ cà mi: khwa:m rîap rɔ́:y lɛ́ ŋót ŋa:m/

(Life is a profound and subtle thing, so one should not just let it go by carelessly; rather one should be mindful, aware, and vigilant, for this will lead to order and beauty)

(Phon Bun Phon Kam, Si Sa Ket: 104)

According to the examples regarding the diction as mentioned in the above, it can be stated that there are five kinds of diction used in the provincial folktales of Northeastern Thailand. Among these, there are two groups, namely; main diction and supporting diction. Explanative diction and descriptive diction are in the main diction group while analogical diction, exemplificative diction, and sermonizing diction are in the supporting diction group. All of these kinds of diction are used in the provincial folktales.

V. Language Level

Language level means appropriateness of language for communication in various situations as may be determined by considering the words and sentence types and the topics, ideas and sentiments expressed in the   messages according to their suitability to the communicative objectives, the receiver, and message times and places.

A. Informal, or Colloquial, Language

Informal, or colloquial, language means the language mostly spoken in everyday life with people with whom one is familiar. It does not emphasize correctness in grammar but focuses on communication that people will understand, as for example:

(9) เมื่อวานนี้ **มันปะแม่นขี้ไก่** แต่เป็นตังเมที่**ข้อยทำไว้ต่างหากล่ะ**

/mɯ̂a wa:n ní: man bɔ̀: mɛ̂:n khî: kày tɛ̀: pen taŋ me: thî: khɔ̂:y tham wáy tà:ŋ hà:k là/

(Yesterday, that was not chicken droppings; it was some nougat that I made myself)

(Luang Phor Chan Khee Kai, Khon Kaen: 179)

B. Semi-Formal Language

Semi-formal language means language has well-matched proportion between informal and formal language. It contains more delicate and beautiful aspects than informal language; especially, it is used to speak with persons with whom does not have a close relationship, for example:

(10) พระยาสีทนกับนางมโนราอยู่**ครองรักครองสุข**ที่เมืองภูเงินได้ระยะหนึ่งก็ทูลลาเสด็จกลับเมืองเป็งจาน

พร้อมด้วยนางมโนราเพื่อทำหน้าที่บริหารราชการแผ่นดินต่อไป

/phrá ya: sǐ: thon kàp na:ŋ ma-no:-ra: yù: khrɔ:ŋ rák khrɔ:ŋ sùk thî: mɯaŋ phu: ŋəːn dâ:y ra-yá nɯ̀ŋ kô thu:n la: sa-dèt klàp mɯaŋ peŋ ca:n phrɔ́:m dûay na:ŋ ma-no:-ra: phɯ̂a tham nâ: thî: bɔ-ri-hǎ:n râ:t-cha-ka:n phɛ̀:n din tɔ̀: pay/

(Phya Sithon and Manora lived together at Bhu Ngern for a time, and then he took leave and returned to Pengjan City with Manora to find charge his duties in governing his land)

(Sithon Manora, Ubon Ratchathani: 172)

C. Formal Language

Formal language means the language that conforms to conventions and rules of language regarding the usage of words, sentences and expressions, for example:

(11) ในอดีตกาลมีนครแห่งหนึ่งนามว่า "ฟ้าแดด" มีพระมหากษัตริย์ปกครอง**ทรงพระนามว่า**พญาฟ้าแดด

/nay ʔa-dì:t-ta-ka:n mi: ná khɔ:n hɛ̀:ŋ nɯ̀ŋ na:m wâ: fá: dɛ̀:t mi: phrá ma-hǎ: ka-sàt pòk khrɔ:ŋ soŋ phrá na:m wâ: pha-ya: fá: dɛ̀:t/

(In former times, there was a city known as Fa Daed, and the king who governed it was named Phya Fa Daed)

As to the language levels employed in the folktales of Northeastern Thailand, it is can be said that there are a total of three language levels used in the folktales of Northeastern Thailand this makes it possible to divide the content communicated into three levels, namely, informal language, semi-formal language and formal language.

VI. THE REFLECTIONS OF SOCIETY AND CULTURAL ASPECTS

Society and culture are regarded as important determinants of the lifestyle of human beings. Humans who can live and associate with others in different modes of life produce culture. Not only that, culture also plays important role in the spiritual training of human beings as well. By doing so, it fosters living together with others peacefully and happily. Hence, society and culture, as observed generally, are held as important and necessary factors for supporting each other. Herein, humans are the creators of culture, and vice versa, culture has been symbolic of human civilization in the world from former times up until the present. Society and culture are reflected in the different dimensions of beliefs in society, namely, Buddhism, spirit or creator, death and the seniority system as follows:

A. Beliefs in Northeastern Society

(a). Buddhism (Man Becomes Good by Good Action and Bad by Bad Action)

(12)   ด้วยวิบากอกุศลกรรมที่เคยแทงกบตายในชาติก่อน จึงต้องมาชดใช้กรรมในชาตินี้

โดยหอกที่นายพรานพุ่งนั้นถูกอวัยวะสำคัญของ<u>พระธุดงค์</u>จนถึงแก่มรณภาพในทันที

/dûay wí-bà:k ʔa-ku-sŏn-la-kam thî: khɤ:y thɛ:ŋ kòp ta:y nay châ:t kɔ̀:n cɯŋ tɔ̂:ŋ ma: chót cháy kam nay châ:t <u>ní:</u> do:y hɔ̀:k thî: na:y phra:n phûŋ nán thù:k ʔa-way-ya-wá săm khan khɔ̌:ŋ <u>phrá thú doŋ</u> con thŭŋ kɛ̀: mɔ:-ra-ná-phâ:p nay than thi:/

(Due to the consequence of bad action by stabbing a frog in a previous existence, the monk on pilgrimage received the result of this bad action in this life, for a spear thrown by a hunter struck the monk in a vital spot and he died immediately.)

(b). Spirits

(13)   ทันใดนั้นผีอั้วเคี่ยมก็เข้าสิงท้าวขุลู ทำให้ท้าวขุลูไม่อยากมีชีวิตอยู่บนโลกนี้ จึงคว้าเอามีดแทงคอตัวเองตายตาม

/than day nán <u>phĭ:</u> ʔûa khîam kô khâw sĭŋ thá:w khu-lu: tham hây thá:w khu-lu: mây yà:k mi: chi: wít yù: bon lô:k ní: cɯŋ khwá: ʔaw mî:t thɛ:ŋ khɔ: tua ʔe:ŋ ta:y ta:m/

(At that moment, the spirit of Au Kiam took possession of Khulu and it made him no longer want to live in this world, so he grabbed his knife, stabbed himself in the throat, and died)

(c). Death

(14)   ครั้นนายปรานตายไปแล้ว ก็ไปเกิดเป็นเปรต เรียกว่าเปรตปราน ทันทีที่กลายเป็นเปรต

เปรตปรานก็รีบไปหาแม่ด้วยความเป็นห่วง

/khrán na:y pra:n <u>ta:y</u> pay lɛ́:w kô pay kɤ̀:t pen prè:t rîak wâ: prè:t pra:n than thi: thî: kla:y pen prè:t prè:t pra:n kô rî:p pay hă: mɛ̂: dûay khwa:m pen hùaŋ/

(After Pran passed away, he was born as Pret Pran, the soul of the deceased person. Having born as a Pret, he hurried to find his mother out of concern for her.)

(d). The Seniority System

(15)   อาจี ได้ ที จึง <u>ทำตามคำสั่งแม่</u> ทุก อย่าง จับ <u>น้อง</u> อาบ น้ำ แล้ว เอา มีด ผ่า ท้อง

ควักไส้พุงออกมาทำความสะอาดจนน้องตายไป

/ʔa: ci: dâ:y thi: cɯŋ <u>tham ta:m kham sàŋ mɛ̂:</u> thúk yà:ŋ càp <u>nɔ́:ŋ</u> ʔà:p ná:m lɛ́:w ʔaw mî:t phà: thɔ́:ŋ khwák sây phuŋ ʔɔ̀:k ma: tham khwa:m sa-ʔà:t con nɔ́:ŋ ta:y pay/

(Ajee obeyed his mother and did everything she had ordered. He grabbed his younger brother and gave him a bath, then he took a knife, cut open his brother's belly, scooped out his entrails and cleaned them, and as a result, his younger brother died.)

B. The Way of Life in Northeastern Society

The way of life in Northeastern society is reflected in different aspects of local peoples' lives, namely, clothes, food, castes and relations of people in society that accorded with the beliefs of Northeastern people in society as follows:

(a). Clothes/Dress

(16) วันหนึ่งนายพรานแต่งตัวด้วย**ชุดม่อฮ่อม**เข้าป่าล่าสัตว์ตามปกติ แต่ไม่ได้สัตว์สักตัว

/wan nừŋ na:y phra:n tὲ:ŋ tua dûay <u>chút mɔ̂: hɔ̂:m</u> khâw pà: lâ: sàt ta:m pòk-ka-tì tὲ: mây dâ:y sàt sàk tua/

(One day, a hunter put on a dark blue indigo-dyed shirt and went into the forest to hunt, but he did not get even one animal)

(Ling Kab Nai Pran, Si Sa Ket: 153)

(b). Food/Edible Things

(17) หลวงพ่อฉันเพลเสร็จกลับมาวัด เห็น**ตังเม**เกลื่อนกุฏิก็คิดว่าเป็นขี้ไก่ จึงเรียกเณรน้อยมาดุ

/lǔaŋ phɔ̂: chăn phe:n sèt klàp ma: wát hěn <u>taŋ me:</u> klừan kùt-tì kɔ̂ khít wâ: pen khî: kày cɯŋ rîak ne:n nɔ́:y ma: dù/

(After Luang Phor (Ven.) took his midday meal and went back to the temple. He saw a lot of nougats on floor of his cell but thought they were chicken droppings, so he called a novice and scolded him.)

(Luang Phor Chan Khee Kai, Khon Kaen: 177)

(c). Castes

(18) ถึงวันนัดหมาย ท้าวขุลูได้ออกมาด้วยความกระวนกระวายโดยอ้ายอั้วเคี่ยมนั้นได้ลักลอบมากับ<u>สาวใช้</u>

/thửŋ wan nát mǎ:y thá:w khu-lu: dâ:y ʔɔ̀:k ma: dûay khwa:m kra-won-kra-wa:y do:y ʔâ:y ʔûay khîam nán dâ:y lák lô:p ma: kàp <u>sǎ:w cháy</u>/

(On the appointed day, Khulu came out anxiously in order to meet Au Kiam, who had slipped out and come with her maid)

(Tao Khulu Nang Au Kiam, Roi Ed: 51)

(d). Relations of People

(19) ยังมีสามีภรรยาคู่หนึ่งซึ่งมีฐานะยากจน ตั้งบ้านเรือนอาศัยอยู่ในเมืองแห่งหนึ่ง มี<u>ลูกชาย</u> 1 คน มี<u>ลูกหญิง</u> 1 คน คน<u>พี่</u>เป็นชายชื่อมณี คน<u>น้อง</u>เป็นหญิงชื่อสัจจา

/yaŋ mi: <u>sǎ: mi:</u> phan-ra-ya: khû: nừŋ sửŋ mi: thǎ ná yâ:k con tâŋ bâ:n rɯan ʔa: sǎy yù: nay mɯaŋ hὲ:ŋ nừŋ mi: <u>lû:k cha:y</u> nừŋ khon mi: <u>lû:k yǐŋ</u> nừŋ khon khon phî: pen cha:y chử: ma-ni: khon <u>nɔ́:ŋ</u> pen yǐŋ chử: sàt ca:/

(A husband and wife who were poor made their home in a city. They had one son and one daughter. The elder was their son, named Mani; the younger was their daughter, named Sajja)

(Mani Satja, Sakon Nakhon: 136)

Regarding the reflections of society and culture appearing in the folktales of Northeastern Thailand, it can be said that there are two dimensions, namely, the beliefs of Northeastern society and the way of life in Northeastern society. Although the Northeastern people have different beliefs and ways of life, they are very good at preserving their socio-cultural heritage.

VII. Value of the Folktales

In the light of the illustrations above, it can be said through a thorough holistic view of the provincial folktales in the dimension of valuable approaches that such the literature has several values, which can be divided into four areas as follows:

A. Value With Respect to Expression, Diction and Language Level

Through the thorough folktales, the classical and modern words including loanwords are derived from different languages, namely, Pali-Sanskrit, Khmer. Especially, the first one is that undoubtedly plays very important role in reflecting the culture of Northeastern Thailand based on Buddhism and Buddhist doctrine. As for the expression and diction, the folktales use outstanding descriptive writing style with the short, well-fitting and clear content through the use of words expressing direct meanings and the whole of the messages in the folktales are expressed through clear writing. Particularly, the language level used in the folktales is good for communication. It helps the reader understand the contents and details clearly.

B. Value With Respect to Society and Culture

The provincial folktales of Northeastern Thailand reflect the Northeasters' beliefs in former times in different dimensions, and the same, truly speaking, can be held as historical evidence showing that how much the Northeasters preferred and loved their own culture from earlier times up until the present time.

C. Value as a Source of Knowledge

After study on the provincial folktales of Northeastern Thailand, the readers receive not only entertainment, but also detailed information concerning historical and geographical sites of each province in Northeastern Thailand.

D. Value in Other Respects

Thorough study of the provincial folktales of Northeastern Thailand can also provide important detailed information regarding the Northeastern classical structure of the political system such as relative etc., and it also impacts on comparative or historical study of other regional literatures as well.

According to the light as mentioned above, it can be said that the value of the folktales of Northeastern Thailand has four dimensions, namely, language, society and culture, knowledge and others concerned such as relative etc. Language can help people learn about and understand socio-cultural aspects of Northeastern society and other particulars. Not only that, it also provides information about the classical structure of political system. Therefore, the value of the folktales of Northeastern Thailand is significant.

VIII. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

From the research results as revealed in the above, it can be concluded that the folktale of Thailand is widespread and known generally in different provinces of each region in Thailand. As for the provincial folktales of Northeastern Thailand, their source is similar to the tales of other regions. A folktale is a narrative communicated by word of mouth. Prose language has been employed in folktales from former times up until the present. Folktales provide villagers a way to express themselves, and now are used to communicate in both oral and written form, both of which may provide true detailed information.

This view seems to be similar to that of Atthakorn (1976, p.42) who stated that the folktale has been narrated on prose language from the past and it was another way to express villagers' thoughts and feelings. As for the purpose of the folktale, it can be said that it mostly aimed at entertainment, followed by the exchange of knowledge of the local people. This is similar to the thought of Punnothok (1990, p.14) who stated that the folktale is an entertainment activity in which human have engaged from the past to present. Folktales are found in every nation and language. Therefore, it can be said that only the contents of folktales in each country is different.

With respect to the provincial folktales of Northeastern Thailand, it can be concluded that the folktales of Northeastern Thailand may be regarded as a useful source of knowledge on language use and the socio-cultural atmosphere of Northeastern Thailand, and the values always pervade countlessly in Thailand, especially Northeastern people concerned from early times up until the present day.

Regarding the language used in the folktales of Northeastern Thailand, there was use of different kinds of expressions which were widely used. More specifically, uses of explanative diction, exemplificative diction and descriptive diction are all found, led by explanative diction because of the explanative purpose of folktales. Formal language, semi-formal language and colloquial language are present, led by semi-formal and colloquial language, the use of which helps reader understand easily.

With respect to the socio-cultural aspects of the region, the provincial folktales of the Northeastern Thailand reflect not only the beliefs in the society, namely, Buddhism, spirits, death, and the seniority system, but also the way of life in society, namely, clothes, food, castes, and relations of people in the society in accord with their beliefs. With respect to the value of the folktales, it can be clearly said that these are literacy works that originated from intellect and imagination of the Northeastern people and have a major function in communication in Northeastern Thailand. The following four values were found namely, 1) value with respect to language, expression, diction language level, 2) value with respect to society and culture 3) value as a source of knowledge and 4) value in other respects. The way of life of people in the northeastern Thailand has continued from one generation to another. This view seems to be similar to that of Uche (2020) who stated that the way of life of a people is handed down from generation to generation through language.

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Grammaticalization of Transfer Verbs in Mandarin Chinese[*]

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Abstract—**In Mandarin Chinese, historical changes in serial verb constructions have played an important role in the development of grammaticalization. In traditional analyses, few studies have been conducted to investigate connections between the lexical use and grammatical use of a given item (Yin, 2004). The case/voice markers in Mandarin have not been systematically investigated. This study seeks to fill these gaps and systematically investigates grammaticalization of typical Mandarin case/voice markers. The results of the study show that typical case/voice markers in Mandarin have been derived from transfer verbs and that the grammaticalization of Mandarin transfer verbs is not totally random, but motivated. Transfer verbs typically reflect human interactions and manipulations with physical objects, and thus, they can be good candidates to be utilized to indicate interactive relations. It is argued that employing transfer verbs as case/voice markers is motivated by the concepts of motion and transitivity as well (Yin, 2004). The paper demonstrates that in grammaticalization the semantics of lexical items is bleached; however, traces of their original meanings are retained. The study indicates that grammaticalization is a matter of degree and that case/voice markers developed from Mandarin transfer verbs display a continuum along the path of grammaticalization.**

Index Terms—**transfer verb, grammaticalization, case, voice, Mandarin Chinese**

I. INTRODUCTION

Grammaticalization can be viewed as entities undergoing process rather than static objects (Hopper & Traugott, 1993; Yin, 2004). In Mandarin Chinese, it has been noticed by a number of linguists (e.g. Li & Thompson, 1974a; Sun, 1996; Yin, 2004) that historical changes in serial verb constructions have played an important role in the process of grammaticalization in some cases. Essentially the changes "are said to be unidirectional from the major category—verb to the minor category—preposition" in the case of Mandarin Chinese along a grammaticalization continuum (Yin, 2004, p 3).

In order to define a deverbalized item, originally from a lexical verb, which undergoes grammaticalization, a new term—'coverb' has been created to refer to it. There have been some debates on whether a coverb should be analyzed as a real verb or preposition (e.g. Li & Thompson, 1974b; Li, 2018; Yin, 2016). Moreover, traditional analyses tend to analyze different senses of a linguistic item and the relatedness of its different senses was largely ignored. Since metaphorical extended senses or functions of a lexical item were not investigated in most traditional analyses, any motivation behind semantic and functional extensions was left unexplained (Yin, 2004).

Although some studies (e.g. Newman, 1996; Wu, 2003; Yin, 2011) have been conducted to explore the relatedness of various senses of a given item, the Chinese case/vioce marker system has not been systematically explored; the relatedness of the target items and source ones in grammaticalization of case/voice markers in Mandarin Chinese should deserve more studies than it has received (Yin, 2004).

This paper will show that Mandarin typical case/voice markers (i.e. 被 bei—agent/passive marker, 把 ba—object marker, 给 gei—dative marker to indicate recipient or benefactive case and 拿 na—instrumental marker) are derived from transfer verbs. In Mandarin, 被 bei can perform dual functions. It can function as a typical passive voice marker or mark an agent when followed by a noun phrase. The four grammatical markers are used very frequently in Mandarin. In terms of grammaticalization, it is interesting to note that essentially Mandarin transfer verbs have developed into case/voice markers instead of other grammatical categories. This study will demonstrate that the grammaticalization of Mandarin transfer verbs as case/voice markers is not totally random, but motivated.

Langacker (1991a) observes that human beings tend to conceive of the world as being populated by discrete objects, each of which occupies a distinct location. "Some of these objects are capable of moving about and interacting with others, particularly through direct contacts" (Langacker, 1991a, p. 209). Thus, motion and dislocation of discrete objects are basic human concepts. Yin (2004, p 11) claims that "transfer verbs reflect human interactions and manipulations with the objects" and that they "can be good candidates to be used to indicate interactive relations such as affectedness between participants". One typical example is that there are some languages (e.g. Thai, Akan) which use the verb meaning 'take' as an object marker.

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[*] Grammatical abbreviations used in this paper are as follows: CL=Classifier, PART=particle, ASP=aspect.

Employing transfer verbs as case/voice markers is motivated by concepts of motion and transitivity as well (Yin, 2004). Motion often involves energy transfer and transitivity in which the agent (prototypically the subject) transfers energy to the theme (prototypically the object) which often changes its state as the result of energy transfer (Langacker, 1991a; Yin, 2004). Therefore, the fact that Mandarin Chinese case/voice markers typically develop from transfer verbs is hard to predict; however, "this kind of development often makes sense when it takes place" (Yin, 2004, p. 4).

II. GRAMMATICALIZATION OF TRANSFER VERBS 拿 NA 'TAKE' AND 把 BA 'TAKE, HOLD'

The semantic values of 拿 na 'take' and 把 ba 'take, hold' are somewhat similar; however, they are not identical. Their main difference lies in the different locations of focuses on an action chain.

A. Semantic Values of Verbs 拿 Na and 把 Ba

Langacker (1991a) uses the term—action chain to refer to "an interaction network which includes a series of energetic interaction thus inducing a reaction whereby it in turn transfers energy to a third, and so on indefinitely" (Langacker 1991a, p. 215). "The coverage of a finite clause is typical limited to certain facets of the interactive network it invokes" and "in a prototypical transitive clause, the profiled process constitutes an action chain that originates with a canonical agent (volitional energy source) and terminates with a canonical patient (energy sink)" (Langacker, 1991a, p. 215).

In energetic interactions, which involve an instrument in an action chain, often "three participants fall into the scope of predication of a finite clause" and the three participants instantiate the canonical agent (AG), instrument (INSTR) and patient (PAT) roles (Yin, 2004, p. 4). Typically, the agent functions as a subject and the patient acts as an object. "The subject is considered to be the head of the profiled portion of the action chain" and it lies the farthest upstream in the energy flow (Yin, 2004, p. 4). On the other hand, the object turns out to be the tail of the profiled portion in the action chain, occupying the farthest downstream in the flow (Langacker, 1991a). Figure 1 illustrates the canonical agent, instrument and patient roles.
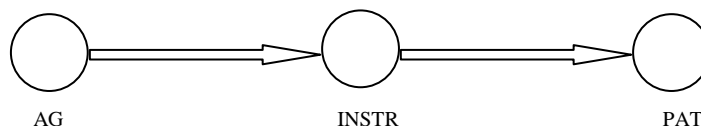

Figure 1   Schema for the Agent, Instrument and Patient Roles

Figure 1 can serve as the base for the semantic values of 拿 na. In an action chain, 拿 na indicates its initial portion or beginning of the action chain and it implies that a subsequent action contained in its base will follow the action of taking. Thus, 拿 na implies an action chain of take-and-then-do. However, the profiled part (bold in the figure) of 拿 na as an instrumental marker is its initial portion and the later stage is relatively non-salient as shown in Figure 2.
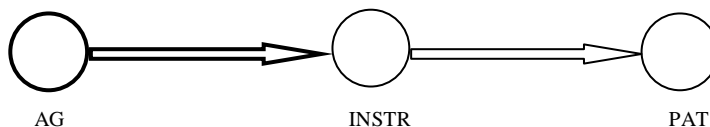
Figure 2 Schema for 拿 na Followed by an Instrument

In contrast, the situation for 把 ba is somewhat different from that of 拿 na. It focuses on the later stage of an action chain. In fact, the traditional interpretation of 把 ba as either 'take' or 'hold' is somewhat misleading and it is better to be interpreted as 'take hold of'. Actually, it involves concepts of 'taking and holding' and a certain period of duration as well. The profiled portion (the bold part) is on the later stage—'the holding part' of the action chain as Figure 3 displays.
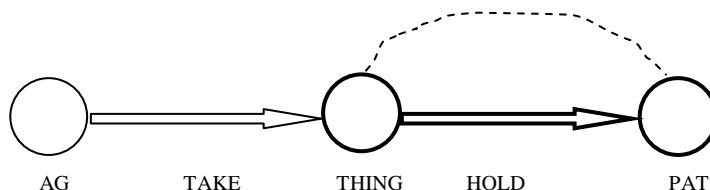
Figure 3 Schema for the Transfer Verb 把 ba

As the dashed line suggests, the thing to be taken is identical to the thing to be held in this action chain. The action chain consists of two parts: the taking part and the holding part. The second part is prominent while the first part is non-salient. Usually, the meaning of 把 ba involves manipulations of objects and thus, the meaning of affectedness is implied in this transfer verb. The profiled portion of 把 ba includes an end state of an action, that is, the completion of an action chain 'take-and-then-hold'.

B. Grammaticalization of 拿 Na 'Take'

(a). Instrument Case Marker

As analyzed, 拿 na profiles the initial portion of the action chain. Therefore, it seems to be a good candidate to act as an instrument marker "since the case of using something often involves the situation to take the instrument first", and thus, "the semantic values of using the instrument are compatible with the meaning of *na* which focuses on an initial portion in an action chain: 'take-do' (take-and-then-do)" (Yin, 2003, p. 206).

In modern Chinese, in addition to a case marker, 拿 na can function as a full lexical verb as (1) shows.

(1)   他从书包里拿书。

        ta   cong school bag   li   na   shu.
        he   from school bag   inside   take   book
        'He took books from the school bag.'

However, the sentence in (2) displays the ambiguity of its lexical use and grammatical use.

(2)   我拿筷子吃饭。

        wo   na   kuaizi   chifan.
        I   take chopstick   eat
        a. 'I took chopsticks and (then) ate.'
        b. 'I ate with chopsticks.'

Li and Thompson (1974a, 1976, 1981) claim that the changes in serial verb constructions play a role in the process of Mandarin Chinese grammticalization, which involves reanalysis. In a serial verb construction reading, the sentence in (2) contains two clauses while in an instrumental reading of 拿 na, the sentence is reanalyzed to contain one clause with the deverbalized 拿 na functioning as an instrumental marker.

When a sentence is employed to express contrast or describe a habitual situation, the preferred reading for 拿 na would be an instrumental reading rather than a serial verb construction reading:

(3) a.   你拿筷子吃饭还是拿调羹吃饭？

         ni   na   kuaizi   chifan   haishi   na   tiaogeng chifan?
         you   take chopstick   eat   or   take spoon   eat
         'Do you eat with chopsticks or with a spoon?'

    b.   你经常拿筷子筷子吃饭吗？

         ni   jingchang   na   kuaizi   chifan   ma?
         you   often   take   chopstick   eat   PART
         'Do you often eat with chopsticks?'

In the two sentences in (3), 拿 na mainly suggests the means to do something rather than the action of taking. If it is a habitual action indicated by the adverbial word of frequency 经常 jingchang 'often', 拿 na's instrumental flavor even becomes stronger.

If the phrase following 拿 na is not a concrete entity, but an abstract thing as (4) shows, it is typical for 拿 na to have an instrumental marker reading since the na's verbal flavor is reduced significantly by the abstract entities following 拿 na.

(4)   我们应该拿新思想看待世界。

        women   yinggai   na   xin sixiang   kandai   shijie.
        we   should   take new thoughts look at   world
        'We should look at the world with new thoughts.'

In fact, the use of 拿 na forms a continuum, with the prototypical serial verb use at one end and the typical instrumental marker use at the other end (Yin, 2003, p. 207). Examples from (1) to (4) display this kind of continuum. Usually the noun following the instrumental 拿 na is insentient since it is typical to have an inanimate object to act as an instrument.

(b). Topic Marker

As a grammatical marker, 拿 na can also function as a topic marker. The meaning of 拿 na 'take' implies the concept of contact. "When the transfer verb is used metaphorically to indicate mental contact, the energy transferred is in the

abstract domain, i.e., from human mind to the thing to be contacted. The topic marker comes into being when na 'take' indicates mental contact and the thing to be taken and picked up serves as a reference point" (Yin, 2003, p. 207).

Langacker (1993, 2013) claims that human cognitive capacity to invoke the conception of one thing as a reference point is for establishing mental contact with another. The mental path to trace the target through a reference point is illustrated in Figure 4.
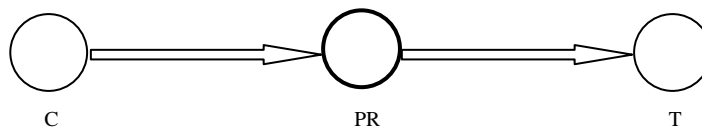

Figure 4   The Mental Path to Trace the Target Through RP

The circle labeled C stands for the conceptualizer and RP represents the reference point. T represents the target—the entity with which the conceptualizer uses the reference point to establish mental contact (Langacker, 1999). The arrows stand for the mental path the conceptualizer follows to trace the target (Langacker, 1999). When 拿 na functions as a reference point, the mental path can be metaphorically viewed as an action or energy transfer chain in the mental domain. In that case, 拿 na profiles the initial stage of the chain and leaves the second half of the chain non-salient as shown in Figure 5.
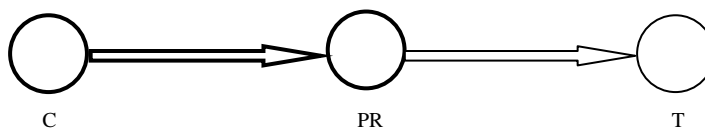

Figure 5   Schema for 拿 na Used as a Reference Point

(5)   拿张三来说，他的舞跳得很好，但学习不好。
na   Zhangsan   lai   shuo,   tade   wu   tiao
take   Zhangsan   come   speak   his   dance   dance (verb)
de   hen hao,   dan   xuexi   bu   hao.
PART (degree) very good   but   study   not   good
'As far as Zhangsan is concerned, his dance is very good, but his studies are not good.'

(6)   拿水果而言，我最喜欢苹果。
na   shuiggo   er   yian,   wo zui   xihuan   pingguo.
take   fruit   PART   talk   I   most   like   apple
'Talking about fruits, I like apples best.'

(Yin, 2003, p. 207)

In (5), 张三 Zhangsan is used as a reference point to trace the things associated with him: his dance and his studies while in (6), fruits serve as a reference point to reach the target of apples. Therefore, 拿 na in these two sentences serve as a topic marker and this kind of use is the metaphorical extension of this transfer verb when the concrete spatial domain is shifted to an abstract domain to indicate mental contact.

(c). Grammaticalization of 把 Ba 'Take and Hold (Take Hold of)'

Maybe in Old Chinese the transfer verb 把 ba would be better to be interpreted as 'take hold of', implying certain duration of an activity and the profiled part of this verb is on the later stage—'the holding portion' (Yin, 2003) as Figure 3 shows. The meaning of this transfer verb includes the concept of manipulations of objects and implies completed affectedness. In the process of grammaticalization of 把 ba as an object marker, the semantics of 把 ba is bleached; however, traces of the meaning of 把 ba as a lexical verb can be observed and the use of 把 ba as a case marker can be regarded as the functional extension of this verb (Yin, 2003). In the case of 把 ba as an object marker, basically, the meaning of affectedness motivates its extension.

The semantic or functional extension of a linguistic expression from its existing meaning to a new one will usually be motivated by a relation that language users perceive between the existing and the new designata (Lichtenberk, 1991; Yin, 2002). Lakoff (1987) claims that semantic and functional extensions are not completely arbitrary. If a semantic extension happens, it usually makes sense (Lakoff, 1987; Yin, 2002). The meaning of 把 ba implies manipulations and affectedness of the objects being held. In the case of 把 ba as an object marker, basically, the meaning of affectedness motivates its extension.

1. Emergence of 把 Ba as an Object Marker

In Old Chinese before the Tang dynasty, 把 ba was a lexical verb meaning 'take hold of' and it was used in a single predicate sentence (Yin, 2004) as in (7):

(7)   左手把其袖
       zuo shou   ba   qi   xiu
       left hand   hold   his   sleeve
       'The left-hand holds his sleeve.'

                                                                                                  (Sun, 1996, p. 61)

In Middle Chinese, 把 ba became increasing associated with a serial-verb construction (Sun 1996) as the examples in (8) and (9) show.

(8)   诗句无人识应把剑看
       shi   ju   wu   ren   appreciate should hold   sword   see
       poem   sentence no   man   appreciate should hold   sword   see
       'Since no one appreciates poetry, I should take hold of the sword to contemplate it.'

                                                                                                  (Lord, 1993, p. 115)

(9)   醉把花看益自伤
       zui   ba   hua   kan   yi   zi   shang
       drunk   hold   flower   watch   more   self   hurt
       'Drunk, I look at the flower by holding it, even more broken-hearted.'

                                                                                                  (Sun, 1996, p. 62)

In (8) and (9), 把 ba is used as a transfer verb to mean 'take hold of'; it is used as the first verb in a serial verb construction (Yin, 2004).

In the seventh to ninth century, the lexical item 把 ba assumed an ambiguous status between a verb and prepositional object case marker and the example in (10) suggests two possible interpretations (Yin, 2004):

(10)   醉把竹根子细看
        zui   ba   zhu-gen-zi   xi   kan
        drunk   BA   dogwood-tree   careful look
a.   'While drunk, (I) took hold of the dogwood and carefully looked at it.'
b.   'While drunk, (I) carefully looked at the dogwood.'

                                                                                                  (Li & Thompson, 1976, p. 485)

The example in (10) provides the staging for a reanalysis of the transfer verb 把 ba 'take hold of' as an object case marker and the collapsing of what had once a serial verb construction which contains two clauses (interpretation 10a) into a single clause (interpretation 10b) (Hopper & Traught, 1993; Yin, 2004).

The process of grammaticalization of 把 ba as an object case marker began in the late Tang dynasty (around 9th c. AD) (Li & Thompson, 1974a; Yin, 2004). Example (11) from the Tang dynasty illustrates the use of 把 ba as an object case marker:

(11)   莫把杭州刺史欺
        mo ba Hangzhou   cishi   qi
        not BA Hangzhou   magistrate   deceive
        'Do not deceive the magistrate of Hnagzhou.'

                                                                                                  (Sun, 1996, p. 62)

2. Semantic Constrains of the 把 Ba-Construction

In Middle Chinese, 把 ba went through a process of semantic abstraction, which bleached some of its concrete verbal meanings and became an object marker (Sun, 1996); however, some components or traces of the original verb meanings are still at work in this construction. In modern Chinese, although the 把 ba construction is used extensively, there are semantic constraints on the use of the 把 ba construction and these constraints such as total affectedness, temporal boundedness, and definiteness reflect the traces of 把 ba's original verb meaning.

(1). Total Affectedness

The 把 ba construction has been considered a highly transitive type of clause (Hopper & Thompson, 1980). This is because this verb's core meaning of total affectedness is extended to the 把 ba construction in modern Mandarin Chinese since the verb meaning of 把 ba indicates manipulations and affectedness of an object and it implies the completion of an action chain as well. It was first observed by Tai (1984) that the 把 ba construction suggests the completion of an event.

The two sentences in (12) strongly suggest that the basic function of the 把 ba construction is to indicate the completion of an action or the complete affectedness of the object, which immediately follows 把 ba (Sun, 1996).

(12)   a.   *他把苹果吃了，但是没吃完。
             *ta   ba   pingguo chi le,   danshi   mei   chi   wan.

<div style="text-align: center">he   BA   apple   eat   ASP,   but   not   eat   finish.</div>

b. 他吃了苹果，但是没吃完。

      ta   chi   le   pingguo,   danshi mei chi wan.

      he   eat   ASP   apple   but   not eat finish

      'He has eaten the apple, but did not eat it up.'

In (12b) without the 把 ba construction, there is no implication of eating up the apple even though the temporal structure in this sentence is bounded indicated by the aspect particle le. However, with the 把 ba construction, the presupposition of the sentence is different. It implies the total affectedness of the event of eating up the apple. The suggestion of the unfinished apple in the second clause of (12a) contradicts such a presupposition and as a result the sentence in (12a) is unacceptable.

(2). Temporal Boundedness

The verb meaning of 把 ba implies a complete action chain as Figure 3 indicates, and thus, it involves a starting point and an ending point to specify a conceptual boundary of an event. Its verb meaning of temporal boundedness is retained in the 把 ba construction.

(13)   a.   *你把头抬

          *ni   ba   tou   tai

          you   BA   head   raise

      b.   你把头抬一下。

          ni   ba   tou   tai   yi   xia.

          you   BA   head   raise   once   CL

          'I raised (my) head once.'

(14)   a.   *我已经把书看

          *wo   yijing   ba   shu   kan

          I   already BA   book   read

      b.   我已经把书看完。

          wo yijing   ba   shu   kan   wan.

          I   already BA   book   read   finish

          'I've already finished reading the book.'

The temporal structure of the 把 ba construction should be bounded. (13a) and (14a) do not sound good exactly because of the temporal uncertainty. With the numeral-classifier construction 一下 yi xia 'once' in (13b), the event is then temporally bounded and there must be a beginning point and an ending point in the event of raising one's head once (Sun, 1996). In the case of (14b), the complement 完 wan 'finish' with the sense of completion provides a temporal boundary to the event (Ji, 1997).

(3). Definiteness

If somebody takes hold of an object, the object should be definite. Moreover, if something is totally affected, which is implied by the original verb 把 ba, the thing should be specific, not a generic term or indefinite referent. In the case of 把 ba functioning as an object marker, the semantic constraint of definiteness from the original verb meaning 把 ba is transferred to the 把 ba construction.

(15)   他把苹果吃了。

        ta   ba   pingguo chi   le.

        he   BA   apple   eat   ASP

        'He ate the apple.'

        *'He ate an apple'.

<div style="text-align: right">(Sun, 1996, p. 53)</div>

In Mandarin Chinese, a bare nominal like pingguo 'apple' in (15) can be either definite or indefinite depending on contexts; however, the indefinite reading of the bare nominal after 把 ba is not possible due to one of the basic functions of 把 ba, which indicates total affectedness of an entity. If the existence of the entity marked in the 把 ba construction is not presupposed in the discourse or contexts, there would be no reason for us to "speak of the complete affectedness of something that is nonexistent. Maybe this is why the NP marked by 把 ba cannot be nonspecific" (Sun, 1996, p. 58).

III. GRAMMATICALIZATION OF TRANSFER VERBS 被 BEI 'RECEIVE' AND 给 GEI 'GIVE'

Prior to the discussion of the grammaticalization of transfer verbs 被 bei 'receive' and 给 gei 'give' in this section, it will be helpful to analyze semantic values of these two verbs.

A. Semantic Values of Verbs 给 Gei and 被 Bei

给 gei 'give' and 被 bei 'receive' (used as a verb in Old Chinese) from which the 被 bei passive construction is derived, have the same base, involving three participants: the giver, the thing, the receiver (Yin, 2004). 'Give' involves an energy flow of an action chain, which is initiated by the benevolent giver who is the energy source and ends up with the recipient who is the energy sink while 'receive' focuses more on the later stage of this transfer and the receiver acts as the main participant (Langacker, 1991a; Yin, 2004). The three participants involved in the two verbs are AGENT, RECEIVER and MOVER. The receiver is the final possessor and the experiencer to perceive the change of possession (Yin, 2004). In 'give', the agent is selected as the subject; however, in 'receive', the receiver is chosen as the subject. In both, the mover acts as the object (Yin, 2004).

The semantic contrast of the two verbs lies less in conceptual content than in grammatical relations (Langacker, 1991a; Yin, 2004). For the verb 'give', the subject is an agent while for the verb 'receive' the subject is the receiver (Yin, 2004). Langacker (1991b) observes that the receiver represents a highly marked choice of subject since its role is passive, that is, the giver is agentive but the receiver does not necessarily do anything at all; hence, in giving and receiving, the giver essentially is in control and the receiver plays a relatively passive role in the act of transfer (Yin, 2004). In non-spatial domains or in non-direct transfer acts such as 送 song 'send', 寄 ji 'post' the passive meaning of receiving is even more prominent. For example, in the sentence: 'I received an invitation, but I didn't accept it', the subject received something passively but declined it actively. Yin (2004) claims that the implication of the passive role from the semantics of the original verb 被 bei 'receive' motivates the extension of the 被 bei passive construction.

B. Grammaticalization of 被 Bei 'Receive'

In Old Chinese, 被 bei was originally a verb, meaning 'receive' and the example in (16) illustrates its verbal usage.

(16)   被水寒之害
        bei   shui   han   zhi   hai
        receive water   cold   of   damage
        'Receive damage from flood and cold.'

                                                                                                      (Sun, 1996, p. 63)

One possible explanation for the emergence of 被 bei as a passive marker was a consequence of a word-order neutralization associated with two types of verbs formally distinguished between actor and undergoer subjects (Yin, 2004). For some verbs in Old Chinese, there were word-order constraints on the subject positions (Mei, 1991; Sun, 1996). Certain verbs allowed only actor subjects while some others allowed only undergoer subjects (Yin, 2004).

(17)   岸崩尽压杀卧着者
        an   beng   jin ya-sha   wozhe
        bank   break   all press-kill   sleepers
        'The bank gave away, killing all the sleeping people.'

                                                                                                      (Sun, 1996, p. 64)

(18)   百余人炭崩尽压死
        bai   yu   ren   tan   beng   jin ya-si
        hundred more   people   mine   break   all press-die
        'More than one hundred people were killed in the collapse of the mine.'

                                                                                                      (Sun, 1996, p. 64)

In (17), the serial verb ya-sha 'press-kill' as V-sha type in Old Chinese requires an actor as its subject while in (18), the serial verb ya-si 'press-die' as a V-si type requires an undergoer as its subject (Yin, 2004).

In Middle Chinese such a distinction was neutralized (Sun, 1996). The example in (19) shows that an actor subject appears before a V-si type verb, which was not allowed in Old Chinese (Sun, 1996; Yin, 2004):

(19)   主人欲打死之
        zhuren   yu   da -si   zhi
        master   want   hit-die   him
        'The master wants to kill him.'

                                                                                                      (Sun, 1996, p. 64)

Mei (1991) noticed that the neutralization process started in the Han period (206 BC-220 AD) and stabilized in the Tang period. The process of neutralization could lead to possible ambiguity in communication since the subject for the V-si could be either the person who was the actor or the person who was the patient affected by the action. "The grammaticalization of 被 bei right at this time functioned to mark the passive construction. In a way, it functioned to alleviate a potential communicative problem by indicating that the subject was not an actor" (Sun, 1996, p. 65).

(20)   独坐堂上夜被刺死
        du   zuo tang   shang,   ye   bei   ci-si
        alone   sit hall   up   night   BEI   stab-die
        'Sitting alone in the hall, (he) was stabbed to death at night.'

                                                                                                      (Sun, 1996, p. 65)

In (20), the potential subject, which happened to be a zero anaphora, of a V-si type serial verb, was indicated to be a non-agent by the passive marker 被 bei (Sun, 1996).

There is some evidence to suggest that the neutralization process and the development of the 被 bei as a passive construction marker started almost at the same time (Li & Thompson 1974a; Yin, 2004). In the Han dynasty (206 BC-220 AD) when the neutralization started to emerge, 被 bei began to act as a grammatical marker and at that stage the 被 bei passive construction did not have an agent (Li & Thompson 1974a) as (21) shows:

(21)　忠而被谤
　　　zhong　　er　　bei　　　　bang
　　　loyal　　yet　　BEI　　　　villify
　　　'Loyal and yet was villified.'

(Li & Thompson, 1974a, p. 203)

At an early process of grammaticalization, 被 bei seems to indicate that the nominal before 被 bei is not an actor to solve the potential ambiguity. Then in the Tang Dynasty 被 bei began to emerge as a grammatical component to introduce an actor in addition to its function as a passive marker (Wang, 1958), as (22) indicates.

(22)　常被老元偷格律
　　　chang　　bei　　lao　Yuan　　tou　　　ge-lv
　　　often　　pass　　old　Yuan　　steal　　rhyme-scheme
　　　'(My) prosodic scheme was frequently stolen by Old Yuan.'

(Sun, 1996, p. 64)

In (22), a verb reading of 被 bei, meaning 'receive' is not available and instead, 被 bei acts as a passive marker and also indicates that the nominal immediately follows 被 bei assumes an actor role (Yin, 2004).

The 被 bei passive construction emerged relatively early and it has gone through one intermediate stage to simply function as a passive marker without marking an agent before developing into its present stage to introduce an actor as well (Li & Thompson, 1974a; Yin, 2004).

C. Grammaticalization of 给 Gei 'Give'

Newman (1993) suggests that different meanings related to 给 gei 'give' are unpredictable, but motivated and that the typical case of 给 gei 'give' is that someone who has something passes it with his/her hands to another one. As Figure 6 shows, the focus of 'give' is on the initial part of the action chain; nevertheless, the complicated connections between the receiver and the thing being moved is included in the base as well (Langacker, 1991a; Yin, 2004). "In most cases, the semantic extension brings into focus some facet of the basic human experience of giving something to someone" (Newman, 1993, p. 479). There are various ways to extract subparts of the literal meaning of 'give' or to extend the metaphorical meaning to other semantic fields (Fagerli, 2001). For instance, in the case of 给 gei 'give' in Mandarin Chinese, the mover could be extended to denote abstract entities (Yin, 2004). Thus, when 给 gei is used as a lexical verb, the mover can be a concrete object as in (23) or an abstract entity as in (24).

(23)　我给了他一台电脑。
　　　wo　　　gei　　　le　　　ta　yi　tai　diannao.
　　　I　　　give　　　ASP　　him　one　CL　电脑.
　　　'I gave him a computer.'

(24)　老师给了我一个好主意。
　　　laoshi　　gei　　　le　　　wo　yi　ge　hao　　　zhuyi.
　　　Teacher　give　　　ASP　　me　one　CL　good　　idea
　　　'The teacher gave me a good idea.'

(Yin, 2004, p. 9)

In addition to functioning as a verb, 给 gei can act as a recipient marker. The recipient marker 给 gei "invokes a scene in which some transfer takes place" (Newman, 1996, p. 212). It can be used to "plot the path of an object sent by an agent" to a recipient and it "has the same base as GIVE-type predicates which includes a GIVER, a THING, and a RECIPIENT" (Newman, 1993, p. 446). The recipient marker 给 gei can often be used with many GIVE-type predicates such as 送 song 'send', 寄 ji 'mail', 交 jiao 'hand in', 还 huan 'give back', 买 mai 'buy'.

(25)　他寄了一封信给我。
　　　ta　ji　　　le　　　yi　feng　　　xin　　　gei　wo
　　　he　mail　　ASP　　one　CL　　　letter　　to　me
　　　'He mailed a letter to me.'

(26)　我交了作业给他。
　　　wo　　　jiao　　le　　　zuoye　　　gei　ta
　　　I　　　hand in　ASP　　assignment　to　him
　　　'I handed in the assignment to him.'

Benefactive marker is another grammatical role for 给 gei to perform. There are some connections between the recipient and the benefactive use since benefactive use is for the sake of or to the benefit of somebody and is to the recipient advantage (Yin, 2003). "The scenario whereby giving something results in some kind of benefit to the recipient is a natural and frequent occurrence in human experience" (Newman, 1993, p. 459). When 给 gei functions as a benefactive marker, it usually occurs before a main verb.

(27)   他给儿子开了个银行账户。

ta	gei	erzi	kai	le	ge	yinhang zhanghu.
he	for	son	open	ASP	CL	bankaccount

'He opened a bank account for his son.'

(28)   我给他寄了一封信。

wo	gei	ta	ji	le	yi	feng	xin.
I	for	him/her	mail	ASP	one	CL	letter.

'I mailed a letter for him.'

(Li & Thompson, 1981, p. 388)

However, when 给 gei occurs before a main verb as a grammatical marker, it is not necessarily a benefactive marker. With some verbs, both the recipient interpretation and benefactive interpretation are equally possible as in (29).

(29)   我给他写了一封信。

wo	gei	ta	xie	le	yi	feng	xin.
I	for/to	him	write	ASP	one	CL	letter.

'I wrote a letter for him.' or 'I wrote a letter to him'.

(Li & Thompson, 1981, p. 387)

Which kind of interpretation will survive mainly depends on contexts. In (29), if the letter was written and then posted to him, 给 gei should be interpreted as a recipient marker. However, in (29) if 他 ta 'he' asked me to write a letter and then he would send it to someone else, the recipient interpretation would be no longer available.

Mandarin Chinese is not the only language to use a verb which means 'give' as the dative marker. In a number of languages (e.g. Thai, Vietnamese, Cambodian, Akan, Hokkien, Yoruba, Ewe, Sranan) a verb meaning 'give' can be used to mark the recipient or the benefective or both.

(30) a. mi   wroko   gi   en.

I	worked	give	him.

'I   worked for him.'

(Fagerli, 2001, p. 211)

b. chan   song   nans   hai   dek.

I	sent	book	give	child

'I sent a book to a child.' / 'I sent a book for the child.'

(Newman, 1996, p. 213)

In (30a), the verb gi 'give' in Sranan marks the benefactive marker and in (30b) hai 'give' in Thai functions as a recipient or benefactive marker.

IV. GRAMMATICALIZAITON: A MATTER OF DEGREE

Grammaticalizaiton is the process whereby lexical items can come in certain contexts to perform grammatical functions and it can be viewed from the diachronic perspective (Hopper & Traught, 1993). As discussed in the previous sections, typical case/voice markers have developed from transfer verbs in Mandarin Chinese. The development is said to be unidirectional from the major category—verb to the minor category—preposition (or coverb as defined by some linguists) along a grammaticalization continuum. However, the rate of changes from transfer verbs to case/voice markers is not uniform and some members in this category are still in the ongoing process of grammaticalization.

Yin (2004) claims that the passive/agent marker 被 bei developed from a lexical verb meaning 'receive' to a full-fledged case marker and that it underwent an intermediate stage to mark a passive construction only without introducing an agent. However, in modern Mandarin Chinese, the verb reading for 被 bei 'receive' is not available any longer; however, the passive implication from this verb is still carried over to the 被 bei construction (Yin, 2004).

In Mandarin Chinese, 把 ba is basically used as an object marker though it retains some traces of its original verb meaning such as total affectedness, temporal boundedness and definitiveness. In modern Mandarin when it is used as a verb, it cannot occur alone except in some idioms. In (31), 把 ba is used as a verb; however, it occurs together with another verb 握 wo 'grasp' to form a compound verb.

(31)   我们必须把握这个机会。

women	bixi	ba-wo	zhe	ge	hao	jihui.
we	should	hold-grasp	this	CL	good	opportunity

'We should grasp this good opportunity.'

The original transfer verb 把 ba 'take hold of' has quite developed into a case marker. However, it has not developed as a full-fledged case marker as 被 bei and the process is still going on. It originally marked a concrete thing as an object of a verb; however, it has started to mark a non-concrete entity as an object in recent years as in (32).

(32)　我朋友把秘密说出来了。

wo	pengyou	ba	mimi	shuo	chulai	le.
my	friend	BA	secret	speak	out	ASP

'My friend spoke out his secret.'

Using a transfer verb like 把 ba 'take' as an object marker may not be total random. In some West African languages such as Akan, Ga, Twi, the verb which means 'take' is also used to mark an object (Lord, 1982).

The other two transfer verbs are not as well developed as 被 bei and 把 ba to function as case markers. The transfer verb 给 gei 'give' can be used either as a lexical verb or case marker to perform multiple functions in modern Mandarin Chinese (Yin, 2004). 给 gei 'give' manifests its verb status when it serves as a main predicate. When used with another verb in a clause, it often functions as a case marker. However, even if it performs a grammatical function, it can still signal its verb flavor.

(33)　你给不给我买书？

ni	gei	bu	gei	wo	mai	shu?
you	give	not	give	me	buy	book

'Do you buy a book for me?'

(34)　他给了我买了一本书。

*ta	gei	le	wo	mai	le	yi	ben	shu	.
he	give	ASP	me	buy	ASP	one	CL	book	

In Mandarin Chinese, verbs can enter into V(erb)-not-V(erb) constructions to form questions and it can also take 'aspect' particles such as 了 le 'perfective', 着 zhe 'progressive'. In the case of 给 gei as a case marker, it is able to enter into the V-not-V construction; nevertheless, it cannot take an aspectual marker such as 了 le 'perfective' as a normal lexical verb does.

Another transfer verb 拿 na 'take' can function as an instrument marker. However, it is still in the process of grammaticalization. 拿 Na can be used either as a full lexical verb or as an instrumental marker in modern Mandarin. When it is used to mark an instrument marker, it still shares some properties with its regular verb.

(35)　你拿不拿筷子吃饭？

ni	na	bu	na	kuaizi	chifan?
you	take	not	take	chopsticks	eat

'Do you eat with chopsticks?'

(36)　他拿了筷子吃饭。

ta	na	le	kuaizi	chifan.
he	take	ASP	chopsticks	eat

'He ate with chopsticks.'

As (35) and (36) show, 拿 na can enter into V-not-V constructions, and moreover, it is able to take an aspectual particle like the perfective aspect marker le. In the case of the transfer verb 拿 na to serve as a case marker, its verb flavor is the strongest among the four transfer verbs, which function as grammatical markers.

Therefore, the grammaticalization of Mandarin transfer verbs as case/voice markers is a matter of degree. Figure 6 displays a continuum along the path of the development of grammaticalization with 拿 na as being the least grammatical and with 被 bei as being the most grammatical among the four transfer verbs functioning as grammatical markers.
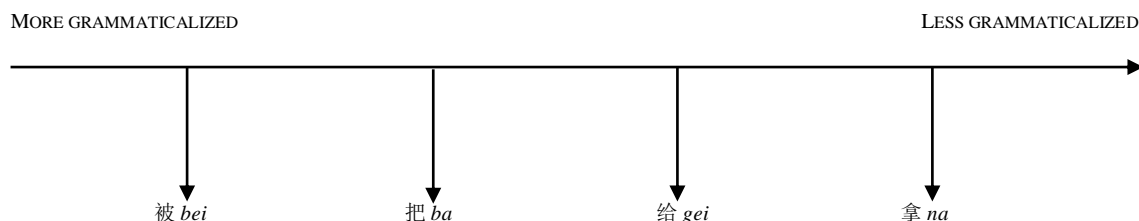
MORE GRAMMATICALIZED　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　LESS GRAMMATICALIZED

被 *bei*　　　　　　把 *ba*　　　　　　给 *gei*　　　　　　拿 *na*

Figure 6　　Continuum of Grammaticalization

V. CONCLUSIONS

It has been shown in this paper that typical case/voice markers in Mandarin Chinese have developed from transfer verbs. "Transfer verbs usually involve an energy flow along an action chain" (Yin, 2004, p.11). As illustrated, originally

拿 na and 给 gei focus more on the initial portion of the energy flow while 把 ba and 被 bei focus more on the later portion of the flow. When 给 gei functions as a lexical verb, its subject can be the energy source; however, when it marks a dative case, the recipient or the benefactive can be viewed as the energy sink. In the case of 被 bei, at the earlier stage 被 bei only marked the passive subject or the passive construction. Later it developed to mark the agent as well, and the agent, of course, is in the source domain of the energy flow of an action chain. According to two binary parameters, the systematic relationships of case/voice markers are illustrated in Table 1.

TABLE 1
SYSTEMATIC RELATIONSHIPS OF CASE/VOICE MARKERS

	Source domain	Target (recipient) domain
Active (sentient)	AGENT (Passive) 被 *bei*	DATIVE (recipient/benefactive) 给 *gei*
Passive (non-sentient)	INSTRUMENT 拿 *na* NP [inanimate]	PATIENT (object/theme) 把 *ba*

The distinction between the source domain and the target (recipient) domain is based on energy transmission. Agents and instruments transfer energy to downstream participants and the other roles in this energy transfer are generally recipients. A further distinction is made in each domain between active and passive participants. The agent and the recipient/benefactive are grouped as active participants mainly on the basis of their necessary sentience. On the other hand, the instrument is usually inanimate and the patient or the theme is generally the passively affected entity and often serves as a direct object (Langacker, 1991a).

The grammaticalization of Mandarin transfer verbs as case/voice markers is not totally random, though unpredictable, but motivated. Transfer verbs often reflect human interactions and manipulations with physical objects. In this sense, transfer verbs can be good candidates to be employed to indicate interactive relations such as affectedness between participants (Yin, 2004). The development of case/voice markers can be analyzed as semantic/functional extensions. It has been demonstrated in this paper that there is certain relatedness between the original lexical verb and the grammatical marker. In some cases, the changes in serial verb constructions play a role in the process of Mandarin Chinese grammaticalization, which involves reanalysis. Former verbs in serial verb constructions were reanalyzed as case/voice markers, and thus, two clauses were collapsed into one clause. In the process of gramaticalization, usually the semantics of the lexical item is bleached; however, traces of its original meanings are retained in many cases. In some cases, the changes from transfer verbs to case markers do not stop at present and they are still in the ongoing process. The grammaticalization of Mandarin transfer verbs as case/voice markers is a matter of degree. They display a continuum along the path of the development of grammaticalization with 拿 na as being the least grammatical and with 被 bei as being the most grammatical.

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Digitizing Cultural Practices: Efforts to Increase Students' Cultural Knowledge and Reading Interest in Bali

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Abstract—The recent digital era has brought a disruptive impact to the conventional cultural practices. This may take the form of printed media-based learning materials that have been widely and recently used by students who are considered the agents of change in the context of cultural preservation. The Balinese cultural preservation, for instance, is carried out in accordance with the vision of the Governor of Bali, namely *Nangun Sat Kerthi Loka Bali*, which is intended to lead to a new era of Bali by organizing fundamentally and comprehensively the development of Bali which includes such three main aspects as nature, people, and culture. The cultural preservation includes the cultural knowledge and cultural experience, language(s) as well as reading interest. However, data from the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), suggest that the reading interest of people in Indonesia is significantly low, around 0.01 percent. This means that, out of 10,000 children in Indonesia, only 1 student is quoted as enjoying reading. Therefore, this study aims to describe the increase of both cultural knowledge and cultural experience and students' reading interest in Bali through the digitization of Balinese cultural practices. The digitization of Balinese cultural practices, which applies both virtual reality and ethnographic methods, tends to bring an increase of both cultural knowledge and cultural experience. Once the digitization was applied to students in Bali, their reading interest was ultimately and significantly increased.

Index Terms—digitization, cultural practices, reading interest, cultural knowledge, cultural experience

I. INTRODUCTION

Language and culture are reciprocally interrelated. This relationship can be viewed from two perspectives. The first views language as part of culture. Language is the cultural product of a complex and active society. Language is dynamic and can change according to the cultural development of a society. Language reflects the cultural wealth that exists in a society. The second views language as a means of understanding the culture of a society. Language is influenced by the culture of a society. The relationship between language and culture can be seen in the Balinese language, so that the Balinese language can be considered as a culture-specific language of which Balinese people are rich in such cultures as Balinese cultural practices.

Balinese cultural practices are then preserved, promoted, and ultimately utilized by Balinese people. Efforts towards the promotion and preservation of culture are often done, for example, by incorporating elements of Balinese culture as local content in the curriculum, which purposefully helps students understand Balinese cultural practices. The incorporation may take the form of digitizing cultural practices that has been widely implemented. However, efforts to preserve and promote culture are not easy to do. One of the main factors is the lack of rapid transfer of knowledge to students. The transfer of knowledge is even less sophisticated and does not deal with the digital aspect that the young generation prefers in recent times. This may lead to stagnation of students' cultural knowledge on the one hand. On the other hand, their reading interest is still low. Data from the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) shows that Indonesian children's reading interest is only 0.01 percent. It means that out of 10,000 children of the nation, only one person likes to read (Solihin et al., 2019).

Previous researchers have developed studies on digitizing cultures. Baetens et al. (2017) examine the impact of digitization the digital revolution on archives from the perspective of Youri Lotman's cultural semiotics. Social effect of digitization the relationship between the private and public and in the interaction between work and the media are examined. Based on the assumption that the method applied in digitization is not fixed and inhomogeneous, the

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digitization can change meaning dynamic phenomena, practices, developments. In research from Beatens et al. (2007), it was found that: firstly, cultural heritage is the cause and effect of acts of transmission within a culture, in social groups and from one generation to the other. Secondly, it exists only through attempts to make it exist, whether it is preserved in its original form or to change it more radically; thirdly, inheritance is never consensual, unanimous. This has an impact of the formation of human life and human culture both internally and externally. Moreover, the idea of transmission is that which is an action inseparable from the material characteristics of the medium. Furthermore, it is never just solidification, conservation, preservation, i.e., a form of combating the natural erosion of memory caused by continuous events that also seek a place in memory space. This is a form of intervention in the content and form of what is to be transmitted. In the end, transmission is possible only at the expense of change: without permanent adaptation, the mismatch between inheritance and current evolution would be too great. Cultural intervention in this transmission takes various forms: one must sort, correct, (re)write in context, in short, one must allow the object to function as a sign, a living element susceptible to activation by new interpreters and users (Beatens et al., 2007).

Taylor et al. (2017) write about digitisation, digital interaction, and social media: embedded barriers to democratic heritage. The democratization of heritage through digital access is a well-documented aspiration. This includes innovative ways to manage interpretation, express legacy values, and create experiences through legacy decoding. In research from Taylor (2017), the decoding of heritage becomes democratic, more polyvocal than didactic exhibition, and less dependent on experts. However, decisions on digitizing inheritance through coding does not necessarily become part of this democratization. Digitization can amplify official legacy discourse through the three-dimensional lens of Stephen Lukes' (increasingly refined) power: conflict resolution, control of expression, and preference formation. All three dimensions have an impact on how public values are represented in heritage contexts, but the introduction of digitization requires more resources, expertise, and training in established professional discourses. It was further found that social media may have a positive impact on the first two dimensions, but it can strengthen hegemony. The alternative is subject to epistemic populism. The role of digitization and social media in the democratization of heritage needs to be better understood. The nature and processes of digital interaction, in terms of accessible heritage, influence the democratization issues that digitization seems to promote (Taylor et al., 2017).

Salazar (2005) writes about digitizing knowledge: anthropology and new practices of digitextuality. In research from Salazar (2005) it was found that the subject of digitizing cultural knowledge in relation to new intertextual possibilities in visual anthropology made possible by digital media. New media present several challenges as well as opportunities to decolonize anthropological research through a process of documentation, visualization, and collaboration. These aspects are examined by concentrating on collaborative video documentaries produced with the participation of native Mapuche media makers in Chile. The final product—a 48-minute documentary—is in part an attempt to test how visual sampling and remixing of written footage can be understood as a new form of collaborative storytelling in practice-based research (Salazar, 2005).

Revianur (2020) writes about the digitization of cultural heritage in Indonesia: a new perspective on preserving cultural heritage during the Hindu-Buddhist period in Semarang regency. In research from Revianur (2020), technology with all its forms of progress provides alternative ideas for preserving cultural heritage. This cultural heritage is lost due to rapid modernization. The concern that is highlighted for preserving cultural heritage is done by digitizing the cultural heritage. This means that digitization is carried out only to prevent further damage and at the same time encourage the importance of cultural heritage sites to the public through digital media. Digitization is done by creating an interactive system database on cultural heritage in Semarang. Three main perspectives were carried out to develop the project, namely content information based on archaeological surveys, website design construction, and evaluation. The first perspective is used to collect information about the archaeological aspects of cultural heritage in Semarang. The second perspective is carried out to develop a website prototype based on data from previous research. The third perspective is to evaluate and improve the website prototype. The results show that digitizing cultural heritage is not only useful for preservation, but also for public engagement and facilitating cultural learning (Revianur, 2020).

Following the digitization works of previous researchers, this article is designed to prove that cultural digitization can increase both students' cultural knowledge and reading interest in Bali. Digitization is an effective and efficient access regarding the conversion process from analogue to digital, from using paper to digital. Meanwhile, cultural digitization is an activity of transferring media of cultural products. Digitization involves the process of converting paper media into digital media using digital technology, so that it has a significant impact on its users. For this reason, however, none of them have developed their studies towards increasing children's interest in reading Therefore, this study tries to develop a study on the digitization of Balinese cultural practices that affect both cultural knowledge and the reading interest. This study, more significantly, is beneficial for cultural preservation. More specifically, this study is useful for increasing the cultural understanding and cultural experience of students as well as increasing their reading interest in terms of Balinese cultural practices.

II. METHODS

Three different methods are applied according to the problems formulated above. The three methods are (1) virtual reality method, (2) virtual ethnography method, and (3) qualitative descriptive method. The virtual reality method was used for the development of digitizing cultural practices. Virtual ethnography method was used to assess cultural

knowledge and cultural experience. Qualitative descriptive method was used to see the impact of cultural digitization on increasing both students' cultural knowledge and reading interest.

Virtual reality is a method applied to develop the digitization of cultural practices with steps such as data base documentaries, visualization, and data design, and the animated achieve. First, Balinese cultural practices are well documented, and classified based on cultural realities and cultural activities. Second, contents are designed in three languages: Indonesian as the default and Balinese and English as the development. Third, visualizations are designed in static and dynamic forms. Static visualization is designed for cultural reality using cut-to-cut techniques or like video slides, while dynamic visualization is designed for cultural activities using animated video techniques. Finally, combine all the parts are combined and edited in such a way before coding and saving.

The virtual ethnography method is developed for improving cultural knowledge and cultural experience. Elements of technology and digital bring various changes to other cultural elements. Cultural knowledge and cultural experience as elements of culture seems to have undergone very significant changes. The interaction between virtual information technology and the real practice of cultural practices has an influence on changes in people's habits or customs. This interaction and growth of virtual technology gives birth to a new generation of habitus. This change gives birth to a new paradigm in viewing or analyzing the virtualization phenomenon in human cultural life.

The descriptive-qualitative method was used to describe the impact of digitizing multimedia-based products on school-age children in terms of increasing interest in reading. In this case the instrument used is a questionnaire that is made openly. Representatives of elementary, middle, and high school children are used as respondents to provide answers to the questionnaire. A total of 306 respondents were given, after which respondents' answers were grouped and then analyzed and commented on qualitatively, especially related to increasing cultural knowledge, cultural experience, and the impact of cultural digitization for increasing interest in reading for school-age children in Bali.

III. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Some of the information obtained from respondents was in the form of their perceptions of several items, such as the existence of current reading materials and the digitization of these cultural reading materials. After that, the increase of cultural knowledge and reading interest of students in Bali are described accordingly. This is illustrated in Figure 1.
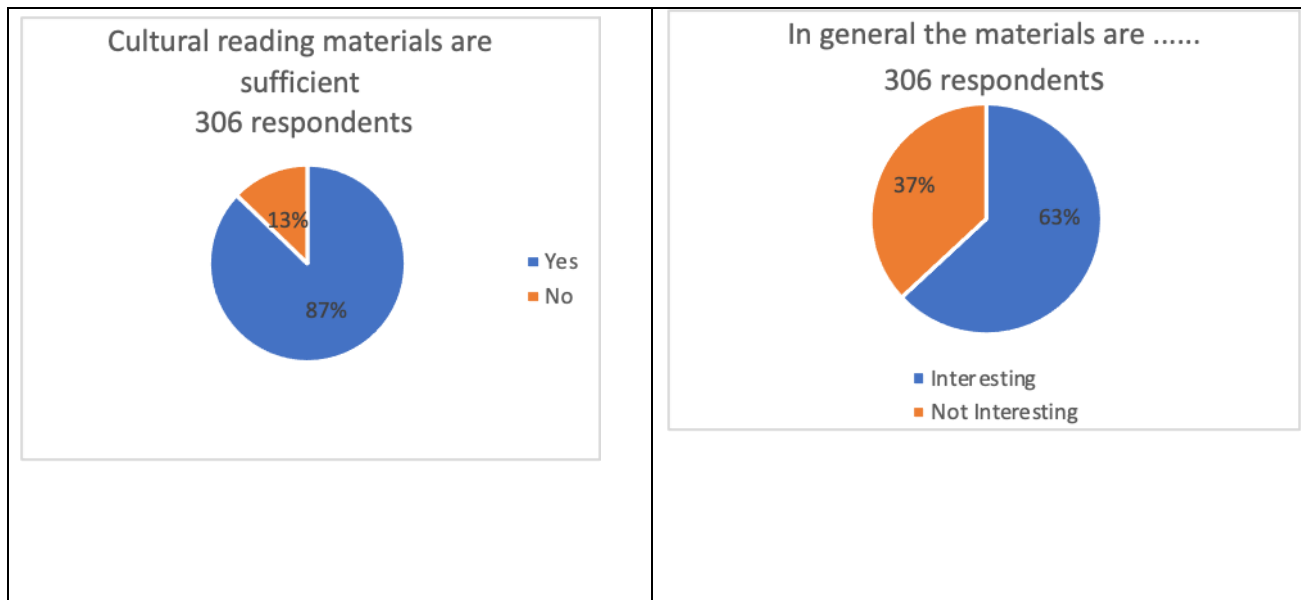

Figure 1. The Availability of Cultural Reading Materials

Figure 1 shows that cultural reading materials are still stored conventionally, in the form of printed media. Around 87% of respondents said their existence was still adequate. The existence of conventional reading materials during the digital era which is considered interesting to read is around 63%.
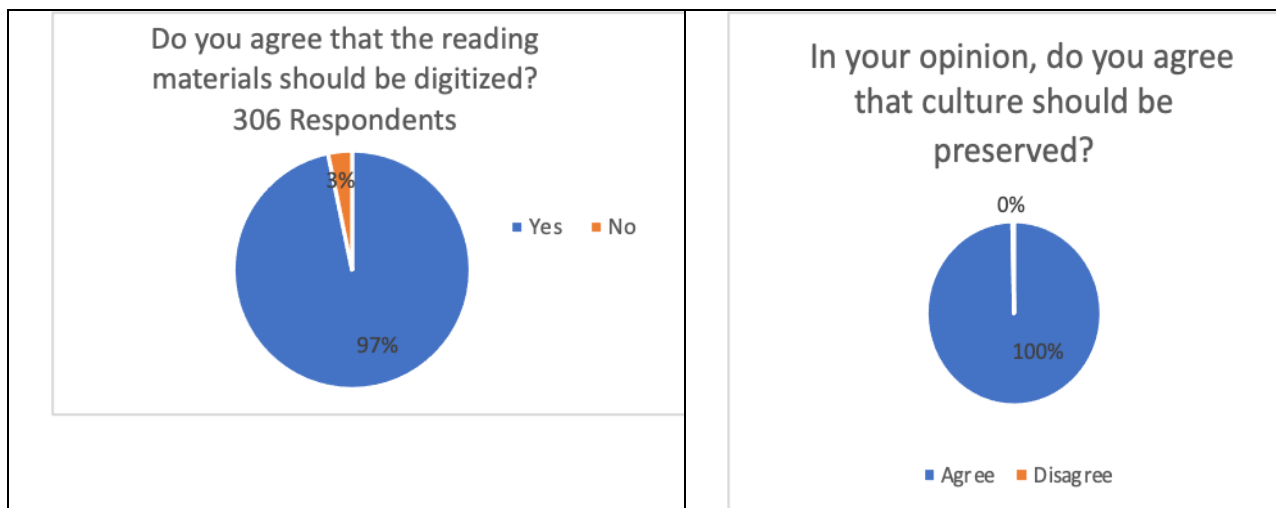
Figure 2. Digitization of Cultural Reading Materials

Figure 2 shows that about 97% of respondents said that cultural reading materials need to be digitized so that culture needs to be preserved.

The digitization of cultural practices has then been done in the form of an innovative digital product regarding simple Balinese cultural practices that is interactively presented so that it is easy to learn and understand, especially for students in Bali. This coincides with the Governor of Bali Regulation No. 80 of 2018 concerning the Protection and Use of Balinese Language, Script, and Literature and the Implementation of the Bali Language Month. This product teaches how to make Balinese cultural practice tools. Figure 3 illustrates the interface of the digital product of Balinese cultural practices.

Figure 3. Interface of Digital Product of Balinese Cultural Practices

Figure 3 shows that digital products about Balinese cultural practices are applied for students in Bali. This digital product is presented in an interactive way. Students are required to operate this digital product themselves. All menus have been provided in the digital product. They only play the menu that is available according to the instructions for use. Most of them think that this is fun to learn. They can play this digital product anytime and anywhere.

A. Increase of Students' Cultural Knowledge and Cultural Experience

Culture has three forms, namely: (1) an idea which is abstract which cannot be touched, held, or photographed, and which is reflected in the human mind. This kind of culture functions to regulate, control, and direct to human behavior and actions in society. It is referred to as custom, (2) an activity which is referred to in a social system. It involves patterned action and the behavior of the human. This kind of culture can be observed, photographed, and documented in society. It is concrete in the form of behavior and language, as well, (3) Artifact which is referred to physical culture, which is in the form of physical product. It is the most concrete in nature and can be touched, seen, and documented.

Culture is a system of understanding, a system of knowledge, beliefs, morals, laws, customs. It is obtained because of the human interaction. It can be seen as several experiences and knowledge produced. Cultural knowledge can be increased through the digitization of culture. Digital products are then significantly given to students in Bali aimed at transferring Balinese cultural knowledge on the one hand. On the other hand, digital cultural products are applied to increase cultural knowledge of students in Bali in which it can be in the forms of several elements. There are five elements of Balinese cultural knowledge, such as (1) people's understanding and interpretation of culture, (2) familiarization with selected cultural characteristics, history, values, belief systems, and behaviors of the members of

ethnic group, (3) the mental parts of culture, such as beliefs, rules, and attitudes, (4) information of cultural reality and cultural activities of community or group of people, and (5) how people process the content in other cultures, such as understanding strategies to express disagreement and provide feedback based on cultural background.

The digitization of Balinese cultural practices is done for the sake of maintaining the contents of each item of Balinese cultural practice. This digital product contains elements of static and dynamic digitization. The static digital element presents the definition of each item of cultural practices and their uses. Meanwhile, dynamic digital elements present the way how to make them. After this product is socialized and given to users, the understanding and interpretation of culture of the students in Bali increases. In addition, they have understanding and familiarity with certain cultural characteristics and the manufacturing process, as well. In short, it can be said that they understand cultural reality and cultural activity. Furthermore, they also understand cultural elements such as: norms, values, symbols, constructions of reality, and worldviews.

In research from Anthropology 4U (2021), it is stated that norms are rules about how everyone in a certain culture should behave. Norms tell people which behavior is considered appropriate and normal in society. These rules are understood and agreed on by people in culture, if people do not act the right way, there is negative reaction from others. In addition, norms are literally guidelines for life. The types of norms in society, goals, and examples need to be known due to human rules in life. Therefore, norms play an important role in creating social harmony and order. The rules that govern people are formed because of the diverse behavior of individuals. Norms are considered as a fundamental element but have a strong influence in determining a person's behavior. Norms are sourced from the way of life or culture in the form of people's habits in regulating group life. The norms include a matter of how, for example, to make a particular cultural item or cultural reality. There are several reasons of applying norms in society, such as (1) to be accepted in society, (2) too be able to respect older people, (3) to behave according to the rules of society, (4) to better understand the nature of humanity and social ethics, and (5) to be able to socialize well with other people.

Values are ideas about how people want to live, and the lifestyle they want to have. Values are the culture's beliefs about what makes a good life (Anthropology 4U, 2021). Values are something good that are always desired, aspired and considered important by all humans as members of society. Therefore, something is said to have value if it is useful and valuable, true value, aesthetic value, both moral, religious, and religious values. Values are the quality of meaningful provisions for individual human life, society, nation, and state. The presence of values in human life can cause actions and reactions, so that humans will accept or reject their presence. Consequently, values may become life goals to be realized in the reality of everyday life (Lukman et al., 2022). The concept of values when connected with logic becomes right and wrong. When they are associated with aesthetics, beauty, and ethics, they become good and bad. However, the most important thing is that values express quality of life. Values can be then used to cultivate and develop in a person or as an aid to students to realize and experience values and to place them integrally in their entire life. Values arise from problems that exist in the environment, community, and school where education is given to equip students so that later they can face complexities in society that often develop unexpectedly. Then a problem arises that speaks of the value of a person's good or bad in dealing with someone's views of others.

Symbols are something that represents something else. Cultures involve a lot of symbolism. Everyone in a culture is expected to understand what the symbols mean in their culture (Anthropology 4U, 2021). Symbols have an important role in the occurrence of communication. In the study of symbolic interactionism, symbols themselves are created and manipulated by the individuals concerned to gain their understanding, both about themselves and about society. Basically, symbols can be interpreted both in the form of verbal language and non-verbal language in their meaning and the real form of symbol interaction occurs in communication activities. Thus, symbols can be used to convey message. As for symbols here, it concerns verbal symbols that are conveyed using language and symbols are shown through objects, colors, and other supporting things. Symbols are object, events, speech sounds or written forms that are given meaning by humans. The primary form of symbolization by humans is through language. Humans can give meaning to every event, action, or object related to thought, ideas, and emotions. The perception of the use of symbols as one of the significant characteristics of humans has become an important object to study.

The construction of reality is referred to as a social construction. It can be easily interpreted as a collective understanding of a concept that is formed in the social order. Many things that are considered commonplace and reasonable today are actually formed, constructed, and agreed upon in the social sphere at a certain time, such as the concepts of money, citizenship, or art. The main focus of social construction is to explore and examine the ways in which individuals and certain community groups participate in creating knowledge and social reality around them. Social construction believes that humans make sense of the world around them through a social process, through their interactions with other people in social groups. This means that there is no single and objective truth. In research from Anthropology 4U (2021), people make mental maps of things and divide everything into different categories. This is called the cultural construction of reality. For example, people are divided into categories like family, friends, and strangers. As another example, some things are divided into food and not food categories. Another example could be dividing animals into pets and not pet categories. Each culture has a different construction of reality, meaning they divide the world into categories in a different way than other cultures.

Worldview is the way people interpret reality and see themselves and the world around them. For example, some cultures see themselves as conquering nature, while other cultures try to live in harmony with nature. Worldview can also include what a culture thinks is the meaning of human existence (Anthropology 4U, 2021).

Based on an explanation of culture and the elements contained in culture, for the purpose of maintaining and preserving culture, this culture then needs to be transferred to students, for example. This cultural transfer is perceived to be able to increase cultural knowledge. the conception of cultural knowledge might be included in cultural digitization. Therefore, this is in line with students' perceptions of knowledge transfer and increasing cultural knowledge, as shown in the following figure:
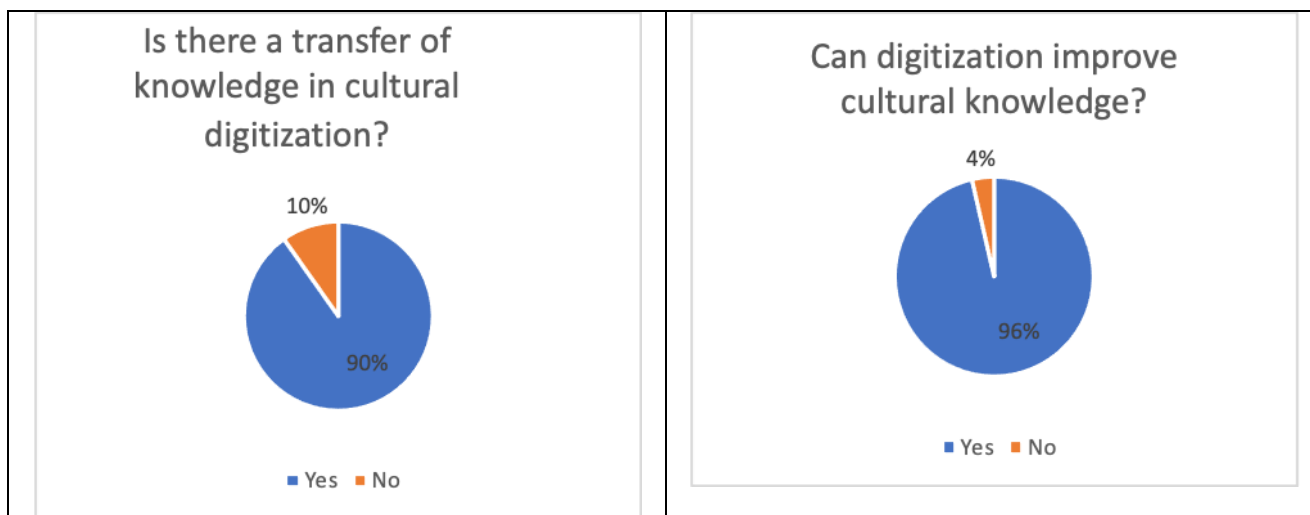
Figure 4. Transfer of Knowledge and the Increase of Cultural Knowledge

The digitization of Balinese cultural practices is directed at preserving Balinese culture. In this context, digital cultural practices are made up to younger generation, students, considering that they might be agents of change. This might trigger the students understand and have a cultural knowledge accordingly. They are supposed to have increased both cultural and cultural experience. In research from Mayasari et al. (2021), cultural knowledge is defined as the preservation of culture by making up cultural information as a reference for students to call and meet up with such cultural practices. This kind of method can be a means of education for students so that it can ease to get information by inside and outside supporters. They then may be considered educated in culture. In the meantime, cultural experience is defined as the preservation of culture that is directly involved in the society, for example. The community is encouraged to study regional dances well so that every year this dance can be displayed and introduced to the audience so that, our culture can be introduced to many people, in addition to preserving our culture. Therefore, culture can be preserved in ways such as (1) improving the quality of human resources in promoting local culture, (2) encouraging us to maximize the potential of local culture and its empowerment and preservation, (3) trying to revive the spirit of tolerance of family friendliness, hospitality, and high solidarity, (4) always maintaining the culture so it is not extinct, (5) making sure everyone is able to manage the diversity of local culture. Therefore, citizens should be proud of the millions of natural wonders and cultural diversity that exist in Bali. It is fitting for us to preserve this culture so that it can continue to grow and be introduced to the entire world so that there is no claim from foreign countries that recognize our own culture (Mayasari et al., 2021).

The digitization of Balinese cultural practices is carried out as a substitute for conventional reading materials. This digitalization is an effort of developing Balinese cultural socialization by considering elements such as norms, values, symbols, construction of reality and activities, and worldview. Thus, the empowerment of these elements into the digitization of Balinese cultural practices can increase cultural knowledge and cultural experience.

Cultural experience could include an integrated pattern of human knowledge, belief, and behavior that depends upon the capacity for symbolic thought and social learning. Cultural experience is the exploration of cultural practices through a variety of authentic experiences. In terms of culture, the mapping of Balinese cultural practices is made to facilitate cultural preservation through the creation of animated digital visualizations. Based on the form of culture it can be said that each Balinese cultural practice has ideas, artifacts, and cultural activities. Cultural artifacts are in the forms of photographs that refer to the physical existence of Balinese cultural practices. While cultural activities contain the processes, mechanisms, and ways of making them.

Figure 5. Cultural Experience

Cultural experience is (1) the set of shared attitudes, values, goals, and practices that characterize an institution, organization, or group or country, (2) activities or environments where individuals interact with individuals from different cultures in various settings to describe an understanding of the basic principles and concepts that underlie theoretical views on culture. There is diversity in theoretical views of culture that determine how the concept of culture is defined, why it varies. Experience regarding culture which is seen as: (1) system adaptation to the environment, (2) as a sign system, (3) as a text, both those who understand the patterns of cultural behavior in an analogy to textual discourse, as well as those that examine the results of the process of interpreting texts as cultural products, (4) as a phenomenon that has structure and function, and (5) according to philosophy.

B. The Increase of the Students' Reading Interest

Digitization of Balinese cultural practice is one of the concrete manifestations of the preservation of Balinese culture. This is one way of preserving Balinese culture, involving cultural knowledge and cultural experience. Digital humanities is a science that combines language and technology that may serve as a tool to preserve Balinese culture. This means that the more innovative products are made, the more cultural realities and cultural activities people understand and experience with. With increasing understanding of cultural reality, it is believed that the community may maintain and practice it. Moreover, it is coupled with cultural activities in the form of the process of making cultural reality.

This effort can be believed to be part of the nation's character education. As a matter of fact, the target of this visualization is the students who are expected to be the nation's successors. At the same time, they learn the culture itself substantially or they can directly learn the practice of Balinese culture. The digital culture they have understood and experienced leads to a cultural sensitivity. They will enter cultural experience and cultural knowledge. In addition, they may learn about the use of language, namely Indonesian, Balinese, and English. They can realize that with English or other languages they have done to spread the culture with elements of technology and language.

Culture inherits equipment that is adapted into a particular environment, and behind each device is a thought that has been developed over several generations. Therefore, innovating in introducing culture to the younger generation is a way to preserve culture itself. In interactively animated digital visualization made from Balinese cultural practices there are cultural knowledge that needs to be visualized as one of the ways of preserving Balinese culture, such as cultural reality and cultural activity.

Changes in the communication media used by the Indonesian people are inseparable from changes in existing communication technology. When communication media is moving rapidly towards being more digital, our cultural practices will inevitably change. In fact, mass media and culture are inseparable. They influence each other. In the modules in this chapter, we will explore how digital culture is changing the way we understand the past, experience the present, and anticipate the future. The digital culture that we will study together will provide critical insight into the social, political, and economic challenges and opportunities posed by digital technology itself.

A culture gives its people ideas on how to approach life decisions, from waking to sleeping. At the same time, it gives an idea of all the acceptable life lessons. Through the media, including digital media, people's ideas about life are conveyed to the wider community.

Culture is the ideas and feelings, actions and works produced by humans in the life of society. Culture is also a creation, work, and human initiative. In general, mass media present cultural ideas in three related ways. First, the media help us to identify and discuss acceptable codes of behavior in society. Second, the media study what and who counts in our world, and why they are so important. Third, the media determine what other people think of us, and what people "like us" think of other people.

Cultural forms consist of practices, products, and perspectives. Practice means patterns of social interaction, or behavior. Practice involves using the product. Practice represents knowledge of "what to do when and where," and how to interact in each culture. Meanwhile, products are tangible or intangible creations of a particular culture. The product reflects a cultural perspective. Examples of tangible products are paintings, sculptures, carvings, literary works, and others. Meanwhile, intangible products consist of oral tales, dances, sacred rituals, educational systems, laws, and much more. The perspective itself is more inclined to philosophical matters, namely the meanings, attitudes, values, beliefs, ideas that underlie cultural practices and cultural products of the community. The cultural perspective represents a society's view of the world.

Seeing the full range of practices, products, and cultural perspectives is a prerequisite for carrying out digital literacy activities in the cultural space. To make it easier, the implementation is assisted through the stages of digital literacy competence that have been formulated by the Network of Digital Literacy Activists. However, before we get there, let's first live our cultural richness which is reflected in the diversity of Indonesia. To increase the students' reading interest, especially cultural reading material, it is necessary to first look at the factors that cause their low interest in reading. There are many factors that cause low reading interest, namely factors pertaining to teachers and parents, students, and the presence of reading material. First, children's poor reading interest is caused by the low support from teachers and parents. The poor reading interest is caused by a factor in which the teacher does not play a good role in influencing students' reading interest. The same applies to parents. Parents are more concerned with buying toys for their children than buying books. From the reading material perspective, it can be explained that the existence of cultural reading materials is felt to be less attractive because it is still conventional, lacking illustrations, lacking in color so that it makes them less interesting to read, so they feel that their reading interest is poor.

Fostering children's reading interest in accordance with the AIDA framework, namely attention, interest, direction, and action. Curiosity or attention to reading texts must remain and be maintained by students because from this attention they will feel interested in reading, from this interest it causes students' willingness or desire to read. If attention, interest, and desire have been formed in students, they can automatically act in the form of reading the reading text. Based on this, some efforts can be made on how to increase their reading interest. There are several efforts that can be made when referring to the causes of low children's interest in reading. This effort can start from the existence of reading material first and then increase the encouragement and support of teachers and parents. In terms of the existence of reading material, the effort made is to change the reading media from paper media to digital media. The interactive Bali BUDIG product, for example, is the only product that uses digital media that can replace conventional reading material. Furthermore, it can be said that this digital product can be positively correlated to the AIDA mentioned above. It is true that interactive applications and the language used to present these digital products can pump their attention, interest, and desire to read. Furthermore, this product can be used by parents to foster their reading interest at home and teachers can also use this product to encourage students to read at school.
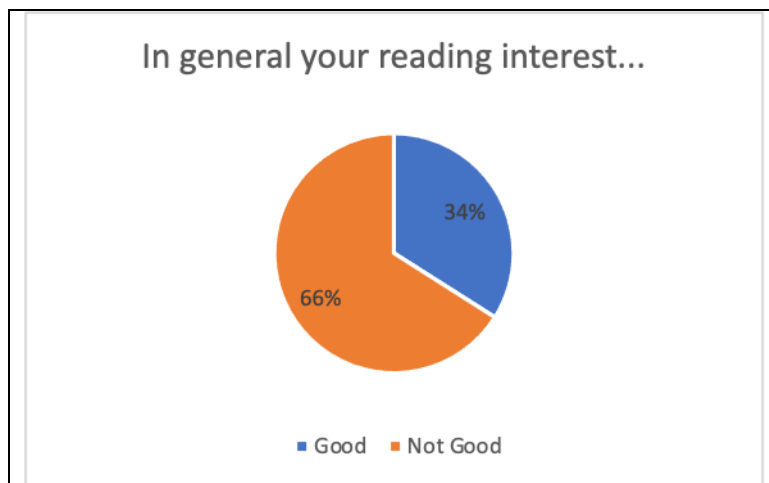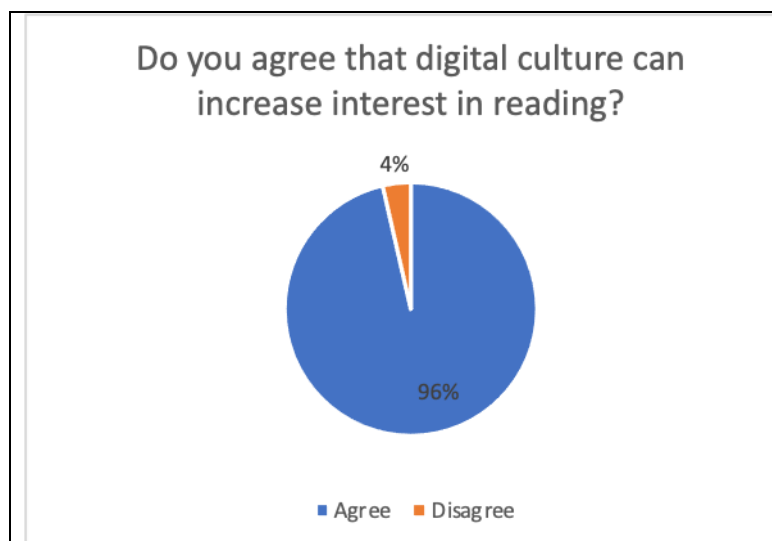

Figure 6: Students' Reading Interest

Figure 7. The Increase of Reading Interest

Reading interest is a strong desire that is accomplished with a person's effort to read. People who have a great interest are willing to get the reading material and then read it at witness where off. People who are interested in reading will make reading a habit as well as a need. Reading interest is a mental tendency that moves a person to read. Reading interest grows from within the individual, so awareness is needed to increase reading interest for everyone. The progress of a country is strongly influenced by the reading interest of its people. Through reading, students can recognize and distinguish the types of media that are read and can connect the materials they read with their experiences. Students' reading interest in understanding the contents of materials is strongly influenced by the poor or high interest in reading. Reading interest cannot grow alone but requires guidance from parents and teachers to grow it in accordance with student development.

Students' poor reading interest can be caused by both internal and external factors. Internal factors that cause students' low interest in reading are the lack of students' abilities and poor reading habits of students. Meanwhile, the external factors are the school and family environment that is less supportive in developing students' reading skills, as well as the influence of increasingly advanced technology. The rapid development of technology has shifted people's interest in reading books. This is very concerning because if this poor interest in reading occurs to the younger generation who are the nation's successors, it can make it difficult to compete with other countries that have more qualified human resources with the ability to read in increasing knowledge. Therefore, students' reading interest needs to be fostered, directed, fostered, guided, and developed from an early age so that students are able to become students who have good reading skills

IV. CONCLUSION

Digitization of Balinese cultural practices as a substitute for conventional reading materials is statically and dynamically presented. Statically, digitalization displays the definitions and uses of items of Balinese cultural practices. Dynamically, digitalization targets the way or mechanism of making items of Balinese cultural practices. The digitalization of Balinese cultural practices has a disruptive impact on conventionally printed Balinese cultural practices. The digitalization of Balinese cultural practices is done with the aim of (1) increasing the students' cultural knowledge and cultural experience, so that Balinese culture can be comprehensively and sustainably utilized, promoted, and preserved; (2) improving the students' reading interest in the context of understanding Balinese culture because students are agents of change towards preserving Balinese culture.

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EFL Students' Use of E-Books for E-Learning: Applying Technology Acceptance Model (TAM)

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Abstract—**This paper examines trends of using e-books as a learning tool among EFL students of Al-Balqa Applied University (BAU) by applying the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) and the number of English language courses as an external independent variable. Data is collected by administering a questionnaire to 283 respondents from Humanities and Social Sciences Faculties along with Medical, Engineering, and Science Faculties. Data is analyzed using SPSS and AMOS statistical analysis software. The analysis reveals that perceived ease of use (PEOU) positively affects perceived usefulness (PU) and attitudes towards using e-books, PU has a significant effect on attitudes and intentions to use e-books, and the attitudes have significant intentions to use e-books. On the other hand, attitudes and intentions are not significantly related to the regular use of e-books in comparison to students with limited use of e-books. Finally, the students who studied or are studying three or more English courses have positive attitudes and higher intentions towards using e-books if compared to those who studied less than three. This study is important to get a better understanding of e-book reading intentions among university students. It is believed to be the first study of undergraduates' intention on using e-book during/after the pandemic in Jordan using TAM.**

Index Terms—**using e-books, TAM, EFL learners, online learning, COVID-19**

I. INTRODUCTION

The rapid development of digital content is apparent in 21st century. It necessitates the employment of technology that is one of the robust driving forces of education during / and in the aftermath of Covid-19 pandemic. This pandemic brought about an unexpected and emerging shift in human life and learning styles. It caused and is still causing drastic changes to peoples' lifestyle. Unexpectedly, almost all aspects of living including social, political, administrative, educational, and cultural changed. Teaching and learning at schools and universities received dramatic mutation as well, expressly, the schools and the universities that utilize in-person classes. Although some educational institutions all over the world are offering online degree programs to transcend time, space and cost barriers (Lethumanan & Tarmizi, 2011; Luo et al., 2021), almost all of the educational institutions transformed into online classes because of the partial and total closures and lockdowns (Viner et al., 2020).

Whether they are prepared or not for this transition, Covid-19 pandemic revealed that the "digital poverty or lack of digital capabilities are a broader problem" to education (Barber, 2020). The urgent use of online learning imposed challenges on learners, instructors, educational institutions and even families. Learners and instructors started online classes that involved using e-books. Educational institutions all over the world abruptly approved e-books as a learning and a teaching tool (Pittaway & Malomo, 2021; Luo et al., 2021). Thus, the spread of digital books established its position in almost all classrooms in no time. The e-book could be defined as "[a] *book which is composed in or converted to digital format for display on a computer screen or handheld device*." (Shadiev & Yang, 2020, p. 534). The engagement of e-books in most universities has three key strategic priorities: "*to enhance the students experience and academic outcomes within an increasingly competitive environment; to drive innovation in learning, teaching and research; and to help to use space and human resources more effectively and efficiently*" (Fyfe, 2014, p. 3). Focusing on a textbook as a source of knowledge and a learning tool, this study aims to investigate the trends of utilizing e-books in English language learning and the preferences of Jordanian university English as a foreign language (EFL) students for using them.

A. E-Book Reading

Reading through an e-book introduced changes to reading behaviors. The effective use of e-books for learning purposes rests on the engagement of an educational model that responds to the needs of learners (Lethumanan & Tarmizi, 2011). Some e-books are produced with digital characteristics: search, cross reference functions, multimedia features and hypertext links (Vassiliou & Rowley, 2008). Others have digital applications like dictionaries and audio/visual icons. Still, there are many e-books that are chiefly scanned copies or digital representation of printed books in PDF and HTML formats which will not suit all learners (Lethumanan & Tarmizi, 2011). Digital searching,

types of books searched, allocated time per session, downloading, digital notetaking, and book sharing are all emerging practices for reading habits (Levine-Clark, 2015; Luo et al., 2021).

These practices are linked to physical and psychological health issues like iPad neck, computer vision syndrome and screen-related sleeplessness (Myrberg & Wiberg, 2015; Pittaway & Malomo, 2021). In some cases, the psychological factors are given prominence over the technological ones (Ackerman & Lauterman, 2012). "*Students may have an unconscious bias for the 'known mode' of reading*" (Pittaway & Malomo, 2021, p. 5). Namely, screen reading is more psychological rather than technological since turning and touching pages aid the memory and make it easier to remember (Myrberg & Wiberg, 2015) while scrolling on a computer makes it difficult to remember (Mangen et al., 2013).

B. TAM

Technology Acceptance Model is based on the theory of reasoned action (TRA). It is originally developed by Davis (1985) to predict the user acceptance of a new information system before launching that technology. This model proposes that the use is predicted by behavioral intentions. It is based on two main constructs, i.e. PU and PEOU (Alwreikat et al., 2021). Davis (1985) defines PU as the degree to which a person believes that using a particular system would enhance his or her performance, and defines PEOU as the degree to which a person believes that using a particular system would be free of effort. The central notion of the original TAM, which is displayed in Figure 1, is that the possible user's behavioral intentions (BIs) to use a new information system is regarded as the major element that identifies his/her usage of the system. The BIs to use the system is affected by the user's attitudes towards using that new technology. These attitudes are affected by two main constructs, namely, PU and PEOU that a user has about the use of that technology. PEOU affects the PU. There are also the external variables (EV) that may directly influence the PU and PEOU. In other words, if the technology is easy to use, then it is usefully perceived, and users' attitudes and intentions are more positive towards it.
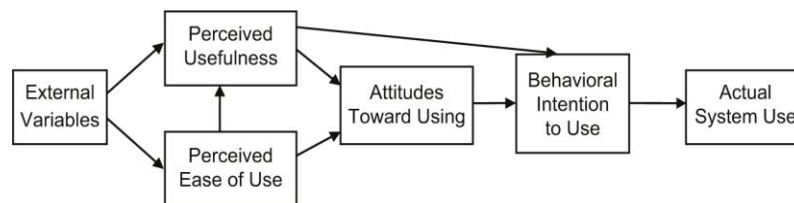

Figure 1. TAM (Davis, 1985)

C. Rationale of the Study

Understanding how students perceive using e-book and their attitudes towards using it for reading fluency and comprehension during and after Covid-19 will help teachers and officials of online learning at universities to improve their services to match students' optimal use. Accordingly, this research proceeds as follows. In the next section, the researchers review the previous studies related to the features of e-books reading and using e-books for learning, and then it is followed by a clarification of the theoretical model that underlines this research (TAM) with focus on using e-books for EFL learning. Next, the methodology section presents an overview of data collection method and analysis tools. Section four highlights the analysis and findings of the study. Finally, a discussion of the results and their implications and the conclusion are presented.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. E-Book Use for Learning (E-Textbook)

E-books incorporation in educational institutions is inevitable to reach a more innovative and technological educational environment, in addition to the urgent use of e-books as learning technological tools of online learning during Covid-19 pandemic (Pittaway & Malomo, 2021; Luo et al., 2021; Shadiev & Yang, 2020). This novel virus affected both the teachers who are not fully prepared to online teaching (Almekhlafi, 2020; Öztürk, 2021) and students (Luo et al., 2021).

Most of the studies highlighted the preference of in-print books as compared to e-books among university students (Luo et al., 2021; Pittaway & Malomo, 2021; Shadiev & Yang, 2020; Myrberg & Wiberg, 2015). Some of them are collective studies and surveys that range within five to ten years. Lou et al. (2021) investigated the use of e-books as an unavoidable alternative for the advancement of online learning and teaching. Pittaway and Malomo (2021, p. 8) stated, "*[o]ur research, like countless other studies, indicates a preference for print books over e-books by students*" despite the relatively high score for e-books. Myrberg and Wiberg (2015) investigated several studies conducted to identify factors affecting reading comprehension on e-books as compared to printed books. Most of the examined studies preferred the printed book to the e-book for several reasons. Some reasons are the discomfort with reading e-books on a screen, lack of availability or even existence of e-books, and some applications of e-reading do not have the features needed to display essential reference points.

In contrast, Myrberg and Wiberg (2015) identified one experimental study that conducted on two groups of students: one used in-print books and the other e-books followed by a comprehension test revealed a preference for e-books. A brainstorming session with the students showed that the features of e-books like "*the texts being shorter and including a better overview, and being enhanced with video, sound, interactive tests and games*" (p. 52) helped the students to achieve high marks. E-books features such as accessibility, usability and availability are the best choices for teachers and learners; yet, they are still a debatable concept in academic, social and health contexts (Pittaway & Malomo, 2021; Kamal et al., 2021).

Though, the change towards e-books is rather gradual and rapid at the same time. Zhang et al. (2020) investigated 52 language-based learning studies in the last decade. These studies indicated positive effect of e-books on language learning. Almunawaroh (2020) adopted the same findings. The researcher analyzed the effectiveness of using e-books in English language teaching (ELT) on articles that range from 2015-2019 to find four positive aspects of utilizing an e-book in ELT. These aspects are the development of a good reading habit, improvement in students' learning motivation, performance in learning English, level of reading comprehension, and reading speed and learning attitude.

Chen et al. (2021) reviewed research trends in using e-books in EFL education from 2011-2020. The analysis of 53 articles (Web of Science journals) revealed that reading comprehension, teaching/learning strategies and learning engagement were the most key concepts in the selected studies while e-book features have not received much attention. Another trends review conducted by Toyokawa et al. (2020) also revealed similar results and focused on reading comprehension through the decade (2010 – 2019). Preschoolers and elementary school students are the most studied participants in using e-books in EFL education (Chen et al., 2021; Toyokawa et al., 2020).

Furthermore, there are many studies on the pedagogical benefits of integrating e-books into English language learning to improve students' proficiency (Chen et al., 2020). Lou et al. (2021) also supported the same findings that students have a higher reception of e-books and "*to have definite reading goals, thereby increasing reading frequency*" (p. 3). It is obvious that with recent studies that students appear to be more engaged in "*digital reading for academic purposes*" (p. 3). Moreover, this adoption of e-textbook "*has the potential to change the way people perceive and adopt e-books*" (Hsiao & Tang, 2014, p. 140).

B. TAM and E-Textbook

Hsiao and Tang (2014) investigated students' behavioral intentions to use e-textbooks in terms of TAM and other intention-based models. TAM proved to be "*adequate predicative behavioral power*" (p. 139). Most of the studies on e-textbooks utilized TAM since it is used in various types of information systems (Hsiao & Tang, 2014; Lethumanan & Tarmizi, 2011). Other studies highlighted the significant impact of TAM constructs on the use of e-books (Smeda et al., 2018). Semeda et al. (2018, p. 250) pointed out that "*TAM factors appeared to have a significant impact on the acceptance of e-book among MAS students at universities in Libya*".

Lethumanan and Tarmizi (2011) investigated the intentions to use e-textbooks among undergraduates using TAM. Their results revealed that PEOU of e-textbooks is positively affected by its PU, whereas it has no significant impact on attitudes towards using e-textbooks. In contrast, PU has a significant impact on attitudes and intentions to use e-textbooks. Their study also revealed the significant effect of attitude on the intention to use e-textbooks.

Studies in the Arab world are rather limited regarding technology acceptance models and the use of e-books. Al-Suqri (2014) examined the faculty members in Oman acceptance of e-books using TAM. The findings revealed that the participants who perceived that e-books were easy to use used e-books regularly. The variables in the study are gender, age and social sciences and arts compared to other faculties. Another study was conducted by Smeda et al. (2018). They investigated e-book adoption amongst mathematics and statistics students (MAS) in Libya. Their focus was on the factors that may affect MAS students' acceptance of e-books. These are intrinsic factors that are related to users themselves such as self-efficacy and resistance to change, extrinsic factors that are related to features of e-books, infrastructure of the university, and TAM constructs. Their results revealed that PU has a major impact on affecting students' attitudes and BIs towards using e-books. Furthermore, PEOU and attitudes are statistically connected. The students, in their study, believe that PEOU of e-books enhances their learning process by utilizing the most of the e-book features. Finally, the attitudes of the students positively affect their BIs towards e-books.

Considering the above review, it is noticeable that both findings of Lethumanan and Tarmizi (2011) and Smeda et al. (2018) are consistent that PEOU has significant impact on PU of using e-books. While Lethumanan and Tarmizi find that PEOU of e-books doesn't positively affect students attitudes towards adopting e-books, Smeda et al. found that PEOU and students' attitudes towards using e-books were statistically significant.

Some studies proved that online English language learning is more effective than traditional in-class learning. Supporting this finding, Kamal et al. (2021) investigated the EFL learners' productivity during Covid-19 quarantine measures. The effectiveness of online English learning is established by students' tests. They found out that "*the average value for distance learning during COVID-19 appeared to be somewhat higher than for the classroom one*" (p. 7317). Although this study examined EFL online learning in general, one of their tested parameters is the students' "*[a]bility to absorb information by reading and by ear*" (p. 7310) during in-class and online learning. These findings are consistent with Bui and Macalister (2021) who studied the role of online extensive reading (ERO) in enhancing the proficiency of EFL learners. Their study revealed positive impact of online reading on students' reading fluency in English with 20% increase in reading speed. Their study also revealed positive perceptions of EFL students towards

ERO which enhanced their motivation to read. In addition to enhancing their reading fluency, the students' vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension were also improved.

On the other hand, Shadiev and Yang (2020) reviewed 398 technology-enhanced language learning articles. They found out that English is the most studied language with 267 articles. They also found that e-books are one of the newly searched technologies. Their survey also revealed that most learners still think that reading through an e-book is "unpleasant" regardless of the purpose of reading. Chou (2016) investigated EFL college perceptions of e-books when they read with a purpose to respond to literature and whether these perceptions change over time. The findings indicated that while students value the "intangible nature of e-books", their e-book reading experience is "unpleasant". However, the researcher considered that this initial negative attitude might change over time if these students are provided with time and opportunities to read using e-books.

Despite of the abundance of studies on e-textbook adoption in terms of TAM, few of them are conducted on Arab students and almost none on Arab EFL learners. Furthermore, several studies are conducted on school EFL learners and not university EFL learners. Most of the conducted studies lacked emphasis on e-books features. This study claims to be the first to be conducted on Arab EFL tertiary students during Covid-19 pandemic. Accordingly, the following hypotheses will be tested:

H1: Perceived ease of use significantly affects perceived usefulness of e-Book.

H2: Perceived ease of use significantly affects attitude towards using e-Book.

H3: Perceived usefulness has a significant effect on attitude towards using e-Book.

H4: Perceived usefulness significantly affects intentions to use e-Book.

H5: Attitude has a significant effect on intentions to use e-Book.

H6: The positive effect of proposed determinants on attitudes and intentions are stronger for students with regular using of e-books in compare to students with limited using of e-books.

H7: The positive effect of proposed determinants on attitudes and intentions are stronger for students who studied 3 or more English courses in university in compare to students studied less than 3 English courses.

H8: The positive effect of proposed determinants on attitudes and intentions are stronger for students who are currently studying 3 or more English courses in university in compare to students who are currently studying less than 3 English courses.

III. METHODOLOGY

The researchers adopted a quantitative methodological approach in order to test the research hypotheses. The researchers designed an online self-completion questionnaire using Microsoft form application, in an attempt to understand EFL learners' acceptance of using e-books for learning purposes. The first draft of the questionnaire was first reviewed by three experts in English language teaching for validity. Suggestions from experts were used to draft the final version of the questionnaire. Using online questionnaire in this setting will help to generate data from a large number of participants to explore the students' acceptance of e-book use for learning purposes and to gather the demographic data. The online questionnaire helped to gather a large number of responses in a timely manner. The data collection took place in November and December 2021. The population of the research encompassed all EFL students (1300) at BAU (Jordan). Only email addresses of EFL students were obtained from the information services department, excluding postgraduate students. Five hundred online questionnaires were distributed online via email to EFL students. The number of retrieved questionnaires was 299, while 283 were suitable for statistical analysis.

TAM constructs were adopted in designing the questionnaire. TAM was chosen as it helps in measuring the acceptance of new technologies, which fits our research aims in accepting the use of e-books for learning purposes. The questionnaire is adapted from the previous literature (see Table 1); it consisted of six sections (demographic data, intention to use, PU, PEOU, attitude toward using, and external variables). In the first section, participants were asked to circle their answers. Section two to six used a five-point Likert scale of strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree, and strongly agree. The ethical consideration was met despite the low-risk nature of the research, this is in introducing the questionnaire that covered informed consent, confidentiality, voluntary participation and anonymity.

TABLE 1
SOURCES OF ITEMS USED IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Sections of the questionnaire	Source
PU	(Al-Suqri, 2014); (Luo et al., 2021)
PEOU	(Smeda et al., 2018); (Al-Suqri, 2014)
Attitudes	(Chou, 2016); (Al-Suqri, 2014)
Intention to use	(Hsiao & Tang, 2014); (Luo et al., 2021)
External Variable	(Kamal et al., 2021); (Shadiev & Yang, 2020)

IV. DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

A. Analytical Strategy and Statistical Methods

To complete responses analysis, this study made use of statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) version 26 and

structural equation modelling (SEM) approach through AMOS version 23. SEM approach allows for more flexibility and benefits in analyzing data in compare to first-generation techniques (Martínez-López et al., 2013). SEM-AMOS was applied to test the measurement model and the structural model. The quality of the measurement model was examined by evaluating reliability of scales, this was done by applying confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Meanwhile, the structural model was examined to assess the effect of each causal path in an effort to provide a decision for each proposed hypothesis.

(a). Responses Gathering and Screening

Online self-completion questionnaire was used to gather responses from targeted respondents. Data collection was completed in November and December (2021). The researchers received (299) useable responses in total. Data screening was established and patterns in assessments were captured by gathering standard deviation for Likert based responses. It indicated that (16) responses scored std. values equal to zero showing patterns in assessments. Therefore, they were dropped from the sample, meanwhile remaining responses scored high std. values showing that data was free of major patterns. Data was visualized using simple-scatter dot diagram, and no major outliers were seen in the data. The final valid sample consisted of (283) valid responses. Sample size was seen eligible to the requirement of CFA, and the statement ratio suggests that the ratio 10:1 is required for adequate CFA. The instrument has 18 statements, and when considering 10:1 ratio, the required minimum sample size is (180). Hence the sample was satisfying the requirements of CFA.

(b). Statistical Assumptions

Before proceeding with analysis; prerequires were satisfied in dataset. Concerning normal distribution, Sposito et al. (1983) proposed the range ± 2.2 for a normal distribution free of skewness and kurtosis. Referring to results displayed in Table 2, all skewness values fall within the suggested range and approximately were seen close to zero. Kurtosis values were seen also fall within the suggested range, hence, it can be stated that dataset was free of extreme skewness and kurtosis entailing that the use of SEM-AMOS is suitable for dataset.

TABLE 2
DATA NORMALITY USING SKEWNESS AND KURTOSIS (N=283)

Factor	Skewness	Kurtosis
PU	-0.671	0.195
PEOU	-0.472	1.016
Attitude	-0.282	-0.040
Intention	-0.058	-0.748

To assess multi-collinearity problem; suggestions of Pallant (2020) were adopted, and VIF and tolerance values were examined. Referring to results displayed in Table 3, VIF's values were seen fall within [1.081 - 2.096] range below the threshold of (10), further. Tolerances were seen fall within [0.477 - 0.925] range above threshold of (0.10) showing that the issue of multi-collinearity doesn't exist in dataset. Pearson correlations also supported that the dataset is free of multi-collinearity. All factors correlated to each other were significant at (0.01) level, and all correlations were moderate below threshold of ($r = 0.90$).

TABLE 3
RESULTS OF MULTI-COLLINEARITY TESTS (N=283)

Factor	Tolerance	VIF	Pearson correlation		
			1	2	3
PU	0.477	2.096	1		
PEOU	0.925	1.081	0.723	1	
Attitude	0.880	1.136	0.346	0.274	1

** Correlation is significant at (0.01) level

(c). Sample Demographics

Counts and percentages were gathered for our sample and displayed in Table 4. Out of 283 respondents 23.3% were males, and 76.7% were females. In terms of education: 80.2% of the sample were studying for their bachelor degrees, 19.4% of the sample for their diploma degrees, and 0.4% for their master degrees. As for studying year, more than half of respondents 62.5% were at their first year, 23.3% were at their second year, 8.5% were at their third year, 5.3% were at their fourth year, and 0.4% were at their sixth year. Respondents were from both scientific and humanities colleges; however, the majority of the sample were from Humanities colleges entailing a possible limitation for our sample: 14.8% of respondents were from scientific colleges, and 85.2% of respondents were from humanities colleges.

Concerning the extent of reading e-books: 38.9% of respondents rarely read e-books, 25.4% of respondents frequently read e-books, and 35.7% regularly read e-books. Regarding the number of finished English courses at university: 37.1% of respondents finished 1 course, 27.2% of respondents finished 2 courses, and 35.7% finished 3 courses or more. Finally, for the number of current English courses at university: 38.2% of respondents have 1 course, 17% of respondents have 2 courses, and 44.9% of respondents have 3 courses or more.

TABLE 4
SAMPLE DEMOGRAPHICS (N=283)

Demographic	Subset	Count	%
Gender	Male	66	23.3%
	Female	217	76.7%
	Total	*283*	*100%*
Education	Diploma	55	19.4%
	Bachelor	227	80.2%
	Master	1	0.4%
	Total	*283*	*100%*
Studying year	First year	177	62.5%
	Second year	66	23.3%
	Third year	24	8.5%
	Fourth year	15	5.3%
	Fifth year	--	--
	Sixth year	1	0.4%
	Total	*283*	*100%*
Reading e-books frequency	Rarely	110	38.9%
	Frequently	72	25.4%
	Regular	101	35.7%
	Total	*283*	*100%*
College	Scientific colleges	42	14.8%
	Humanities colleges	241	85.2%
	Total	*283*	*100%*
Finished English courses at university	1 course	105	37.1%
	2 courses	77	27.2%
	3 courses or more	101	35.7%
	Total	*283*	*100%*
Current English courses at university	1 course	108	38.2%
	2 courses	48	17%
	3 courses or more	127	44.9%
	Total	*283*	*100%*

B. Descriptive Analysis

Results displayed in Table 5 showed that mean values for all factors were above 2.34 suggesting a moderate level of agreement proposed by respondents toward all factors, and entailing that those respondents gave positive assessment to all measured items. In fact, despite the positive agreement proposed by respondents, it is vital to note that the respondents perceived that e-books provide a moderate level of usefulness and ease of use in relation to academic proposes. This entails the necessity of establishing sophisticated online libraries that provide students with useful text books along with online reading systems that are easy to navigate and use.

Further, respondents have moderate level of attitudes toward using e-books and have also moderate level of intentions to continue using e-books. The findings evenly demonstrate that the surveyed students were still not that into orienting toward using e-books despite the forced transformation imposed by the pandemic; this demonstrates the necessity for future studies to investigate factors that still hinder students' orientation toward e-books. Standard deviations were below (1) for all factors suggesting that the assessments were spread around the mean except for intention factor that scored a std. value above (1) showing that assessments were spreading away from the mean. This entailed that the disagreement among respondents was seen in relation to students' intentions.

TABLE 5
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS (N=283)

Factor	Mean	Level	Std.	Minimum	Maximum
PU	3.49	Moderate	0.77	1.00	5.00
PEOU	3.47	Moderate	0.73	1.00	5.00
Attitude	3.36	Moderate	0.92	1.00	5.00
Intentions	2.94	Moderate	1.07	1.00	5.00

C. SEM Analysis

SEM analysis was conducted to assess the measurement model and evaluate the structural model. Measurement model was evaluated by employing CFA that involved examining reliability and validity of the proposed model. Meanwhile the structural model was evaluated to test the hypotheses.

Step 1: Analysis of Measurement Model

Analysis of the measurement model was conducted using CFA based on AMOS. Maximum-likelihood estimation approach was used to estimate model's parameters (Hair et al., 2018). In assessing goodness-of-fit, the following fit indices were considered: CMIN/ DF [x^2] <3 good, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) > 0.95, Goodness of Fit (GFI) > 0.95, Standardized Root Mean Residual (SRMR) < 0.09, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) < 0.05 good, < 0.10 moderate, and PClose > 0.05, suggestions of (Hair et al., 2018; Rex-Kline, 2015) were adopted.

Table 6 gathered model fit for original and revised measurement model. The initial examining for measurement

model showed poor fit; therefore, many revises were conducted to improve fit level. We adopted minimum level for factor loading (FL= 0.50). Modification indices and standardized residual co-variances were also examined to revise the model. Revising the model dropped 5 items: (Usefulness_5, Ease_6, Ease_2, Usefulness_4 and Usefulness_6) and two modification indices were correlated, the revised model revealed a better fit with data.

Psychometric properties of the model were evaluated through Cronbach alpha and composite reliability [CR] values. Hair et al. (2018) suggest that Cronbach alpha and CR should be above 0.7 to establish good reliability. All factors except Attitude scored Cronbach alpha and CR above 0.7 suggesting that factors had adequate reliability and validity except for Attitude factor as Cronbach alpha and CR were below 0.7 showing a limitation for this factor. However, no revise can be conducted as the factor has two items only; therefore, future studies should consider revising the scale. Cronbach alpha and CR values were as follows: PU [0.866/ 0.866], PEOU [0.816/ 0.826], Attitude [0.544/ 0.549] and Intention [0.886/ 0.857]. See Table 7 for Cronbach alpha and CR values.

TABLE 6
MODEL FIT FOR ORIGINAL AND REVISED MEASUREMENT MODELS

Model	CMIN/ DF	CFI	GFI	SRMR	RMSEA	PClose
Original	3.311	0.887	0.847	0.887	0.091	0.000
Revised	1.173	0.995	0.963	0.033	0.025	0.977

TABLE 7
CRONBACH ALPHA AND CR VALUES (N=283)

Factor	Cronbach alpha	CR
PU	0.866	0.866
PEOU	0.816	0.826
Attitude	0.544	0.549
Intentions	0.886	0.857

Step 2: Analysis of Structural Model

Path analysis was employed to test the structural model. Testing structural model allows for examining relationships between exogenous and endogenous variables. Path coefficients (β) were gathered to determine the amount of change in Attitude and Intention along with *P* values. The path coefficient (β) of TAM has a highly statistical significant level in the studies related to "the domain of students' behavioral intention to use e-textbooks" (Hsiao & Tang, 2014, p. 156). Prediction level of the model was assessed through coefficient of determination R^2. For PU (R^2= 39%), Attitude (R^2= 12%) and for Intentions (R^2= 49%) showing a good prediction level by the proposed factors. Figure 2 displayed structural model testing to test proposed hypotheses.
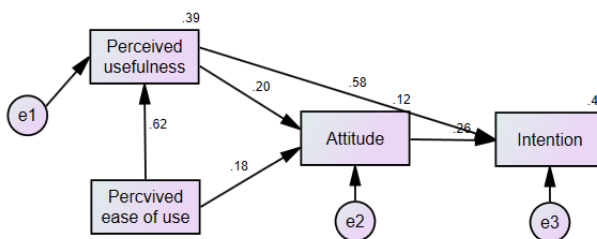

Figure 2: Path Analysis for Structural Model

H1: Perceived ease of use significantly affects perceived usefulness of e-Book. PEOU scored a significant positive influence on PU [β= 0.62, P= 0.000], indicating that for each one unit increases in PEOU, PU increases by 62%. Findings support H1.

H2: Perceived ease of use significantly affects attitude towards using e-Book. PEOU scored a significant positive influence on Attitude [β= 0.18, P= 0.012], indicating that for each one unit increases in PEOU, Attitude increases by 18%. Findings support H2.

H3: Perceived usefulness has a significant effect on attitude towards using e-Book. PU scored a significant positive influence on Attitude [β= 0.20, P= 0.005], indicating that for each one unit increases in PU, Attitude increases by 20%. Findings support H3.

H4: Perceived usefulness significantly affects intention to use e-Book. PU scored a significant positive influence on Intention [β= 0.58, P= 0.000], indicating that for each one unit increases in PU, Intention increases by 58%. Findings support H4.

H5: Attitude has a significant effect on intention to use e-Book. Attitude scored a significant positive influence on Intention [β= 0.26, P= 0.000], indicating that for each one unit increases in Attitude, Intention increases by 26%. Findings support H5.

TABLE 8
SUMMARY OF PATH ESTIMATES (N=283)

H	Path	β	Decision
H1	PEOU → PU	0.62*	Supported
H2	PEOU → attitude	0.18*	Supported
H3	PU → attitude	0.20*	Supported
H4	PU → intention	0.58*	Supported
H5	Attitude → intention	0.26*	Supported

* Significant at level ($\alpha \leq 0.05$

D. Testing MGA

This study provides an attempt to extend TAM by incorporating demographics as moderators into the model. To test the moderation effect, multi-group analysis (MGA) was established. This analysis establishes an influence based on two groups. Therefore, demographics were categorized into two groups and the results were as follows:

H6: The positive effects of proposed determinants on attitudes and intentions are stronger for students with regular use of e-books compared to the students with limited use of e-books. MGA was employed, and the two models for regular vs. limited (Rarely + Frequently) users reported nearly the same results. Only marginal changes in path coefficients were seen donating no significant differences. This result was supported by Chi-Square test that compared the two models as reported $X^2 = 2.812$ with a significance value (P = 0.590) exceeding threshold (0.05), indicating that the two models are not significantly different at the model level. Previous results render no support for H6.

H7: The positive effects of proposed determinants on attitudes and intentions are stronger for students who studied 3 or more English courses in university compared to students who studied less than 3 English courses. MGA was employed, and the two models for less than 3 courses vs. more than 3 reported slight changes in path coefficients. Result by Chi-Square test that compared the two models reported $X^2 = 10.910$ with a significance value (P = 0.028) not exceeding threshold (0.05), indicating that the two models are significantly different at the model level. Previous results support H7.

H8: The positive effects of proposed determinants on attitudes and intentions are stronger for students who are currently studying 3 or more English courses in university compared to students who are currently studying less than 3 English courses. MGA was employed, and the two models for less than 3 current courses vs. more than 3 current courses reported slight changes in path coefficients. Result by Chi-Square test that compared the two models reported $X^2 = 11.026$ with a significance value (P = 0.026) not exceeding threshold (0.05), indicating that the two models are significantly different at the modelevel. Previous results support H8.

V. DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

This study employed TAM to investigate determinate factors for e-book use by EFL students during COVID-19 pandemic. Online survey was used, and 283 valid responses were gathered from students. SEM-AMOS was applied to complete the analysis, and gathered findings provided contribution to the robustness of TAM in exploring determinate factors. Based on the findings, seven hypotheses (PEOU → PU, PEOU → Attitudes, PU → Intentions, PU → Attitudes, Attitudes → on Intentions, Intentions and Attitudes → 3 or more English studied courses, Intentions and Attitudes → 3 or more English currently studying courses) were supported. While *H6* (Intentions and Attitudes → regular use of e-textbooks) was not supported.

From the results of descriptive analysis, one can conclude that students perceived that e-book using allowed for moderate level of usefulness. Moreover, ease of use was also to moderate level for e-book use. These result were in agreement with Davis (1989) and Lethumanan and Tarmizi (2011) who stated that "perceive[d] ease of use play important role in making the e-book to be perceived as useful" (p. 523). EFL learners' attitudes and intentions also perceived e-books as useful. This result was in consistent with Semda et al. (2018, p. 250) who stated that PU played an important role in affecting attitude towards adoption of e-book and students' BIs to use e-book.

The findings of our study that were related to the significant effect of PEOU on PU towards adoption of e-textbooks were supported by Lethumanan and Tarmizi (2011) and Smedi et al. (2018). While the positive effect of PEOU on attitudes towards using e-textbook was supported by Smedi et al., it was opposed by Lethumanan and Tarmizi. Still, EFL learners who regularly use e-books did not have positive attitudes and intentions towards using e-books which meant that they did not find them useful or easy to use. This result was inconsistent with Al-Suqri's (2014) result that participants who used e-books regularly perceived that e-books were easy to use.

H7 and *H8* were also supported by the findings. They indicated that students who studied or were studying three or more English courses had positive attitudes and higher intentions towards using e-books if compared to those who studied less than three. This pointed out the significant role of English language courses that were offered for students at the university. These findings were inconsistent with Chou (2016) and Shadiev and Yang (2020) whose participants perceived reading e-books as an "unpleasant" experience despite the value of the "intangible nature of e-books." However, the same findings were in agreement with Bui and Macalister (2021) and Kamal et al. (2021). We could conclude that as long as EFL learners' attitudes had positive effect on their intentions to use e-books, they perceived e-books use as useful and easy to use. Students appeared to respond positively to the features of e-books. This could be

attributed to the English e-books characteristics that students studied online during the lockdown preventive measures of Covid-19 pandemic. The general English courses at BAU were introduced through Cambridge Learning Management Systems (CLMS). Some of these e-books features were the assigned audio-visual icons and the interactive activities (online workbook).

This evidently required the attentions of e-books providers who ought to focus on the features of e-textbooks like notetaking, highlighting and dictionary check. Moreover, universities' libraries and instructors should provide and refer to the sophisticated easy navigate e-textbooks applications and the digital references databases. In an era of pandemic, partial/full closures imposed social distance and online learning /teaching. As a result, it was vital to provide students with all required materials online and to revise academic plans to include more English courses.

Moreover, the attitudes of the students towards using e-books had significant positive influence on their intentions to use e-books. The same finding was supported by Bui and Macalister (2021) . In fact online learning is not about just using internet mechanisms to communicate, it's about moving knowledge transformation to digital space, so that students can take the same benefits compared to the traditional learning. Therefore, online libraries should be able to provide students with required books that contribute to their education. Moreover, the technical aspect should also be considered. Web and app developers should consider designing sophisticated interfaces that allow students to customize and navigate through text books easily.

This study brings new knowledge to the literature related to English teaching by the embodiment of the TAM with e-books use and reading habits. Also, technology, as electronic books, should be used in all classrooms to support literacy learning as the result of the study showed high intentions by students to use e-books. Our study was limited in its geographical context because the sample was taken from one university in Jordan, and it was targeting EFL students. Future studies should consider EFL students in all Jordanian universities to have more generalizable results. In addition, future studies should also consider exploring other factors that can extend TAM to provide more comprehensive addressing for factors that determine students' acceptance of e-books.

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The Effect of Discussion Method of Teaching on Nigerian Secondary School Students' Performance in English Test of Orals

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Abstract—Test of Orals is an aspect of English Language, a requisite subject for Nigerian secondary school students to pass at a credit level before gaining admission for university education. However, increasing failure in the performance of the Nigerian secondary students in the English Language has been attributed to the consistent poor performance in the aspect of Test of Orals. Consequently, this mixed-methods research examined the effect of the discussion method of teaching on the Nigerian secondary students' performances in the Test of Orals. An intact class of 24 students were pretested, and then posttested after an intervention. Students' performances in the pretest and posttest were quantitatively analysed via paired sample t-test. This was followed by collecting qualitative data from the tested students by interview on how they perceive the effect of the discussion method of teaching. While the quantitative result generally revealed that the discussion method of teaching was effective in improving the students' performances in the 'Test of Orals', the qualitative result revealed that the intervention programme was effective as it made the English Language course interesting. Thus, it is recommended that discussion method of teaching can be used to help students improve their performances in 'Test of Orals.

Index Terms—English test of orals, discussion method of teaching, Nigerian secondary school students, performance

I. INTRODUCTION

In West African Senior Secondary School Examination (WASSCE), 'Test of Orals' is Paper III under 'English Language' (Banjo et al., 2013). It has been argued that the promotion of effective use of English in communication requires the incorporation of 'Oral Test' into the overall assessment of students' language proficiency (Naeini, 2011). Yet, the Test of Orals has remained the most difficult aspect of English language for Nigerian secondary school students (Okoro, 2017). While some scholars have attributed the increasing failure in English language in WASSCE to the fact that Received Pronunciation (RP) is still being very much foreign to Nigerians, some other scholars link it to students and teachers' non-proficiency both in 'performance' and 'competence' (Josiah & Essien, 2015; Olajide & Olaniyi, 2013).

When the Test of Orals was introduced, the examination used to be conducted orally. Students were put to speech production test perception tests. Later, the Test of Orals was changed and simplified to a mere identification of speech sounds and remains so till date. The Test of Orals, as paper III of English Language examination in Nigerian senior secondary school, has been existing for 26 years. However, little attention has been given to the implementation of intervention programmes that can target the improvement of students' performance in Test of Orals. Studies that have focused on Test of Orals include Olajide and Olaniyi (2013), Josiah and Essien (2015), and Ibrahim and Bello (2020). These studies, however, did not focus on the improvement of Nigerian students' performance in Test of Orals. Further, even the recent study of Ibrahim and Bello (2020) was not an experimental one. Rather, it was intended to only reveal the effect of the Test of Orals on the teachers' teaching methods. To show gaps in previous studies, Pennington (2021) has noted that "Although the amount of research on pronunciation teaching is steadily increasing, there is still much more to explore about the effects and effectiveness of different approaches at different stages of learning and levels of proficiency" (p. 3).

In view of the very scarce attention given to experimental methods that investigate the English Test of Orals in L2 contexts, especially in Nigeria, this study was carried out to address the following research questions:

Q1: How does the discussion method of teaching improve the Nigerian senior secondary school students' performance in English Test of Orals?

Q2: How do Nigerian senior secondary school students perceive the effectiveness of the discussion method of teaching in improving their performance in Test of Orals?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This section starts with an overview of Test of Orals in WASSCE. This overview highlights the historical development of Test of Orals and the components of this test. This is followed by a review of previous studies and the theoretical background that supports the study. The review of previous was done to identify gaps in previous studies.

A. Test of Orals in WASSCE

The Test of Orals is made of 60 questions and carries 30 out of the 180 marks assigned to the English Language examination. Until 1995, WASSCE in English language used to be divided into two sections only: 'Essay' and 'Objectives'. Although the English language was seen by students as a difficult subject then, the co-option of oral English later as paper III makes it even more difficult for students (Banjo et al., 2013). However, the need to co-opt the Test of Orals into the WASSCE English language was necessitated by the idea that a student can only be proficient in English when he/she performs both in English writing and speaking (Suleiman & Adam, 2019). This confirms the conclusion of Taeduck and Finch (1998) which emphasises that promoting the use of English requires the incorporation of 'Oral Test' into the overall assessment of students' English proficiency.

When the Test of Orals was introduced, the examination was indeed conducted orally. In other words, students were put to test on speech production and perception. Later, the Test of Orals was changed to mere speech sounds identification and remains so till date.

Test of Orals is intended to examine the oral performance of a senior secondary school III (final year) student in English language. Having gone through the rigor of discussions accompanied by drills, imitations and reinforcements, for about three years, it is the expectation of the examining body that candidates have already acquired the basic phonological skills enough in almost all aspects of spoken English to enable them perform well and confidently in the Test of Orals. There are usually seven sections in the WASSCE Test of Orals. These are serially listed below:

1. Choosing the word that has the *same vowel sound* as the one represented by the letter(s) underlined.
2. Choosing the word that has the *same consonant sound(s)* as the one represented by the letter(s) underlined.
3. Choosing the word that *rhymes* with the given word.
4. Choosing the one that has the *correct stress*.
5. Identifying the one with the *different stress pattern*.
6. Choosing the one to which the given sentence is the appropriate answer.
7. Choosing the word that contains the sound represented by the given phonetic symbol.

B. Related Studies

In L2 contexts, both teachers and students agree that the development of oral communication abilities is an important aspect for L2 learners (Singay, 2020). Further, researchers argue that pronunciation is an essential element of L2 learners' communicative competence (Nguyen et al., 2021). From the view point of standard English ideology, the possibility of L2 learners to pronounce English words perfectly has been ruled out because L1 and L2 learners of English always vary in various aspects including pronunciation of English words (Crystal, 2003). For this reason, classical phoneticians such as Jones, Gimson, and Roach adopted imitation as the underlying method for teaching English pronunciation using articulatory and auditory phonetics (Eka, 1996, 2000).

Various studies have examined the effectiveness of some methods of teaching English pronunciation. Using a first-hand 'classroom observation' method, Tergujeff (2012) surveyed pronunciation teaching of Finish teachers of English as a foreign language in Finland and found out that they mostly use teacher-centred method characterised by imitation and teacher correctness. In the Nigerian context, Usman and Mustafa (2014) quantitatively reported that the challenges of teaching pronunciation include teachers' ineffective method of teaching, influence of mother tongue, and lack of appropriate teaching materials. Very few studies have examined the effectiveness of the discussion method. For example, in the Omani EFL context, Abdulbaki et al. (2018) examined the role of the discussion method of teaching on the development of EFL Omani students' linguistic and academic performance. They revealed that the discussion method can encourage students be active in class because of the constant interaction between the teacher and students. They also reported that the students benefited from the discussion methods in terms of improvement of their achievement. In the Nigerian context, a simple quasi-experiment conducted by Chukwurah et al. (2020) reported that the discussion method is effective in teaching Physical and Health Education to junior secondary school students as it proved to improve learners' performances. How effective using the discussion method in teaching 'Test of Orals', however, remains unexamined.

Theoretically, this study is supported by two competing theories that explain how language is learnt: behavioural and cognitive (Mitchell et al., 2019). In practice, however, both theories complement each other in the language learning process (Choi & Nunan, 2018). In line with the behavioural theory, Nunan (2015) views L2 learning as the process by which at least one second or foreign language is learnt informally through interaction with environment and formally through classroom situation. In this study, the experimental intervention was used within the broad background theory of behaviourism, which asserts that language must be taught before it is learnt.

Thus, this study was conducted to further deepen the understanding of language in contact, leading to the learning of English as a second language by Nigerian secondary school students, starting from 1980s. Being an experimental

intervention study, it hopes to bring into effect how using an effective method in teaching an oral aspect of English to secondary school students will impact the education system of Nigeria.

III. METHOD

A. Research Design

Effective educational policies are informed by research findings, especially the experimental ones involving hypothesis formulation and testing, change-based intervention through the combined use of quantitative and qualitative data (Hsieh et al., 2005). This study is a sequential mixed-methods research which consists of two phases: quantitative and qualitative (Creswell & Cresswell, 2018). While the first phase was a quasi-experimental, the second phase was qualitative. This design could provide a better understanding of the two concerns of this study: quantitative and qualitative. In the first phase, the one-group pretest-posttest design was used, where only one group of participants was exposed to an intervention programme (Phakiti, 2015). They were tested before and after the intervention. In the qualitative phase, participants were interviewed to explore their perceptions of the effectiveness of the intervention programme and its effect on the improvement of their performance in 'Test of Orals'.

B. Context and Participants

The school chosen to be the place of this study, as inquired, used to perform very low in the English Language Senior Secondary School Certificate Examination. As the class comprised students from the three major linguistic groups in Nigeria, it made the experimental phase of this study national in outlook. The choice to use the class of final year students was made because they were going to write their terminal examination and were therefore perceived to have had the relatively high motivation to participate in the study, especially in the quasi-experimental phase.

Nigerian secondary school students were the study population, from where the sample was drawn. It was specifically the Senior Secondary Students III of High Standard Secondary School, Jos-South, Plateau, Nigeria. The final year class comprised 29 students, with 18 (62%) females and 11 (38%) males. But in the end 5 failed to be consistent in attendance for various, unavoidable reasons. Consequently, 24 participated in the study. Out of this, 15 (62%) were females and 9 (38%) males. Their ages ranged between 17 and 20. They were diverse in sociolinguistic background in a way that most of them come from the host state – Plateau, speaking different Plateau native languages, with Hausa as their lingua-franca. Others were 6 Igbo and 5 Yoruba native speakers. Presence of the Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba – the three major Nigerian languages, and their native speakers shows the urbanised nature of the sample. Essentially, this reason and the constant low performance of the school in English Language West African Senior School Certificate Examination justified the choice of the sample. The 24 students used as the sample was justified by the standard of class size in Nigeria, requiring 20 to 30 students in a class.

The study was conducted using an intact class, which Phakiti (2015) described as an existing group of students used for an experiment. As opposed to between-class experiment where one will be a control class and the other an experimental class, this research is an in-class experiment where the group was tested before and after an intervention of the discussion teaching method (Atkinson et al., 2019).

C. The Intervention Programme

In the context of this study, intervention directly means teaching. Although discussion method was used for the intervention, it is called intervention because it was conducted on purpose to find out whether its desirable effect was observed in the trial students' performance (Nagengast et al., 2018). In language teaching, while method is the formal procedure used to orderly teach language items to students based on a selected approach, technique is a specific strategy used in teaching the language items as dictated by the nature of the entire classroom at hand (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Both teaching method and technique, as Richards and Rodgers noted, are informed by the teaching approach, which is the nature of the subject to be taught.

In this study, the teaching technique used in the intervention was 'faulty analogy'. Okoro (2017) applied this philosophical concept to describe the well-known inconsistency between speech and writing in English. For example, letter 'a' in 'data' is respectively represented in speech as /eɪ/ and /ə/. Same 'a' in 'many', 'ball' 'courage', 'bad' and 'father' are realised differently as /e/, /ɔ:/, /ɪ/, /æ/ and /ɑ:/. A combination of the letters 'ea', 'see' 'eo'. 'oe' 'ey', 'ei' and 'ie', for example, respectively as in 'sea'. 'See' 'people' 'amoeba', 'key' 'receipt' and 'belief' are realised the same as /i:/. The words 'write', 'wright', 'rite' and 'right' are pronounced in exactly the same way with different spelling and meaning. This is why Okoro describes the effect of this RP standard on the Nigerian English pronunciation as 'tyranny of faulty analogy' between the English speech and writing.

The intervention teaching method used in this study was 'discussion method' and the intervention teaching technique was 'faulty analogy'. The discussion method allows free expressions of different views in a classroom situation where learners are encouraged to voluntarily participate in the discussion (Abdulbaki et al,. 2018). It allowed the students to freely exchange wide range of opinions about the lesson topic as led, tolerated and facilitated by instructor (Orlich et al., 2012). Some features of the discussion method are tolerance, discovery, expression, varieties, agreement, disagreement, activeness, interaction, creativity, analysis, self-confidence, and learning (Orlich et al., 2012). Arguably, the discussion

method is the result of rigorous combination of the four broad teaching methods of learner-centred, teacher-centred, content-centred and interactive-centred.

However, the learner-centred modern teaching method demonstrated by the following features of personal relationship was adopted in the intervention programme of this study: (1) fostering personal relationships with students, (2) obtaining regular feedback from them, (3) motivating students to work through effective classroom leadership, (4) showing special attention to certain types of students, and (5) handling miscellaneous interpersonal issues (Bhatt, 2007).

D. Data Collection and Analysis

The experiment continued to the end when the third meeting was held. In this last meeting, the intact class explained (described) their condition after the entire intervention as compared to their condition before the intervention. Procedures for data collection began with introducing the intervention programme to the intact class by the principal as a normal lesson in English 'Test of Orals' to be taught. The intact class was then pre-tested using 2006, 2007 and 2008 sets of past questions of the English 'Test of Orals' (refer to Appendix). The scripts were marked and recorded, and the results given to the class. This was followed by the intervention programme, which continued and ended with the posttest. The scripts were marked and recorded, and then given to the intact class. On this note, participants were interviewed to explore their perceptions on the effectiveness of the intervention programme. The data of pre-test and posttest were analysed using descriptive statistics and paired-sample t-test in SPSS version 24. On the other hand, the qualitative data which were obtained through interviews were both transcribed, coded and analysed thematically based on thematic analysis method as proposed by Braun and Clarke (2006).

IV. RESULTS

A. Research Question 1

To address the first research question, data on students' performance in 'Test of Orals' before and after the implementation of the intervention programme were gathered and analysed. The data included 24 students' scores in these tests. The paired samples t-test was used to identify the differences between students' performance before and after the implementation of the intervention programme, which is the discussion method. Before the use of paired sample t-test, the researchers made sure that the five assumptions of this statistical test were achieved. The first assumption is that the dependent variable should be continuous (i.e., interval or ratio level). This was achieved because we measured students' performance using their scores in the test before and after the intervention. The second assumption is that the subjects in each group are the same. This means that the subjects in the first group (pre-test) are also in the second group (posttest). The third assumption is the random sample of data from the population. This was achieved in the study because 24 students were selected randomly. The fourth assumption is that the paired values should achieve approximate normal distribution. The fifth assumption is that there are no outliers in the difference between the two related groups.

The outcome of paired sample t-test is presented in Tables 1 and 2. As shown in Table 1, which shows the descriptive statistics of the two variables, there are differences in the means of pretest and posttest because the mean of the scores in the pre-test is 6.13 while it is 6.88 in the scores of the posttest. However, to identify whether these differences are statistically significant, paired sample t-test was run using SPSS version 24. The result of this statistical test is displayed in Table 2. As shown in Table 2, $t(23) = -4.50$, $p < 0.005$. Due to the means of the two scores (pretest and posttest) and the direction of the *t*-value, it can be concluded that there was a statistically significant improvement in students' scores following the use of the discussion method in teaching from 6.13 ± 0.992 to 6.88 ± 0.900 ($p < 0.005$).

TABLE 1
PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS

Pair 1	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pretest	6.13	24	.992	.202
Posttest	6.88	24	.900	.184

TABLE 2
PAIRED SAMPLES TEST

Pair 1	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pretest – Posttest	-.450	.989	.202	-1.168	-.332	-3.715	23	.001

B. Research Question 2

To understand participants' perceptions of the effectiveness of the discussion method on the improvement of their performance in the 'Test of Orals', the participants were interviewed at the end of the intervention programme. Participants were asked about three issues that are related to the discussion method. These three issues are (1) the difficulty of 'Test of Orals' before the implementation of discussion method, (2) their evaluation of the discussion

method, and (3) their perceptions of the effect of this method on the improvement of their performance in the 'Test of Orals'.

When the interviewees were asked about the difficulty of 'Test of Orals' before the implementation of discussion method, most of them revealed that 'Test of Orals' was the most difficult part among the three parts of English Language subject. For example, John, one of the interviewees, stated that "everybody in this class found 'Test of Orals' very difficult". When Chinonye, another interviewee, was asked about the same issue, he pointed out saying, "I used to find it very difficult and boring too. I did not even like it when it was the time for the class". These representative quotations from the interviews can obviously reveal how difficult the 'Test of Orals' was for Nigerian students. This was before the implementation of the discussion method of teaching.

Further, interviewees were asked about their perceptions of the implementation of the discussion method in their English classes. Based on the analysis of the interviews, most of the interviewees showed that the intervention programme made them enjoy English classes. Additionally, they showed their interest in having some extra classes that employ this intervention programme. For example, Kelvin, one of the interviewees, stated that "I now enjoy it but it is a bit confusing. Can we have some more examples?" John also declared "we do not mind having some extra lessons". Some interviewees pointed out that the intervention programme turned their oral English classes into interesting ones. For example, Titi, one of the participants stated that "it is difficult but interesting. I think I am beginning to understand it". Chike, another interviewee, stated that "I think I can now be sure of answering some questions in oral English". Thus, interviewees expressed their genuine interest in the development of the oral English after receiving instruction using the discussion method. They justified this showing that the intervention programme boosted their desire to ask questions, interact with the teacher, and build their self-confidence.

The third issue that was the target of the interviews was understanding students' perceptions of the effect of the discussion method on their performance in the 'Test of Orals'. The analysis of the interviews reflects that the discussion method was useful and effective in the improvement of students' performance in 'Test of Orals'. For example, Aderemi compared the pre-test with the posttest in terms of their difficulty. He pointed out that "the second test was not as difficult as the first one because were taught how to understand the test". Kwanam, another interviewee, stated that "If we will be taught in this way, we are sure of passing the examination". These representative quotations from the interviews can clearly express students' realisation that oral English is not all that difficult as erroneously conceived before the implementation of the discussion method. Additionally, the students noted that at the end of the intervention programme they can feel the confidence to write and pass the oral English examination. These qualitative findings of positive responses from the interviewees altogether go to support the quantitative findings reported earlier.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study examined an issue that has not been adequately addressed in previous studies. Specifically, the study examined the effect of the discussion method of teaching on students' performance in the 'Test of Orals'. Further, the study explored how participants perceived the effectiveness of the discussion method. The analysis of both the quantitative and qualitative data could clearly show that there is a significant or rather remarkable improvement generally in students' performance in the 'Test of Orals' due to the application of the discussion teaching method. These findings support those reported in previous studies (e.g., Abdulbaki et al., 2018; Chukwurah et al., 2020).

Results of this study uphold the significant improvement in the Nigerian students' performance in the English 'Test of Orals' after the intervention. The significant improvement was signalled by paired-sample test results which compared students' scores before and after the employment of the discussion method of teaching. Furthermore, this was supported by the positive responses in interviews with the students at the end of the intervention. As shown in this study, Nigerian students used to perceive the oral English as a difficult subject due to the ineffective method of teaching them. To further prove the effectiveness of the discussion method of teaching on the Nigerian trial students' performances, inquiry after analysing their final examination results which showed that most of the students recorded better performance. Hence, the School Management is encouraged to implement the discussion method of teaching in the following year to help students to be prepared effectively for the examination of the English Language 'Test of Orals'. Compared to the traditional method of teaching which is a one-way channel of communication where the teachers' task is to present the topic and explain the content to the students (Richards & Rodgers, 2014), the discussion method was found to be useful for improving students' performance in the 'Test of Orals' and in promoting learning (McKeachie & Svinicki, 2006).

Since most of the participants have shown some significant improvement in oral test, it is safe to claim that the discussion method of teaching can be effective. This became clear because most of the participants attested to the fact that they did appreciate both the subject-matter and the discussion method. Therefore, it is recommended that discussion method of teaching blended with technique of tyranny of English pronunciation should be used in teaching the English Language 'Test of Orals' in Nigerian secondary schools. All things being equal, it is expected that when the method and technique are applied to cover all aspects of the English Language 'Test of Orals', teaching and learning of oral English will be easier and more interesting to make Nigerian secondary students perform creditably in the 'Test of Orals'.

Taking into account the small sample of this study, future investigations can focus on testing the effectiveness of the discussion method of teaching through recruitment of a larger sample of students. As this study employed the one-group

pretest-posttest design, future researchers may choose to test the effectiveness of the discussion method of teaching using quasi-experimental designs where both control and experimental groups can be used.

APPENDIX

June 2006 WASSCE English Language III
Test of Orals (Objectives Test)
Section 1

From words lettered A to D, choose the word that has the **same vowel sound** as the one represented by the letter(s) underlined. An example is given below.

Example: s<u>ea</u>t **A.** sit **B.** cite **C.** set **D.** key

The correct answer is **D** because only **key** contains the same vowel sound as the one underlined in **seat.**

1. s<u>i</u>t **A.** quilt **B.** clique **C.** marine **D.** sardine
2. w<u>e</u>d **A.** days **B.** says **C.** meal **D.** deal
3. c<u>ar</u>d **A.** bat **B.** hat **C.** class **D.** glad
4. bought **A.** grouse **B.** loss **C.** worse **D.** horse
5. wh<u>o</u> **A.** bull **B.** wood **C.** rush **D.** lose
6. s<u>er</u>ve **A.** harp **B.** come **C.** journey **D.** beg
7. m<u>a</u>n **A.** dam **B.** basket **C.** parch **D.** park
8. b<u>o</u>ttle **A.** holy **B.** prowess **C.** grower **D.** modern
9. c<u>u</u>t **A.** butcher **B.** touch **C.** pouch **D.** pull
10. sh<u>ou</u>ld **A.** push **B.** mould **C.** cousin **D.** glad
11. gr<u>ea</u>t **A.** neighbour **B.** meat **C.** lead **D.** peasant
12. b<u>oa</u>t **A.** comfort **B.** host **C.** golf **D.** mother
13. b<u>oi</u>l **A.** mail **B.** sour **C.** coin **D.** mayor
14. f<u>air</u> **A.** sheer **B.** here **C.** heir **D.** fear
15. <u>ear</u> **A.** chair **B.** wear **C.** cheer **D.** earnest

Section 7

From the words lettered **A** to **D**, choose the word that contains the **sound** represented by the given phonetic symbol. An example is given below.

Example: /ɪ/ **A.** yell **B.** holy **C.** boy **D.** idiot

The correct answer is **C** because only **boy** contains the sound represented by the given symbol.

51. /æ/ **A.** mango **B.** market **C.** branch **D.** plant
52. /ɒ/ **A.** border **B.** bother **C.** boring **D.** brother
53. /u:/ **A.** full **B.** bush **C.** shampoo **D.** wool
54. /ɜ:/ **A.** courage **B.** favour **C.** perhaps **D.** scourge
55. /ə/ **A.** warning **B.** party **C.** exhaust **D.** grandeur

June 2007 WASSCE English Language III
Test of Orals (Objectives Test)
Section 1

From words lettered A to D, choose the word that has the **same vowel sound** as the one represented by the letter(s) underlined. An example is given below.

Example: s<u>ea</u>t **A.** sit **B.** cite **C.** set **D.** key

The correct answer is **D** because only **key** contains the same vowel sound as the one underlined in **seat.**

1. p<u>ar</u>k **A.** thank **B.** heart **C.** fact **D.** mass
2. c<u>au</u>se **A.** work **B.** cork **C.** mock **D.** double
3. b<u>a</u>t **A.** plant **B.** pass **C.** rank **D.** taste
4. b<u>u</u>ll **A.** shook **B.** root **C.** crude **D.** bulk
5. br<u>ea</u>d **A.** please **B.** head **C.** bead **D.** great
6. <u>oo</u>ze **A.** ruse **B.** blood **C.** good **D.** took
7. l<u>i</u>ck **A.** police **B.** women **C.** machine **D.** seek
8. h<u>u</u>m **A.** fond **B.** don **C.** onion **D.** romp
9. c<u>ur</u>se **A.** luck **B.** brought **C.** courteous **D.** fault
10. <u>a</u>way **A.** doctor **B.** angry **C.** addiet **D.** banking
11. w<u>ear</u> **A.** bait **B.** pair **C.** dear **D.** near
12. f<u>ai</u>th **A.** weight **B.** piety **C.** said **D.** guide
13. d<u>ee</u>r **A.** dare **B.** merely **C.** hair **D.** fairly
14. g<u>a</u>tt **A.** mount **B.** board **C.** hoard **D.** whole
15. f<u>ow</u>l **A.** sow **B.** tow **C.** now **D.** know

Section 7

From the words lettered **A** to **D**, choose the word that contains the **sound** represented by the given phonetic symbol. An example is given below.

Example: /ɪ/ **A.** yell **B.** holy **C.** boy **D.** idiot

The correct answer is **C** because only **boy** contains the sound represented by the given symbol.

51. /e/ **A.** pays **B.** says **C.** weight **D.** heinous
52. /i:/ **A.** sit **B.** people **C.** hymn **D.** jeopardy
53. /æ/ **A.** mad **B.** pass **C.** class **D.** dance
54. /u:/ **A.** douse **B.** route **C.** rough **D.** dough
55. /ɔ:/ **A.** lock **B.** naught **C.** drought **D.** watch

June 2008 WASSCE English Language III
Test of Orals (Objectives Test)
Section 1

From words lettered A to D, choose the word that has the **same vowel sound** as the one represented by the letter(s) underlined. An example is given below.

Example: s**ea**t **A.** sit **B.** cite **C.** set **D.** key

The correct answer is **D** because only **key** contains the same vowel sound as the one underlined in **seat.**

1. f**ea**st **A.** head **B.** caprice **C.** suffice **D.** practice
2. **a**pple **A.** carry **B.** rather **C.** can't **D.** market
3. c**o**st **A.** country **B.** associate **C.** month **D.** bother
4. s**i**ck **A.** marine **B.** tribunal **C.** knowledge **D.** vital
5. b**u**llet **A.** bush **B.** hoof **C.** rude **D.** cull
6. m**oo**d **A.** crux **B.** crude **C.** book **D.** took
7. b**e**d **A.** weight **B.** receive **C.** leisure **D.** height
8. s**u**pper **A.** don **B.** dove **C.** hovel **D.** super
9. l**aw**n **A.** word **B.** purse **C.** wan **D.** sword
10. c**a**r **A.** aunt **B.** rack **C.** plan **D.** gaunt
11. t**ie** **A.** chief **B.** relief **C.** buy **D.** belief
12. sh**ou**t **A.** tough **B.** should **C.** drought **D.** mould
13. s**ay** **A.** heifer **B.** heinous **C.** either **D.** says
14. kn**ow** **A.** stroll **B.** cloth **C.** rot **D.** loss
15. h**ear** **A.** swear **B.** bear **C.** pear **D.** fear

Section 7

From the words lettered **A** to **D**, choose the word that contains the **sound** represented by the given phonetic symbol. An example is given below.

Example: /ɪ/ **A.** yell **B.** holy **C.** boy **D.** idiot

The correct answer is **C** because only **boy** contains the sound represented by the given symbol.

51. /ɪ/ **A.** pays **B.** says **C.** weight **D.** heinous
52. /æ/ **A.** sit **B.** people **C.** hymn **D.** jeopardy
53. /ɜ:/ **A.** mad **B.** pass **C.** class **D.** dance
54. /ɒ/ **A.** douse **B.** route **C.** rough **D.** dough
55. /əu/ **A.** hostel **B.** bone **C.** roster **D.** dove

June 2009 WASSCE English Language III
Test of Orals (Objectives Test)
Section 1

From words lettered A to D, choose the word that has the **same vowel sound** as the one represented by the letter(s) underlined. An example is given below.

Example: s**ea**t **A.** sit **B.** cite **C.** set **D.** key

The correct answer is **D** because only **key** contains the same vowel sound as the one underlined in **seat.**

1. memb**er** **A.** lorry **B.** country **C.** tailor **D.** expect
2. l**e**vy **A.** lever **B.** weaver **C.** weapon **D.** reader
3. f**oo**l **A.** foot **B.** book **C.** push **D.** move
4. b**o**ttle **A.** watch **B.** cover **C.** son **D.** water
5. l**aw**n **A.** pot **B.** love **C.** paltry **D.** laugh
6. w**o**rry **A.** story **B.** honey **C.** sorry **D.** roster
7. c**a**rt **A.** panel **B.** wrap **C.** plant **D.** scam
8. gr**ow** **A.** lock **B.** novel **C.** hostel **D.** gross
9. s**oi**l **A.** joyful **B.** chamois **C.** abattoir **D.** onion
10. gr**ey** **A.** sew **B.** parent **C.** gauge **D.** pause

11. l<u>ea</u>p **A.** peasant **B.** vehicle **C.** stealth **D.** mess

12. g<u>oo</u>d **A.** room **B.** loom **C.** full **D.** null

13. s<u>er</u>ve **A.** curtsy **B.** surprise **C.** current **D.** courtship

14. h<u>ea</u>r **A.** rare **B.** learn **C.** beef **D.** deer

15. c<u>ow</u> **A.** arrow **B.** low **C.** how **D.** mow

Section 7

From the words lettered **A** to **D**, choose the word that contains the **sound** represented by the given phonetic symbol. An example is given below.

Example: /ɪ/ **A.** yell **B.** holy **C.** boy **D.** idiot

The correct answer is **C** because only **boy** contains the sound represented by the given symbol.

51. /ə/ **A.** music **B.** mouthful **C.** problem **D.** colleague

52. /ɪ/ **A.** expert **B.** extort **C.** exile **D.** exercise

53. /ɜː/ **A.** port **B.** cord **C.** sort **D.** work

54. /u/ **A.** should **B.** rude **C.** boom **D.** doom

55. /ʌ/ **A.** ozone **B.** orange **C.** oven **D.** glory

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The Historical Dynamics of the Archaistic Lexicon in Modern Balinese Languages

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Abstract—The communication of Balinese people in this era is often marked by the waning of archaistic vocabulary diction, which is believed to have politeness values. Even though it still exists, diction on archaistic elements is only used in a limited realm. The use of archaistic vocabulary diction is felt to give more value, such as respect for elders. Moreover, archaic words give a certain spirit to the Balinese Kepara or common language. This study aims to comparatively describe the archaic vocabulary of Balinese, considering the language is an acculturation of several cultures. In other words, the Balinese is not merely a language of communication, but reflects a polite and educative culture in building the image and identity of the people. Therefore, tracing the archaic lexicon is necessary to describe and accept its usage. Several lexicons were found in Sanskrit, Old Javanese, and Old Balinese and still exist in Modern Balinese. In terms of shape and organization, some of these lexicons are unchanged (linear), while others have changed. The linear lexicon is used massively by Balinese people with their strong Hindu religion. The archaistic lexicon indicates that local wisdom can be maintained to develop Balinese culture. Several lexicons undergo changes in form accompanied by a shift in meaning. However, they are still maintained in the component and the lexicon with contrasting meanings. The shape changes are only phonological, with variations in syllable boundaries.

Index Terms—archaistic, social strata, innovation, retention, integration

I. INTRODUCTION

The Balinese language is one of the Austronesian subgroups. Historically, it was heavily influenced by other languages with rapid development. Two languages considered to be very dominant in this development are Sanskrit and Old Javanese. The ancient Javanese language in Bali is called the Kawi. These languages are often used in social life by people in Bali, both in the formal and non-formal realms. In linguistic typology, Balinese and Old Javanese have typological characteristics of agglutination. One of the agglutinative characteristics is that a word can be formed by more than one morpheme, and the boundary between a morpheme and a word is straightforward (see Comrie, 1989; Lieber, 2010). However, when compared to Sanskrit, Balinese and Old Javanese are very contrastive. Even though the language is very contrastive, innovation and dynamics can be traced linguistically. Therefore, it is important to describe the archaistic lexicon so that it is used correctly.

The development of the Balinese language cannot be separated from the royal power in the past. It can be explained that the Majapahit expedition to Bali in 1343 caused the defeat of the kings in Bali, hence several of his kingdoms had to submit to Majapahit. During King Airlangga, Bali was increasingly influenced by Java. Therefore, Bali became part of the Majapahit kingdom. Since then, Bali has mingled with two streams, namely the process of "*javanization* and *balinization*," which gave birth to the cultural diversity inherited until now (Zoetmulder, 1985, pp. 23-24). This acculturation is a priceless wealth inherited and manifested as language.

In society, there are indications of moral degradation that tend to be less conducive. It is suspected that there is a lack of the current generation in understanding the sense of inappropriate language. To overcome this problem, it is important to make real efforts to restore and implement elements of archaic language. Therefore, an understanding of comprehensive language usage will lead to communication in harmony with the appropriate meaning conveyed. The use of archaistic lexical tends to have an educative meaning which can be used as a guide in understanding the meaning of the language.

The languages suspected to have inherited the lexical structure of Bali are Sanskrit (SL), Old Javanese (OJ), and Old Balinese (OB). Historically, for the first ten centuries from the beginning of AD, SL is no longer used in India. BS is the language of literature used in the upper classes of society and in the palace environment. It is also used in the field of religion and for worship purposes. From the origin and form, SL is closer to the indigenous Indo-Aryan languages. The SL influence in Indonesia was caused by ordinary social contact or as a result of marriages between Indonesians and

foreigners in Java, from the Kshatriya group or the merchants who formed their trading centers. They used one of the Indo-Aryan languages, such as the Dravidian. These borrowing words from India are included in OJ (Zoetmulder, 1985, pp. 10-11; Erawati, 2017).

Old Javanese is one of the archipelago's temporal dialects, estimated to have developed from the IX – XV centuries. OJ is marked by the discovery of the Sukabumi inscription in 726 Saka. It was used in Javanese communication and as an introduction to state administration (see again Zoetmulder, 1985, pp. 22-24). Meanwhile, SL was an introduction to the field of religion during the Majapahit expedition to Bali. Erawati (2015) stated that in specific contexts, OJ inherited by the Balinese people is used actively in certain areas, such as formal, customary, and religious domains, but the language is classified as dead. Some Balinese cultural idioms use OJ. For example, "*asing tinandur sarwa nadi, asing tinuku sarwa murah"* means that 'everything that is planted always grows, everything that is bought is cheap, then" *kadi bahni ring pahoman mangde suka nikang rat,"* which means 'like fire in a place of offering for the world happiness'.

Similarly, the OB is one of the temporal dialects of the Balinese language. It is used only in inscriptions dating from the ancient Balinese era. The OB used in the inscriptions differs from those used orally in form and in the period of use. In the oldest type, OB is found in the Sukawana inscription dated 804 Saka, issued in a panglapuan in Singhamandawa. However, the inscription does not mention the name of the king who brought it down (Granoka et al., p. vi; Sulibra et al., 2022, p. 248).

Based on the description, linguistic problems are prone to occur diachronically. Therefore, the topic discussed is related to tracing the lexical treasures of the source language into BB and is limited to phonological studies. This study aims to develop and enrich Balinese local wisdom as an important effort to support Balinese cultural intelligence as a world tourist destination. The problems can be formulated in the form of questions, namely: (1) Where are the archaistic lexical reflected in MBL? and (2) How are the structures and phonological variations of archaistic lexical in MBL?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTS

A. *Literature Review*

Numerous linguists have disclosed comparative language studies, both cross-linguistic and immediately pertinent to the present investigation. However, a very relevant study that contributed to this analysis is presented as follows:

Hunter (1988), in his dissertation, discussed "Balinese Language: Historical Background and Contemporary State." The problem of the Balinese language, which was based on the Old Javanese and Malay language was reported. Several evidences from Old Javanese were disclosed to analyze the historical aspects of the Balinese language, such as passive-forming affixes such as *ka-* and *–in-*, widely used in *Mababasan* activities and writing literary works in Bali. Moreover, the Old Malay language is also found in the writing of these literary works. The discussion places emphasis on the study of the Modern Balinese language. This historical study greatly contributes and provides an overview and insight into studying the topic.

Sutjiati (1992) discussed "Evolution of Verb Morphology in Balinese." In the comparative study, several evolutions of Old Balinese verb affixed in Modern Balinese were obtained. Old Balinese language affixes change, lose their form, and are replaced by affixes in Modern Balinese, which have the same function and meaning. Furthermore, double affixes in Old Balinese become single in Modern Balinese. The result indicates that retention or resilience still exists even though there are several innovations and dynamics in the Modern Balinese language.

Erawati (2002) analyzed "The Inheritance of Old Javanese Affixes in Modern Javanese". The study was dissected based on comparative historical linguistic theory (CHL) by applying the distinctive features contained in generative phonology. The results found several affixes that were inherited linearly, inherited with change, and inherited in a zero (disappeared) manner. The three patterns found are composed of phonological rules.

Erawati (2014) wrote an article in an accredited national journal of Language and Arts (UNM) entitled "Formal Causative Typology of Old Javanese Language". The causative typologies are morphological, lexical, and analytical causation. The joining of two macro situations into a single situation is associated with a conjunction particle.

Erawati (2015) then wrote an article published by the Bali Studies Center (UNUD) entitled "*The* Existence and Dynamics of Old Javanese Vocabulary in Today's Balinese Society". The oral use of the Old Javanese language in Bali and some speech errors were discussed, hence there is a shift in form and meaning. This study indicates that there are several Old Javanese lexicons in Modern Balinese Language and Old Javanese words used by Balinese people limited to certain areas.

Erawati's (2015) study in the International Proceedings of The 7th International seminar on Austronesian-Non-Austronesian Languages and Literature was entitled "Phonological Variations of Negation Forms in Old Javanese Language". It found phonological forms and variations of Sanskrit linguistic elements absorbed into the Old Javanese language and its denial form. Furthermore, the grammatical patterns of denial were absorbed into the Old Javanese language.

Paramarta (2015) discussed "The Evolution of Proto-Austronesian Etimons (PAN) on the Environment in Balinese" There are several inherited etymons without changing the form and meaning, and there are inherited etymons with changes through the creations of Balinese speakers. The creative process of Balinese speakers is strongly influenced by factors, such as internal Balinese language and contact with other languages.

Erawati (2016) conducted a study entitled "Grammaticalization of Sanskrit Linguistic Units in Old Javanese" at the International Congress of the Indonesian Linguistic Society, held at Udayana University Denpasar. The results include grammatical rules for forming words/ lexical from Sanskrit.

Furthermore, Erawati and Wijana (2017), in the Udayana International Journal of Social Science Humanities (UJoSSH), analyzed "The Heritage Structure of Sanskrit Compound in Old Javanese Language: A Contrastive Linguistics Study" Volume 1, No. 1, February 2017 Edition and published by IRCS UNUD Journals. Erawati and Sulibra (2017) studied "Speech Act Verb in Old Javanese: Natural Semantics Metalanguage Analysis" in the International Journal of Language & Linguistics, Vol. 4, No. 2; June 2017, published by the Center for Promoting Ideas, USA.

Moreover, Erawati (2017) conducted a study entitled "The Relativity Strategy of Old Javanese" in the *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, Vol. 8, No. 6, November 2017 DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/jltr.0806.10. It found several relative elements, morphosyntactic variations, and grammatical structures of complex clauses in the Old Javanese language. This was also reported by Erawati (2017) in an AKSARA accredited journal entitled "The Interpretation of Sound Segment of Old Javanese: Speech Analyzer and Distinctive Features Analysis".

Erawati et al. (2018) analyzed "Implementation of Traditional Literary Texts in the Harmonization of Balinese Society". This was presented at the National Conference on Local Languages "Revitalization of Local Languages as The Pillar of Pluralism" at Swiss-Belinn Kristal Hotel, Kupang, on 29-30 June 2018. The result found that Old Javanese texts, classified as spoken texts 'which are implemented in Balinese society, become a guideline in daily life which is highly patterned with Hinduism.

Sulibra et al. (2022) analyzed "The Heritage of Ancient Balinese Affixes in Modern Balinese*". The result showed the evolvement of several Old Balinese affixes inherited in Modern Balinese. Affixes that survive are 50% of the tabulated data, and several Old Balinese affixes were not inherited in Modern Balinese. The literature review is a comparative study and contributes significantly to a recent study, theoretically and in its implementation.

B. Concepts

Some concepts are needed in studying this topic and the presentation guides the terminology to obtain relevant results based on scientific principles. Furthermore, some of the concepts in question are described and explained.

(a). Lexeme and Lexicon

Kridalaksana (1984) defined a lexeme as a word or phrase which is a meaningful or the smallest unit of the lexicon. Meanwhile, the lexicon is a language component containing information about the words meaning and use. The lexicon is also defined as vocabulary or a list of words arranged to be accompanied by brief and practical explanations. The concept of lexeme and lexicon is compiled in language dictionaries. Referring to the concept, many lexicons have an archaic nature and high educational value.

(b). Reflection

The term reflection in BKKI online is defined as a reflection or picture. The term reflection referred to in this comparative study is based on a diachronic object involving several specific periods. For example, the Malay language can be reflected in various regions of the archipelago. Similarly, the current state of the Balinese language can be viewed as contributing to its treasures and sustaining local wisdom.

(c). Shared Innovation and Shared Retention

Hock (1988, p. 581) explained that shared innovation is an inherited element of the original language in form and meaning. Shared innovation is the process through which two or more languages undergo a renewal of fundamental words or phoneme system while retaining the existing elements. As a result of their evolution, these languages are regarded as a new group. Therefore, the inherited elements of the previous language tend to be grammaticalized, which becomes an inherited language treasure. Shared retention is an aspect of inheritance that continues or persists in both form and meaning in derived languages, the same or unaltered as those in the original (Crowley, 1992, p. 164). Words with a strong retention rate are considered to have a closer relationship with the language suspected to be the proton language. This can be studied using a quantitative approach to analyze the phenomenon.

(d). Reconstruction

Reconstruction is conducted to obtain valid inherited linguistic forms and assign reflected proto-phonemes and morphemes in the current language. Findings in pairs of words that correspond to a proto-phoneme have successfully carried out morphemic reconstruction estimated to reduce morphemes in the current language (Keraf, 1996). Therefore, this concept is very relevant to explaining the lexicon in Balinese language.

(e). Synchronic - Diachronic

This term stems from Ferdinand de Saussure from the flow of structural linguistics. Cours de Linguistique Generale (1916) suggested that language studies examine diachronic matters and the "structure" of a particular language without regard to the diachronic aspect. Synchronic linguistics only recognizes one perspective, namely the speaker's perspective, in the testimony to know reality. On the contrary, diachronic linguistics should distinguish two perspectives,

namely *perspective*, which follows the direction of time, and *retrospective*, which goes against the flow of time (Hidayat, 1996, p. 175). Furthermore, diachronic is the study of approaches to language by analyzing developments historically (KBBI, 1995) and see also Verhaar (1996, p. 15).

(f). Theoretical Basis

The language kinship is often called the theory of comparative historical linguistics or diachronic rules. The study of linguistic kinship in Austronesian languages, was developed by comparative linguists, such as Otta Dempwolff, Teodora Bynon, Hans Henrich Hock, and others. This theory is based on the connectedness and regularity hypotheses (Jeffers & Lehiste, 1979; Hock, 1988, p. 567). The basic hypothesis is the similarity or resemblance of linguistic forms. The form of resemblance can involve similarities in sound systems, morphological similarities, and syntactic similarities, namely the relationship between words in sentences (Keraf, 1996, p. 34). The similarity of forms and meanings are considered as ancestral vocabulary, not as borrowed, coincidences, or universal tendencies. The diversity of lexicons in a language is related to the complexity of meaning and function of lingual units in socio-cultural life. Therefore, the search for BJK linguistic elements in BB is very relevant to be dissected based on comparative historical linguistic theory. This theory is also equipped with a supporting theory, namely language change. Supporting theory is used to obtain the socio-cultural meaning of the lexicon absorbed in the Balinese language. Based on this comparative study, it is predicted that the Balinese language has many archaic lexicons with linguistic processes.

III. METHOD

This study is qualitative, and compares languages diachronically. Therefore, it is based on the language comparison method. The language comparison method has two hypotheses: connectedness and regularity. This is a comparative study between field and corpus research conducted with three stages of methods and techniques, as follows:

A. Data Provision Methods and Techniques

At this stage, the method used is listening and observation. Listening is related to the use of spoken and written language. Tapping written language occurs when dealing with the use of textual language, such as ancient manuscripts, and narrative texts (Mahsun, 2007, pp. 92-93; see also Bungin, 2001, p. 57; Moleong, 2000; Creswell, 2009). This study checks the data in the field on the lexicon and the use in Balinese society. The available data are tabulated to obtain a cognate set ready for analysis.

B. Data Analysis Methods and Techniques

Two main methods are used in data analysis: the intralingual equivalent and the extra lingual equivalent method. There are two concepts in the intralingual method: the equivalent and the intralingual concepts. The concept of matching compares the concept of intralingual refers to elements in the language, which are distinguished from elements outside of language, such as information, context, and others. The strategies employed are comparison-matching, differential-correspondence, and comparison-matching, equating the most significant points (Mahsun, 2007, pp. 117-120; c.f. Djajasudarma, 1993; Sudaryanto, 1993). In addition to this method, paraphrase is also employed; consequently, the message is not skewed.

C. Methods and Techniques for Presentation of Analysis Results

The analysis are presented in two ways, namely (a) formulation or description using ordinary words, including the use of technical terminology, and (b) formulation using certain signs, tables, or symbols that become a study convention. The two methods are commonly referred to as informal and formal methods. This method is equipped with inductive-deductive techniques.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Various linguistic phenomena contained in the languages greatly affect the current Balinese language existence. The lexicon selected concerns the pattern of change from the language considered the oldest in influence to the pattern inherited and used in social life in Bali. The identified data were grouped into the fully reflected lexicon, with phonological changes and adaptations, and the lexicon with changes in meaning. The data lexicon is described as follows:

TABLE 1
FULL FORM LEXICON AND PHONEME ADAPTATIONS

NO.	Gloss	SL	OJ	OB	MBL
1	sun	*aditya*	*aditya*	*aditya*	*aditya, raditya*
2	clothes	*bhusana*	*bhusana*	*bhusana*	*busana*
3	agreed	*bhisama*	*bhisama*	*bhisama*	*bisama*
4	Moo moon	*cana candra*	*candra*	*candra*	*candra*
5	four intersection	*catur, catuspatha*	*catur catuspatha*	*catur catuspatha*	*catur catuspata*
6	rural area	*deśa*	*desa*	*desa*	*desa*
7	peace	*santi*	*santi*	*santi*	*santi*
8	body	*śarira,*	*śarira,*	*śarira,*	*sarira,*
9	fruits	*sarwaphala*	*sarwaphala*	*sarwaphala*	*sarwaphala, sarwapala*
10	thank	*sūksma*	*sūksma*	*suksma*	*suksma*
11	sun	*sūrya*	*sūrya*	*surya*	*surya*
12	obligation	*swadhârma*	*swadhârma*	*swadharma*	*swadharma, swadarma*
13	primary treasure	*paramartha*	*paramartha*	*paramartha*	*paramartha, paramarta*
14	no benefit	*nirguṇa*	*nirguṇa*	*nirguṇa*	*nirguna*
15	bad people	*durjana*	*durjana*	*durjana*	*durjana*

In Table 1 above, there are fifteen-word pairs. The pair of data shows that there are similarities in the form, structure, and meaning of the lexicon from SL and borrowed into OJ, then into OB, and in the MBL lexicon. From several lingual data, there are two competing forms, namely the form used in its entirety and with adjustments to the phonemes in MBL. In writing Latin letters, the phoneme symbols are adjusted. The adjusted phonemes have diacritical marks, such as /ṇ/, /ḍ/, /ṭ/ → /n/, /d/, /t/ as in the words *danda, tusta, kanta*. Words that contain aspirate phonemes are removed, such as /dh/, /ph/, /th/ → /d/ p/, /t/. The aspirate phonemes used are lexicon *dharma-darma, phala-pala, artha-arta*, and others. Phonemes with long vowels become short vowels, such as the *sûrya-surya*, and *desâ-desa*. The removal of the sign/phoneme gives the impression of being less archaic. Several examples of comparisons involving the archaic terms catuspatha 'intersection' and catur 'four,' which are employed in their totality as in the following lines (1) through (3) are:

*(1) Ida bathara sampun rauh ring **catuspatha***
　　'Ida Batara has arrived at the intersection.'

*(2) Upakara mamungkah kalaksanayang ring **catu**r desa*
　　'The Mamungkah ceremony is held in the four corners'

*(3) Eedan upacara mamungkah taler kamargiang ny**atu**r desa*
　　'The series of implementation of the Mamungkah ceremony is carried out to the four corners'

The sentences (1) until (3) above are used subtly in the realm of custom and religion. Thus, it can be said that the use of the lexicon is a very formal situation. Meanwhile, when the words are used in Modern Balinese, they are inappropriate. The reason is that Modern Balinese is the language used in everyday life, which is classified into the Balinese *Mider* language and even tends to be harsh, as in sentence (1b) below. Grammatically, the equivalent sentence (1b) is correct in MBL but not acceptable from a semantic perspective. Data (2) and (3) are very difficult to translate into MBL because they are in the formal realm.

(1b*) *Ida bathara suba teked di pempatane.*
　　'Ida batara has arrived at the crossroads.'

Sentence (1b*) does not respect its lord, therefore, it is not semantically acceptable. Therefore, linearly inherited terms are prevalent in Balinese *Alus* and the official world. These lexicons are used in everyday Balinese use in a limited realm of official or formal situations. The acceptance or rejection of the lexicon is proof of the retention of archaic terms in MBL. The following data can be explained in the competing forms used in MBL sentences. For example, sentences (4) and (5) below.

*(4) Emas, perak kaadanin **paramârtha***
　　'Silver gold is a noble treasure.'

*(5) (Prati) **sentana** dane sampun rauh*
　　'His descendants have arrived.'

In the majority of Balinese speakers, the original long vowel in *paramrtha* has changed into a short vowel. It comes from *parama* 'main' and *artha* 'treasure, fund, money.' Since the vocal treasures of the Balinese language do not have long vowels, the term is removed and becomes the form of *paramartha*. In addition, there is also another form, namely *paramarta*. Semantically, *paramârtha/paramarta* means intact, but there are phoneme adaptations: /th/-/t/ from the aspirated phoneme. Another competing lexicon includes *bhaga-baga* 'section' *dharma-darma* 'good things,' *phala-pala* 'results,' *dirgha-dirga* 'long,' *dukha-duka* 'angry' and *ghora-gora* 'big'.

The same thing happened to the word *santâna* (OJ) 'descendants' in MBL to become *sentana*. Changes in the data are an increase in vowel from low /a/ to a central vowel /ĕ/. In the OJ language, the word *santana* is vocal harmony, but in MBL, it is adapted with the vocal /ĕ/. The existence of such adaptation is influenced by the vocal pronunciation system,

where /a/ becomes /ĕ/ in the first syllable when the words consist of three syllables. Other examples supporting this statement are countrie, *nagara-negara, gagumuk-gĕgumuk, kakawin-kĕkawin, gaguritan-gĕguritan,* and *paparikan-pĕparikan.*

TABLE 2
LEXICON WITH PHONOLOGICAL CHANGE

NO.	GLOSS	SL	OJ	OB	MBL
1	come	-	*rawuh*	*rawuh*	*rauh*
2	fruits	-	*wwah*	*wwah*	*woh-wohan*
3	correct	-	*yukti*	*yukti*	*yakti*
4	earthquake	-	*lindu*	*linuh*	*linuh*
5	month	*sasi*	*sasi*	*sasi*	*sasih*
6	lost	-	*alah* 'lost'	*kalah*	*kalah, kaon*
7	between evening and night	*sandhyakala*	*Sandhyakala*	*sandhikala*	*sandikaon*
8	wolf' / dog	*srgala*	*srgala, srĕgala*	*sĕrĕgala*	*segaon*
9	descendants	*santâna*	*santâna*	*santâna*	*sentana*
10	sacrifice	*yajna*	*yajna*	*yajna*	*yadnya*
11	painting decoration	*alamkara'*	*ahangkara*	*ahengkara*	*lengkara*
12	incarnate	*nimitta*	*nimitta*	*nimitta*	*numitis*

Table 2 above shows lexicon pairs with structural changes and adaptations but retaining the intact meaning in Modern Balinese. The data shows some gradual phonological changes, and in data 1-4, there is no lexicon in SL. The lingual data can be detected from OJ, OB and become a treasure trove of the lexicon in MBL. The word *rawuh* (OJ), *rawuh* (OB), became *rauh* in MBL. It can be explained that /w/ between vowels disappears, while the double consonant /ww/ in *wwah* becomes a single consonant /w/. There are adjustments with free variations from /a/ to /o/, such as *wah-woh*, /j/-/d/ like *yajna-jadnya*. Data 4 and 5 show the addition of /h/ at the end of the word, namely in *sasi-sasih*, *lindu-linuh*. Furthermore, for data analysis in rows 6, 7, 8, there is a wider variation, as seen in the following table.

TABLE 2.1
VARIATION OF SYLLABLE LIMITS

No.	GLOSS	SL	OJ	OB	MBL
1	lost	-	*a-lah*	*ka-lah*	***ka-on***
2	between time	*sandhyakala*	*san-dhi-ka-la*	*san-di-ka-la*	***san-di-ka-on***
3	wolf	***srgala***	***srĕgala***	*se-re-ga-la*	***se-ga-on***

Glos *lost* is not in SL, but can be traced from *alah* (OJ), *kalah* (OB), and *kaon* (MBL). *Sandhykâla* lexicon, *srĕgala* (SL-OJ), *sandhikala, seregala* (OB), and MBL became, *sandikaon, segaon*. BJK inherits the law of sandhi from BS, namely /i/ +/a/ → /y/. OB borrows without applying sandhi, and in MBL, the sound of aspirate is adjusted not to aspirate. From the three data, interesting phonological events occur in the variation of syllable boundaries. The syllable that experiences variation replaces /-lah/, /-la-/ → /-on/. In these data, the phonological structure changes but still maintains the intact meaning.

The next data are *alamkara* (SL)-*ahangkara* (OJ)-*ahengkara* (OB) and *lengkara* (MBL) with the gloss of 'decoration/painting'. The process in the lexicon pairs of the four languages is shown in table 2.2 below.

TABLE 2.2
FREE VARIATION OF VOWELS AND CONSONANTS

No.	Glos	SL	OJ	OB	MBL
1	decoration, painting, writing.'	*a- lam-ka-ra*	*a-hang-kara*	*a-heng-ka-ra*	*ø-leng-ka-ra*

The lexicon in table 2.2 consists of four syllables, and the pair of phonemes in the first syllable is removed in MBL, symbolized by /ø/. The pair of phonemes in the second syllable has the same SL: MBL, namely the phoneme /l/ and OJ; OB, namely /h/. Therefore, there is a variation between /l/ and /h/, as well as /a/ and /e/. Furthermore, the third phoneme of the second syllable has internasal variations of nasal phonemes. This includes bilabial phoneme /m/ (SL) with /ng/ dorso-velar in OJ, OB, and MBL. The phonemes tend to vary between nasal passages. The nasal /m/ and /k/ are the consonant series /mk/, and in the three languages, there is a homoorganization between /ng/ and /k/. The phonemes /ng/ and /k/ based on the place of articulation are classified as dorso-velar. The same places of articulation tend to fluctuate with each other. The phoneme pairs in the third and fourth syllables remain intact. Therefore, the process of the archaic lexicon is in the treasures in MBL, namely *lengkara*.

TABLE 2.3
VARIATION OF SYLLABLE PARTS

No.	Glos	SL	OJ	OB	MBL
1	incarnate	*ni-mi- tta*	*ni- mi-tta*	*ni- mi-tta*	*nu-mi-tis*

Word can be paired in *nimitta* (SL), *nimitta*, (OJ), *nimitta* (OB), and *numitis* (MBL). In SL, OJ, OB, it is fully reflected, and this is indicated by the presence of the front vowel harmony /i/. In MBL, there is a gradual change,

namely free variations with high contrast front and back vocal phonemes /i/: /u/. Furthermore, /tta/: /tis/ can explain the free variation of the syllable part. The phoneme /t/: /t/ is the part that persists, while /ta/:/is/ undergoes free variation. OB inherits a series of consonants, while in MBL there is no series. The gradual process finally formed the numitis lexicon.

TABLE 3
LEXICON WITH SEMANTIC SHIFT

NO.	SL	OJ	OB	MBL	Inovation
1	*duhkha* 'sad, miserable'	*duhkha* 'sad, miserable'	*dukha* 'sad, miserable'	*duka* 'angry'	a shift in meaning
2	*dusta* 'person'	*dusta* 'lie'	*dusta* 'bad, lie'	*dusta* 'thief''	
3	*gṛha* 'house'	*grĕha* 'house'	*graha* 'gerhana'	*gria* 'house for a priest'	
4	*sewaka* 'servant'	*sewaka* 'servant'	*sewaka* 'servant'	*swaka* 'try'	
5	*dǎkṣiṇa* 'reward in sacrificial ceremony'	*daksina* 'south direction' *daksina* 'wages, food for the priests'	*daksina* 'south direction' *daksina* 'special offerings for gods'	*daksina* 'south direction' *daksina* 'wages; one type of offering'	
6	*daṇḍa* 'stick'	*daṇḍa* 'scepter'	*daṇḍa* 'law'	*danda,* 'fine, punishment'	
7	*wastra* 'clothes'	*wastra* 'clothes'	*wastra* 'clothes'	*wastra* 'clothes for sacred buildings.	
8	-	*warĕg* 'satisfied'	*wareg* 'satisfied'	*wareg* (direct), *waneh* (polite) 'full'	
9	*maṇḍala* 'circle'	*maṇḍala'* circle'	*maṇḍala* 'circle'	*mandala* 'wilayah'	
10	*ksama* 'patient'	*ksma* 'patient'	-	*aksama* 'sorry'	
11	*mṛta* 'dead'	*mrĕta*	*mṛta*	*merta* 'ihwal kehidupan'	contrasting meaning
12	*mitra* 'friend'	*mitra* 'best friend'	-	*mitra* 'teman selingkuhan'	

Table 3 shows a phonological change accompanied by a shift in meaning. In the pair of words *duhkha* (SL-OJ), *dukkha* (OB), and *duka* (MBL), the phoneme is adjusted from aspirate /dh/ to /d/. Additionally, there is a semantic shift from what previously meant 'sad/ miserable', in MBL become 'angry'. The shift in meaning is interpreted as sad and miserable to prolong, causing a sense of emotion for language users, therefore, it shifts and means anger. The words *dusta, sewaka, daksina, danda, wastra, wareg,* and *mandala* shift in meaning but still in the same component. Examples of data pair words include *gṛha* (SL), *greha* (OJ), *graha* (OB) 'eclipse', *gria* (MBL) 'house for priests'. In the pair of words, the form of *grha* has different forms and meanings in the Old Balinese language, namely *graha* 'eclipse'. Meanwhile, SL and OJ still maintain the universal meaning of house. The word *gṛha* is phonetically pronounced [griha] because */ṛ/* in SL is a vowel, and the form of *gṛha* in OJ was adapted to *greha*. In Balinese, the words *ri* from the previous language SL /ṛ/ read [ri], and was later adapted into *gria*. The word *gria* is predicted from *griha*, which has the /h/ sound lost between vowels. Linguistically, the sound /h/ between vowels in Balinese are often omitted. In terms of semantics, the word *gria* in Bali has narrowed its meaning from universal to special. In social strata, the hegemony of the term *gria* is only used by the Brahmins.

Besides a shift in meaning, there is also a contrast from the original form to MBL, and this form can be explained as follows:

Lecicons *mṛta* (SL), *mrĕta* (OJ), *mṛta* (OB), *merta* (MBL) 'about life'. The form of *mrta* originally meant death, but to MBL, it has a contrasting meaning, from death to life. In the Balinese language, which is religious in Hinduism, the compound word *tirta amerta* 'water of life is known. Linguistically, the word *amrta* (SL) 'not dead' has undergone a grammatical process with the addition of the prefix/a-/ 'no'. In MBL, the prefix /a-/ and the word 'live' are not used due to a contrast of meaning between death >< life. This incident is caused by grammatical misconceptions of the source language. Lastly, the partner lexicon (OJ) of *mitra* 'friend' becomes *mitra* (MBL) of 'cheating' which has a negative connotation. The contrast of meaning occurs from the positive to the negative meaning. In this case, there is a mishearing and understanding of the lexicon, which has implications. Based on the analysis, inheritance in Balinese maintains the form and structure related to the Hindu religion, which incidentally comes from India. There are adaptive or phonological changes appropriate to linguistic rules and semantic changes.

V. CONCLUSIONS

The words or lexicon of SL, OJ, OB, and MBL found forms and structures that are still intact. Therefore, inheritance due to borrowing is linear, and the lexicon is actively used by Balinese people who have inherited Hindu religious beliefs. Greater use of archaic terminology indicates excellent retention, and several lexicons have changed form but still retain original meaning. These changes are phonological variations, and the implications of several changes in form also impact a shift in meaning appropriate to the rules in the Modern Balinese language. Therefore, the archaic lexicon is very important in maintaining Balinese culture.

VI. SUGGESTIONS

The lexicon reflected in the Balinese *Kepara* language should be recommended, and further studied grammatically and sociolinguistically. This is because there are levels of language in the Balinese Kepara known as *Anggah-Ungguhing Basa*.

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The Adaptation of the Western Perspective (Don DeLillo) on Terrorism in Fadia Faqir's *Willow Trees Don't Weep*

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Abstract—The study aims to identify how the American author, Don DeLillo presents Arab Muslims in his novel *Falling Man*, likewise explores how the Jordanian-British, Fadia Faqir, presents Arab Muslims by adopting the Western Perspective of them in her novel *Willow Trees Don't Weep*. To achieve the objectives of the study, the theory of Post-colonialism is used, and specifically the views of Edward Said on Orientalism are applied to both novels. The study concludes by presenting how both authors - Don DeLillo as a Westerner and Fadia Faqir as an Arab - present their Arab Muslim characters as terrorists in their respective works *Falling Man* and *Willow Trees Don't Weep*.

Index Terms—terrorism, Falling Man, Faqir, DeLillo, adoption

I. INTRODUCTION

The current study attempts to show that Fadia Faqir adopts the stereotypical terroristic images of Islam and Muslims. It also attempts to show how Faqir represents Muslims as terrorists in her novel in much the same way that Western writers such as Don DeLillo present them. Some studies have been previously conducted on Faqir's and DeLillo's respective novels *Willow Trees Don't Weep* and *Falling Man*, both of which tackle terrorism individually. Thus, the contribution of the study lies in linking the two novels together and exploring how both a Western writer and a diasporic Arab writer share the same view when it comes to Arab Muslims.

The last several decades have seen an interesting surge in the number of literary works written by diasporic Arab writers in English and other foreign languages. Diasporic Arab writers are writers who have moved to the United Kingdom or the United States for whatever reason and have chosen to write in English. As a result of what these diasporic Arab Muslims writers have been exposed to, many diasporic Arab writers, and especially those who are Muslims, have focused on changing the image of Islam and have stood against the stereotypes that are used by many Westerners in their writings. Unfortunately, some Arab Muslim writers have not followed this trend; instead, they have defended these stereotypes of Islam and Muslims by highlighting them in their writings mostly to simply increase the number of Western readers and, thus, gain popularity. Such is the case in this research where it is posited that Fadia Faqir is one of these Arab diasporic writers who has adopted the Westerners' views on Islam and its followers.

Ever since their first contact with Muslim Arabs long ago, Westerners have formed opinions and created stereotypical images about them based on what was happening at the time. Indeed, certain stereotypes have only become more exaggerated after the events of 9/11 and 7/7 where Arabs have been painted as terrorists and Islam has been shown as a religion of war, violence, and terrorism. In fact, Harb (2012) posits that the attacks of 9/11 were "a turning point" in the lives of Westerners and how they started seeing Arab Muslims with many Westerners viewing Arabs being against modernity, violent, patriarchal, and terrorists. Until recently, Westerners took this image of Arab Muslims for granted.

Said (1978) discusses the relationship between the East and the West in his book titled "Orientalism". According to Said, Orientalism is an ideology that supports a "West-and-Islam" duality and the belief that "others are less human". Said also adds that it is a way of thinking based on a distinction between "the Orient" and (most of the time) "the Occident" – a point-of-view that only exists in the minds of Westerners (p. 10). Akram (2000) speaks of the aspects of Orientalism, saying that the first aspect is the Western attitude which revolves around the idea that there is a profound difference between the mindset of people from Arab Islamic cultures and those from the West. Indeed, it is this Western attitude that has led to the formation of the stereotypical images of the Arab Islamic world by Westerners.

In *Orientalism*, Said (1978) also explores the conventional views of Arabs and Muslims and how these stereotypical images were first generated by the West. He claims that the East, as it is also known in the West, only exists inside the ideology of the West. Westerners, according to Said (1978), create the Orient through their writing. In the process, they contribute to the creation of a series of stereotypical images in which Europe (the "self") is seen as essentially rational,

developed, humane, superior, virtuous, normal, and masculine, while at the same time, the Orient (the "other") is seen as "irrational, backward, despotic, inferior, depraved, aberrant, and feminine sexually" (Macfie, 2002, p. 8). Ahmad (2011) declares that the Westerners, according to Said, split the universe into two contradicting origins: our world (the West) and their world (the East).

In his book, *Covering Islam*, Said (1997) continues his investigation of Islamic cultural iconography which he began in his more general *Orientalism* (1978) and more specific in his *The Question of Palestine* (1979). He analyzes how the media shapes common perceptions of Islam, and argues about how Western colonialism has been helped by a centuries-old, academically manufactured image of Islam. Furthermore, he explains how such negative imagery is used to support US control over Arab lands, as seen in its news, film, and advertising. He also shows how to learn more about the motivations behind the media's coverage of Islam in Western society, notably in the United States.

After the terrorist attacks of 9/11, many Western writers used these attacks to enhance the stereotypical images of Islam and Muslims and relate them to terrorism in the Western mind. In 2007, Don DeLillo, an American writer, published a novel called *Falling Man*. It is a novel about the aftermath of 9/11 and its impact on Westerners and especially Americans. The author presents Arab Muslims through the negative stereotypical images that had already existed in Westerners' minds prior to 9/11, leaving his audience to conclude that all Arabs, and especially the Muslim ones, are terrorists. At the same time, instead of challenging these stereotypical Western views of Arabs, some diasporic Arab writers chose to adopt the same Western clichés about Arab Muslims in their writings. The Jordanian British writer Fadia Faqir is one such writer, exemplified by her novel *Willow Trees Don't Weep* (2014), where Faqir adopts the stereotypical images of Arabs and Muslims created by the West. The story is told from two points of view. The first perspective is that of Nadia, an Arab girl who searches for her father after the death of her mother. The second perspective is that of Nadia's father, Omar Rahman, who has been convinced by his friend Hani to go and fight in Afghanistan where he is brainwashed and trained as a suicide bomber using a belt of explosives.

Faqir's most recent novel has left a mark on the writings of Arabs who write in English and, indeed, international writing as well, by writing about an imagined voyage that is considered a threat to the Western world. Writing a novel about a man who leaves his home and family to join al Qaeda may be one of the riskiest literary acts ever undertaken by an Arab Muslim female author writing in English for a predominantly Western audience. Faqir adopts the views of Westerners on Islam and Muslims.

Don DeLillo is one of these Western writers who perceive Arabs and Muslims as terrorists. As such, this thesis explores how Faqir has adopted the same views as DeLillo showing little respect for her heritage as an Arab and a Muslim because she is finds Western culture impressive. In fact, Majed (2012) comments on this by saying that Faqir negatively represents Islam in her writing. Thus, she proves that she is impressed by the Westerners and considers herself part of the Western secular feminists who claim that Islam is the reason behind the low status of Arab Muslim females in Islamic societies. Other Arab Muslim writers who also present Arabs and Muslims in much the same way as Faqir were also affected by the culture of their new Western homes. Allani (2017) states that these Arab American women are considered "the product" of a bicultural heritage: "the original homeland culture and their new home culture" (p. 33). Bhabha (1994), much like Allani, refers to them as "hybrids," meaning they mix both their Eastern culture and Western culture together. Allani (2017) adds that after living a while in the West, some Arab Muslims will have merged, or even lost their identities. Nonetheless, diasporic Arab Muslim writers portray features of current Islamic culture in their literary works in a variety of ways, with diasporic Arab Muslim women writers portraying Islam even more variably. Some Arab Muslim writers represent Islam as it is - a religion of love, equality, and justice, as well as the proper portrayal of it, which creates a conflict for the Western audience who constantly write to conform to and promote the conventional, yet incorrect, picture of Arabs and Muslims.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. The Representation of Islam and Terrorism by Fadia Faqir and Don DeLillo in Their Literary Works

To start with, Whelan (2011) states that DeLillo considers terrorism as the primary cultural issue. Further, Hantke (2003) asserts that there has been a shift from conspiracy to horror, not just in DeLillo's books, but also in politics. As a result, the primary focus of conspiracy theories has turned to internal rather than foreign security concerns. Marandi and Tari (2012) states that DeLillo uses a narrative style to pursue the same approach; he talks authoritatively and harshly about the Orient in essentialist terms. He also presents Muslim "Oriental" women, including their mindsets, goals, aspirations, and worries using an approach which allows him to portray Muslims' ideas, values, and ideological orientations, as well as their attitudes toward people, events, and things, in whatever way he wants. Thus, the story's narrative is built upon the writer's tastes and within the prevailing discourse, rather than transmitting a set of facts about the characters' true reality. Pöhlmann (2010) declares that *Falling Man* employs dichotomies that are "laced with cross-links and inversions" to the point where readers are unable to fully recognize "the problematic construction of American victim versus Islamist terrorist" that they have come to recognize from "mainstream media reports" since 9/11 (p. 53). DeLillo deals with binary oppositions, and *Falling Man*'s depiction of terrorists ultimately follows Orientalist patterns.

Moreover, Scanlan (2010) declares that, in the aftermath of the 9/11 attacks, violent revolutionaries have produced a public panic that politicians, the press, and literary authors may use and exaggerate to their benefit. He claims that

phrases like "Islamic terrorism" and "Islamic fascism" were purposefully coined and widely used in the mainstream media to legitimize a wide range of prejudices against Muslims. This violent image of Islam is perpetuated not just by popular films and television shows, but also by post-9/11 books produced by well-known American authors.

Moving to the studies that show how Muslims are represented by Faqir, Bouteraa (2002) demonstrates how the Arab World has long struggled for freedom from foreign conquerors, civil tyrants, and tyrannical hands. This battle is exacerbated for Arab women who face additional societal and cultural obstacles. This influence has pervaded the brains of many Arab female authors, and Faqir's work exemplifies the breadth of this impact. Each novel's political and historical circumstances are immensely telling. Faqir presents Muslim men as terrorists instead of the English troops because of the way they treat women. For the ladies in these novels (and most likely their authors), the tragic and continuous bloodshed in the Middle East is inextricably linked to personal experience. Moreover, we cannot claim to have done a thorough examination of the literature if we ignore the unstable political environment. Sarnou (2017) discusses how Faqir's works have seen a boost in popularity in the West, owing to a growing interest in comprehending the "Others" who are seen as a danger to the West. In addition, Majed (2015) states that Faqir tries to integrate new themes into her work that have affected diasporic writing such as terrorism and Islam.

B. The Representation of Islam and Terrorism in Faqir's Willow Trees Don't Weep and DeLillo's Falling Man

Marandi and Tari (2012) show how DeLillo presents most of his characters from various ethnic and religious backgrounds as Americans, yet separates Arab Muslim characters from among them, presenting them as violent terrorists. This view indicates that Americans are innocent receivers of people from all nations except for Arab countries because Arab Muslims are disrupters of peace and humanity, not only for Americans, but also for the whole white world. With this approach, DeLillo draws a clear line between the Muslim and non-Muslim characters in the novel, implying that Americans are capable of accepting people of all races and nationalities as members of their society with the exception of Arab Muslims. This strangeness and otherness of Muslims has reached the point that it is impossible to come up with a fitting term for them.

Aldalala'a (2013) states that Faqir represents Muslims in Hammad's life, mission, and death as a type of signature to the assaults on America on September 11, 2001. It also reinforces the traditional propensity of Muslim terrorists to welcome death. However, he does not limit the examination of Hammad to the issue of terrorism and its topicality in fiction after 9/11; rather, he is interested in how the plot of death and the terrorist's readiness to die impact the form and creation of post-9/11 literature. Stamenkovi (2020) discusses how *Falling Man* is all about terrorism. The terrorist group here is in stark contrast to American unity as a nation. Hardack (2004) writes that even xenophobia in *Falling Man* represents "a foreign threat to American individuality" (p. 375). Asatryan (2012) discusses how DeLillo transforms all temporal and spatial visions, breaking down all frontiers and bringing time and space together. Terrorism is defined by this oneness. Terrorism appears to be on the same level as time and space. As a result, literature becomes a tool for demonstrating how 9/11 has become a dividing line between life before the events of that day and life after that tragic day. Moving to the studies that tackle terrorism in Faqir's novel, *Djafri* (2021) discusses how Faqir portrays her characters' lives as intricate journeys towards self-discovery via other Muslim nations such as Pakistan and Afghanistan, where Islam's image has been damaged by wars and terrorism, before eventually arriving in Western secular England and settling there for good.

In reviewing previous literature, although there have been various studies done on both novels separately, there are no studies that link Faqir's *Willow Trees Don't Weep* and DeLillo's *Falling Man* together in terms of presenting Arab Muslims and their relationship to terrorism, Here lies the study's contribution in connecting the two novels and investigating how they both share the same image of Arab Muslims, despite the fact that the first writer is a Westerner and the second is a diasporic Arab writer. With that said, the researcher approaches both novels using Postcolonial theory and draws on Said's opinions on Orientalism and how he examines stereotypical notions of the Orient and the East in particular.

III. ANALYSIS

A. Don DeLillo's Representation of Islam and Arab Muslims in His Novel Falling Man.

Falling Man revolves around four characters, namely, Hammad, Amir, Elena, and Omar. All of them, except Omar, are considered terrorists in the novel. The novel depicts the September 11 attacks in America, a day which has shaped and disrupted the reconstruction of the identity of Arabs and Muslims in the West. Identity is the most contentious question in postcolonial literature and history, and it is also the most pressing because of the crisis that exists in all postcolonial cultures. The crisis arose as a result of the post-colonial era's circumstances and the difficult conditions that newly liberated nations and countries encountered in their search for and construction of self-identity (Dizayi, 2015, p. 43). According to Meccar, "identity only becomes an issue when it is in crisis, when something assumed to be fixed, coherent, and stable is displaced by the experience of doubt and uncertainty" (p. 4).

Hammad suffers from an identity crisis due to his accommodation in a Western liberated country, which is completely different from Eastern Islamic countries. In this regard, Abu-Samara (2016) has defined an identity crisis as a dissatisfaction and bewilderment created by not knowing what sort of person one is or what the genuine purpose of

one's life is. It is a psychological state or condition, as well as role confusion, which occurs mostly during adolescence as a result of contradictory internal and external experiences, demands, and expectations, frequently resulting in extreme anxiety. We can see here, how DeLillo from the beginning shows the characters' conflict with Islam and how it oppresses their desires. Islam is represented as an oppressive religion. In this respect, Shadid and Koningsveld (2002) point out that the negative attitudes of Westerners towards Easterners are primarily relied on stereotypes and prejudice which intensify the differentiation between the Westerners and the Easterners leading to a vicious cycle in the relationship between them. Therefore, he struggles with a religious identity crisis. This also shows how the author represents Islam as strict when it comes to appearance and looks.

The identity crisis of Hammad is manifested in his desire to stop sinning and his desire to be responsible for his own actions as well. Amir succeeds in strengthening his faith by reading the verses of the Quran that boost his sense of belonging by focusing on the purpose that he seeks to achieve - that of *jihad*. He does not trim his beard because he wants to follow Islam's rules. He changes his ideas because he feels remorse for his actions. Therefore, he decides to follow Islamic conventions and orders. Amir here is portrayed as religious and a practitioner of Islam by DeLillo. This is to lead the reader to believe that anyone who practices Islam is also one practices terrorism.

In respect to the second section of the novel, entitled "In Nokomis", it shows how Hammad changes and Amir becomes a terrorist by planning and pledging to fulfill the Muslim's duty (as presented in the novel) by destroying America. "They sat around a table on day one and pledged to accept their duty, which was for each of them, in blood trust, to kill Americans" (DeLillo, 2007, p. 76). Both Amir and Hammad carry out terrorist attacks against America in order to get closer to God. The terrorist preparation is determined with the act only affecting Amir: "Only Amir burned now. Amir was electric, dripping fire from the eyes" (DeLillo, 2007, p. 77). More importantly, Hammad feels that he is getting closer to God after participating in terrorism operations. To clarify, he starts to feel that he is more satisfied with himself when he wears a suicide vest and feels that he has become a man: "There was no feeling like this ever in his life. He wore a bomb vest and knew he was a man now, finally, ready to close the distance to God" (DeLillo, 2007, p. 77).

The author attempts to distort the image of Arab Muslims by conveying foreigners' misconceptions about Islam by accusing Muslims of being terrorist who are inclined to use violence and intimidation against others. To clarify, the author describes Hammad's reaction when he sees inappropriate behavior which contradicts Islamic beliefs. Hammad sees a group of girls and boys hanging out with each other in a car, smoking and drinking. He gets annoyed. Therefore, he plans to kill them by getting into their car and then attacking them. His intention for killing them is, again, for him to get closer to God. In this respect, Shadid and Koningsveld (2002) indicate that "warning against the threat of the Muslim enemy is not new in the Western world" (p. 1).

The author reflects the misrepresentation of Eastern people that is created by the West. This finding lends tremendous support to the study of Marandi and Tari (2012) that talks authoritatively and harshly about the Orient in essentialist terms. The author depicts how both Hammad and Amir feel satisfied by killing innocent people. He deliberately has written this novel in order to distort the image of Islam and alienate people from embracing it. "They fired weapons and set off explosives. They received instruction in the highest *jihad*, which is to make blood flow, their blood and that of others" (DeLillo, 2012, p. 77). Both Hammad and Amir are depicted as terrorists who seek to set off explosives in order to make the blood of the disbelievers flow. Moreover, it depicts *jihad* in Islam as war. According to Kretsch (2016), the concept of *jihad* has been twisted in America, due to poor public awareness of the topic and the September 11 attacks. As a result, these misconceptions have changed how the world views Arab Muslims and how these views will possibly continue for centuries to come.

To continue, the author portrays how other Muslims train Hammad on the method of using force against enemies. In the camp, he is trained to slaughter a camel. The author shows the excitement and happiness that Hammad feels when all the blood is drained from the camel: "Hammad, arms spread wide, kissed the bloody knife and raised it to the ones who were watching, the robed and turbaned men, showing his respect and gratitude" (DeLillo, 2012, p. 77). In this regard, Sultan (2016) indicates that "anti-Muslim prejudice is extensive in the West" (p. 5). Obviously, the author attempts to convey the misconception about Muslims being terrorists. According to Yusof et al. (2014), Islam is linked with terrorism and Muslims are depicted in Western media as terrorists.

However, Hammad sometimes doubts the aim of *jihad*, for example, when he says "But does a man have to kill himself in order to count for something, be someone, find the way?" (DeLillo, 2012, p. 78). It is clear that Hammad does not like to be engaged in disruptive activities. Amir replies, "There is no sacred law against what we are going to do. This is not suicide in any sense or interpretation of the word. It is only something long-written. We are finding the way already chosen for us" (DeLillo 2012, p. 78). The author negatively portrays how Muslims, like Amir in the novel, encourage each other to destroy America and Western people to convey that Arab Muslims tend to carry out subversive activities. Such a negative image is an illusion created by Westerners in order to distort Islam. It is in line with Halliday (1995) who indicates that the Islamic threat to the West is an illusion created by Westerners.

Obviously, Amir's response denotes his desire to assassinate and destroy the world because he incited Hammad to perform these acts of violence. Such misconceptions that are reflected in this novel about Arab Muslims seek to convey to the entire world that Muslims are terrorists because they justify the use of suicide as a legitimate act of martyrdom in the name of faith. These misconceptions imply that Arab Muslims promote terrorism and violence; however, these misconceptions are erroneous. The author manipulates the image of Islam to yield particularistic purposes. According to

bin Othman et al. (2021), Muslims are "misconceived, deliberately manipulated to serve particularistic purposes, especially power and material" (p. 119). In this regard, El-Aswad (2013) submits that the image of Muslims as being threatening to others has been fabricated by the Western community. He adds that the misconception of Arabs by Western people reflects the attitudes of anti-Muslims that are adopted and accepted by Westerners who regard themselves as open-minded.

The author shifts to describing the planned terrorist plot by indicating that "men spent years organizing secretly this work" (DeLillo, 2012, p. 78). A terrorist plan that has been organized years ago undergoes through three processes: thinking, talking, and doing. When the terrorists talk with each other, Hammad imagines the feeling of intense pleasure because of his intention to blow up the disbelievers (DeLillo, 2012). The author depicts Hammad as a terrorist who not only destroys the world, but also feels intense happiness when thinking of destroying others in general and disbelievers in particular. Obviously, the author seeks to create a misleading image of Eastern culture. According to Said (1978), knowledge is a form of power, i.e., anybody who creates or publishes knowledge about the "orient" has the power to rule it. From the perspective of Westerners, the production of Western writers and scholars is the only valid one, which always portrays Westerners as "rational, peaceful, liberal, logical, and capable of holding real values," while the Easterners are the exact opposite (p. 49). According to Said (1978), this form of knowledge is a weapon of imperialism because it is created to justify the political policies of Western governments against the Orient.

Hammad only thinks of shock and death (DeLillo, 2012). Hammad feels satisfied because he will finally reach his calling. Therefore, he is only thinking of the consequences that might happen after such a terrorist operation. As shown by the aforementioned above, Western writers construct images of Easterners according to their own conventions and perspectives by depicting that Muslims are willing to die and destroy others in order to die as martyrs for the sake of Islam. This finding of the present study lends support to the study of Aldalala'a (2013) that *Falling Man* represents Muslims in Hammad's life, mission, and death as a type of signature to the attacks on America on September 11, 2001. It further enhances the traditional propensity of Muslim terrorists to welcome death. In this respect, Elayan (2005) points out that "... when one perceives an individual as a member of a particular stereotyped group, the perceiver's mind activates the group-relevant cognitive structure and processes judgments and attitudes within the framework of that particular stereotype" (p.8). Generally speaking, creating misleading images of Islam by generalizing that all Muslims are terrorists is deeply ingrained and might influence other people to believe these negative views that all Muslims are terrorists. According to Noureen et al. (2020), Arab Muslims are perceived as "either a terrorist or simply a villain of another kind" (p. 687). In this respect, Said (1978) points out that Americans and Europeans have been receiving information about Islam from the media and not by studying the religion itself.

According to Said's book (1997), *Covering Islam*, Islam and its followers are known to be supporters of terrorism. This book creates an unwillingness to look beyond the theaters, as people lose interest in seeking the truth. They are rather satisfied with what they gain from the book itself and take it as it is. It has also limited the ability to establish knowledge about Islam and Muslim societies (Porter 2016). The misconception between Arabs and Muslims has placed both Arabs and Muslims in the same boat. The West believes, and portrays, "all Arabs as Muslims and all Muslims as Arabs" (Elayan, 2005, p. 16).

The novel then moves on to describe how Hammad gets confused as the day of suicide bombing approached (DeLillo, 2007). DeLillo shows that Arab Muslims are torn between the feelings of happiness with the approach of the suicide bombing and the feelings of confusion with the consequences of the suicide attack. In *The Hudson Corridor*, DeLillo portrays the suicide attack and describes how Hammad's blood is draining "through the cuff of his long-sleeved shirt" (DeLillo, 2007, p. 104). The aircraft is heading towards the Hudson Corridor. Hammad starts to feel that his life would be over now and his wish to die with his brothers would come true. When Hammad is accidentally cut in the struggle by one of his brothers, he is unable to handle the pain. More importantly, the author describes Hammad as content to watch his blood flow out of him (DeLillo, 2007). The author seeks to convey that Muslims are terrorists and incite violence. In this regard, Said (1997) points out that the misrepresentations of Arabs exist through the "contributions from pro-Israeli journals and books in the hope that more Americans and Europeans will see Israel as a victim of Islamic violence" (p. xxi). On the contrary, Islam rejects every form of terrorism.

When the time draws near, Hammad convinces himself that his sins will be erased, and his eternal life and his wish to die with his brothers will come true. When the aircraft hits the tower, Hammad hears sounds from everywhere in the cabin; voices and excited cries. While the items on the aircraft are moving; Hammad sees a bottle of empty water rolling backwards, spinning more quickly and slipping on the floor before the aircraft struck the tower, and then a blast wave, heat, fire, and fuel penetrates the structure. DeLillo misrepresents the image of Islam by conveying that Muslims only seek to fulfill one objective to destroy America and Westerners. Such misleading images of Islam only intensified after the terrorist attack on September 11. In this respect, Kretsch (2016) maintains that "There has been a rise in hate crime toward Muslims in America since the terrorist attacks" (p. 7). According to Shaheen (1980), DeLillo attempts to portray how the September 11 attacks are related to Arab Muslims who have, in Western eyes, become synonymous with the words "terrorism, hijack, intractability, sullenness, perverseness, cruelty, oil, sand, embargo, boycott, greed, bungling, comedic disunity, primitive torture, family feuds, and white slavery'' (n.p).

B. Fadia Faqir's Representation of Islam and Arab Muslims in Her Novel Willow Trees Don't Weep

In *Willow Trees Don't Weep*, Faqir adopts the stereotypical images of Islam and Muslims created by the West. This novel misrepresents Arab Muslims and Eastern society depicting a secularist view of the erroneous image of Islam with the loss of identity owing to the absence of patriarchal power in Eastern society. The story begins with Najwa's mother, Raneen, who rejects Islam and becomes a secular woman after her husband, Omar Rahman, leaves her (Faqir, 2014). Here, Faqir portrays Islam as a strict religion; thus, Muslims become secular to find their freedom. Ismail and Tekke (2016) define secularism as the individual's freedom to choose his/her religion according to their choice and will.

Raneen pretends that she does not care that Omar has left, but one day she inspects her husband's belongings such as his prayer beads, his cologne, and more importantly his religious books with titles like *"The Islamic Caliphate*, *The Glorious Othman Empire*, *Overcoming the Fear of Death*, *Islamic Jihad*, *The Ideal Muslim Father* and *Soldiers of God*: *With Islamic Warriors in Afghanistan and Pakistan"* (Faqir, 2014, p. 9). As a result, she burns his books.

Omar Rahman, leaves his family to fight for God's sake, that is, to fight disbelievers. When Raneen falls increasingly ill and hears the Qur'anic verses, she thinks of Omar (Faqir, 2014). Faqir depicts how Omar turns into a terrorist and his conversion affects his beloved people. In other words, Omar becomes a terrorist, while Raneen becomes a secular. The image that is portrayed of Arab Muslims by the author does not necessarily reflect her attitudes towards Arab Muslims, but rather it reflects Western attitudes and misperceptions of Arab Muslims. Faqir here fabricates and misrepresents the image of Arab Muslims by adapting the perspective of the West towards Arab Muslims and Muslims in general (Akram, 2000).

As mentioned previously, though she tries to show otherwise, Raneen is, in fact, affected by Omar's leaving his family behind and wants her daughter to be secular like her. Therefore, she wants Najwa to study French because it is considered the language of the most secular country in the world. She also wants her to be able to work in one of the Dead Sea hotels in Jordan, which is considered "the most cosmopolitan and secular of environments" (Faqir, 2014, p. 10). Possibly, for Raneen, the absence of her husband i.e. patriarchal power, drives her to find her freedom. Faqir tries to show that Arab Muslims become secular in order to violate the boundaries that restrict them from finding their freedom. Accordingly, Faqir reflects the stereotypical image of Arab Muslim women among the West, who are restricted by patriarchal power, unlike Westerners. In this regard, Mohanty (1998) considers Western women independent and without any patriarchal violent restrictions, neither in their rights, nor in their freedom because of Islam. According to Bamia (1991), "Muslim women argue that Islam guaranteed women's rights of which they have been deprived because of customs and traditions that are imposed in the name of religion" (p. xvi).

Omar leaves them to Afghanistan to join Al-Qaeda (Faqir, 2014). They train him to fire at the target "photos of an American G.I. armed" (Faqir, 2014, p. 96). He is further trained to make explosions and use machine guns. The majority of the topics in their training camp revolve around killing, *kafir*, and the honor of the woman. To give an example, Omar and his Muslim friends in the training camp gathered one day and watched a video that contains the following statement "Muslims, wherever they are in the world are targeted by *kafirs*" (Faqir, 2014, p. 97). Another video is about Muslim women and children being attacked and abused by Westerners. By the end of the video, a serene voice of an imam calls all Muslims and encourages them to safeguard women and vulnerable people because they need their assistance (Faqir, 2014). Once again, Faqir depicts the negative stereotypical image of Muslims by portraying them as terrorists. According to Said (1997), Westerners misrepresent the image of Arab Muslims by creating an unfair, hateful, and negative image of Muslims by depicting them as terrorists and fundamentalists. Said (1997) adds that terrorism is presented within the misconceptions of Westerners that Arab Muslims are perceived as "absolutist", "patriarchal", "unreasoning", and "punitive" (p. 34).

Faqir articulates the differences between Islamic culture and Western culture by showing women's rights and freedom as restricted in Arab countries unlike Western countries where women aren't restricted. Thus, the reason behind Najwa going after her father is that she is not able to live in a society that does not accept her not having a father. Mohanty (1988) considers Western women independent and no patriarchal violence restricts neither their rights nor their freedom. Mohanty (1988) argues that the "'third-world woman', an image…arbitrarily constructed, but nevertheless carries with it the authorizing signature of Western humanist discourse" (pp. 334-335). Najwa lives in a world that does not give a woman the liberty to live alone because she needs a man to support and protect her. Here, it is clear, as Harb (2012) indicates, that patriarchal power is considered one of the stereotypes of Arab Muslims in the West.

Therefore, Najwa is afraid of ending up living alone in this conservative society that does not give the woman her freedom and considers her as a harlot without a man or a family. Furthermore, she has experienced a situation in which she feels that she is easy prey. To counteract this misconception of Arab Muslims and Islam, Ahmed (1992) states that the stereotypical image of Islam by Western feminists that Arabs are ignorant, irrational, backward, uncivilized is clear with their imposition of wearing the *hijab* or "veil".

Omar Rahman and his friend Hani are shown as converted to Islam, that is, they were non-religious before turning into religious men. To clarify, they used to drink when they go out, but they tend to be out of sight from their neighborhood because they do not want to be seen by their community as "pariahs" (Faqir, 2014, p. 30). Hani gives Omar Rahman a beer; "gave me a brown bag. It had a beer bottle in it" (Faqir, 2014, p. 30). However, Omar Rahman tells him "we can't drink here in our neighborhood. If we got spotted, we will become pariahs" (Faqir, 2014, p. 30).

Hani admits that he has a nice feeling when he starts drinking; however, Omar feels paranoid, like he is always being watched. Another situation that reflects their non-compliance with Islamic conventions is manifested when Hani confessed to Omar about his desire to get married to American women because they are "lean, toasted like whole meal bread, legs long, and up to their ears" (Faqir, 2014, p. 30). Faqir reflects how Hani follows his desires and whims, whereas Omar Rahman is always hesitated to follow his desires. Faqir reflects such contradiction to distort the image of Arab Muslims and Islam. As Hamada (2001) puts it, it is the "image as a 'mental package' in which a collection of stereotypes or characteristics are combined to identify a nation, a group or a member of that group without reference to particular differences or complexities" (p. 12). Moreover, Hani indicates that Western women can be easily found in nightclubs. Omar does not hang out with girls and has not listened to the loud music in the club, but rather he sits on the sofa and a girl has asked him to dance with her. However, he is hesitant because he does want to do anything that contradicts with Islamic conventions. Possibly, his marriage and the Islamic rules restrict him from doing matters that violate Islamic conventions. Regardless of his hesitation, he dances with her.

Faqir misrepresents the image of Arab Muslims by indicating that Muslims claim that they fear God, but they do things that contradict with Islamic rules and teachings. Faqir reflects the hatred of Westerners towards Muslims and their common negative image of Muslims are manifested in "presenting Islam as a threat to the Western World" (Shadid & Koningsveld, 2002, p. 177). In other words, they wrongly misrepresent the image of Arab Muslims by indicating that they only think of committing terrorist acts to harm the Western world. In other words, Faqir seeks to convey that Muslims' terrorist acts are not related to *jihad* and the teachings of the Qur'an, but rather due to their hatred of the Westerners.

As a consequence, Faqir shows that Hani does not comply with Islamic rules and Eastern conventions, but rather he is more inclined towards the Western life by drinking, flirting with girls, and going to nightclubs. Therefore, he reflects the typical stereotype of Islamic youth who rebels against the common beliefs in Islamic and conservative communities. As for Omar Rahman, the novel shows that he listens to Hani and follows him by going to the nightclub and dancing with a girl, but Omar Rahman blames himself by saying, "I wanted to say no, that I was married" (Faqir, 2014, p.30).

The absence of Najwa's father has led people to intervene in her life because he is not with her to protect her: "people thought that I belonged to everybody because my father was not around to protect me" (Faqir, 2014, p. 26). Faqir portrays the common beliefs in Eastern communities that a Muslim woman in Eastern community needs a patriarchal power to protect her. In their analysis of Faqir's work, Paul and Rai (2020) say that to "raise a voice under one's roof against patriarchal Islam authenticates subjugation in a roundabout way. They added that a woman has to get out of the limitations that primarily define her body" (p. 12).

Faqir misrepresents the image of Islam by indicating that all Arab Muslims are terrorists. In this regard, Ridouani (2011) adds that "Muslim women are thus equated to masqueraded terrorists and evil-doers". She adds that Arabs "are portrayed as being terrorists, fanatics, dirty, irrational, violent and above all disposable" (p. 10). Faqir's distortion of the image of Islam reflects the hatred and the conflict between the East and the West. In this respect, Islamic negative stereotypes of the West are positively predicted by the perceived conflict between Islam and the West, and this perceived intergroup conflict in turn mediated the role of Islamic fundamentalism in predicting the negative stereotypes (Mashur & Zaduqisti, 2019).

IV. CONCLUSION

Both DeLillo and Faqir are similar in their misrepresentation of Islam. To clarify, both novels depict Muslims as terrorists. As for *Falling Man*, it shows how four terrorist Arab Muslims planned to make a suicide bombing in America to kill the Westerners. Similarly, *Willow Trees Don't Weep* shows how an Arab Muslim father leaves his family and goes to Afghanistan to fight for *jihad*, assuming that it is for God's sake.

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Analysis of Mandarin Syntactic Errors of Indonesian Learners at Elementary Level

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Abstract—**This research discusses Mandarin syntactic errors of Indonesian learners, performed at the elementary stage. It aims to categorize errors and identify them. The researchers follow Corder's steps in error analysis. This paper considers four categories of errors: omission, addition, replacement, and disorder. Finally, the researchers seek to explain why the students commit such errors. The results of the data analysis show that most of the syntactic errors are classified as omission errors and disorder errors. These results indicate that the participants relied heavily on their native language to use the target language. Furthermore, their errors reveal that lack of Chinese grammatical knowledge and L1 interference may be significant reasons for their errors. To reduce syntactic errors for students at the elementary stage, teachers should pay more attention to comparing Mandarin and their native language and provide comprehensible input.**

Index Terms—**Mandarin, syntactic errors, Indonesia learners, elementary level**

I. INTRODUCTION

One of the interesting linguistic phenomena to be investigated in second/ foreign language acquisition is learners' errors. Such errors are a valuable and significant resource that can provide teachers with information about the obstacles students encounter and the students' progress in their learning process. If both students and teachers are aware of these errors, the teaching-learning process will be more focused and efficient. In the process of second language acquisition, errors always occur. Based on seven years of teaching experience, the writer finds that many Indonesian Mandarin learners, especially at the elementary school, experience similar syntax errors. For example, Indonesian beginners who learn Mandarin often reverse the position of verbs and adverbs, modifying these verbs. The Indonesian students often make the wrong sentence, such as "我工作在医院。 (Wǒ gōngzuò zài yīyuàn.)", "我吃饭在饭店。 (Wǒ chī fàn zài fàn diàn.)", "我看电影去电影院。 (Wǒ kàn diàn yǐng qù diàn yǐng yuàn.)". These errors happen because of the differences in word order between Mandarin and Indonesian. In Mandarin, the adverbial is placed first, followed by a verb. Moreover, in Indonesian, the verb is placed in front and is followed by an adverbial. According to the theory of Corder (1981), this type of error is called ordering error. Although this error rate decreases with learning progress, it can still not be avoided due to native language interference and the learners' mindset.

Based on this problem, the author would like to analyze Indonesian students' syntax errors in the HSKK (Chinese Proficiency Oral Test for Foreign Learners), describe them, and then provide some suggestions on how to utilize these errors to help both students and teachers achieve their teaching/ learning goals. Students should be informed of their syntax errors, and teachers can tailor activities and assignments to focus on those errors. Through discussion and analysis, Chinese teachers and Chinese Indonesian students can better understand the basic syntax errors of Chinese learners to guide future teaching and learning better.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Second language learners' errors have always been the focus of linguists. Supporters of comparative analysis theory believe that various parts of the two languages (mother language and second language) will be more difficult for second language learners to master, while the same elements will be easier to master (Lado, 1957; Dan & Septevany, 2020;

Djahimo, 2020; Dan et al., 2021). Comparative analysis is a method to determine potential errors by comparing different languages (such as first language and second language) to finally distinguish what must be learned from what does not need to be learned in the second language learning environment. The comparative analysis aims to predict which areas are easy to learn and not easy to learn. Error analysis theory supports that errors are second language learners' errors, which refer to the unconscious deviation of second language learners from the target language when using the language (James, 1998; Taylor, 1986; Lu et al., 2021). They are errors or imperfections based on the target language. This error is systematic and regular, reflecting the speaker's language ability and belongs to the category of language ability.

There are two terms in the study of second language learning, namely error and mistake; Mistake refers to performance errors that are random or slip on the tongue. It is just a failure to use a well-known system. Everyone can make mistakes, either for the native speakers or the second language learners (Dulay et al., 1982). Mistakes are not the result of a lack of competence, but interference in the production process, and the speakers can identify and correct them. Errors can reflect the transitional learning competence. It is a systematic error of a learner who does not understand the rules of the target language. Students cannot repair their errors themselves because these errors are products that reflect their current L2 development stage or their underlying competencies (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991).

Many scholars are interested in errors made by Indonesian Chinese learners, and they have conducted much meaningful research. However, through the investigation, we find that there are not many papers that comprehensively analyze the syntax errors and word use errors of Indonesian students, and most of them focus on a specific problem in grammar. For example, Chen made a unique comparative study of the characteristics, similarities, and differences of the basic word order between Indonesian and Chinese and analyzed the typical word order errors in Indonesian students' Chinese acquisition. It is a masterpiece studying Chinese word order and Indonesian word order (Chen, 2002). Lisha systematically classifies the syntactic errors in the students' compositions and makes a statistical analysis of the data of the errors to help people better understand the current situation of syntactic errors in the students' Chinese writing (Lisha, 2014); According to Han (2019) attempts to investigate the errors in the acquisition of Chinese pronouns by Indonesian students whose Chinese proficiency is below intermediate level. The research of Xia is based on HSK dynamic composition corpus, combined with semantic types and syntactic structure, analyzes the types of error corpus, and expounds the typical use cases to have a more comprehensive understanding of the omission errors of "是 shi" sentences by foreign students (Xia, 2021). The research of Fu (2015) is based on second language acquisition theories and an interlanguage to explore the types of errors and the causes of errors in foreign students' acquisition of "verb-coping sentences" at the preliminary, intermediate, and advanced levels. According to Ji (2012), there are many types of errors in the process of Indonesian students' Chinese acquisition, such as missing syntactic components, wrong word order, improper use of words or collocations, wrong addition, inappropriate use, and harmful errors, and others. Among them, the missing components and wrong order are particularly prominent. The reason is that there are apparent differences in word order and expression between Chinese and Indonesian, which can easily cause a negative transfer to students; In addition, Chinese auxiliary words, conjunctions, adverbs, and other components with virtual meaning are more complex, which is difficult for students to master. According to Jin (1997) paper focus on the process of learners' acquisition of the negative structure with 不 bù (do not) and 没 méi (have not) and tries to discover the acquisition order of the two structures.

This research is different from the previous studies. Previous research focuses on the writing format, but this research focuses on speaking errors at the primary level. Therefore, this research can supplement the deficiency of prior studies and better present the syntactic errors of Indonesian students who learn Mandarin at the primary level. The current study aims to show the main categories of syntactic errors of Indonesian Mandarin learners at their basic level, describe the source of errors, and suggest to the mandarin teachers and students.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This research uses a quantitative and qualitative method. Quantitative analysis studies the types of syntactic errors of Indonesian Mandarin Beginners in the basic HSKK test script. Qualitative research aims to discuss the source of these syntactic errors.

A. Sample and Participants

The sample of this study is taken from the recording of the basic HSKK test script. There are twelve question manuscripts taken randomly in the basic HSKK exam manuscript. This sample can be seen in Figure (1-4). Then the author processes these twelve forms of questions by distributing them to eighty-seven respondents who Indonesian learners at the primary level are.

B. Instruments

The equipment used in this study is the google form answered by the students in Confucius Institute at Hasanuddin University and the students in Politeknik Negeri Bali.

C. Data Collection and Analysis

The data collection technique uses the purposive sampling technique, which takes data samples with specific considerations (Sugiyono, 2017). The data collection of this study has three steps. Firstly, the samples are taken from a basic HSKK test. There are twelve error expressions of Indonesian Mandarin beginners with high frequency in basic HSKK tests. The second step is to distribute questionnaires to eighty-seven respondents of Indonesian Mandarin beginners by reprocessing these twelve expressions. The last step is to analyze the data using Corder's error analysis steps.

According to Corder (1981), there are five steps in error analysis: The collection of a sample of learners' language, identification of errors, description of errors, explanation of errors, and the last is evaluation of errors.

Dulay claims four types of syntactic errors were discussed in their research: syntactic errors of omission, syntactic errors of addition, syntactic errors of selection, and syntactic errors of ordering (Dulay et al., 1982).

Figure 1. Omission Error

Figure 2. Addition Error

Figure 3. Selection Error

Figure 4. Disordering Error

IV. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

There are four types of syntactic errors that appear in the Basic Oral Chinese Proficiency Test (basic HSKK): syntactic errors of omission, syntactic errors of addition, syntactic errors of selection, and syntactic errors of ordering. In the following text, four types of syntactic errors will be discussed one by one.

A. Errors of Omission

Syntactic errors of omission are errors where some syntactic elements are omitted (which should be present). It is called an incomplete component if it does not meet the ellipsis condition and the lack of the required component, which causes incomplete sentence structure and unclear expression. Incomplete components consist of the missing subject, predicates objects, attributive, and adverbial (Borong & Xudong, 2017). There are three examples of omissions made by Indonesian students who have just learned Mandarin less than one year.

(1) Sentence *我爱看书的人。Wǒ ài kàn shū de rén (I like reading person).

我爱看书的人。Wǒ ài kànshū de rén.

32 / 78 correct responses
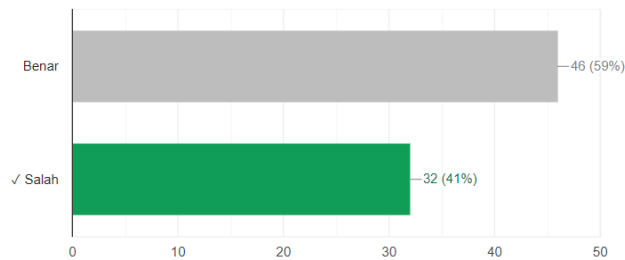
Figure 5. Rating Result of Wǒ ài kànshū de rén

Figure 5 shows that from seventy-eight respondents, forty-six respondents responded wrong, or in other words, 59% of students chose the false expression. From Table 1 below, we can see where they are wrong. The sentence "我爱看书的人 wǒ ài kàn shū de rén" is lack of the predicate "是 shì" and the determiner "一个 y í gè". The correct sentence is shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1
SENTENCE "WǑ SH ÌY ÍGÈ ÀI KÀN SHŪ DE RÉN"

我是一个爱看书人						
我	是	一个	爱	看书	的	人。
Wǒ	shì	y íge	ài	kànshū	de	r én
I	am	a	like	reading	that	person.

In the Indonesian system, the sentence "Saya orang yang suka membaca (I am a person who loves reading)" is acceptable and can be understood by the Indonesian. This syntactic omission happened because of L1 interference. In other words, Indonesian learners always use the Indonesian language logic to produce Mandarin sentences. Table 1 above shows that the verb "是 shì" must be in a sentence to describe or amplify the subject that the one who loves to read books is "me".

(2) Sentence *我每天学习汉语。Wǒ měi tiān xuéxí Hànyǔ (I everyday learn Mandarin).

Menurut anda kalimat di bawah ini benar atau salah?

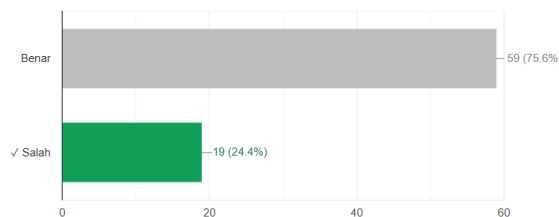我每天学习汉语。Wǒ měitiān xuéxí hànyǔ.

19 / 78 correct responses

Figure 6. Rating Result of Wǒ měitiān xuéxí Hànyǔ.

Figure 6 shows that out of the seventy-eight respondents, fifty-nine students regard the wrong sentence as right, and the error rate is 75.6%. The source of this error is also the negative transfer of the learner's native language. Thus, L1 interference cannot be avoided in learning a second language. The correct expression of this sentence is shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2
SENTENCE "WǑ MĚI TIĀN DŌU XUÉX ÍHÀNYǓ"

我每天都学习汉语。

我	每天	**都**	学习	汉语。
Wǒ	měitiān	**dōu**	xu éx í	Hànyǔ
I	every day	**all**	learn	Mandarin.

Table 2 shows that when the time noun "每天 měitiān (every day)" presents in a sentence, it is usually followed by the adverb "都 dōu" which means an action always appears continuously. For example, the sentence "Wǒ měitiān dōu xuéxí Hànyǔ" implies that "I learn Mandarin every day". The learning Mandarin activity is carried out every day without interruption. In the Mandarin system, some special words that mean all without exception often appear together with the adverb 都 dōu (always without exception), such as 每 měi (every), 各 g è(each), 所有 suǒyǒu (all), 一切 y qí è (everything), 全部 qu ánb ù (whole), 这些 zhèxiē (these), 那些 nàxiē (those), 随时 su śh í(whenever), 到处 d àoch ù (wherever), and 任何 r ènh é(whatever).

(3) Sentence *我喜欢听音乐一边睡觉。Wǒ xǐhuān tīng yīnyuè yìbiān shuìjiào (I like listening to music while sleeping).

我喜欢听音乐一边睡觉。Wǒ xǐhuān tīng yīnyuè yībiān shuijiào.
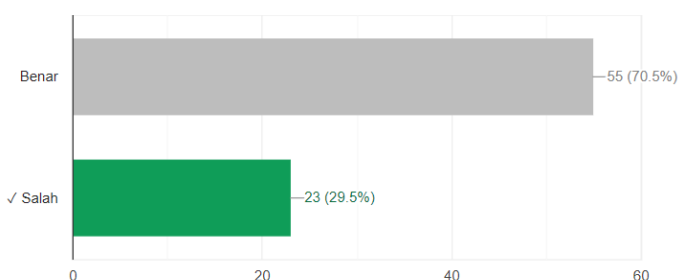
23 / 78 correct responses

Figure 7. Rating Result of Wǒ xǐhuān tīng yīnyuè yībiān shuìjiào.

Figure 7 shows that from the seventy-eight respondents, there are fifty-five respondents, or about 70.5% regard the wrong sentence as right. This result indicates that Indonesian students at the elementary level do not understand the usage of the conjunction "yì biān...yìbiān..." which means "while" that indicates that two actions are performed at the same time. Table 3 shows the correct expression.

TABLE 3
SENTENCE WǑ XǏHUĀN YÌBIĀN TĪNG YĪNYUÈ YÌBIĀN SHU ÌIÀO

我喜欢一边听音乐一边睡觉。

我	喜欢	**一边**	听音乐	一边	睡觉。
Wǒ	xǐ huān	**yì biān**	tīng yīnyuè	yì biān	shu ìji ào
I	like	**while**	listening to music	while	sleeping.

The conjunction "yìbiān…yìbiān…" is a relative adverb in Mandarin. This adverb can be put in front of a verb to indicate two actions simultaneously. They are just like a pair of twins, and they always appear simultaneously.

B. Errors of Addition

Syntactic errors of addition are errors where some syntactic elements are present (which should not be there). Here are three examples of other errors made by Indonesian students who have just learned Mandarin less than one year.

(4) Sentence *我不高兴的时候我喜欢听音乐。Wǒ bù gāoxìng de shíhòu wǒ xǐhuān tīng yīnyuè (When I am not happy, I like listening to the music).
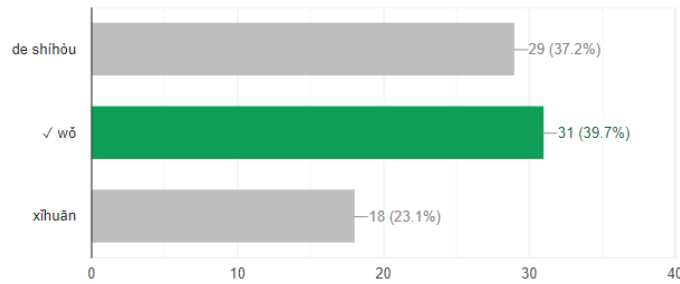
31 / 78 correct responses

Figure 8. Rating Result of Wǒ bù gāoxìng de shíhòu **wǒ** xǐhuān tīng yīnyuè

Figure 8 shows that forty-seven respondents, or 60.3% of the seventy-eight respondents, failed to find the redundant syntactic components. This phenomenon indicates that Indonesian students at the elementary level are not good enough to master the usage of subjects in slightly more complex sentences. Table 4 shows the correct expression.

TABLE 4
SENTENCE Wǒ Bù Gāoxìng de Shíhòu Xǐhuān Tīng Yīnyuè

我不高兴的时候喜欢听音乐。

我	不	高兴	的时候	喜欢	听音乐
Wǒ	bù	gāo xìng	de shíhòu	xǐ huān	yīnyuè
I	not	happy	when	like	listen to the music

Table 4 shows that subjects "我 wǒ" is wrongly used twice (where it should have been used once). There is only one set of SVO (我-喜欢-听音乐 wǒ-xǐhuān-tīng yīnyuè) in the sentence "我不高兴的时候喜欢听音乐。 Wǒ bù gāoxìng de shíhòu xǐhuān tīng yīnyuè", so it is enough to use one subject "我 wǒ" which can be placed at the beginning of the sentence or in front of the verb "喜欢 xǐhuān". The correct expression can be "我不高兴的时候喜欢听音乐 Wǒ bù gāoxìng de shíhòu xǐhuān tīng yīnyuè" or "不高兴的时候我喜欢听音乐 bù gāoxìng de shíhòu wǒ xǐhuān tīng yīnyuè". The phrase "不高兴的时候 bù gāoxìng de shí" means "when (I am) not happy", and its function in this sentence is adverbial of time. Adverbial time is usually allocated in front of the subject or behind the subject, and there is no need to add the subject as expressed in English.

(5) Sentence *我喜欢在图书馆看汉语的书。 Wǒ xǐhuān zài túshūguǎn kàn Hànyǔ de shū (I like in the library read Mandarin books).
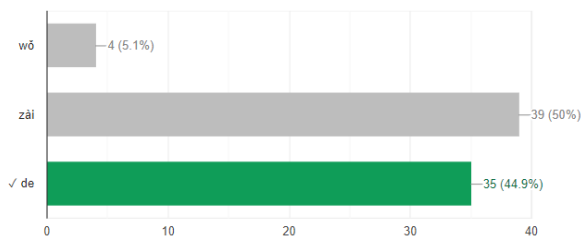
35 / 78 correct responses

Figure 9. Rating Result of Wǒ xǐhuān zài túshū guǎn kàn Hànyǔ de shū

Figure 9 shows that out of seventy-eight respondents, forty-three respondents (55.1%) wrongly used the auxiliary word "的 de". "的 de" is an auxiliary verb frequently used in Chinese. The basic grammatical meaning of the auxiliary "的 de" is the sign of attribute, which is used in the noun phrase of "attributive + central word" structure. If it means that an object belongs to someone, it must use "的 de" such as "我的书 wǒ de shū (my book)", "妈妈的手机 māmā de shǒujī (mom's handphone)", "他的杯子 tā de bēizi (his cup)". However, if it means the nature of an object, it can be left out "的 de", such as "汉语书 Hànyǔ shū (Mandarin books)", "中国电影 Zhōngguó diànyǐng (Chinese movies)", "中国朋友 Zhōngguó péngyǒu (Chinese friends)", "Zhōngguó cài (中国菜 Chinese food)". These nominal phrases have no ambiguity and no need to add the auxiliary verb "的 de". The noun phrase "汉语的书 Hànyǔ de shū" is wrongly added after the attributive of describing nature. For the Indonesian Mandarin beginners, because the usage of "的 de" is not yet fully understood by them and overgeneralization of Mandarin rules, they often add the auxiliary word "的 de" at where don't need it. The correct expression is shown in Table 5.

TABLE 5
SENTENCE WǑ XǏHUĀN ZÀI TÚSHŪGUǍN KÀN HÀNYǓ SHŪ

我喜欢在图书馆看汉语书。

我	喜欢	在	图书馆	看	汉语书。
Wǒ	xǐ huān	z ài	tú shū guǎn	k àn	Hànyǔ shū.
I	like	in	library	read	Mandarin book.

(6) Sentence *我也喜欢听音乐我也喜欢唱歌。 Wǒ yě xǐhuān tīng yīnyuè wǒ yě xǐhuān chànggē (I also like listening to the music I also like singing).
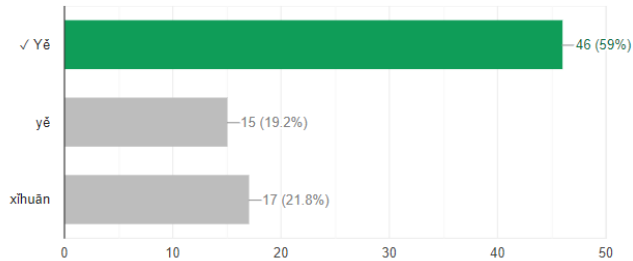
46 / 78 correct responses

Figure 10. Rating Result of Wǒ Yě xǐhuān tīng yīnyuè, wǒ yě xǐhuān chànggē

Figure 10 shows that out of seventy-eight respondents, there are thirty-two (41%) respondents wrongly use the adverb "也 yě "that means "also". On the other hand, forty-six (59%) respondents choose the right answer. This phenomenon shows that the adverb "也 yě (also)" is easy to understand by students at their elementary.

TABLE 6
SENTENCE WǑ XǏHUĀN TĪNG YĪNYUÈ YĚ XǏHUĀN CHÀNGGĒ

我喜欢听音乐也喜欢唱歌

我	喜欢	听音乐,	也	喜欢	唱歌。
Wǒ	xǐ huān	tīng yīnyuè,	yě	xǐhuān	chànggē.
I	like	listening to the music,	also	like	singing.

Table 6 shows that there are two hobbies of "我 wǒ (I)", one is "听音乐 tīng yīnyuè (listen to the music)", the other one is "唱歌 chànggē (sing)". Due to the adverb "也 yě" means "also", it can not be used before the first verb phrase but before the second verb phrase, and there is no need to use it twice.

C. Errors of Selection

Syntactic errors of selection are errors where the wrong syntactic item has been chosen in place of the right one. Here are three examples that are taken from the basic HSKK test.

(7) Sentence "我每天学习汉语，… 我还不会说汉语。Wǒ měitiān xuéxí Hànyǔ, … wǒ hái búhuìshuō Hànyǔ.
(I learn Chinese every day, ... I still cannot speak Chinese).
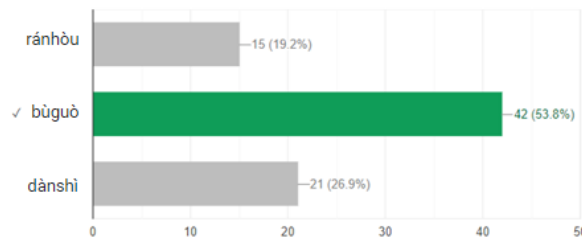
42 / 78 correct responses

Figure 11. Rating Result of Wǒ měitiān xuéxí Hànyǔ, ...wǒ hái bù huì shuō Hànyǔ

Figure 11 shows that fifteen (19.2%) respondents choose the wrong answer out of seventy-eight respondents. It shows that already 70.8% of students had understood the use of the adversative conjunctions "不过 búguò" and "但是 dànshì". The correct sentence can be seen in Table 7.

TABLE 7
SENTENCE WǑ MĚITIĀN DŌU XUÉX ÍHÀNYǓ, BÚGUÒ/ DÀNSH ÌWǑ HÁI BÚ HU ÌSHUŌ HÀNYǓ

我每天都学习汉语,不过/但是我还不会说汉语

我	每天	都 学习	汉语,	不过/但是	我	还	不会	说汉语。
Wǒ	měitiān	dōu xuéxí	Hànyǔ,	búguò/dànshì	wǒ	hái	búhuì	shuō Hànyǔ.
I	everyday	always learn	Mandarin,	but	I	still	cannot	speak Mandarin.

In a sentence, when the meaning of the first half-sentence and the second half-sentence is contradictory, the adversative conjunctions need to be used in the second half-sentence. For example, the sentence "我每天都学习汉语, 不过/ 但是我还不会说汉语。Wǒ měitiān dōu xuéxí Hànyǔ, bú guò/ dànshì wǒ hái bú huì shuō Hànyǔ" means "I learn Mandarin every day, but I still can not speak Mandarin." Therefore, this sentence is suitable for using the adversative conjunction "不过 bú guò" or "但是 dànshì" which means "but". Figure 11 shows that most of the Indonesian students already know the rules of the conjunctions "不过 bú guò" and "但是 dànshì", but 19.2% of students are still confused about it.

(8) Sentence 每天我都看电视…看书。Měitiān wǒ dōu kàn diànshì…kàn shū. (Every day I watch TV... read books).
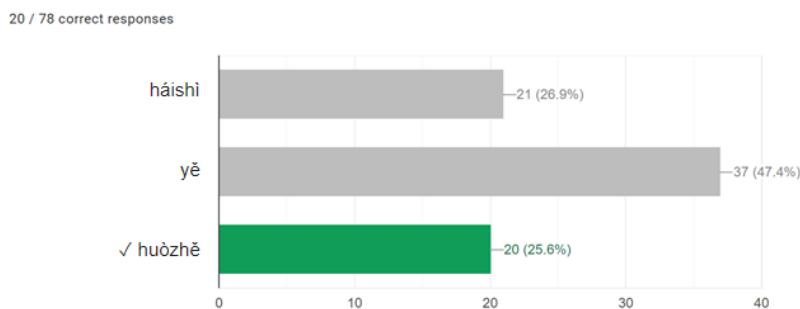
20 / 78 correct responses

Figure 12. Rating Result of Měitiān wǒ dōu kàn diànshì ... kànshū

Figure 12 above shows that from seventy-eight respondents, there were fifty-eight respondents or 52.2% of students who answered incorrectly. It indicates that Indonesian students do not understand the conjunctive word "huòzhě" rules. The correct sentences can be seen in Table 8 below. The word "huòzhě" is an adverb. It is used in a declarative sentence. In Table 8, it shows that the activities carried out every day have two options, namely "kàn diànshì watching TV" or "kànshū reading a book". So, the proper use of the conjunction is "huòzhě". The conjunction "háishì" is used to indicate a choice, while the conjunction "huòzhě" is used in a statement sentence to choose. It is what causes many mistakes because they do not know when to use the conjunction "háishì" or "huòzhě".

TABLE 8
SENTENCE MĚITIĀN WǑ DŌU KÀN DIÀNSH ÌHUÒZHĚ KÀNSHŪ

每天我都看电视或者看书

每天	我	都	看电视	或者	看书。
Měitiān	wǒ	dōu	kàn diànshì	huòzhě	kànshū.
Everyday	I	always	watch TV	or	reading.

(9) 我喜欢看电影, … 是喜欢看美国电影。Wǒ xǐhuān kàn diànyǐng … shì xǐhuān kàn Měiguó diànyǐng. (I like watching films, ... like American films).
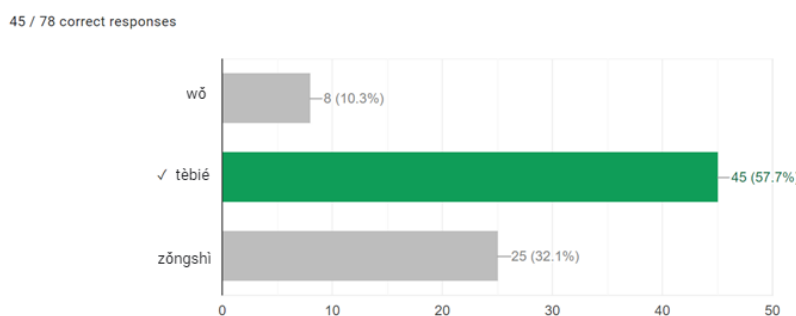
45 / 78 correct responses

Figure 13. Rating Result of Wǒ xǐhuān kàn diànyǐng, ... xǐhuān kàn měiguó diànyǐng

Figure 13 shows that out of seventy-eight respondents, thirty-three (42.3%) respondents had chosen the wrong answer. In this case, the student wants to express, "I like watching movies, especially American movies". As an adverb

of degree, "especially", can be translated to "特别 tèbié" not "总是 zǒngshì (always) in Chinese". It shows that some Indonesian learners have not understood the rules for using an adverb of degree "特别 tèbié", they misused frequency adverbs "总是 zǒngshì (always)" instead of degree adverbs. The correct sentence can be seen in Table 9.

TABLE 9
SENTENCE WǑ XǏ HUĀN KÀN DIÀNYǏNG TÈBIÉ SHÌXǏHUĀN KÀN MĚIGUÓ DIÀNYǏNG

我喜欢看电影,特别是喜欢看美国电影							
我	喜欢	看	电影,	特别是	喜欢	看	美国电影.
Wǒ	xǐhuān	kàn	diànyǐng,	tèbiéshì	xǐhuān	kàn	Měiguó diànyǐng.
I	like	watch	film,	especially	like	watch	American film.

D. Errors of Ordering

Syntactic errors of order where the syntactic elements presented are correct but wrongly sequenced. Here are three examples of error expressions made by Indonesian Mandarin learners when they answer a basic HSKK test.

(10) Sentence *我每天学习汉语在大学。Wǒ měitiān xuéxí Hànyǔ zài dàxué (I every day learn Mandarin at university).
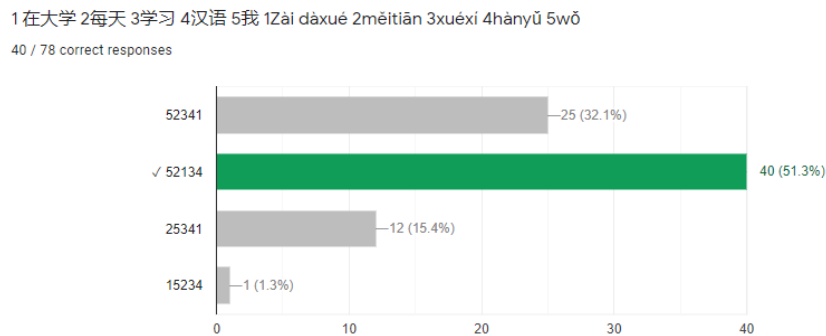

Figure 14. Rating Result of Wǒ měitiān xuéxí Hànyǔ zài dàxué

Figure 14 shows that out of seventy-eight respondents, thirty-eight (or 48.7%) respondents answered incorrectly. It shows that some Indonesian Mandarin learners have not mastered the word order of verbs, and they place it in the adverbial. There are twenty-five learners who choose the "52341" model, which is "Wǒ měitiān xuéxí Hànyǔ zài dàxué". When translated into Indonesian, that is "Saya setiap hari belajar bahasa Mandarin di Universitas", which means "Everyday I study Mandarin in university". This sentence pattern is acceptable in Indonesian. There are twenty-five Indonesian learners who choose this model. In addition, there are twelve and one respondents who choose the type "25341" and "15234", respectively. Word order plays a crucial role in Chinese. The adverbials must precede verbs in Chinese. Table 10 shows the correct sentence.

TABLE 10
SENTENCE WǑ MĚITIĀN ZÀI DÀXUÉ XUÉXÍHÀNYǓ

我每天在大学学习汉语				
我	每天	在大学	学习	汉语。
Wǒ	měitiān	zài dàxué	xuéxí	Hànyǔ.
I	everyday	at university	learn	Mandarin.

(11) Sentence *我可以才说汉语。Wǒ kěyǐ cái shuō Hànyǔ. (I can just speak Mandarin).
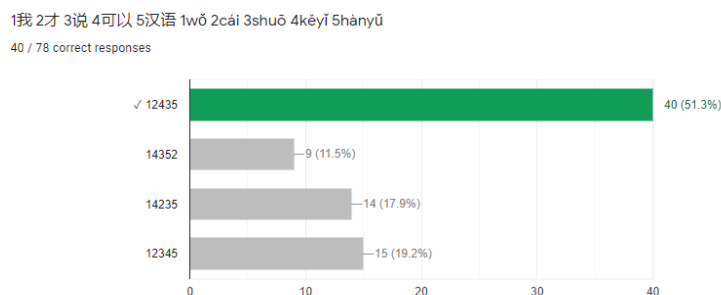

Figure 15. Rating Result of Wǒ kěyǐ cái shuō Hànyǔ

Figure 15 above shows that out of seventy-eight respondents, thirty-eight (or 48.7%) respondents choose the wrong answer. It shows that some Indonesian learners have not mastered the word order of two consecutive adverbs. The adverb "才 cái" means "just", and the adverb "可以 kěyǐ" means "can". When it put both together, the adverb "才 cái" must be placed before the adverb "kěyǐ" indicating that "just can". At the beginning of the learning process, Indonesian Mandarin learners do not understand the difference between the two adverbs, nor do they know their order. The correct sentence is "我才可以说汉语。Wǒ cái kěyǐ shuō Hànyǔ" that means "I can just speak Mandarin".

TABLE 11
SENTENCE Wǒ CÁI KěYǐ SHUŌ HÀNYǓ

我才可以说汉语				
我	才	可以	说	汉语
Wǒ	cái	kěyǐ	shuō	Hànyǔ
I	Has/ just	can	speak	Mandarin.

(12) Sentence *我很多看中国电影。Wǒ hěn duō kàn Zhōngguó diànyǐng. (I watch many Chinese movies).

1.我 2.很多 3.看 4.中国 5.电影 1.wǒ 2.hěnduō 3.kàn 4.Zhòngguó 5.diànyǐng

31 / 78 correct responses

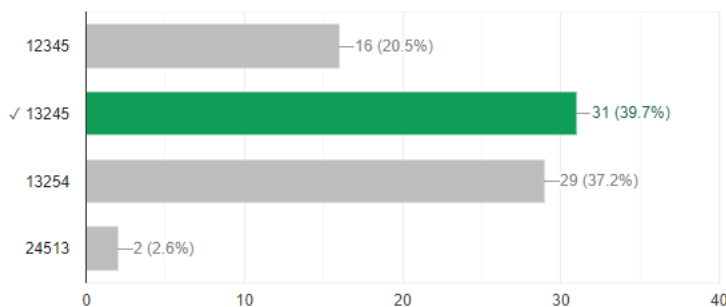| Answer	Count
12345	—16 (20.5%)
✓ 13245	—31 (39.7%)
13254	—29 (37.2%)
24513	—2 (2.6%)

Figure 16. Rating Result of Wǒ hěnduō kàn zhōngguó diànyǐng

Figure 16 shows that out of seventy-eight respondents, just 31(or 39.7%) respondents chose the correct answer. In contrast, forty-seven learners (or 60.3%) answered incorrectly. It shows that the sentence above is considered exceedingly difficult for Indonesian Mandarin learners. In their elementary period, Indonesian learners are still confused about the order of the adverbs and the verbs. Therefore, the correct expression will be the sentence in Table 12 below.

TABLE 12
SENTENCE Wǒ KÀN (LE) HěNDUŌ ZHŌNGGUÓ DIÀNYǏNG

我看(了)很多中国电影				
我	看(了)	很多(次)	中国	电影
Wǒ	kàn (le)	hěnduō (cì)	Zhōngguó	diànyǐng
I	have watched	many(times)	Chinese	movies

Table 12 shows that in the sentence "我看了很多(次)中国电影 Wǒ kàn (le) hěnduō (cì) Zhōngguó diànyǐng (I had watched many (times) Chinese movies)", the adjective "很多 hěnduō (many)" is used to modify the noun "中国电影 Zhōngguó diànyǐng (Chinese movies)", not to modify the verb "看 kàn (watch)", so that the adjective "很多 hěnduō (many)" must be placed in front of "中国电影 Zhōngguó diànyǐng (Chinese movies), not in the front of "看 kàn (watch)".

A table can be drawn from the above analysis to conclude the average syntactic errors rate for Indonesian Mandarin beginners, as shown in Table 13. In Chinese, syntactic elements include subject, predicate, object, attribute, adverbial, and complement. Therefore, the syntactic errors of Indonesian Mandarin beginners mostly appear in attribute, adverbial, and complement.

TABLE 13
SYNTACTIC ERRORS

The type of syntactic error	Sentence	Syntactic elements	The rate of error	The average rate of error
Errors of Omission	1	predicate	59%	68.4%
	2	adverbials	75.6%	
	3	conjunction	70.5%	
Errors of Addition	4	subject	60.3%	52.1%
	5	attribute	55.1%	
	6	adverbial	41%	
Errors of Selection	7	conjunction	19.2%	45.3%
	8	conjunction	74.4%	
	9	adverbial	42.3%	
Errors of Ordering	10	adverbial	48.7%	52.6%
	11	adverbial	48.7%	
	12	adverbial	60.3%	

V. CONCLUSION

Overall, by investigating Indonesian learners on the mastery of Mandarin sentences through the basic oral Chinese test (basic HSKK), we can conclude that Indonesian Mandarin learners at their elementary stage are easier to master the sentences with the simple SVO pattern. In contrast, slightly more complex sentences, such as sentences consisting of two verbs, two adverbs, the clauses expressing time and place, or conjunctions, are more likely to make errors of omission, addition, selection, and disordering. The errors of omission, addition, and disordering all account for a substantial proportion, respectively accounting for 68.4%, 52.6%, and 52.1%. The sources of these syntactic errors can be multidimensional. It can be due to the negative transfer of the native language, the overgeneralization of target language rules, the inherent language thinking habits, or the differences between the two cultures. Second language teachers must be highly aware of these errors in the teaching process and then give the students comprehensible knowledge to reduce the frequency of these errors, to help students quickly master Mandarin and deeply understand the linguistic rules and pragmatic connotations behind the language.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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Argument Structure and Word Order in Saudi Sign Language

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Abstract—**This study focuses on the description of argument structure and word order in Saudi Sign language (SSL). The nature of the syntactic level of the grammar of SSL is clarified. Since word order is often considered the most important part of grammar, this study details the various options that are available for the major constituents (Subject, Verb, and Object) in SSL independent of any connection to spoken Arabic syntax. In SSL, like in other languages, the nature of the arguments (Subject, Object) and the kind of verb can impact the word order. To investigate word order in SSL, which is based on Chomsky's (1995) Minimalist Program (MP), data were collected through derivation of data from narratives (semi-naturalistic-corpus) and an experiment (picture-description task). This research involved a sample of 10 deaf signing participants who are all fluent in SSL. All the participants have lived in Saudi Arabia for at least 10 years. Results indicate that the SSL is as any natural language and from the spoken language in Saudi Arabia. The most common word order in declaratives and the basic constituent order in SSL is SVO. As in virtually all sign languages, Wh-elements in SSL occur at the end of the clause. According to research on the interaction between word order and grammatical use of facial expressions and head locations (nonmanual marking), nonmanual markings have pragmatic purposes and may have syntactic functions.**

Index Terms—**argument structure, word order, saudi sign language, minimalist program**

I. INTRODUCTION

Despite the fact that sign languages are clearly independent from the surrounding spoken languages (Goldin-Meadow, 2005), they are still linked to the same universal principles as spoken languages. Sign languages are visual languages, they are expressed by using the hands, face, and other parts of the body. They constitute a distinct linguistic type that adds depth to the field of Language Typology and make a significant contribution to research on Universal Grammar conducted across a variety of languages. There is no universally accepted sign language. Most nations that share a common spoken language do not necessarily have a common sign language. For example, American English has American Sign Language (ASL), British English has British Sign Language (BSL), and so on. Arabic does not share one sign language but each of the Arab countries has its own language such as Saudi (SSL), Jordanian, and Egyptian Sign Language. SSL is the sign language of Saudi Arabia, and is used by approximately 750,000 deaf people. This sign language is not the same as the Arabic language spoken in Saudi Arabia. SSL is a stand-alone language and is not a translation of the Arabic. It also has a specific system that distinguishes it from the spoken language, which is a language like other human languages that has grown, developed, and flourished through the Saudi deaf community to become the basic language in all aspects of life, whether in the educational, cultural, or social aspects. We analyzed sentence structure in SSL, including basic word order and a number of factors that allow alternate word orders. One reason for this analysis is that SSL is still not recognized as a language in Saudi Arabia. Therefore, there should be more linguistic studies on SSL.

According to Baker (2016) one of the most significant parts of the grammar of every spoken language is word order. Spoken languages are linear in that words follow one another and cannot be spoken at the same time. Words are always arranged in a sequence owing to restrictions in the speech apparatus, and languages may employ this ordering to communicate grammatical meanings. One way in which sign languages (SL) are distinct from spoken languages is that they do not follow a strict linear structure.

This study (1) investigates the order of the main constituents (subject (S), object (O), and verb (V)) of simple declarative and interrogative clauses in SSL. (2) It presents explanations of the many alternatives that are available for the primary elements (Subject, Verb, and Object) in SSL independent of any link to Arabic syntax. (3) We examine how different word ordering and contexts affect meaning. The main goal of this study is not just to understand these

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details, but to use them as a bridge to understand SSL in general. SSL represents a challenging but fruitful field of research. Under this approach, the investigation of a language used by a small number of signers, such as SSL, contributes to the improvement of the linguistic theory. Therefore, this study adopted a minimalism program as the research framework.

Numerous studies have examined word order in SL, and some investigated sentence structure in a select number of contexts. In a study on the fundamental word order of ASL, Fischer (1975) relied primarily on single elicited signed phrases as the primary data source. Others have investigated the development of signed responses in response to paired photographs of stimuli (Volterra et al., 1984 for Italian SL, LIS; Coerts, 1994 for SL of the Netherlands, among others). In addition, some have conducted a narrative analysis or elicited natural signing in response to interview questions (Bergman & Wallin, 1985). Still others used many of these approaches in the course of their data collection (Liddell, 1980 for ASL; Leeson, 2001 for Irish SL). The current study adopted derivation of data from narratives and an experiment as data collection methods. The most common word order in declaratives and the basic constituent order in SSL is found to be SVO. As in virtually all SLs, Wh-elements in SSL occur at the end of the sentence. According to research into the interaction between word order and grammatical use of facial expressions and head locations (nonmanual marking), nonmanual markings have pragmatic purposes and may have syntactic functions. This research introduces the theoretical assumptions the research builds on, and provides some background on SLs in general, particularly SSL. The elicitation methods used in the study are also described. The argument structure and word order in SSL is discussed. Finally, concluding remarks are provided.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Word Order in Spoken Languages

According to Greenberg (1963), the word order of a phrase is comprised of the subject, object, and verb of a sentence. Despite the fact that six other orders may be used (SOV, SVO, OSV, OVS, VOS, and VSO in transitive sentences), SOV and SVO are the most prevalent across languages. It has been hypothesized (e.g., Gell-Mann & Ruhlen, 2011) that the most fundamental word order of the oldest language was probably SOV, and that SVO languages tended to evolve from SOV languages over the course of time (e.g., Vennemann, 1977). There is also an instance of SOV order in gesture creations. Goldin-Meadow et al. (2008) asked 10 people who spoke English, 10 who spoke Turkish, 10 who spoke Spanish, and 10 who spoke Chinese (Mandarin) to describe events that were captured on camera without using any language. Regardless of the participants' first languages, the order in which they performed their gestures was found to be comparable to the SOV order used in speech.

Lehmann (1978) established that in terms of fundamental sentences and subordination, the SVO order of words is unmarked in the English language (however, see LaPolla & Poa, 2006). Dryer (2005) analyzed the word order of a total of 1,228 distinct languages. He concluded that 497 languages, including Japanese, follow the SOV order, whereas 435 follow the SVO order (e.g. English). In addition, VSO has been identified in 85 distinct languages, such as Irish, VOS in 26, such as Nias, OVS in nine, such as Hixkaryana, and OSV in four, such as Nadëb. A total of 172 of the 1,228 known languages do not have a word order that is considered to be the norm. Tomlin (1986) indicates that there are functional reasons for the frequency of SOV and SVO orders in contrast to other word orders. These functional reasons may explain why SOV and SVO orders are more common. First, the subject, which denotes the principal thought communicated by a statement, often comes before the object in the conventional order of things. Second, in transitive phrases, the object and the verb are placed relatively close to one another because the connection between them is closer than the connection that exists between the subject and the verb. Third, in intransitive phrases, the subject and the verb are placed further apart than the object and the verb.

According to studies on Standard Arabic (SA), grammarians separated the Standard Arabic sentence into two different types: a nominal phrase and a verbal sentence. A sentence is referred to as nominal if it begins with a noun phrase (NP); if it opens with a verb, it is referred to as verbal. A nominal sentence is distinguished from a verbal statement by the placement of the NP in the first position (Al-Rajehi, 1998). If a sentence uses the SVO word order, then Arabic grammarians consider it to be a nominal sentence. On the other hand, they consider if it uses the VSO word order, it is considered a verbal sentence. Most of Arab grammarians agree with Al-Rahawi's (2007) definition, which states that a sentence is deemed to be a nominal sentence if it does not include a verb.

Examining the SA literature in more depth, this phenomenon exhibits two primary word order alternations, namely SVO and VSO (Mohammed, 1991, 2000; Fassi-Fehri, 1993; Soltan, 2007; Alsager, 2017, 2020; Alsager & Mahzari, 2021; Fakih, 2014b, 2015, 2016, among others). In terms of agreement, these changes form an asymmetry that is referred to as subject-verb agreement asymmetry. This imbalance has developed into an important issue for study and analysis, and has also attracted a considerable amount of attention over the last two decades from linguists in both the Arab and Western worlds (Bahluol & Harbert, 1992; Aoun et al., 1994; Ouhallah, 1994; Olarrea, 1995; Benmamoun, 2000; Fakih, 2015, 2016). According to Steele (1978, p. 610), the term "agreement" most often refers to "any systematic link between a semantic or formal characteristic of one element and a formal feature of another". On the one hand, the form of the inflected verb depends on properties of two of its arguments, that is, we observe a systematic covariance between a formal property of the arguments (referential loci) and a formal property of the verb (path

movement and hand orientation); academics have long been perplexed by verb agreement in SL. This is due to the fact that "we observe a systematic covariance between a formal property. It is feasible to detect full agreement between the subject and the verb in each and every phi-feature when the SVO word order is used (i.e. gender, person and number)." On the other hand, when employing VSO, it is possible to attain merely gender agreement, which is sometimes referred to as partial agreement (Fassi-Fehri, 1993; Mohammed, 2000; Benmamoun, 2000; Soltan, 2007, among others).

B. Word Order in Sign Languages

Previous research (e.g., Fischer, 1975; Kegl et al., 1996; Liddell, 1980) has established that ASL and Japanese SL have an SOV order. Other relevant studies include Fischer (1996), Torigoe (1994), and Senghas et al. (1997). However, BSL (Deuchar, 1983), SL of the Netherlands (Coerts, 1994; Crasborn et al., 2009), and Spanish SL (Morales-Lopez et al., 2012) all permit modifications based on the topic-comment structures that are being used. Given the differences in this aspect that have been established, there has been significant debate over the fundamental (underlying) word order of a particular SL. For instance, BSL may follow an SVO order (see Cormier & Fenlon, 2009), as opposed to the topic-comment structures proposed by Deuchar (1983). Other views have focused on the changes that occur as a result of semantic and pragmatic aspects such as topicalization, which are derived from the fundamental word order. Fischer's (1975) examination of word order shift in ASL from the nineteenth century (SOV) to the present (SVO) is considered the key work on the topic of word order in ASL. "American Sign Language...uses an SVO word order as its primary word order. Other orderings are permissible provided that (a) anything is topicalized, (b) the subject and object cannot be switched, and/or (c) the signer makes use of space to express grammatical processes....some difficulties such as 'articulatory factors', 'verb classes', and 'classifier constructions' could cause variances in the fundamental word order of any sign language states" (Arik, 2016) (see also Kimmelman, 2011).

Sprenger and Mathur (2012) revealed some interesting findings on word order in SSL. These observations investigate various word ordering in personal tales in SSL through explication sessions held in 2011 with four deaf Saudi Arabian consultants with the intention of shedding light on the syntactic level of SSL grammar. The sessions mostly consisted of the consultants recounting various experiences from their own life to the group. They appended English glosses to the transcribed versions of the accounts. They then discussed the aspects of the narrative that they were unsure about with each consultant and attempted to obtain a better understanding of it. Using Padden's definition of predicates as a guide, they then categorized each gloss according to its part of speech (Padden, 1988). Single signals that encode the subject and object by making use of directional and spatial information may be both depicting and indicating verbs. These signs can be combined to provide more complex meanings. As a result, a single symbol has the potential to function as a whole phrase by itself. This was a very beneficial strategy to inquire about the narrators' thoughts on the grammatical categories of the various indications. They were able to determine the boundaries between sentences. They were on the lookout for a made sure that every phrase had a verb. They then determined the arguments that were associated with each verb and used discourse indicators (e.g., nods, body changes, and particular signals) to determine the most likely borders between sentences. The findings reveal multiple occurrences of word order as follows:

(1) PRO-I GO-TO HOTEL

           S   V   O

      "I went to the hotel."

(2) PRO-I UNIVERSITY GRADUATE

           S   O   V

      "I graduated from the university."

(3) CAMERA PRO-I open

           O   S   V

      "The camera, I opened it."

The examination of personal narratives reveals various aspects of SSL argued to be present in ASL. Both ASL and SSL use some similar information structure mechanisms in their respective vocabularies.

C. Argument Structure

The study of argument structure is one of the areas of linguistics that has received the most attention and inquiry. In addition to studies theoretical studies (Borer, 2003; Levin & Rappaport Hovav, 2005; Ramchand, 2013; Malchukov & Comrie, 2015), it has been investigated from descriptive and topological perspectives. Levin (1993) offered the first comprehensive explanation of the verb classes and argument structure alternations in English, making significant step forward in the development of the field of argument structure research. The system of structural connections that exist between heads and the arguments related to them in the roster of syntactic qualities that are specified for each object in the lexicon is referred to as argument structure. This term refers to the syntactic configuration that is projected by a lexical item when it is employed as a noun. A typological effort that was inspired by Levin's work was recently completed, in which fundamental verb classes and alternations were characterized for 37 languages that are both typologically and geographically diverse (Hartmann et al., 2013; Malchukov & Comrie, 2015).

The relation between verb classes and argument structure is an important topic (even if it is not presented as the primary research question in their respective works) (Rathmann & Mathur, 2011; Geraci & Quer, 2014). According to Gelderen (2017), the number of arguments required to properly define a verb determines whether it is transitive,

intransitive, or ditransitive. For example, transitive verbs have two arguments and intransitive verbs have one. Verbs are traditionally seen to range from zero to three arguments. Rather than use the generic term "argument," Gruber (1965) and Jackendoff (1972) introduced the term "roles."

Theme may be further subdivided into Patient, Stimulus, and Response. When theta-roles are initially presented, the verbs in the lexicon are arranged according to their respective theta-roles, and it is necessary to ensure that the number of arguments corresponds to the number of theta-roles found in the syntactic derivation. If it is specified that the action "eat" needs two theta-roles (Agent and Theme), then it will be necessary to provide two arguments, and for each, a theta-role is expected. This idea is one that can be used right now at the semantic interface, and it is known as the Theta-Criterion.

There is one and only one argument that corresponds to each theta-role, and there is one and only one theta-role that corresponds to each argument (Chomsky, 1981, p. 36). Certain syntactic locations correlate to specific thematic functions, and these places may be found in a sentence. For instance, the Agent is almost always considered to be the grammatical subject, the Theme is considered to be the grammatical object, and the Location can be considered an adjunct. Agent > Theme > Location is the preliminary order of the hierarchy. This specific example was formerly believed to be a component of Universal Grammar; however, it is now considered that this is more likely the product of larger cognitive constraints that come from variances in animacy. This particular case was assumed to be a component of Universal Grammar. Verbs that fall into the category of transitive have two arguments, whereas those categorized as intransitive only have one argument. The usual view is that the number of arguments that verbs may have ranges from zero to three.

To date, there has been no systematic investigation of the way arguments are constructed in SLs (see Geraci & Quer, 2014). Research on other SLs has not been carried out in a way that is analogous to this one; hence, Kegl's (1990) description of verb classes and alternations in ASL is most likely the only one of its kind. Kimmelman (2016) investigated transitivity in Russian Sign Language (RSL) based on corpus data. However, this research only covers a limited number of verbs, and it merely discusses whether these are employed in a transitive or an intransitive manner; it does not analyze verb classes in a systematic manner, nor does it explore any alternations. Several researchers have examined the unique argument structure alternations that are used in a range of SLs. A number of researchers have followed this line of inquiry. Rankin (2013) describes structures that are passive or passive-like. Reflexive (Kimmelman, 2009a) and reciprocal (Pfau & Steinbach, 2003; Zeshan & Panda, 2011) alternations, causal constructs (Tang & Gu, 2007), and the impersonal alternation (Barberà & Quer, 2013) have also been investigated. Kimmelman (2018) analyzed and characterized the key verb classes and argument structure alternations in RSL. This research used data collected from a list of 80 verbal meanings from the Valency Classes in World's Languages project (Hartmann et al., 2013), in addition to data obtained from the corpus of RSL. The authors provided evidence that RSL has lexical verbs with varying sets of arguments (ranging from zero to three). Furthermore, the argument structure of lexical verbs and alternations that apply to them in RSL are both typologically prevalent in the language. Although classifier predicates in RSL have been used to argue for a syntactic approach to the creation of arguments, a similar argument has been made using predicates in other SLs; nonetheless, RSL classifier predicates do not provide a strong support for this approach. This is due to the fact that these predicates are used in other SLs.

III. METHODOLOGY

A wide variety of research may be used to explore the argument structure and word order in SSL. Some of the most popular types of methodologies include grammaticality evaluation tests, naturalistic-corpus data analysis, and experimental procedures. These different approaches each have their own set of advantages and disadvantages. Some researchers have integrated a variety of research approaches in an effort to avoid the disadvantages.

To analyze word order in SSL based on Chomsky's (1995) Minimalist Program (MP), data were obtained via two different methods. The first used the derivation of data from narratives (semi-naturalistic-corpus). The second involved conducting an experiment (picture-description task). The objectives of the first method are to (1) evaluate some broad principles of word order in SSL in an environment more representative of real-world use. The purpose of the experiment is to test the results of the first method.

This study used a sample of 10 deaf signing participants who are all fluent in SSL. All have lived in Saudi Arabia for at least 10 years. For the data collection, two tasks were designed: (1) narrative task, and (2) picture-description task. In the first task, participants had to watch a movie twice then had to retell/redescribe it. For the second task, the participants were given 18 pictures and were asked to describe/talk about them. These 18 pictures attempt to cover all the possible structures in any language. ELAN (a multimedia annotation tool) was used for data analysis. The following screen shot (figure 1) shows how we worked on the video tape to annotate those non-verbal sentences.
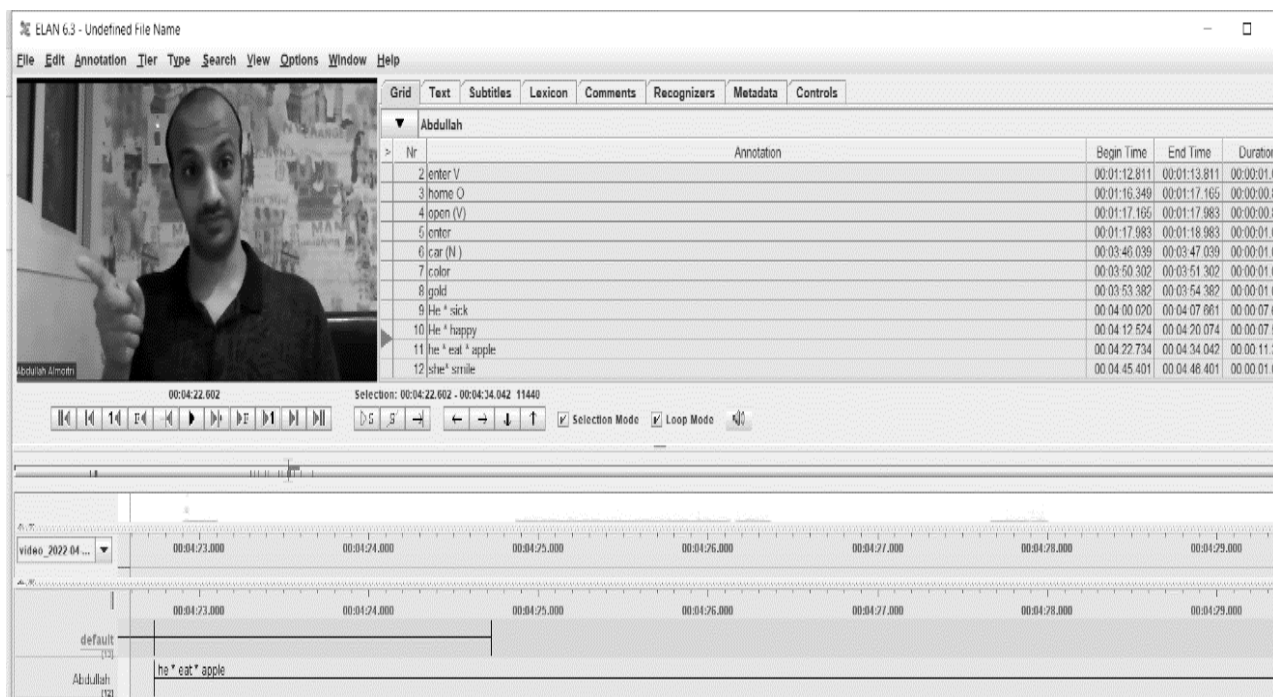
Figure 1

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section presents the main results of this study, starting with declaratives sentences then constituent interrogative sentences in SSL.

A. Declaratives and the Basic Constituent Order

Basic word order means constituent order because nominal arguments are constituents that may consist of multiple words or signs. Thus, at the sentence level, we are interested in the order of the three main constituents, SVO, SOV, and VSO. The criteria that are utilized for the study of SLs are the same as those used for research on spoken languages. That is, for establishing the basic order, pragmatically neutral declarative sentences with a predicate and two nominal arguments are examined. In the following discussion, we make a distinction between transitive and locative sentences. Declaratives are important to determine the basic word order of a language. A basic declarative sentence in ASL, for example, takes the form illustrated in (4).

(4) John like chocolate
"John likes chocolate."

From this example, it can be inferred that the basic word order of ASL is SVO (Fischer, 1975). OSV commands and VOS orders can also be used in certain contexts, which are often expressed using nonmanual identifiers. Fischer (1975) and Liddell (1980) demonstrated that alternative (non-SVO) word order in ASL is distinguished by intonation breaks in a variety of ways. These approaches include brief pauses, raised eyebrows above the fronted element, and head nods. In addition, some word order is feasible even in the absence of these intonational breaks or non-manuals, provided that it is clear which word performs the role of the Agent, and which is the Patient. Thus, SOV (Subject, Object, Verb) word order is possible, for instance, in sentences with nonreversible S and O, in sentences with agreement V where grammatical connections are indicated by the direction or orientation of the V (Fischer, 1975), and in the situation of O shift because of the presence of handling classifier predicates (Chen Pichler, 2001), and aspectual verbs (verbs which can be modified with aspectual morphology) (Matsuoka, 1997; Braze, 2004). The OSV word order is present in sentences in which the Object is fronted, such as in OSV phrases (Fischer, 1975; Liddell, 1980; Aarons, 1994), and it is also present in circumstances in which the Object is shifted. Word order VOS is used in phrases that include a fronted or proposed Verb phrase or a postposed Subject, such as sentences that have VOS word order (Fischer, 1975). Since ASL is a pro-drop language, overt arguments may be phonologically null, resulting in word ordering such as (S)VO, SV(O), or (S)V(O) (Lillo-Martin, 1986).

TABLE 1
RESULT OF DECLARATIVE AND THE BASIC CONSTITUENT ORDER IN SSL

	SVO	VSO	SOV	OSV	OVS
Total	18	4	3	5	6
%	50%	11%	8%	14%	17%

On the other hand, declaratives sentences in SSL are produced without any additional nonmanual markings, such as the facial expression. In this regard, SSL behaves just like other SLs. As previously noted, (see Table 1), the unmarked word order of OVS (17%) and OSV (14%) occur almost as often as the most common word order SVO (50%). All of these predicates are stative (5). SOV order was also observed, but only rarely 8%. We found OVS order only with locative sentences (6), thus conforming to some of Sprenger and Mathur's (2012) "Observations on Word Order in SSL."
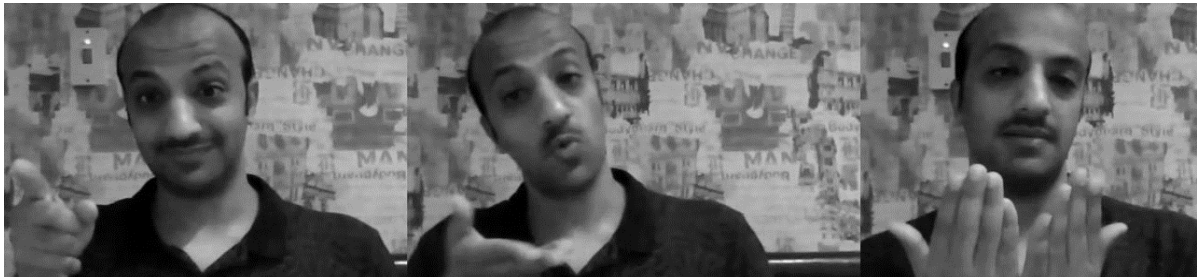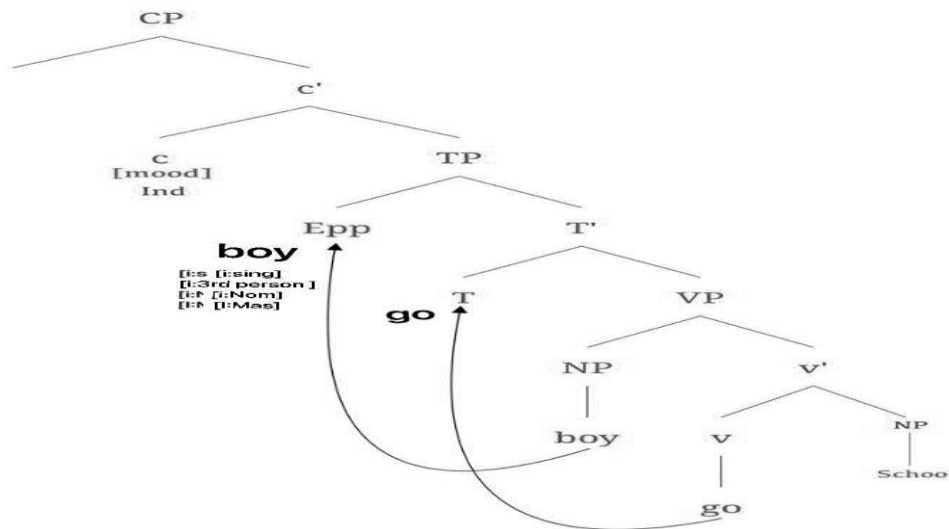

Figure 2

(5)   He GO SCHOOL
"He **is** going **to** school"

The phrase marker tree demonstrates that the verb "raises" in the same way as it does in some spoken languages. Movement must be prompted in the MP, as shown by the previous example. For raising patterns like those described above, a frequent assumption is that the nodes that are landing sites and the lexical items that are raised both include syntactic properties. This is because raising patterns are used to raise lexical items. If the nodes have what are known as strong features, then they will not be able to pass the constraints of the PF interface. Therefore, to prepare for S-Structure, they have to be eradicated by raising the lexical item that has the same properties. On the other hand, if the characteristics of the landing site nodes are described as being weak, then there is no need for any movement before the S-Structure (and will take place only at LF).

Additionally, SSL demonstrates Subject-Raising, for which MP suggests robust N-features in T. It is plausible to claim that the overt subject-verb agreement in SSL is an overt expression of strong N-features, which demands NP-raising.
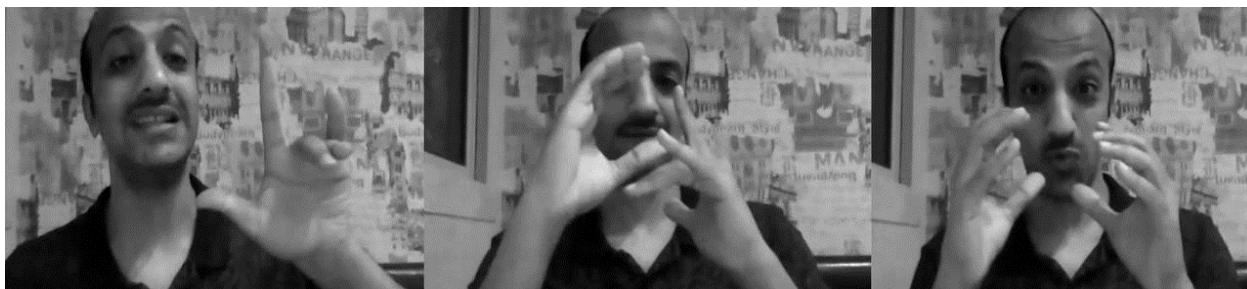
Figure 3

(6)   CHAIR ON BALL
"**The** ball **is** on **the** chair"

It is interesting to note that in most SLs studied to date, a different order has been identified in locative sentences. According to Baker et al. (2016) locative sentences are statements that specify the location of two things in respect to one another and are called "locating" sentences. It is a very common practice to begin the process of signing a locative construction by first introducing the larger and less mobile entity (the ground), as a reference point of sorts, before positioning the smaller entity (the figure) in relation to the ground. This is done to avoid confusion. The DGS employs this tactic, which is also known as the figure-ground concept and uses it as a guiding principle. The ground is comprised of the bridge and the table, and the figures are the automobile and the book. The locative connection between the figures and the ground may be defined by either a verb of motion or a locative verb. RSL also conveys a locative connection; however, it does not include a verb in its structure.

On the other hand, many spoken languages have a considerable inventory of function words, which may include adpositions (including pre- and postpositions), articles, conjunctions, and particles. Example (6) is a sentence in English with the function words or functional parts (highlighted using boldface). As can be seen, it has the definite article "the," and the copula is "is." Compare the English sentence with its SSL. It is interesting to note that the example only includes content signals, such as nouns and verbs.

B. Constituent Interrogative Sentences in SSL

Yes/no questions are not usually characterized by a systematic change in word order. Such a question is generally only indicated by a nonmanual grammatical marker (raised eyebrows and a forward and/or downward movement of the head/chin) in SSL has two ways:

1) Raised eyebrows and a forward head tilt > sentence (7).
2) Raised eyebrows and a forward head tilt > sentence > hand sign (yes and no).
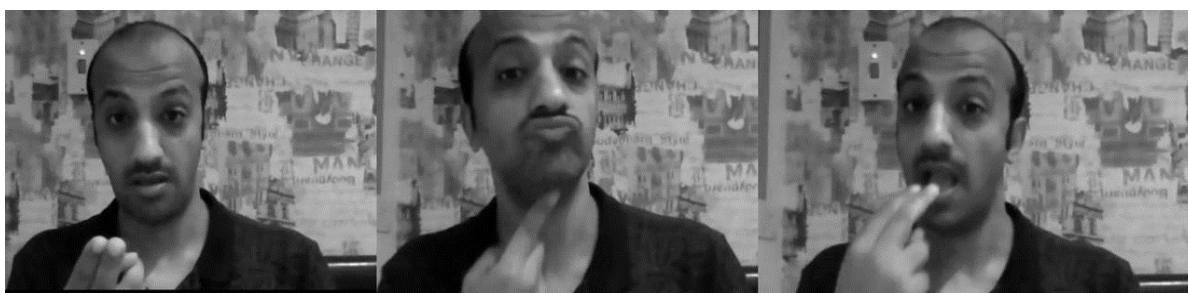

Figure 4

(7) YOU LIKE CANDY
"Do like candy?"

Wh-questions have been a main topic of SL syntax since the early days of SL linguistics as Wh-elements in virtually all SLs occur at the right edge of the clause. This is surprising as spoken languages usually allow Wh-elements either to stay in-situ or move to the left. An interrogative sentence in SSL (examples (7), (8), (9)) is marked with the question mark "?" The beginning of asking the question is indicated by using the index finger, followed by the sentence, then adding the question mark (how, when... etc.). Facial expressions (raising the eyebrows, opening the mouth, etc.) are very important in formulating the question.

According to Bross (2020), there are three main analyses for the placement of Wh-phrases in SLs. The first claims that Wh-movement in SLs is the same as in spoken languages, namely to the left (7) (e.g., Petronio & Lillo-Martin, 1997) while the second assumes that SL Wh-movement is special in that it occurs to the right (8) (e.g., Aarons et al., 1995; Cecchetto et al., 2009). The problem for both accounts is that they need to explain why the Wh-items appear at the end in most SLs, but not in spoken languages. The third type of analysis assumes not only Wh-movement, but also additional remnant movement steps in the derivation. The data show that Wh-in-situ questions are possible (9).
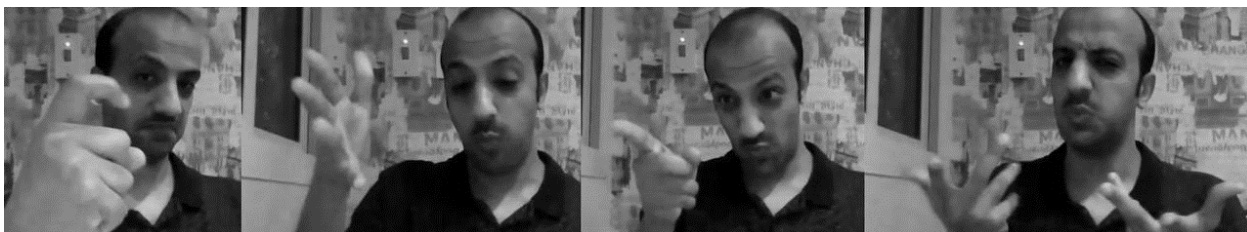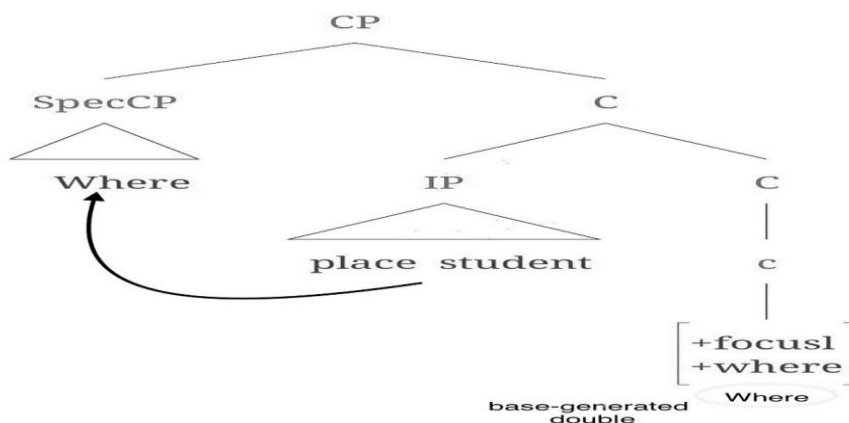
Figure 5

(8) -   ? STUDENTS WHERE
"Where are the students?"

Concerning the leftward-movement analysis, for ASL, it was assumed Wh-phrases move to the left periphery and the Wh-elements occurring clause-finally are complementizers, also known as heads. Additionally, it was assumed that the leftward movement of Wh-phrases in clause-finally occurred in ASL clauses (e.g., Petronio & Lillo-Martin, 1997). According to Petronio and Lillo-Martin's (1997) theory, which is shown in Figure (5), feature testing of the Wh-phrase takes place between SpecCP and C when the Wh-phrase is transferred to SpecCP. That is, the Wh-word found in position C is some form of emphasis doubling created by the base in this context.

(9) -? CHILD EAT WHEN
"When does he eat breakfast?"
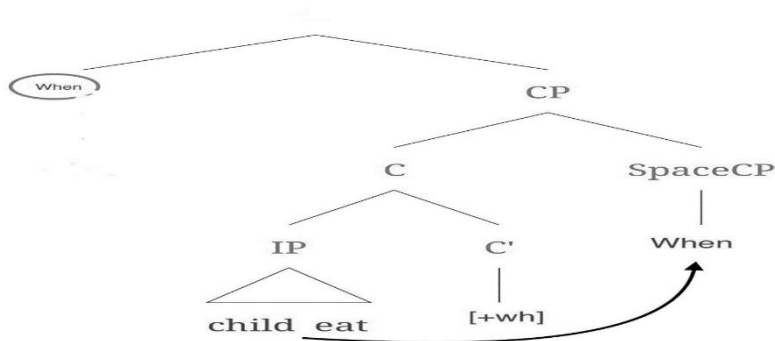
According to proponents of rightward-movement analyses, SLs are distinct from spoken languages in that SpecCP (or any comparable projection housing Wh-phrases) is right-branching. The earliest versions of this type of analysis (e.g., Aarons et al., 1992; Aarons, 1994; Neidle et al., 1998) assumed that clause-initial Wh-phrases in doubling constructions were base-generated in an unlabeled left-branching topic position. This was because it was thought that this was the most natural place for such phrases to occur.

(10)? STUDENT GO SCHOOL HOW
"How do students go to school?"
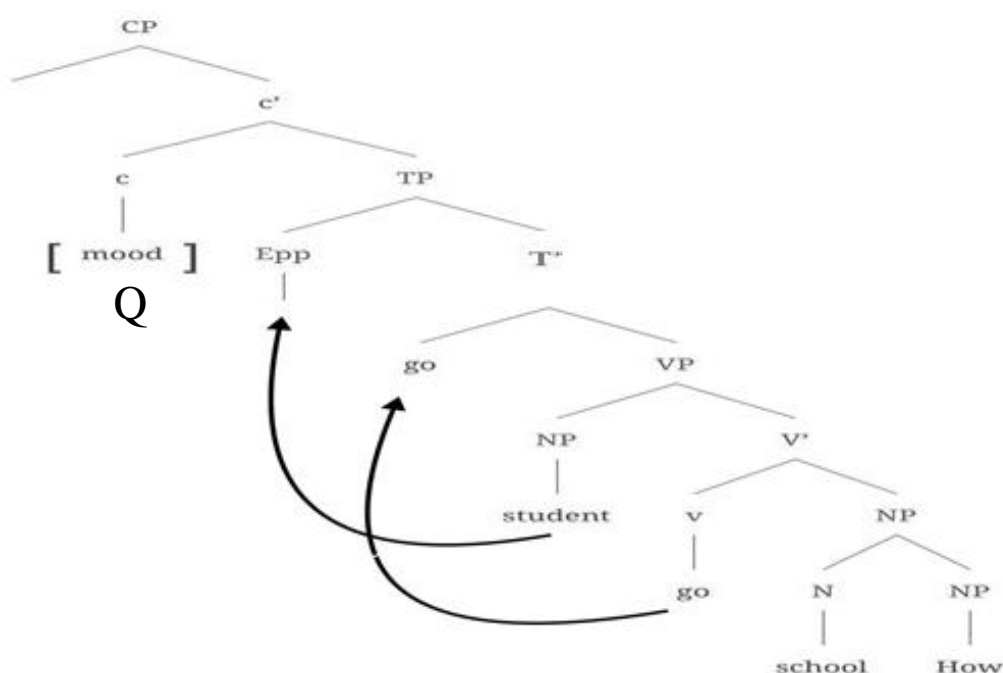
Huang (1982) made the significant suggestion that the Wh-phrase in a language with Wh-in-situ moves at LF, which means that the movement cannot be identified on a phonological level. As Wh-phrases remain in-situ in Japanese and Korean, they are able to exist inside complicated NPs in both languages. As we have demonstrated, in SSL, there is no need for the formation of Wh-questions for there to be a suggested Wh-phrase. That is, Wh-phrases are left in place (see example (9)).

V. CONCLUSION

There are two types of natural human languages: spoken and SL. Studies on SLs are still in their infancy compared to those on spoken languages. The current study targeted word order in SSL. Data were collected via two approaches: from narratives and an experiment. SSL was found to be like any natural language and differs from the spoken language in Saudi Arabia. The most common word order in declaratives and the basic constituent order in SSL is SVO. Wh-elements in SSL as in virtually all SLs occur at the right edge of the clause. Future research on the word order of SSL should examine the position of the negative phrase.

From the data presented herein, SSL has many linguistic features such as the person, number, and gender features as the other SLs that have been investigated. If linguists get data from many SLs, they will be sure that the theory of Universal Grammar include for all of the features of human languages, including both spoken and signed languages. However, more research is needed to further investigate these issues.

In conclusion, in addition to the theoretical importance of examining SSL for linguistic research in general and SL research in particular, linguistic studies are vital in terms of lessening the social and cultural isolation of deaf people. The information offered in this study may be seen as a first step in achieving this shared aim, and it is hoped that it will motivate additional in-depth SSL research in the future. The author also hopes that it will serve as a valuable reference point for the development of teaching and learning tools for both deaf and hearing SSL students.

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Effects of Teaching Writing Through Integrated Skills on Students' Performance as Compared to a Non-Integrated One: A Case of Grade Eleven at Sekela Secondary School

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Abstract—**This study's major goal was to determine whether or not teaching writing using integrated skills enhances students' writing as compared to instruction that is not integrated. Two sections of grade eleven from Sekela secondary school were used as the experimental and control groups in the study. Students in Section C were given writing lessons that were integrated and assigned to the experiment group. While students in section D, which served as a comparison group, were ready to study the usual writing lessons and exercises found in the student textbook. The primary tools used to gather information for the study were written tests. The study employed a pre-test and post-test quasi-experimental approach, with 96 English students divided into an experimental group of 48 and a control group of 48. Two groups each received pre-and post-tests before and after the intervention. An independent t-test was employed to compare the data. The results of descriptive and inferential tests were examined in order to determine whether there was a quantitatively significant difference in writing performance between the two groups. The results of the study showed that students who received writing instruction in an integrated fashion outperformed those who received it in a traditional manner in terms of writing performance.**

Index Terms—**integrated skills teaching, nonintegrated skills teaching, language pedagogy, writing performance**

I. INTRODUCTION

In the Ethiopian context, English is a foreign language. As a result, students in the country have fewer opportunities to practice their English outside of the classroom, particularly in high school, and instead learn it more frequently through the integration of other skills in their EFL classes. Because listening, speaking, and reading are integrated into the major skills that must be taught effectively to enable students to write quality text in better ways, the teaching methods that EFL teachers use to teach writing would play a great role in students' language and reasoning development. As a result, writing texts with suitable sub-writing components should be the foundation for high school students' achievement since they are important fundamentals that students must develop in order to see the compass of facts.

In today's perspective, the nature of listening, speaking, and reading to manage writing lessons is considered interrelated (Brown, 2001). The interaction between speaking, listening, and reading in the process of making a text, according to these scholars, culminates in a performance. High-setting teaching and learning activities, particularly those used in EFL classrooms, should focus on enabling students to interact with a text through the process of integrating major activities because learners who engage in integrated ways also improve their writing performance in their EFL writing class. Studies show that prolonged speaking, listening, and reading can help students become better writers, and writing exercises can help students become more logical thinkers (Frazee, 1995). Therefore, the teaching and learning strategies employed in the high school setting, especially in EFL classrooms, should place a specific emphasis on letting students engage with a range of people in order to give them the necessary abilities. Teachers

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cannot just transfer material in this situation; rather, students must master writing skills by utilizing a number of key skills, which can be done explicitly and visibly in an integrated manner (Harmer, 2004). By engaging in the aforementioned activities with students, you can motivate them to think in the target language rather than just study about it. According to Harmer (2007), who makes a similar point, "engaging students in writing projects allows them to become more like writers rather than passive recipients of content in the classroom" (p. 3).

Students can create textual content in a specific style when listening, speaking, and reading are integrated into the writing instruction in the classroom. According to researchers, integrating listening, talking, and reading when teaching writing skills in ESL/EFL classrooms can simultaneously improve students' writing performance and include abilities training (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). In doing so, the student attempts to use an integrated major skill to respond to, explain, or interpret a written text before creating a new interpreted document using the same process. Under those methods, newcomers could receive writing instruction to train their minds. Additionally, by combining listening, speaking, and reading, students can enhance their overall writing performance. Additionally, when they are implemented into lecture room activities, especially writing abilities, listening, speaking, and reading are carefully related to selling writing talent since they reinforce one another and sell learning as a result (Hinkel, 2010).

According to the same criteria, Atkins et al. (1996) concur that incorporating the abilities improves students' writing performance in addition to their capacity to describe their writing skills. In a similar spirit, students who study writing through the integration of their primary skills will become better writers and perform better on writing assignments (Hinkel, 2010). Additionally, according to Heaton (1988), "college students must improve their writing performance to the best of their ability, and this could be done explicitly and directly in a manner that includes principal competencies" (p. 17). Because writing performance is a method of intellectually disciplining students by having them actively and confidently apply content ideas, organizing, appropriate vocabulary, grammar, mechanics, and style in the lesson of writing verbal exchange, having them interact in it allows them to maximize their involvement with active ties (Honeyfield, 1988, p. 25).

With this in mind, participation in the aforementioned activities enables students to write in the language without having to learn it. Therefore, newcomers must become involved in incorporating dominant abilities' ways of writing lessons into the EFL study room in order to fully engage students in writing performance. Students' view of producing their own thoughts through writing will improve as their writing performance improves as a result of integrating major skills. Furthermore, according to a number of academics, when integrated into writing classroom activities, integrated key skills reinforce one another because they are so intimately related to one another (Nunan, 1986; Oxford, 2001; Tangpermpoon, 2008).

Writing performance is a crucial component of higher-order skills and the best performance in the EFL class for large numbers of students. Since this is the case, Storch (2005) advises that every writing classroom interested in fostering novices' writing performance competencies should create an environment that fosters these basic learning capacities. In short, the findings of the aforementioned studies indicate that teaching writing skills exclusively in EFL lecture halls has a negative impact on students' ability to produce written work.

Since current pedagogical thinking appears to be moving away from the conventional behaviorist model of teaching to constructivist views of learning, whereby teaching is transformational rather than imparting information, Richards and Rodgers (2001) recommend examining assumptions and reviewing educational practices. These scholars also contend that teaching writing in ESL/EFL classrooms through the integration of major skills can simultaneously improve students' writing abilities. The incorporation of main skills into writing instruction helps students improve their writing abilities, which supports their capacity to translate information into written language.

With all of this in mind, the integrated main skills approach to teaching writing is hotly debated in EFL classrooms abroad. Although it is theoretically discussed in Ethiopia, it is not really used in EFL classes. For instance, exercises that integrate speaking, listening, and reading to develop writing skills are not provided in an expected way in secondary English textbooks. Why is that the case? Is integrated major skills education in Ethiopia ineffective? It cannot be used in an Ethiopian setting, can it? Therefore, evaluating the efficacy of teaching integrated major skills to improve students' writing skills in Ethiopia, notably at Sekela High School, requires empirical testing of these skills.

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The curriculum and pedagogy for writing lessons have typically been developed separately within the context of EFL in Ethiopia. As a result, skill-based language activities are prioritized more. Additionally, projects and lessons have typically been developed to focus on a single particular skill. As a result, the majority of students do not attempt to fully or interactively write the text or deliver a writing performance regarding the book. Additionally, in writing classrooms, emphasis is frequently placed on writing lessons on predetermined topics, and care is frequently taken to demonstrate accurate grammatical and bureaucratic usage rather than creating a growing environment that encourages high school students to actively use language for genuine communicative purposes.

Additionally, after students submit their writing, EFL teachers should focus on correcting particular sorts of writing mechanics such as spelling mistakes, punctuation, wrong use of words, phrases, tenses, and other related issues. Similarly, handwritten papers are judged on grammar accuracy rather than content, style, or innovative concept expression. As a result, students are unable to develop their writing skills through writing.

In the format that is primarily based on EFL teaching components, the aforementioned teaching methods are highlighted. Separated abilities instruction may help students learn more about the language, but it is considerably less likely to have an impact on how well-versed speakers can communicate in real-world situations (Taizad & Namaghi, 2014). According to Rahman and Akhter (2017), the remoter instruction of the writing skills approach problematic for learning a foreign language fluently. According to Oxford, segregated instruction stems from the mentality that views successful L2 learning as a diversion from content learning (2001). She explains that although the drill lays this viewpoint down again, it is ineffectual in allowing later incorporated primary abilities to interact. Tangpermpoon (2008) further argues that the failure to practice writing, which is basically a set of interconnected, performance-oriented skills, hinders efforts to not only educate students to write but also to improve writing performance.

With all of that in mind, the first-class of students' writing performance in the EFL classroom has been declining, which has led to the excessive number of school students no longer appearing to possess the necessary competence, as some recent research findings and my close commentary demonstrate. Geremew (2009), in his doctoral dissertation said that high school students' writing, in particular at Addis Abeba high schools, is capable of treating a given issue both in substance and form. Similar to how Abdullah (1995) claims that instructional practices in schools should be governed by scholar-focused coaching or active learning methodologies, the Ethiopian academic system continues to provide students with the traditional method of instruction. Furthermore, he adds that the poor argumentation skills and flawed everyday reasoning utilized by the majority of students in their writing suggest that even a high school appears to have a limited effect on students' writing performance abilities, including the ability to understand texts rationally.

In fact, there are not many studies anymore on the effects of incorporating crucial skills into writing instruction in EFL lecture halls, particularly in the Ethiopian context. Abera (2017), however, looked at how reading and writing practice affected EFL newcomers' overall performance as well as their confidence in their ability to understand and write summaries for students in grade 8. Exams and interviews were used by the researcher to compile the required data. In the end, he came up with the conclusion that preparation for reading and writing skills had a significant impact on students' reading comprehension, précis writing, and self-efficacy. However, the researcher did not examine the effects of including fundamental skills on college students' writing abilities.

Likewise, the use of content-based instructions in the teaching of English reading skills to high school students in grade 11 was also examined by Deneme (2010). He gathered the statistics through an interview, a classroom statement, and a document analysis. In the end, he came to the conclusion that while teachers had strong theoretical orientations toward integrated preparation, incorporating content based on guidance may not need to be done in language teaching in examining school rooms because of various environmental constraints. However, the researcher's primary attention was not on students' writing talents but rather on evaluating the implementation of integrated content-based comprehensive education in teaching analytical skills.

In order to integrate fundamental writing skills, students must collaborate with one another to create texts in a variety of papers based on the nature of the text as suggested by the literature review and evidence from unique studies. However, in Ethiopia's EFL setting, that is not frequently used. Consequently, observation has further encouraged this researcher to conduct an empirical study to determine whether Sekela's excessive high school students could perform better in writing tasks related to learning and common reasoning after receiving a 12-week writing training program that was specifically integrated to teach writing.

The main objective of this study is to evaluate the effects of an integrated essential skills approach to writing instruction on high school students' overall writing performance in an EFL study environment. According to the researcher's understanding, no study of this nature has been conducted in Ethiopia for a while. As a result, this study may attempt to upload knowledge in the field and fill a gap in this appreciation.

III. OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

Modern language theory and pedagogy place a strong emphasis on teaching and learning through writing workshops that incorporate key skills. The notion also asserts that students must enhance their writing abilities by incorporating core skills. The main objective of this study is to determine experimentally if teaching writing through included competencies techniques affects students' overall writing performance in the Sekela high school EFL context. This is the main objective of this study.

Accordingly, in this study, the subsequent studies' questions have been formulated:

1. Is there a statistically significant difference between the students of the experimental group and those of the control group in their writing performance before the treatment?

2. Is there a statistically significant difference between the students of the experimental group and those of the control group in their writing performance after the treatment?

The null hypothesis

1. There was no statistical difference between the students of the experimental and the control group in their writing performance before the treatment.

2. There is no statistical difference between the students of the experimental and control groups in their writing performance achievement after the treatment.

IV. RESEARCH DESIGN

The design of experimental research was changed in order to address the objectives of this study, and the test method was changed to a quasi-experiment. This type of trial is helpful for examining the impact of an unbiased variable on dependent variables. Additionally, the quasi-experiment serves a crucial purpose in a setting where it is impossible to control every factor that might affect the effects. Two whole classes from Sekela High School's 11th grade who are taking an English textbook are participating in this project. In order to prevent any experimental bias, they have been randomly assigned to control and experimental businesses.

V. SCOPE OF THE STUDY

This might be restricted to high school students in grades 11 especially those attending Sekela high school. The reason for limiting this examination to students in grade 11 was specifically because those students are expected to work at a high level, but they are not expected to do so.

VI. DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

The check is used as the main tool in the statistics series. The desired facts were obtained by hiring pre-and post-tests. The researcher, in conjunction with other experts, customized the exams using the Alnooh (2015) tests. Exam questions also included inquiries on general performance. Here, the first test served as a pre-test that was administered to both the control and experimental companies to ensure that they had comparable capacities prior to the treatment. A post-test that was administered to each group at the conclusion of the intervention served as the second check to see if the intervention had any impact on the experimental organization. All of the evaluation methods listed above was used to assess the effectiveness of student writing. Finally, the results of the pre-check and put-up-test scores have been examined.

VII. THE RELIABILITY OF THE TESTS

The assessment is used as the main statistical series in which Grade 11 instructors score each item to determine whether the tests were applicable, appropriate, and sufficient tools for the intended purpose before using Cohen's kappa statistical measurement to calculate the results of the raters' agreement. This was done to ensure the reliability of the pre-check of the writing performance questions. As a result, the kappa coefficient measure of agreement between two raters regarding the pre-test of writing performance falls within the category of excellent at 88%, and the cost of the measure of agreement is zero.638. In order to gather the required information, pre-and post-tests were hired Therefore, according to Creswell's (2014) classification of agreement rates, the outcome of the Kappa Coefficient measure of settlement between the two raters may be regarded as a perfect agreement, and the test was then employed for the intended purpose. As a result, the pre-test questions that were created to gauge students' writing abilities were accurate.

Instructors also graded writing performance questions; the Cohen's Kappa Coefficient level of agreement between the two raters for the write-up writing performance questions that fall under the category of "superb" was 92%, and the cost of the Kappa measure of the agreement was 0.569. Therefore, the final result of the Kappa Coefficient measure of settlement among the two raters may be regarded as a complete agreement in accordance with Creswell's (2014) percent agreement rate classification. The answers to the questions were therefore reliably ascertained for the intended purpose.

A. Internal Consistency of the Tests

Equally, the utilization of split-1/2 reliability checks has been determined based on the internal consistency of each of the pre-and post-tests of writing performance. Based on this, the Spearman-Brown coefficient, or the aggregate result, is more than the correlation among papers in both tests, and the price of the half-of-spit dependability of the pre-checks of writing performance correlation among forms is 0.39. Consequently, the accuracy of the pre-and post-check results of this data is dependable based entirely on the aforesaid reliability interpretation analysis. In general, the results of half-test reliability values for all types of tests revealed that the checks' internal consistency became dependable for an ostensible reason.

B. The Validity of the Study

As was already mentioned, various criteria were used to adapt the testing. The customized test was administered to students to determine whether it was suitable, appropriate, and equipped with sufficient tools for the intended purpose in order to evaluate the validity of the assessments. In addition to being presented to the students, the test was also reviewed by two research advisers who remarked on it and verified that it met the requirements for face and content validity for the intended purpose. The final explanation of the assessments was then accompanied by the counselors' and students' comments. Finally, after all the changes, the tasks for gathering the needed data have been carried out.

VIII. PROCEDURES OF THE STUDY

High school students from EFL firms have been randomly assigned as manipulated and experimental corporations, as was indicated in the study's design. To educate the businesses, qualified teachers are given assignments. The primary focus of this exam is writing instruction. As a result, in the conventional method, writing might be done or performed on assigned topics with an emphasis on giving up products of the handwritten text, after which the lectures' comments can concern grammatical accuracy.

However, the experimental group underwent the newly developed covered writing performance capabilities method of teaching writing skills in the manner described in the future steps. Starting with brainstorming sessions, second, the students had to draft, rewrite, and proofread using their integrated skills while working with friends and wearing running shoes until they understood it and could work independently. As a result, supplies for reporting and reflecting were placed throughout the classroom.

For a period of 12 weeks, the teaching technique was put into practice for both the control and experimental organizations. In the end, the two agencies get written performance exams from high school students to see whether there has been a change in the results. In order to eliminate accidental biases when correcting the subjective items, the evaluations were then corrected by two special EFL teachers. The results the students earned on the 25 writing performance questions were then utilized to evaluate their performance. In order to determine whether there was a significant difference between the companies in terms of writing performance skills, the average score for the two teachers was ultimately taken for analysis.

IX. DATA ANALYSIS, FINDINGS OF THE STUDY AND DISCUSSIONS

In this part, data analysis, findings, and their discussion of the study are presented in accordance with the students' writing performance skills' test results.

RQ: Is there any significant difference between the two randomly selected intact groups of students in terms of writing performance skills before the treatment?

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE AND INFERENTIAL STATISTICS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AN CONTROL GROUP PRE-TEST RESULTS OF STUDENTS' WRITING PERFORMANCE SKILLS

Group		N	Mean	Std.Deviation	T	Df	Sig.(2tailed)
Content	Control group	48	10.66	2.635	-1.052	94	.061
	experimental group	48	11.68	2.041			
Organization	Control group	48	11.140	1.582	-.560	94	.403
	experimental group	48	11.472	1.131			
Language use	Control group	48	11.472	2.156	-.757	94	.277
	experimental group	48	12.114	2.832			
Mechanics	Control group	48	13.680	3.284	-.420	94	.487
	experimental group	48	14.114	3.622			
Style	Control group	48	10.361	3.173	-320	94	.375
	experimental group	48	10.451	3.252			

As stated in Table 1, there were 48 people working in the modified and experimental enterprises. Sequentially shown are the mean rankings of the controlled and experimental firms for each writing sub-talent. Content is one of the sub-competencies for several of the sub-writing components. The experimental institution 2's proposed score (M = 11.68; SD = 2.041) was marginally higher than group 1's (M = 10.66; SD = 2.041). The mean differentiation between the two companies in this instance is -1.02, which is a negligible mean difference. The results demonstrate that students' inferential abilities are not significantly different prior to the treatment.

In line with this, each agency's pre-test indicated rankings for the business enterprise were nearly similar. The estimated discrepancy between the firms is -0.3322. As a result, a minor differentiation between the two firms was acquired. This suggests that prior to the -cure; the two agencies were the same. Furthermore, the outcome of the independent samples t-check indicated that there may not be much of a difference between their employer's experimental and management organizations. The t (94) value is -.560, and the two-tailed sig. price is.403, P > 0.05. As a result, there was little difference between the two groups of students in terms of their writing agency competencies prior to the intervention.

Additionally, group 2's language use implicit score (M = 12.114; SD = 2.832) is only marginally higher than group 1's (M = 11.472; SD = 2.156) score. Their predicted scores for the two groups differed by -.642. As a result, the difference between the two organizations' language use prior to the remedy was not significantly different. Given that t (94) =-.757 and the Sig. (2-tailed) price =.277, P > 0.05, the independent samples t-test result indicates that there is no significant difference between the experimental and managed institutions in terms of their language use. With this in mind, the statistical evidence supported the lack of a statistically significant difference in language use between the two businesses.

Additionally, the mechanics that students used were compared. Based on this, organization 2's mean ranks became (M = 14.114; SD = 3.622) and organization 1's mean rankings became (M = 13.680, SD = 3.284, respectively; their mean difference is 0.434, which is insignificant). When you examine that t (94) =-.420; the Sig. (2-tailed) =.487, P > 0.05, the results of the unbiased sample t-test revealed that there was no significant difference between the control and experimental companies' rankings in terms of their employment of mechanics. It is, therefore, possible to infer from those results that before the treatment, the businesses of students did not differ in their use of mechanics.

Additionally, the usage of style by students was contrasted. Based on this, organization 2's mean rankings became (M = 10.451; SD = 3.252) and organization 1's mean rankings became (M = 10.451, SD = 3.252, respectively; their mean difference is 0.00, which is insignificant). When you take into account that t (94) =-320; the Sig. (2-tailed) fee =-.375, P > 0.05, and the results of the unbiased samples t-test, it was established that there was no significant difference between the control and experimental organizations' rankings in terms of their usage of mechanics. It is, therefore, possible to infer from those results that before the treatment, the businesses of students did not differ in their use of mechanics.

The independent pattern check results also attest that in all of the aforementioned writing skill subcomponents, either in the pre-test results or prior to the treatment, the corporations' mean differences are not statistically significant. As a result, prior to the treatment, there may not have been a significant difference in terms of content, organization, language use, mechanics, and style between the experimental and control groups. As a result, the null hypothesis is common.

Comparison of Writing Performance Post-Test Results for the Control and Experimental Groups

This section addressed the following research topic and its accompanying null hypothesis:

RQ: Is there a statistically significant difference between the experimental and control groups of students' post-treatment writing performance in terms of performance?

H01, the null hypothesis after treatment, there was no statistically significant change in the writing abilities of the students in the experimental and control groups.

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE AND INFERENTIAL STATISTICS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS POST-TEST RESULT OF STUDENTS' WRITING PERFORMANCE SKILLS

Group		N	Mean	Std.Deviation	T	Df	Sig.(2tailed)
Content	Control group	48	11.14	2.131	–2.533	94	.000
	Experimental group	48	13.4	1.830			
Organization	Control group	48	11.07	3.445	–4.176	94	.000
	Experimental group	48	14.11	1.163			
Language use	Control group	48	11.14	3.286	–4.651	94	.000
	Experimental group	48	16	2.532			
Mechanics	Control group	48	13.14	2.380	–4.172	94	.000
	Experimental group	48	17.22	3.182			
Style	Control group	48	12.14	2.370	-3.172	94	.000
	Experimental group	48	16.11	3.112			

The large variety of students in Organization 1 (the manipulated group) and Organization 2 (the experimental group) equals 48 contributions, as it is actually shown in Table 2. The table outlines the effects of the intervention on the students' writing performance in terms of content, organization, language use, mechanics, and style. One of the sub-skills is regarded to be content. As shown in the table, there is a significant difference between the experimental (M = 13.4; SD = 1.830) and the managed (M = 11.14; SD = 2.131) when drawing conclusions about the facts included in a certain written text. As a result, there is a proposed difference of -2.26 between the two companies. The independent sample t-test results show that there is a significant difference between the experimental and management organizations of the t (94) =-2.533; Sig (2-tailed) value = 000, p 0.05; students in text inference.

The outcome of the independent samples t-test thus shows that there is a statistically significant difference between the experimental and control groups of students on the inference post-test. In other words, when it came to inferring records following the intervention, the experimental group of students outperformed the managed organization. The intervention that was implemented inside the experimental setting in the EFL classroom clearly had a significant impact on students' inference skills, as shown by all of the aforementioned descriptive and inferential statistical statistics.

As shown by the data in table 2, there is a significant contrast between the experimental group (M = 14.11; SD = 1.163) and the control group (M = 11.07; SD = 3.445) when it comes to the task of putting in the post-test results. The suggested difference between the two groups is therefore -3.04. Therefore, this descriptive end result supports the assertion that the intervention caused the experimental institution to outperform the management group in the organization on the writing performance post-check. The unbiased sample t-check result, which shows that there is a significant difference between the experimental and managing an organization in the agency, supports this; the sig. (2-tailed) value = 000, p 0.05. As a result, the findings of the independent samples are examined to see whether the intervention may have caused a statistically significant difference between the experimental and control firms in the company. In short, on the writing performance test, the experimental group performed better than the control group.

This merely illustrates that the experimental group's use of the integrating abilities method of teaching writing intervention in the EFL lecture room had a significant impact on their workplace competence.

The data exhibited in Table 2 shows that there is a significant mean difference between the experimental (M = 16; SD = 2.532) and the control group (M = 11.14; SD = 3.286) with respect to language use. Hence, the mean difference between the two groups is -4.86. So, this result attests that the experimental group exceeded the control group on language use on the post-test after the intervention. This result is verified by the independent sample t-test result that shows a significant difference between the experimental and control groups on language use since t (94) = –4.651; the Sig. (2-tailed), P = 000, p<0.05. According to the findings in Table 2, there is a significant mean difference in language use between the experimental group (M = 16; SD = 2.532) and the control group (M = 11.14; SD = 3.286). As a result, there is a mean difference of -4.86 between the two groups. This finding confirms that the experimental group used language more frequently on the post-test following the intervention than the control group. This finding is supported by the independent sample t-test result, which demonstrates a significant difference in language use between the experimental and control groups (t (94) =-4.651; Sig. (2-tailed) value = 000, p 0.05). The independent sample t-test findings show that there is a significant difference between the experimental and control groups in the explanation of the writing performance skills post-test. The evidence derived from these statistical data generally demonstrates that there is a statistically significant difference between the two groups of students on language use in the post-test results for writing performance skills. In summary, the results of the test show that the experimental group outperformed the control group in language use due to the integrated skills approach to teaching writing skills intervention.

Additionally, Table 2 demonstrates that there is a mean difference in the mechanics of the post-test outcomes between the experimental group (M = 17.22; SD = 3.182) and the control group (M = 13.14; SD = 2.370). As a result, there is a mean difference of -4.08 between the two groups. These findings demonstrate that following the intervention, the experimental group outperformed the control group in terms of mechanics. Also, the independent sample t-test analysis reveals a significant difference in mechanics between the experimental and control groups, with a t (94) =-4.172 and a Sig. (2-tailed)p-value of 000. As a result, the independent sample t-statistical test's findings suggested that the mechanics use performance post-test results between the experimental and control groups differed statistically significantly. Additionally, the independent sample t-test analysis reveals a significant difference in mechanics between the experimental and control groups, with a t (94) =-4.172 and a Sig. (2-tailed)p-value of 000. As a result, the independent sample t-statistical test's findings suggested that the mechanics use performance post-test results between the experimental and control groups differed statistically significantly.

The post-test findings are also shown in Table 2 to have a mean difference in style between the experimental group (M = 16.11; SD = 3.112) and the control group (M = 12.14; SD = 2.380). As a result, there is a mean difference of -3.97 between the two groups. These findings demonstrate that following the intervention, the experimental group outperformed the control group in terms of mechanics. Additionally, the independent sample t-test analysis reveals a significant difference in mechanics between the experimental and control groups, with a t (94) =-3.172 value and a Sig. (2-tailed)p-value of 000. As a result, the independent sample t-statistical test's findings suggested that the mechanics use performance post-test results between the experimental and control groups differed statistically significantly.

Overall, the descriptive and inferential statistical results support the notion that the experimental and control groups' use of mechanics differs in a manner that is statistically significant. In other words, as a result of the intervention, the experimental group outperformed the control group in terms of mechanical use performance post-test. This demonstrates unequivocally that the intervention used in the experimental group in the EFL classroom had a beneficial impact on the students' analytical skills. In conclusion, it would seem plausible to infer from all of these findings that the null hypothesis will most likely be rejected.

X. DISCUSSION

In this section, a 12-week teaching writing through integrated skills intervention was conducted on the experimental group and the conventional teaching by writing a segregated approach on the control group in order to explore the existence of a difference between the two groups. The results of the pre-test and post-test writing performance tests for the two groups were then compared. Accordingly, the results of the students' pre-test writing performance were uniform before the treatment. However, the post-test findings suggest that the experimental group's students outperformed the control group (p.05) in terms of content, organization, language use, mechanics, and style, as opposed to the control group, whose scores on each of these scales indicated a lower outcome.

Additionally, the post-test question items from the experimental groups of students were carefully examined to see which facets of the writing performance the experimental group performed better than the control group. The results of the experimental group's students were analyzed, and it was discovered that they displayed better performance inferring information such as developing appropriate ideas for the topic at hand, the intended message they wanted to convey, developing appropriate organization, and developing appropriate grammar, vocabulary, mechanics, and style. Additionally, the experimental group outperformed the control group in terms of text organization. The experimental group also performed well in terms of vocabulary and grammar when writing paragraphs. In a similar vein, the experimental group excelled at paragraph writing's mechanics and style.

The findings of this experimental study support the findings of Arslan (2008), who claimed that integrating major skills into writing practice aided students in making the transition from passive knowledge reception to active knowledge seeking and from rote learning to the practical application of knowledge in problem-solving. The research's findings further support the notion that students performed better than the control group in terms of content, organization, language use, mechanics, and styling when given the necessary knowledge on their own. Desta's (2013) theory that integrating listening, speaking, and reading abilities in harmony integration in EFL teaching writing class boosts students' understanding, composition skills, and ability to look at things in writing is also supported by the results.

The results support Desalegn's (2011) argument that writing about a text helps students understand it. Writing about a text should improve comprehension because it gives students a way to record, link, analyze, personalize, and manipulate important concepts in a text in a visible and permanent way. The results of the present experimental group's improved writing performance, therefore, corroborated the aforementioned findings. The results of the current study suggest that integrating listening, speaking, and reading into writing instruction aids students in combining input and output simultaneously in EFL classrooms. Thus, integrating major skills into writing instruction has advantages for students' writing development. The current study's findings further support the idea that teaching writing through the integration of main skills can be used to improve students' writing abilities in high school EFL settings, notably Sekela high school.

XI. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

According to the quantitative data gathered for this study, students who obtained an integrated major that included writing abilities have better writing performance skills than students who received a traditional education. The intervention improved students' performance across a range of areas, particularly in regard to content, organization, language use, mechanics, and style considerations. In essence, these findings demonstrate that integrating the major skills gives students more opportunities to construct their own learning than the traditional approach does. It also encourages students to be self-confident enough to take ownership of their own learning, especially with regard to foreign language learning.

Moreover, the results demonstrate that teaching writing as an integrated major skill in EFL is a good indicator of writing performance skill improvement for learners because it turns them from passive to active writers and maximizes language use as opposed to rote memorization of facts and grammar rules. Integration of the primary skills enabled the students to practice the sub-writing components in meaningful ways, as seen by the students' improvement in writing performance post-test. The results are in line with Alemayehu's (2008) findings that the integration of main skills into teaching writing enables students to build student writing performance that promotes students' ability to change knowledge for their own objectives.

Additionally, EFL teachers should be aware that integrating major skills into writing instruction helps students become immersed in speaking, listening, and reading to teach writing, which requires the use of the major language skills at a time. This may encourage students to use authentic language and allow them to communicate naturally in the target language as well as help them develop implicit knowledge.

Additionally, it enhances students' learning across all subject areas since it calls for them to get more actively involved in what they are studying. Greater academic success follows from this engagement, which in turn heightens students' motivation. The teaching of writing should be combined with the teaching of communicative language skills in higher education in order to improve students' writing abilities in EFL classes. Finally, the authors of this study urge other researchers to carry out additional investigations into the potential consequences of this instructional strategy at various grade levels, utilizing a variety of data-gathering tools.

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Debriefing in Online Primary ESL Classrooms During the COVID-19 Pandemic: A Case Study

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Abstract—**The meaningfulness of the current educational landscape, where online learning is heavily practised, is often questioned. Experiential learning focuses on the learning process that learners undergo. It is believed to help them to make sense of the learning process through active participation and meaningful reflective practice. Debriefing is an experiential learning strategy that requires learners to reflect on their learning experiences and connect them to real-life situations. However, only a limited number of studies have investigated the use of debriefing in the English language teaching and learning context. To this end, this case study aimed to explore the effects of debriefing in online ESL classrooms and the challenges of online debriefing. The case study was conducted in Bintulu, a town in the Malaysian state of Sarawak, and involved two teachers who were actively conducting online ESL lessons during the COVID-19 pandemic. Data collection was conducted through in-depth interviews and observations of recorded online ESL lessons with a focus on the debriefing sessions. The findings indicated that debriefing has positive effects on active English language learners as it helps to improve their critical thinking ability as well as their oral and written language proficiency. The challenges of debriefing in online ESL classrooms include learners being hesitant to talk during lessons, teachers facing difficulties in using appropriate debriefing questions, as well as various technical problems.**

Index Terms—**debriefing, experiential learning, online learning, English as a Second Language (ESL), reflective practice, active learning**

I. INTRODUCTION

In early 2020, when the outbreak of the COVID-19 virus began to affect Malaysia, the educational system was transformed from the normal face-to-face interaction to an online learning approach. Mahyoob (2020) stated that the deadly COVID-19 virus engendered a transformation of the whole educational process, including English language education.

Back in 2012, Malaysia integrated online educational technologies into the education system under the 1BestariNet Project. This project was first implemented following the new aspiration of the Ministry of Education (MOE) to use information and communication technology (ICT) to enhance the education system (MOE, 2013). The integration of ICT in education helps to produce autonomous learners who are in control of their own learning and are able to access knowledge online at their own pace through the wide range of online courses and platforms available. The 1Bestarinet Project was replaced with Google Classroom in July 2019 (MOE, 2019), which the MOE rebranded as the Digital Educational Learning Initiative Malaysia (DELIMA) in June 2020. DELIMA enables teachers to share learning resources for online teaching and learning as well as to prepare learners to be competent individuals in the 21st century. Although elements of ICT have been integrated in the education system for a long time, the ERT does not provide teachers with adequate preparation for a full online teaching and learning environment. Crawford et al. (2020) stated that teachers must possess specific skills and knowledge to design and implement meaningful online teaching and learning.

Meaningful experiential learning methods, which integrate the learning process through experience, are believed to promote meaningful learning (Knutson, 2003). Debriefing is a commonly used experiential learning strategy. The debriefing strategy comprises a follow-up discussion or reflection following a simulation or experiential learning exercise (Cantrell, 2008). Cantrell (2008) asserted that the discussion or debriefing session can be used to provide critique, assess the impact of the learning experience on learners, encourage reflection and critical thinking, and ensure that learners achieve a shared understanding of the learning content. Thus, debriefing serves several beneficial purposes in English language teaching and learning. Most crucially, debriefing helps to confirm learners' knowledge, elucidate

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misunderstandings, correct mistakes, apply experiences in different but related scenarios, and reinforce learning (Uz-Bilgin et al., 2015).

However, despite the importance of debriefing after a learning experience, teachers tend to overlook this aspect and omit it from their teaching. This is explained by their lack of knowledge of debriefing. Generally, debriefing focuses on reflection as well as critical and analytical thinking regarding the learning experience. Fatemeh and Hamidreza (2012) stated that the conceptual meaning of experience-based learning remains elusive and many practitioners are unclear about the approach, including how and when to use it. For teachers, to become reflective means assessing whether a new teaching strategy is useful and effective in language teaching. When a strategy is used in a classroom, the teacher must describe, analyse, and interpret it before transforming it into a more developed strategy. It is understood that a reflective teacher must be open to change. Thus, teachers must experiment with various pedagogical techniques in their practice. Debriefing also allows teachers to conduct self, peer, and student evaluation to enrich their professionalism (Reyes-Chua, 2018). Through such evaluations, teachers may eventually improve their online classroom practice.

In addition to lacking the knowledge required to debrief, teachers are also afraid of the challenges of debriefing in the language learning context. According to Deason et al. (2013), teachers or trainers face the challenge of fostering an atmosphere that enables participants or learners to seek feedback and strive for improvement. A major challenge in debriefing that teachers often face is obtaining correct, sufficient, and appropriate responses from learners. Numerous factors contribute to learners' silence during debriefing. They includes not wanting to be the first person to respond; being afraid of sounding stupid, which reflects their ego and confidence; and not understanding the experience they have undergone (Deason et al., 2013). Another challenge that teachers face during debriefing is not knowing what to ask. This refers to questioning techniques during debriefing, which are crucial for ensuring that the debriefing process leads learners to reflect on their learning experience, thereby improving their understanding of the knowledge.

Debriefing is an effective strategy for encouraging critical thinking among ESL learners, thus helping them to improve their language learning. However, this strategy is rarely used in the ESL context despite its benefits for learners' learning experience. Debriefing is generally a reflective activity that follows an experiential learning exercise (Reeds, 2016). As the term suggests, experiential learning values experience as a significant factor in the learning process. Nevertheless, experience alone does not guarantee one's learning; rather, effort is also required to make such experience meaningful for learning through reflection. This was also stated by Afida Safriani (n.d.), who highlighted that experience is not passive but rather active as it results in a change of learners' personality. This means that knowledge is constructed as a result of an active learning process.

Essentially, debriefing plays a vital role in enriching language learners' online language learning experience. To date, several studies have suggested the importance of debriefing in developing learners' reflective thinking in relation to their learning experience. Hence, this study aimed to explore the effectiveness of debriefing in online ESL learning as well as to identify the challenges faced in debriefing in an online learning setting.

This study aimed to answer the following research questions:

(a) To what extent does debriefing affect an online ESL classroom?

(b) What are the challenges faced by teachers in implementing debriefing in an online ESL classroom?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Debriefing in Teaching and Learning

Debriefing is derived from experiential learning theory and generally involves a question-and-answer session between the debriefer and the participants or learners. Debriefing can also refer to a formal or informal discussion held after a lesson or any task (Sasirekha & Tan, 2022). Activities in the debriefing process include anchor pieces, sit and get, community puzzle, and reflection (Reyes-Chua, 2018). The various activities are believed to be able to help learners to reflect and provide their opinions or output on the task that was conducted, which results in meaningful learning. Reyes-Chua (2018) reviewed the use of debriefing in the evaluation of certain classroom activities. His results revealed that when debriefing is conducted, learners can achieve collaboration, reflective thinking, critical thinking, and understanding. The author added that the use of question-and-answer sessions enhances learning and suggested that the language teacher should make the manner in which the strategy is to be conducted clear at the beginning of the class. Debriefing also helps instructors to determine whether their teaching is effective.

Uz-Bilgin et al. (2015) believed that debriefing benefits learners through confirming knowledge, clarifying misunderstandings, correcting mistakes, applying experiences to other situations, and reinforcing learning. In the language learning setting, the purpose of debriefing is to transfer concepts and activities to the setting outside of the classroom and to clarify misunderstandings and mistakes. Hence, the end result of debriefing is that learners discover meaningful connections between activities and their daily routine. For instance, after a language lesson in which a language game was conducted, learners would be debriefed and reflect on the language items that they learned. Thus, they will be able to apply the language in their daily communication, be it written or spoken.

In a qualitative study, Reeds (2016) demonstrated that learners learn meaningfully through debriefing as a reflective activity. Teachers, acting as the debriefers, help learners to reflect on their learning experiences. According to Pearson and Smith (1985), learners do not learn from experience without reflection. As teaching and learning are always a two-way process, teachers must ensure that classroom activities are meaningful, inspirational, and worthwhile. In an online

learning setting, this can be achieved through debriefing, where teachers facilitate learners in thinking critically about online learning activities at the end of the online learning session. Debriefing involves question-and-answer sessions, either oral or written, where reflection is the key element (Reyes-Chua, 2018). Learners reflecting on what they have accomplished after their learning experience is critical for activating their critical thinking and improving their language learning. It is also the best time for teachers to think, ponder, and reflect about their actions before designing more effective methods for teaching and strategies for learning. Raths (2018) stated that debriefing offers learners the chance to reflect on and explain their learning experiences, which in turn helps them to integrate and learn new things by organising, comparing, classifying, evaluating, summarising, and analysing an experience.

Debriefing in English language classroom helps to create autonomous learners who are responsible for their learning and make use of their language learning experiences to gain competency in the language. This requires teachers to play an active role in the process and be able to guide learners to reflect on their learning experiences. However, remarkably little research has examined the use of debriefing in the English language learning context, yet the extant findings on this strategy in teaching and learning indicate that it is beneficial for enhancing learning.

The term 'debriefing' is often related to the terms 'reflection' and 'experiential learning'. This is due to the fact that debriefing is the use of reflection, and the use of reflective elements of experiential learning was identified as an experiential cycle that centres on the change in quality of the outcome or practice (Reyes-Chua, 2018).

B. Online ESL Learning

Online learning or e-learning uses Internet technology that allows teachers and learners to conduct teaching and learning inside or outside of the classroom (Verawardina et al., 2020). This implies that online learning occurs with the presence of an Internet connection and ICT tools, such as a computer, smartphone, or tablet. Allen and Seaman (2016) also contributed to the definition of online learning by defining it as a course that delivers content online.

Some commonly used online educational technologies are Google Classroom, Google Meet, WhatsApp, Telegram, Edmodo, and Zoom, through which a virtual classroom helps teachers to save time, continue teaching, and enhance interpersonal communication among learners (Omar et al., 2018). In a fully online learning situation, teachers and learners only meet virtually through the Internet and various technologies.

In the ESL context, online learning is said to impact the pace of learners' second language learning (Lukas & Yunus, 2020). Rapidly developments in technology provide learners with new opportunities to explore language learning. For instance, the combination of audio, visual, and animation effects has made online learning more appealing and effective (Wijaya & Helmi, 2018). This is evident in the use of online learning tools, such as Kahoot, Quizizz, Quizlet, and Plickers, which add the element of fun and meaningful learning to the learning process. Although online language learning may sound ideal, some studies have indicated that teaching and learning language skills, such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing online, are not easy tasks. For example, Sayuti, et al. (2020) reported that learners' lack of confidence in speaking during a virtual class made them uncomfortable during interaction hours. In addition, unprivileged learners may confront various problems when following online lessons, such as poor Internet access and insufficient devices for distant-learning (Song et al., 2021). Moreover, learners with mixed abilities have problems in catching up with their peers as teachers provide standardised tasks in an online language classroom. This suggests that online language learning may not benefit all learners. Hence, when teachers conduct online language learning, they should ensure that they provide learners with a meaningful learning experience. This could be achieved by debriefing them, thus enabling them to review their learning and make sense of the experience.

III. MATERIALS AND METHODS

This study followed a qualitative research methodology. It employed a case study design, which enables researchers to examine data within a specific context, such as exploring the effects and challenges of debriefing in an online primary ESL classroom during the COVID-19 pandemic. This case study was conducted in a primary school located in Bintulu, a town in Sarawak, Malaysia. The school selected has a large enrolment and is located in an urban area, where home-based learning (HbL) or online learning has largely taken place during the pandemic. The aim of this study was to explore the extent to which debriefing impacts online ESL classrooms and to identify the challenges underlying the execution of debriefing in an online learning setting. The research participants were two English language teachers, who were selected purposively. Purposive sampling ensured that the participants possessed and could provide the information that this study aimed to explore. Specifically, the selected teachers taught English language and actively conducted home-based learning online during the pandemic.

The data were collected using interviews and observations. These methods were used to understand the extent to which debriefing impacts online learning and to identify the challenges faced by teachers in conducting debriefing in an online learning setting. A set of open-ended questions were used to interview the participants, and their responses were then transcribed, coded, and analysed into themes. Observations of the recorded online ESL classrooms were recorded in field notes, only focusing on the debriefing part of the lesson, also known as the 'Moment of Crisis'.

IV. RESULTS

A. Effects of Debriefing in Online ESL Classroom

The findings of this case study revealed that debriefing helps to stimulate learners' critical thinking through reflective practice and a review of the learning experience. This was observed when learners demonstrated their ability to relate their learning experiences to real-life events when discussing their weekend activities in one of the recorded ESL lessons. An example interaction is provided as follows:

Teacher: *'Samantha, what do you do during the weekend?'*

Samantha: *'I watch TV'.*

Teacher: *'Thank you, Samantha. Who else wants to share about your weekend activities?'*

A few learners respond: *'Main game, teacher', 'cooking', 'do homework'.* – FN1

When the students were debriefed with questions related to their learning, they were able to think about, ponder, and reflect upon previous actions as a strategy for learning. Raths (2018) explained that debriefing provides learners with the opportunity to reflect upon and explain the meaning of the experience that they have undergone in a lesson, which helps them to integrate and retain what they have learned.

In addition, debriefing positively affected learners' confidence in communicating their thoughts – both oral and written. This is due to the fact that debriefing involves two-way communication that requires the debriefer and participants to actively express their learning experience through a question-and-answer session. In a debriefing session, learners are free to express their feelings about the English lesson. This was done in written form in one of the debriefing sessions, where the students wrote their opinions about the lesson in the Mentimeter online application. Through this platform, the learners commented on the lesson and shared their emotions throughout it. Some feedback from the learners included 'fun', 'great', 'bad connection', and 'too long'. This reflects the social presence element of virtual debriefing, whereby learners and the debriefer should be able to project their personal traits and identity in the virtual session and contribute to debriefing (Cheng et al., 2020). This element is crucial in online debriefing as it is important for the learners as participants to feel unjudged for providing their opinions and ideas in the session. The comments on the session also help teachers to improve their teaching approach in the future.

Furthermore, debriefing helps the debriefer or teacher as the instructor to validate learners' understanding and adjust their teaching methods according to learners' learning needs. One of the participants mentioned this matter in an interview by stating that he had learned to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the online lesson through debriefing with learners:

'[T]heir answers also help me to know if they understand the lesson. If they responded with a less satisfying response, there is something I need to do to help them achieve the standards of learning'. – Mr. I

This was especially noted when learners responded to questions because the knowledge that had been taught was evident after the learning experience (Magdeline et al., 2021). In most cases, teachers would be able to identify learners' understanding through their responses in the class or learning session. Hence, teachers would critically reflect on the teaching style or method that works for learners. Hail, Hurst, and Camp (n.d.) argued that teachers must make adjustments to their instructional style as well as techniques by reflecting on their practices for providing learners with meaningful learning.

B. Debriefing Challenges in the Online ESL Setting

This case study revealed that a major challenge faced by both participants during online debriefing is that learners do not talk or hesitate to share their experiences and ideas in a virtual learning session. One of the participants stated that it was especially difficult to conduct debriefing in one of her Year 5 classes because most of her learners are passive and do not have good proficiency in English language compared with her other class. The participants stated the following:

'...budak tak nak langsung jawab soalan, panggil berkali-kali pun tak muncul'. ['... students refused to answer questions, even when they are called...'] – Miss A

'[I] feel like it's hard to get them to talk'. – Mr. I

According to the teacher, learners may not answer questions for several reasons, including not having a stable Internet connection, not knowing how to respond, or having a negative attitude towards English language learning. The problems of learners investing less effort and offering fewer responses during online sessions result in low engagement and interaction between learners and teachers (Lukas & Melor, 2021). Moreover, Fey at al. (2014) accentuated that debriefing is always a two-way communication process; thus, teachers must facilitate and guide learners to ensure output in a particular learning experience.

Furthermore, this study found that the teachers faced difficulties in asking the right questions during online debriefing. Questions are indeed critical in the process of debriefing because they act as the stimulus that makes learners think critically. Hence, the questioning technique is a crucial skill that professional instructors need to master (Tania et al., n.d.). Furthermore, the debriefing process is highly interactive, which requires teachers to ask questions to guide learners in learning and responding to continue the discussion and develop an understanding of the lesson (Deason et al., 2013). This indicates that teachers must practise effective questioning techniques that suit the level of their learners to ensure the meaningfulness of the lesson.

Finally, accessibility to online learning is a prominent challenge in online debriefing. This includes problems with Internet connectivity as well as a lack of resources and devices (Tan et al., 2021). The participants stated that technical

problems such as a poor Internet connection as well as other technical problems (e.g., camera and audio issues) affected the process of debriefing. When learners are unable to join certain parts of the lesson, they may lose the essence of learning, which may result in them being left behind. When this occurs, learners may not be able to effectively reflect the knowledge that they acquired from the session. Thus, teachers should always record the session so that learners can catch up at their own pace.

V. DISCUSSION

A. Relationship Between the Teacher Factor and Effects of Online Debriefing

The findings from the collected data indicated that teachers' abilities to debrief are correlated with the effects of online debriefing. Teachers play the role of a debriefer or facilitator who stimulates learners' reflective skills.

This study revealed that as the debriefer, teachers sometimes experienced difficulty in debriefing virtually. In this sense, the teacher factor refers to teachers' questioning skills, which play a critical role in effective teaching. Teachers often use questions to ensure that learners are attentive and engaged as well as to assess their comprehension. However, in a virtual debriefing, the questions act as the stimulus to help learners reflect and review their learning experience. Here, learners are expected to be encouraged to express their opinions and ideas, make decisions, find solutions or initiatives, as well as generate new ideas on matters related to the content of the lesson for application to real-life events (Noraffandy & Nor Hasniza, 2021).

In addition, the questions used in virtual debriefing help learners to build their critical thinking ability, which leads to the development of a deeper understanding of the teaching and learning materials. As they respond to questions, they are required to assess their own understanding and skills, rather than simply sitting comfortably with surface knowledge (Reyes-Chua, 2018). Thus, teachers should be able to ask questions to tackle learners' critical thinking ability. The debriefer should therefore understand that a class of learners comprises diverse abilities and design personalised debriefing questions based on the learners' level of proficiency (Bromeley et al., 2019). Raths (2018) added that when learners are taught strategies to recall and reconstruct what they have experienced, teachers can instruct not only for the acquisition of facts but also for an overall understanding. Hence, questions asked during debriefing sessions act as building blocks that enable learners to see the overall concepts of learning.

B. Relationship Between the Learner Factor and Effects of Online Debriefing

This study found that learners' attitude towards e-learning plays a significant role in online debriefing. Learners must perceive online debriefing positively for the process to be successful, where two-way communication occurs between learners and debriefer. However, learners' hesitation to speak and voice their opinions, ideas, and thoughts during the sessions is a challenge in online debriefing. This factor could be rooted in learners' negative attitude towards online ESL sessions and unfamiliarity with online learning (Lukas & Melor, 2021). In this case, higher-proficiency learners were observed to tend to be more active in responding to questions asked in the debriefing session and to demonstrate a strong ability to reflect and review learning experiences in the online ESL session. Moreover, higher-proficiency learners displayed a good understanding of the subject being taught when they attempted to provide examples of the application of knowledge in real-life events. Based on the observations noted from the recorded online ESL session, higher-proficiency learners were also more responsive to debriefing questions because they were confident and able to respond quickly. By contrast, most low-proficiency learners remained silent during the debriefing session, which could be because they did not know how to respond in the debriefing process; furthermore, they could have experienced difficulty in adapting to new changes in online learning and been unable to produce original and unique ideas, which requires higher-order thinking skills (Khainon et al., 2017).

In addition, another type of problem derived from the learner factor is technical problems. Technical difficulties have long been known to be a drawback to the use of online platforms (Sitzman et al., 2010). According to Munzer (2002), technical difficulties refer to a condition where an individual encounters interruptions when interfacing with technology. Some learners experience hardware or device problems, such as speaker and camera malfunctions. Moreover, some learners face challenges with their Internet connection, such as financial issues or issues related to their local area. Thus, learners would not be able to follow an online lesson effectively, resulting in them being unsure about how to respond in a debriefing session and gradually withdrawing from the learning process.

VI. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, debriefing offers positive impacts on English language learning, especially for active learners. Debriefing also makes online ESL learning meaningful through enabling learners to connect their experiences in the lesson to real-life events. Despite the challenges faced in conducting online ESL lessons, this study recommends that language teachers attempt to use the debriefing strategy as it will help them to prompt critical thinking among learners and encourage them to share ideas during online lessons. Furthermore, teachers should offer assistance to struggling learners so that they can reflect on and make sense of the learning experience and thus apply it for authentic real-world purposes. As this study covered two topics, namely the effects of debriefing and its challenges in an online ESL learning setting, it adds to the body of research on debriefing in English language learning settings. This study may also

enhance teachers' pedagogical practice through exposure to debriefing, since most of the time debriefing (more commonly called 'reflection') is conducted in an impromptu manner without proper planning. Because highly limited resources are available regarding how exactly to implement debriefing in the context of language teaching and learning, this study recommends that future studies specifically investigate the implementation of debriefing in English language learning contexts. Moreover, it would be interesting to explore the attitudes and motivations of teachers or learners in debriefing as they might be significant factors. Therefore, future research should also investigate the relationships between knowledge testing and motivation in the various modes of debriefing.

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How Is a Foreign Language Pronounced? A Case Study of Indonesian as a Foreign Language Among Speakers of Other Languages

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Abstract—Numerous studies have been conducted to ascertain the relationship between the first language (L1) and the second/foreign language (L2). However, it is unclear how vowels and consonants affect how a foreign language speaker pronounces Indonesian. Thus, the objective of this study was to ascertain the vowels and consonants of the Indonesian language that were incorrectly and correctly pronounced by Lao men and Japanese women. This study is descriptive qualitative in nature. Following data collection via audio recording, the collected data were analysed using a contrastive analysis. The study's findings indicate that certain speech sounds are both mispronounced and well-pronounced. The speech sounds /i/, /u/, /e/, /ə/, /a/, /p/, /b/, /m/, /d/, /n/, /r/, /l/, /t/, /h/, and /k/ were mispronounced by the Japanese participants; however, the speech sounds /i/, /u/, /ə/, /a/, /dʒ/, /n/, /t/, /g/, /p/, /k/, /r/, and /h/ were not pronounced correctly by the Lao participants.

Index Terms—consonants, Indonesia, Indonesian language, speakers of other language, vowels

I. INTRODUCTION

According to a large body of scholarly research, correct pronunciation is one of the most challenging aspects of learning a foreign language (Alzinaidi & Latif, 2019; Mohammed, 2018; Upor & Olomy, 2022). There is a peculiarity in pronunciation that is impacted by learners' native language (Grolman et al., 2021). Certain sorts of sounds may not exist in the learners' native language; therefore, they opt to use the nearest recognisable sounds instead. However, they do not perceive this as a distinct sound with meaning implications. In other words, they have learned the actual sounds but not how to consider these words as a set. In other words, they use an incorrect intonation from their mother tongue in the target language. Consequently, they will have a foreign accent and may be misunderstood. In addition to the first linguistic background, learners' lack of confidence, attitude (Islami et al., 2021) and language learning motivation (Adeline, 2020) can affect how well they pronounce a foreign language. This is affected by the linguistic and cultural distance between two languages (Bekeyeva et al., 2021; Istanti et al., 2020).

Although teaching pronunciation is one of the most contentious issues in language education, current pedagogical theories and research on pronunciation point to the importance of intelligible pronunciation as a prerequisite for developing communicative competence (Ilkhomovna, 2019). When speakers of other languages learn Indonesian as a foreign language, for instance, one of the difficulties they have is figuring out how to pronounce words in Indonesian (Adeline, 2020; Istanti et al., 2020; Lutfiana, 2021). Foreign students encounter obstacles such as memorization, pronunciation, and comprehension of Indonesian prefix and suffix usage (Lutfiana, 2021). In terms of the cultural divide between Indonesian and other languages, local politeness cues also influence foreign language learners' ability to acquire Indonesian (Gusnawaty & Nurwati, 2019).

In addition to the findings stated in the literature above, during our eight-month observation of teaching Indonesian as a foreign language to speakers of other languages who were foreign students at a public university on the Indonesian island of Sumatra, we found out that they had difficulty pronouncing Indonesian words correctly. In other words, they frequently mispronounced Indonesian words. Consonants such as /l/, for instance, are extremely difficult for Japanese women to correctly articulate. They would always use the pronunciation /r/ instead of /l/. Regarding the Lao people, the consonant /r/ would always be heard as /l/. Mispronunciations of these sounds are common among learners of Indonesian, as they are learners of other languages, including English as a foreign language (Grolman et al., 2021).

Furthermore, from a communication standpoint, proper pronunciation is necessary for the speaker to transmit an

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accurate message to the listener (Ali, 2018; Nurullayevna, 2020). Therefore, the accent must be clear, as speaking with an exaggerated or distorted accent nearly invariably ends in miscommunication, bewilderment, and rage (Abercrombie, 2019; Anggoro, 2020). In addition to pronunciation, the true issue rests in the language's grammar and lexicon. Occasionally, learners use poor grammar and few words when communicating in Indonesian. However, they are more likely to communicate effectively if their intonation is accurate (Levis, 1999; Skantze, 2021). At this point, proper pronunciation is essential.

Although there have been numerous studies on pronunciation in foreign language learning, they have primarily focused on English as a foreign language pronunciation (see, for example, Abugohar & Yunus, 2018; Afzal, 2019; Alzinaidi & Latif, 2019; Djurayeva, 2021; Edo-Marzá 2014; Islami et al., 2021; Mompean, 1997; Vančová, 2019; Wahyuningsih & Afandi, 2020). In other words, to the best of our knowledge, studies examining how words of Indonesian as a foreign language are pronounced by speakers of other languages are uncommon. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to analyse how Indonesian vowels and consonants are pronounced by foreign speakers who attended an Indonesian public university.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

It is widely stated in the literature that more than 200 million people speak Indonesian, showing that this is a language with a large number of native speakers. In addition, the Indonesian language has been studied in a number of countries, including China (Xu & Setiawan, 2020). Due to the vast number of native speakers, the Indonesian language has the potential to become one of the world's languages.

Learning a language begins with pronouncing its words, beginning with the most basic (Chela-Flores, 2001; Sicola & Darcy, 2015). Pronunciation is the foundation of language acquisition and use; it is the language itself. Furthermore, it affects the other aspects of language acquisition. Thus, studying pronunciation is not only the first but also the most difficult and crucial step in learning a foreign language (Ivanović, 2019; Lleó & Ulloa, 2019).

In addition, it should be noted that the relationship between learners' first language (L1) and target language (TL) as well as any linguistic information they possess should be considered. Foreign language learners have a tendency to search for parallels between the target language and their past linguistic expertise. Due to the limits of the TL, their L1 is the primary source for perceiving linguistic similarities in the early stages of language acquisition. However, if they achieve a high level of skill in another language, it will have a significant impact on their TL learning. Therefore, foreign students learning Indonesian will be influenced by their L1 as well as other linguistic expertise, such as English, which is an international language.

Moreover, it is widely known that there are variances in the way words are spoken in each language, as well as between languages. This discrepancy can naturally result in mispronunciation when learning a foreign language. This occurs for several reasons, including: 1) the learner may not be familiar with some sounds since they are absent from his or her mother tongue, thus they tend to be replaced with the closest equivalent that they are aware of; 2) sounds emerge in the mother tongue, but not as distinct phonology, such that a learner does not genuinely perceive them as distinct sounds with meaning implications; 3) a learner has learnt the actual sound but not the pattern of word stress or letter grouping; in other words, he or she is likely to apply intonation from his or her native language that is inconsistent with the foreign language being studied.

Previous studies have demonstrated that it is challenging for research participants to pronounce English as a foreign language, particularly the consonants /p/, /ʒ/, /ŋ/, /r/, /tʃ/, /t/, /ł/, /v/, /k /, /l /, and /d/, because they are not in the participants' native tongue (Elmahdi & Khan, 2015). As a result, they tend to replace difficult consonants with the closest, most familiar sound from their own language. For instance, Malayalam learners of English substitute the missing sounds with the closest equivalents, such as /ɔɪ/ changed into /j/ to /oːj/, /ɔɪ/ and /j/ into /oːjɪ/, /eɪ/ replaced by /eː/, /eɪ/ replaced by /ej/, /əʊ/ substituted for /oː/, /ɪə/ replaced by /ɪj/ and /ɪjʌ/, and /ə/ replaced by /əjʌ/ (Bishara, 2015). Additionally, due to orthographic interference in the Turkish context, native Turkish speakers find it challenging to memorize and pronounce English as a foreign language. There are differences between the rules for pronouncing Turkish and English, including the fact that: 1) there are no silent letters in Turkish while there are in English, such as the letters /k/ and /b/; 2) one letter has one sound; and 3) in Turkish, consonants do not mix to produce other sounds, such as in the words "club" pronounced /kulüp/, "sport" pronounced /sıpor/, "studio" pronounced /sutudiyo/, and "crisis" pronounced /kıriz/ (Khalizadeh, 2014).

The phonetic features of Indonesian contrast with the generally less phonetic pronunciation of words from (an)other language, such as English words. In contrast to English words, which have a total of 36 phonemes represented by 26 letters, the Indonesian language system has 26 phonemes that are represented by 26 letters, leading to frequent misunderstandings when, for instance, speakers of other languages learn Indonesian (Karlina et al., 2020). Contrastive analysis studies frequently highlight the fact that learners will experience more issues the more unlike two systems (languages) are from one another (Khalizadeh, 2014). Therefore, it is challenging for learners to pronounce phonetically proper words when learning a foreign language, Indonesian as a foreign language in particular.

The issue is further complicated by the fact that learning pronunciation should be experiential rather than theoretical, similar to learning to drive, swim, or sing. Therefore, plenty of opportunities to practice various pronunciation exercises are necessary for effective pronunciation learning. Because the curriculum is what drives how a foreign language is

taught, it must also be considered in order to resolve this issue (Karlina et al., 2020). Additionally, the limited time and resources allotted for pronunciation instruction demand real-world innovations that can actually aid learners with their pronunciation. Simply put, practical instruction for teaching Indonesian and pronunciation techniques should take precedence over linguistic theory (Karlina et al., 2020; Muljono et al., 2016).

III. METHODOLOGY

In order to investigate a thorough, precise, impartial, thorough, and systematic description of an object, this study adopted a qualitative descriptive methodology (Miles et al., 2014). The current study included seven international students who were learning Indonesian as a foreign language. They were from Japan and Laos and divided into two groups, the first of which included three female speakers from Japan and the second included four Laotian men. They were between the ages of 23 and 28. They had had no prior knowledge of learning Indonesian. They had been learning Indonesian for eight months when this study was being conducted.

An audio recorder was utilized to collect data on pronunciation. The participants had to present a monologue at the beginning stage that would be videotaped. The research participants would be free to develop creative speech using this monologue technique, which was chosen because of its potential for this. They were provided a list of topics so they could choose what to say more easily. Additionally, while the monologue was being recorded, a vacant area was also provided for them so that they could express their feelings in a secure environment. They believed that what they said was private, which was why this happened. In this instance, only the researchers were aware of what they were conveying. Following the recording of the participants' monologues, the audio files were converted into written text and phonetic symbols. Then, their accents were contrasted with a specific focus on segmental features as vowels and consonants. In addition, as seen in Figure 1 below, the Indonesian vowels are composed of the letters a, i, u, e, and o.
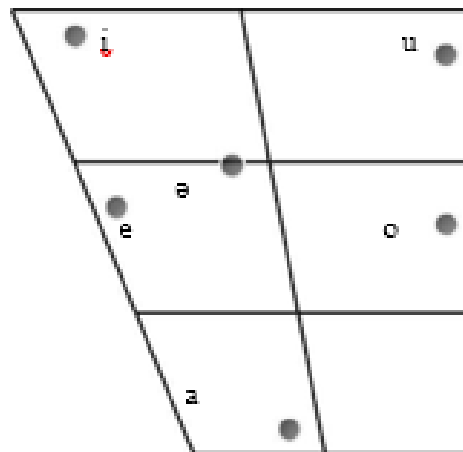

Figure 1 Indonesian Vowels
Source: (Soderberg & Olson, 2008)

TABLE 1
INDONESIAN CONSONANTS

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Post-alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Plosive & affricate	p b		t̪	d	tʃ dʒ		k g	(ʔ)
Nasal	m			n		ɲ	ŋ	
Flap/trill				r				
Fricative		(f)		s (z)	(ʃ)			h
Approximant	w					j		
Lateral approximant				l				

Moreover, we used a list of consonants as described in the literature (Lew, 2014) in order to compare the segmental features of the research participants from Laos as shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2
LAO CONSONANTS

	Labial	Alveolar	Alveopalatal	Post palatal
Oral stop	pʰ p b	tʰ t d	c	kʰ k
Nasal stop	m	n	ɳ	ŋ
Fricatives	f	s		h
Approximants	w	l	j	

Regarding the vowels, we also adopted segmental characteristics of vowels proposed by Lew (Lew, 2014) as presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3
LAO VOWELS

	Front	Central	Back
Close	I i:	ɯ ɯ:	u u:
Mid	e e:	ɤ ɤ:	o o:
Open	ɛ ɛ:	a a:	ɔ ɔ:

The lists of consonants and vowels found in earlier work (Ohata, 2004) were used to compare the segmental properties of consonants and vowels among research participants from Japan. The following is the list of the consonants (Table 4) followed by the list of vowels (Table 5).

TABLE 4
JAPANESE CONSONANTS

Place of Articulation Manner of Articulation		Bilabial	Alveolar	Alveopalatal	Velar	Glottal
Stops	Voiceless	p	t		k	
	Voiced	b	d		g	
Fricatives	Voiceless	Φ	s	Ç		h
	Voiced		z			
Nasals		m	n			
Liquids			r			

TABLE 5
JAPANESE VOWELS

	Front	Central	Back
High	i		u
Mid	e		o
Low		a	

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

According to the data analysis, the first participant group, which included three Japanese female students, shared the same characteristics. There were 15 incorrectly spoken speech sounds. Five vowels and seven consonants make up the speech sound. The vowels, which can be found in a variety of beginning, middle, and end positions, are /i/, /u/, /e/, /ə/, and /a/. Following it, there are the consonants /p/, /b/, /m/, /d/, /n/, /r/, /l/, /t/, /h/, and /k/ that are also incorrectly pronounced. The pronunciation of Japanese participants is shown in Table 6 below.

TABLE 6
JAPANESE FEMALE STUDENTS' PRONUNCIATION OF INDONESIAN

No	Sound	Correct Sound			Incorrect Sound			Incorrect Sound Substitution		
		Initial	Medial	Final	Initial	Medial	Final	Initial	Medial	Final
1	i	11	41	25			5			ik
2	u		37	9			8			u:, u:k
3	e		5			1			et	
4	ə	1	34	1		16			u, a	
5	o	2	9							
6	a	7	153	46	1		19	ad		ak
7	p	7	8	1		3			p^h	
8	b	11	7		1	3		b^h	b^h	
9	m	9	17	3			1			k
10	w		2							
11	(f)									
12	t̪	13	13	2	1	3		t^h	t^h	
13	d	14	21			1			t^h	
14	n	4	12	10			13			ŋ
15	r	1	15	4		13			l, lu, ru	
16	s	56	14	5						
17	(z)		2							
18	l	3	9	1	1	24	4	r	r	r
19	tʃ	1	2							
20	dʒ	11	4							
21	(ʃ)									
22	ɲ		3							
23	j	6	37							
24	k	19	14	12	1		2			
25	g		18							
26	ŋ		6	11						
27	(ʔ)									
28	h	6	3	8		1	3		Φ	d, k

The analysis of the data has generally revealed at least three sorts of issues for the incorrect speech sounds, including differences in language sound, mother tongue interference, and orthographic interference. In cases of orthographic interference, these problems are brought on by differences in how letters are spelled in the writing system; in cases of language sound, the subjects of the Lao group and the Japanese group both experience this error in the same way. In cases of the mother tongue, these issues are brought on by the absence of sounds and variations in how they are pronounced. This shows that people frequently select the closest sound they are familiar with when asked to substitute a speech sound. This behaviour actually confirms the notion put forth by Burns and Claire (2003) and Hassan (2014) that speech in difficult languages is commonly replaced by the closest speech sound from the speaker's native tongue.

The recent findings further confirm Ur's assertion (Ur, 2009) that a variety of factors, such as the following, lead to students pronouncing words incorrectly: 1) a learner may not be accustomed to producing some sounds since they are absent from his or her native tongue; as a result, he or she tends to substitute the closest equivalent he or she is familiar with; 2) a learner may not have learned word stress patterns or letter groups, or he or she may use intonation from their native tongue that is inappropriate for the language being studied when learning actual sounds; 3) sounds appear in the mother tongue but not as distinct phonology; learners do not really experience these as unique sounds that have implications for meaning (Ur, 2009).

Aside from all the speech sounds that are mispronounced due to interference, the similarity between the two languages and exposure to them both improve the successful transfer of foreign language learning. Additionally, it has been found that L2 gain is enhanced by exposure to TL in the natural environment, which helps students deal with fossilization (Wei, 2008). Giving learners time to spend in the target language's environment is one method for exposing them to it. Despite the fact that the majority of L2 students would find this impractical, they should seek out other ways to learn about TL and the TL culture.

In actuality, both groups of participants received natural exposure by residing in a setting where they were forced to interact with locals in Indonesian. As they are international students enrolled in the Indonesian for Foreign Speakers Program (BIPA), they converse with one another in Indonesian during all university activities, including lectures, group discussions, and presentations (Inderasari & Agustina, 2017). Moreover, there are listening classes that show real-world instances of native speaker pronunciation, pronunciation and phonology courses that give theoretical knowledge of how to pronounce speech sounds, and so on.

The findings of this study have some significant implications when compared to previous research. First and foremost, as stated in the literature most people have trouble pronouncing the consonants /p/, /ʒ/, /ŋ/, /r/, /tʃ/, /t/, /ɬ/, /v/, /k /, /l /, and /d/. This is due to the fact that the participants incorrectly uttered the consonants, /p/, /ŋ/, /ʒ/, and

/tʃ/, which is influenced by their mother tongue. Thus, the phoneme /p/ was problematic for every study participant. A total of 85 percent of them were able to pronounce it correctly in all circumstances. This is because their first language was interfering. Each participant in the study, however, mispronounced a few sounds that were not part of their native tongue's sound system. For instance, Japanese grammar does not have /ə/, and the Lao language's sound system does not include the letter /l/ (Elmahdi & Khan, 2015).

Second, this study supports previous findings that speakers often replace missing sounds with the closest known sounds when mother tongue interference occurs (Bishara, 2015). According to his research, Malayalam speakers substitute the nearest sound for missing sounds as follows: 1) /ɔɪ/ is replaced with /j/ to /oːj/; 2) /ɔɪ/ is inserted /j/ into /oːjɪ/; 3) /eɪ/ is replaced with /eː/; 4) /eɪ/ is replaced with /ej/; 5) /əʊ/ is replaced with /oː/; 6) // is replaced with /ʊv/ or /ʊʌ/; 7) /ɪə/ is replaced with /ɪj/, and /ɪjʌ/; and 8) /əa/ is replaced with /əjʌ/. However, in this study, both groups of participants also exhibited a propensity to substitute the nearest known sound for the missing one. For Lao language, /k/ is replaced with /dh/, and for Japanese subjects, /ə/ is substituted with /u/ or /a/.

Third, this study is in line with previous findings that, in the case of orthographic interference, speakers mispronounce words because the writing systems are different (Khalizadeh, 2014). In the basic rules of Turkish pronunciation, for example, there are some differences compared to the English pronunciation as listed here, namely 1) every letter is pronounced in Turkish, there are no silent letters like in English pronunciation such as k and b; 2) each letter has only one sound; and 3) in Turkish, consonants do not mix to make other sounds, although there are some combinations in English. Thus, the differences between Turkish and English lead to mispronunciations. For instances, the expression 'club' is pronounced /kulüp/, 'sport' is pronounced /sıpor/, 'studio' is pronounced /sutudiyo/, and 'crisis' is pronounced /kıriz/. Meanwhile, in this study, only Indonesian is purely using Latin in its writing system. Japan has a Romaji writing system so the spelling is different. These differences lead to mispronunciations. On the other hand, Laos uses the Lao script in a writing system that is completely different from Latin. For example, the sounds /l/ and /r/ are often interchangeable, making /nəgara/ pronounced as /nəgala/ by the Japanese participants.

Based on the findings in the current study, it can be concluded that there are three factors that cause pronunciation errors in Indonesian by foreign students, namely the sound system of the language, mother tongue interference, and orthographic interference. Native language exposure is mostly needed to improve target language pronunciation. Japanese participants accurately pronounce 25 speech sounds, while Lao participants pronounce 24 speech sounds correctly. Disturbance may result from the occurrence of sounds in the target language that do not exist in the native tongue and that differ significantly in terms of sound production. As a result, the problem depends on the target language rather than the first language.

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Teachers' Perspectives of the Sudden Shift Towards Online Learning: Challenges and Future Lessons

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Abstract—Traditionally, teaching math using English as a foreign language creates many challenges because learners may not have yet acquired the skills they need to understand the lesson. The study aimed to identify the challenges faced by teachers of math in English when course instruction shifted to online because of the COVID-19 pandemic. Also, the study presents three essential lessons from this experience from the teachers' perspectives. During the COVID-19 outbreak, all schools abruptly switched to Online Education. Most participants in the study had never done online teaching before the pandemic and were unfamiliar with using technology. The researchers used a mixed methods approach, incorporating the following two ways of gathering data: a questionnaire and face-to-face semi-structured interviews. The questionnaire consisted of two parts: (1) English language challenges and (2) access to technology. The questionnaire was administered to a sample of 50 female teachers, followed by structured interviews. The interview consisted of one question about the most important lessons learned, and the data were analysed using SPSS Statistics. The findings indicated that the English language and a lack of technology constituted obstacles for teachers. According to the participants, they identified three future lessons. The researchers provide recommendations to teachers, students, and governments.

Index Terms—future lessons, international programs, mathematics in English online learning, private schools

I. INTRODUCTION

Today's math teachers encounter many challenges when teaching math to students who use English as their second language. Learning can be complex for students as well. Some educators claim that math is an international language because it is numerical and deals with symbols, so teaching the subject does not require using any other languages. Other educators claim that language—for example, English—plays an essential role in teaching mathematics because language helps learners reflect, communicate, and deepen their understanding while learning how to solve math problems. Blankman (2019) and Haynes (2020) claimed that teaching math is not only about teaching the concepts of the subject; it is also about students understanding how to solve math problems while also being able to express their comprehension of them, either in writing or orally. In Jordan, there are two types of schools: government and private. In government schools, math is taught in both Arabic and English, whereas in private schools, math is taught only in English. Recently, the number of schools teaching math in English has increased in Jordan. According to the Ministry of Education, there are now 50 private schools teaching math in English, and teachers claim that they face many challenges in teaching math in English in a regular classroom environment.

However, in 2020, with the World Health Organization declared COVID-19 a global pandemic, people felt the consequences in many aspects of their lives, including Education. Across the globe, schools and universities were closed to avoid the transmission of COVID-19, leaving 1.7 billion students to stay at home (Abuhammad, 2020; Favale et al., 2020; Wenham et al., 2020). Some countries prepared for online learning, so they turned directly to it and continued educating their nation's students; however, other countries struggled to use online learning. Education in Jordan forced into online learning. Because most schools lacked the necessary equipment and used whiteboards in their classrooms, they were unprepared for online learning.

To avoid spreading the virus and reduce the number of infections in Jordan, the government decided to impose a lockdown policy and close all schools and universities to all students. This action by the government had tremendously catastrophic effects on schools, teachers, and students. Consequently, along with the previous challenges they faced, instructors who teach math in English to non-native speakers of the language had even more obstacles to overcome.

In this research, the researchers focused on the dichotomy of challenges facing math teachers in Jordan. The first is the pre-pandemic challenge of using the English language to teach math to non-native speakers of the language. The second relates to using technology in teaching math in English during the COVID-19 pandemic and the subsequent lockdowns. Finally, from teachers' perspectives, they introduce three significant lessons to consider in case of a new future pandemic.

II. LITERATURE

A. English Language Challenges

The difficulties associated with teaching and learning mathematics have long been attributed to the subject's cognitive demands, even if taught in the student's mother tongue. In English as a second language (ESL) lessons, mathematical terminology is rarely employed, and students struggle to learn math concepts and English language skills simultaneously. The mental needs of studying math and mastering English are separated when using the English language to teach math. In other words, teaching students how to solve mathematical problems in English involves understanding mathematical concepts and the English language, which can be challenging for students. Mathematical language in English as a second language (ESL) classrooms is rarely employed, so students struggle to acquire math principles and English language skills simultaneously.

As mentioned previously, some scholars believe that students learning a second language, such as English, will not suffer from understanding math even if it is taught in English because, they say, math is only a language of numbers itself. However, academic researchers investigating the impact of the English language on mathematics have found that mathematics and language intertwine in teaching and learning, even the subject's basic principles (Molina, 2012).

Still, the English language barrier is a fundamental part of the problem for many teachers who teach math in English to students who are studying ESL. (We should note that teaching math in the student's native language also poses problems for many students.) Nevertheless, some educators and math teachers still assume that math is language free because it depends only on numbers and symbols (Garrison & Mora, 2005; Janzen, 2008). This incorrect assumption is in line with Schleppegrella (2007), who believes that teaching math in English greatly depends on English oral communication, which in turn causes difficulties for students with low levels of English competency. He added that every symbol in math represents several relationships or words.

Similarly, according to Jourdain and Sharma (2016), the relationship between language and mathematics is now well acknowledged. They added that language features, such as the vocabulary of mathematical academic writing, syntax, and reading, are fundamental challenges that make mathematical writing difficult. Based on that, language is essential to teaching math because the latter depends highly on language communication using symbols. Moreover, Blankman (2019) added that one of the challenges in teaching math is the misinterpretation of vocabulary because some words refer to mathematical terms that have a different meaning in everyday usages, such as the word 'left', for example. According to Blankman, another stumbling block is a lack of understanding of English syntax and grammar. For instance, teachers should write math questions clearly because it will be challenging for students to understand linguistic problems. For better achievement, according to Boero et al. (2008), students should have a satisfactory level when using the natural language of mathematical activities

Along the same line, McGregor (2007) and Raiker (2002) asserted that students tend to use reading skills, such as scanning and skimming when reading mathematical word problems in much the same way they read prose. However, the information is repeatable, whereas the data is dense and hidden between the lines in mathematical word problems. As a result, being unable to read and comprehend the written math problem hinders solving it.

B. Online Learning Challenges

In 2020, the COVID-19 pandemic quickly spread worldwide, leaving nearly every country to implement some lockdown policy to help slow down the rapid spread of this highly contagious disease. In Jordan, for example, the government put the whole kingdom under temporary lockdown for three months. Universities and schools in Jordan were the most affected by this lockdown because the government forced schools and universities to transition to online learning (also called e-learning), with the teachers teaching from their homes and the students learning from theirs. According to Jackson et al. (2016), the closure of schools affected approximately 1.7 billion students worldwide. The decision to lock down the country and force schools into e-learning caused chaos for teachers and students. Although this was the only way to maintain the continuity of the teaching process, e-learning was not easy for either teachers or students. This shift in the teaching process created many obstacles for schools, universities, teachers, and students.

Over the years, many researchers and educators have found several barriers to e-learning before and after the pandemic. Before the pandemic, most researchers classified these barriers into three categories: (1) school barriers, (2) teacher barriers, and (3) student barriers. School barriers included structural and organisational considerations (Assareh & Bidokht, 2011). Teacher barriers included limited access to technology, inadequate e-learning skills and experience, and lack of time to prepare a lesson using technology and assessment (Scrimshaw, 2004; Balanskat et al., 2006; Barter, 2008; Bingimlas, 2009; Irvin et al., 2010; Hadija & Shalawati, 2017; Quadri et al., 2017). Likewise, barriers related to students are a lack of experience in e-learning, computer proficiency, and no or slow internet connections (Song et al., 2004; Quadri et al., 2017).

Indeed, with the pandemic leading to lockdowns and school closings, the results were catastrophic for all: schools, teachers, and students. No schools could devise a suitable solution to following the pandemic guidelines except for e-learning, which forced teachers to convert their traditional ways of teaching into online learning. Much research has examined the technological barriers that most teachers face because of the sudden shift. Researchers have found that some obstacles were communication (Özüdoğru & Simsek, 2021), assessment (Guangul et al., 2020), and online experience. And training (Gautam, 2020; Zaharah & Kirilova, 2020; Cassibba et al., 2021), technology use tools (Zaharah & Kirilova, 2020), attitudes toward online learning (Hermato, 2020; Afroz et al., 2021), motivation (Chiu et al. 2020; Ryan & Deci, 2000), and course design.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Purposes and Questions

This study investigates the impact of a sudden shift toward online learning on teaching math in English to non-native students. In addition, the study offers some future lessons from this experience from the teachers' perspective.

The researchers intended to find answers to the following questions:
1. What English language challenges do teachers face while teaching mathematics in English?
2. What online challenges do teachers face while teaching mathematics in English?
3. What are the lessons to be learned from this experience from the perspectives of teachers?

B. The Study Design

The researchers used both quantitative and qualitative approaches so our results would have a high level of validity, strengthening the basis for confirming the research findings. To maximise participants' opportunity to provide insights in various ways, the researchers deemed a sequential mixed methods approach most suitable and practical for collecting data on lessons learned after the pandemic. This hybrid method was applied sequentially in two steps. The first one was a two-part questionnaire, and the second step was the interview. The two methods were combined and completed each other because the results from the interviews added information to supplement the answers from the questionnaires.

C. Significance of the Study

The results of this study will benefit most societies, particularly Development Countries societies. Converting to e-learning during the pandemic was randomly tackled and remained so even after. Most researchers investigated the shift to online learning during the pandemic, and most of their results were a vote for this shift. Few or even no studies in the Middle East did not investigate the future lessons from this shift. Many researchers still have not examined this part, and no researchers interviewed teachers confidentially to shed light on the weakness of most governments' performance in online settings, at least in Development Countries. Most participants feared that criticism of the whole process would cause them problems. The critical role of mathematics and the English language currently plays a vital role in science and technology. Increased demand for graduates with English backgrounds in mathematics justifies the requirements for more transformative instructional strategies. Thus, schools that adopted English as an instructional teaching language can benefit from the study's findings and better prepare students. Administrators will receive guidance on what areas of dereliction to highlight by governments, school administrations, and instructors to boost students' performance in mathematics in English. The management systems at the Ministry of Education and school administrators view online learning as a supplementary concern. In addition, the decision-makers are unaware of the eLearning concept, and it lacks broad visions. Consequently, lacking human experience and material capacities led to this outcome.

D. Sample and Data Collection

The study sample included 50 female teachers teaching math in English for the 4th, 5th, and 6th grades in one of the private schools in Jordan's capital, Amman.

The instrument for data collection was a questionnaire divided into two parts. The first part related to the challenges of teaching math in the English language, whereas the second part related to teaching online. The choice of answers given on a Likert scale ranged from "always" to "never". Two university professors evaluated the validity of the questionnaire and decided to retain 20 items unchanged and delete five. The final questionnaire had twenty things to keep the questionnaire short and to ensure a high response rate. The researchers conducted a pilot study to verify the questionnaire's test-retest reliability. Twenty teachers were selected to take part in the pilot study and completed the questionnaire before. This group had characteristics like those of the whole sample of the study. The researchers used Cronbach's α to test the reliability of the questionnaire and confirmed that it had an acceptable level of reliability shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1
THE RELIABILITY COEFFICIENT

No	Domains	Cronbach's α
1	Online barriers	.86
2	English language barriers	.84
3	All items	.91

The second instrument in collecting the data, the researchers conducted six structured face-to-face interviews with the participants: two sixth-grade teachers, two fifth-grade teachers, and two fourth-grade teachers. The participants were interviewed and recorded on a tape recorder to provide the interview in unbiased and authentic recitation form (Sullivan, 2010). Participants were selected according to their willingness and availability to participate in the discussions. Moreover, they had the choice of using English or Arabic during the interviews and enough time to express their opinions freely about the lessons they thought must be learned after the pandemic. The interview consisted of two questions, yet the jury suggested having one comprehensive question rather than two during validation. Every participant added detailed information because they had plenty of interview time and added detailed information. The interviews were transcribed verbatim into written texts to help with data analysis (Sullivan, 2010). After transcribing the interviews, the researchers organised the findings into three categories of future lessons based on most participants' points of view.

IV. ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Data analysis provides a descriptive statistical analysis predicated on the study's problems and questions. It included the mean scores, standard deviation, and ranking of the questionnaire items. Data analysis revealed that many educators struggle to communicate effectively in English while instructing their math classes. However, the findings illuminate the technical hurdles to overcome. Data analysis provides a descriptive statistical analysis predicated on the study's problems and questions. It included the average score, standard deviation, and ranking of the questionnaire items. The data showed that before the pandemic, one of the challenges they faced was communicating mathematical concepts in English. However, the findings illuminate the technological competencies as additional challenges to the already existing difficulties of teaching mathematics in English. The SPSS program calculated the ten items on the questionnaire related to the challenges with the English language. It included the mean scores, standard deviation, and ranking of the questionnaire items, and the results.

A. English Language Challenges

TABLE 2
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE CHALLENGES

No.	Rank	Item	M	SD
3	1	The problem of different words used for the same operation	3.56	1.22
4	2	Lack of mathematical vocabulary	3.44	1.15
7	3	Lack of descriptive vocabulary	3.44	1.15
1	4	different operations used with the same word	3.36	0.94
6	5	Lack of procedural vocabulary	3.36	0.90
5	6	The ambiguity of words: a word has different meanings in everyday and mathematical contexts (homophones)	3.36	0.80
10	7	Lack of mathematics concepts	3.28	0.88
9	8	Undeveloped reading comprehension skills	3.24	1.04
2	9	Unable to read between the lines	3.08	0.99
8	10	Lack of participation in mathematical discussions in class	3.04	0.93

The results indicate that items related to the problem of different words used for the same operation received the highest mean scores (3.56) with a standard deviation of (1.22). The means ranged between (3.56) and (3.04) with standard deviations of (1.22) to (0.88).

B. Online Learning

The researchers divided the second part of the questionnaire, which is related to online learning, into two parts: The first part is personal reflection, and the second is related to access to technology.

(a). Personal Reflection

The SPSS program calculated the difficulties with personal reflection. It included the mean scores, standard deviation, ranking of the questionnaire items, and the calculations in Table 3.

TABLE 3
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF ONLINE CHALLENGES/PERSONAL REFLECTION

Item Statement	Rank	Personal Reflection	M	SD
1	1	It needs extra effort on the part of the teachers	4.08	0.94
9	2	Time-consuming	4.04	0.83
6	3	Difficult to follow up with students individually	3.96	0.97
2	4	Lack of learners' motivation to use e-learning	3.84	1.10
5	5	Inadequate technology skills	3.80	1.07
8	6	Family distractions around the teachers	3.60	1.28

The above Table 3 shows the personal reflection of teachers. Most respondents to the questionnaire (math teachers) agreed on the first item, ranking it first, with the highest mean score (4.08).

(b). Inadequate Technological Skills

TABLE 4
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF ONLINE CHALLENGES/TECHNOLOGICAL ACCESS

Statement	Rank	Technological Access	M	SD
4	7	Limited internet access	3.52	1.25
10	8	Quality technology infrastructure	3.48	1.07
3	9	Internet availability	3.32	1.96
7	10	An unstable internet connection	3.28	1.13

The above Table 4 presents the statistical analysis, which shows the rank, mean scores, and standard deviation. Question four ranked seven with a mean score of (3.52) with a standard deviation of (1.25).

V. FUTURE LESSONS

TABLE 5
TEACHERS' PERSPECTIVES ON ONLINE LEARNING AND FUTURE LESSONS FROM THE INTERVIEWS

No	Categories	Teachers' pseudo names/grades
1	Developing and designing online course material	Amal 6th G._Suha 6th G._Muna 5th G._Samar 5th G._Nawal4th G._Faten4th G.
2	Resistance to technology	Amal 6th G._Suha 6th G._Muna 5th G._Samar 5th G._Nawal4th G._Faten4th G.
3	Continuity of online learning after COVID-19	Amal 6th G._Suha 6th G._Muna 5th G._Samar 5th G._Nawal4th G._Faten4th G.

The first future lesson is developing and designing online course material. All teachers agreed on this point because we live in the age of technology, which affects every aspect of people's lives. Moreover, teachers are witnessing how the education sector is moving towards using technology in teaching and learning. Governments and teachers must be ready for other crises.

Teachers of the sixth-grade future lesson on shifting to online learning were ineffective because teachers were unable to tailor the content of the textbook to fit online teaching.

"Working on producing and developing an efficient online copy of the content, which requires a new approach that involves the teacher, the students, and the course developers" (Amal 6th G._Suha 6th G.).

Preparing online course content is overwhelming and takes months rather than days. This unusual situation forced teachers to duplicate the paper textbooks and paste them into the online platform to fit the online environment. As a result, teachers and students were getting confused, trying to find a solution for technological teaching with the help of the Ministry of Education.

"The Ministry of Education, with the help of educational experts, must reconsider the course objectives and types of assessment, as well as the learning experience to fit online environment" (Muna 5th G._Samar 5th G.).

As a result of the unavailability of electronic course content, teachers failed to have effective teaching and learning. Since the shift came on short notice, the situation was disastrous, and teachers did not find proper assistance to start the process.

"The Ministry of Education must hold workshops and training courses for all teachers of all grades on online learning since this is a new way of teaching in the age of technology" (Nawa 4th G._Faten4th G.).

The second future lesson is managing resistance to technology. Unfortunately, most math teachers in English got used to approaches incompatible with today's advanced technology, and all these impediments suddenly floated to the surface during the pandemic.

"Providing teachers with practical training courses rather than theoretical ones. To encourage them, and schools can start with simple and applicable technological tools to give them a sense of achievement" (Amal 6th G._Suha 6th G._Muna 5th).

Moreover, the Ministry of Education and school principals can offer different intensives. These intensives are essential because it supports teachers' achievement and has schools full of online teacher users.

"The government or school principals can give awards or intensives to encourage teachers use technology during the process of teaching" (Amal 6th G._Suha 6th G._Muna 5th G._Samar 5th G._Nawal4th G._Faten4th G.)

The last future lesson is the continuity of online learning after COVID-19. Online knowledge, developed during the pandemic, must be improved since students need to build digital skills in the 21st century. Through blended learning, the digital skills and infrastructure developed during the pandemic can be refined and exploited in the post-COVID age.

"The government can provide accessible technological open sources to students and teachers" (Amal 6th G._ Faten4th G._ Muna 5th G. Nawal4th G._Faten4th G.).

We cannot go back to the previous situation as before. After the pandemic, the Ministry of Education must modify its attitude toward online learning and establish strict guidelines obliging all schools to use online learning. The Ministry of Education must also incorporate technology into the curriculum, or instructors must get the option to use blended learning.

It is time to have a profound reflection on the pre-pandemic curriculum. Modify the curricula to fit the new revolution of teaching and learning (Amal 6th G._Suha 6th G._Muna 5th G._Samar 5th G._Nawal4th G._Faten4th G.).

VI. DISCUSSION

This study attempts to explain the teachers' challenges in teaching math in English during the pandemic. This study addressed three questions. Q1: What English language challenges do teachers face while teaching mathematics in English? Q2: What online challenges do teachers face while teaching mathematics in English? Q3: What are the lessons to be learned from this experience from the perspectives of teachers? We can explain the findings according to the statistical analysis.

A. English Language Challenges

To answer the first question: what English language challenges do teachers face while teaching mathematics in English?

These results indicate that students have trouble figuring out the meaning of the vocabulary used to convey a mathematical concept. This problem appears to be much more significant as the learners move to higher grades because word problems become more complex in terms of linguistics and mathematical concepts. According to Blankman (2019), the problem of vocabulary, syntax, and grammar problems deepen learners' difficulties because they cannot understand math instruction and thus cannot participate in mathematical discussions. Blankman added that daily classroom discussions are crucial in solving the problem of math vocabulary.

Another challenge teachers face when teaching math in English is inadequate student reading skills. Our results indicate that poor reading skills. These results are in line with Reynard's (2018) arguments. According to Reynard, reading difficulties affect a student's academic achievement, including those in the subject of mathematics. Moreover, there is an agreement on the effects of reading on math results. The first and second challenges are interrelated because reading comprehension can solve word problems. Because EFL (English as a Foreign language) learners cannot comprehend the vocabulary in the content, they cannot recognise the text or answer the questions. If EFL learners read well, they can translate the content or phrases into numbers to solve mathematical word problems.

When EFL learners start reading English math textbooks, they encounter difficulties understanding the written math terminology that will help them solve the problem. Math textbooks usually cause doubt in EFL learners because books introduce new vocabulary, synonyms, and phrases that the teacher does not use interchangeably during math lessons. Moreover, math questions present limited, extra, or unnecessary information that can confuse learners, especially those who lack reading skills. In reading math questions, learners must assess and weigh the information presented in the question and determine which information is needed to solve the problem. In doing this, learners practice reading skills such as skimming, scanning, or searching for keywords to wrap up the information, which will help them solve the problem. One math teacher from the sample noted that most students suffer from inadequate English language proficiency and prerequisite English skills before learning math in English. So, math teachers put extra effort into teaching English vocabulary regarding math and teaching math simultaneously.

To answer question 2: What online challenges do teachers face while teaching mathematics in English?

B. Online Learning / Personal Reflection

Most teachers must bear the burden of the extra effort needed to teach online. Thus, because the pandemic put teachers in an unusual situation, this shift to online learning needed extra effort when preparing math lessons or organising the teaching content according to the platform selected by the school. Teachers had to know the whole online teaching system to cope with this new situation, even though some had never taught online before the pandemic. This result follows the results of Izhar et al. (2021), who studied most of the participants and declared that preparing lessons to fit an online teaching platform is time-consuming and requires extra effort from the teachers. Akbulut et al. (2020) added that even teachers with previous experience in online teachings, such as blended learning, stated that such lessons require excessive preparation time. This challenge is due to teachers' lack of familiarity with online teaching procedures (Hadija & Shalawati, 2017; Zhou et al., 2020; Izhar et al., 2021).

For online teaching to be successful, teachers had to transfer the textbook content to meaningful online teaching instruction. According to Anilkumar (2021), a successful online mathematics lesson requires building communication, interacting with one another, maintaining a relationship between teachers and students, and providing feedback about the instruction.

Another challenge math teachers face time-consuming. Half of the respondents encountered problems with time management. Teachers must provide feedback or individual assistance to every student and meet the severe challenge of teaching math in English online. As a result, they cannot spend enough time providing help or giving feedback to every student. Thus, this item from the questionnaire ranked third. This result is consistent with a study conducted by Barlovits et al. (2021), who concluded that supporting every student, giving feedback, providing individual contact, and assessing is time-consuming. Some respondents admitted that they had problems with learners' motivation levels. Other teachers considered unmotivated students to be a challenge while teaching online. According to Barlovits et al. (2021),

this challenge is due to the lack of face-to-face interaction. They claimed that, without this contact, it is difficult to maintain a student's motivation.

C. Online Learning /Inadequate Technological Skills

Another challenge questionnaire addressed was inadequate technological skills; this ranked fifth in the questionnaire. Respondents said this was the biggest challenge they faced at the beginning of the sudden shift to e-learning and that it hindered the goal of successful online teaching. To successfully integrate any technology into online Education, teachers must first master the technological skills needed for online teaching. Math teachers with little technical or e-learning experience had to start online teaching immediately. However, because some of these teachers lacked the required technological skills, they could not transfer or share math material online (Zhang et al., 2020). Teachers rarely practised teaching online before the pandemic.

Consequently, many teachers had difficulty learning math online (Trelease, 2015; Kurt, 2017; Meissel et al., 2017). Some of the respondents agreed with the item stating that a real challenge married teachers faced were family distractions. Most teachers lived in small flats with their children, and most nurseries and schools were closed (Zhang et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2020). Consequently, many teachers identified parental responsibilities as a challenge affecting their online teaching (Reimers & Schleicher, 2020).

Limited internet access, the quality of the technological infrastructure, internet availability, and an unstable internet connection were ranked seventh through tenth, respectively, on the questionnaire. Other respondents considered access to technology a challenge that slows down the teaching of online lessons. Furthermore, participants agreed that these challenges are a stumbling block to the continuity of an effective e-learning process. Before the pandemic hit Jordan, the government did not investigate internet coverage and quality, and governmental or private schools did not use online lessons frequently or even very common. Suddenly, schools had to shift to online teaching, which in turn caused an increased load on the internet, overwhelming it and causing the system to become unstable because of the increased number of users. This result follows those of Akbulut et al. (2020) and Zhang et al. (2020), who stated that, in their studies, access to technology was a challenge. Moreover, buying laptops or mobile devices is another challenge for most Jordanian teachers, especially those with children of their own, because the price is not affordable for all families. As a result, the stability and availability of technological devices posed critical challenges.

D. Future Lessons

To answer question 3: What are the lessons to be learned from this experience from the perspectives of teachers?

The worldwide use of online learning resulted from the COVID-19 pandemic because it was the only viable pathway. Suddenly, teachers had to shift from classroom teaching to technology-mediated teaching using the textbooks and material used in face-to-face instruction. Unfortunately, most teachers failed to tailor the content of the books to fit online lessons. Lynch (2020) asserted that converting the course content into the digital form required specialised in Bloom's classification to define educational outcomes followed by verifying these outcomes. Other participants declared they were reluctant to obtain the information and skills necessary to convert the content into digital equivalents. They did not find the proper assistance to start the process. According to Park and Bonk (2007), this process requires a deep comprehension of the elements involved in the transformation. Moreover, in Sun et al. (2020) study, students asserted that teachers should be able to modify their lectures for the online setting rather than merely transferring traditional lessons online. It is worth mentioning that, before the pandemic, very few teachers were using technological devices for face-to-face learning, and some did not implement them into their face-to-face learning.

Surprisingly, most methods used to teach math in English today are incompatible with today's cutting-edge technology, and all these challenges suddenly surfaced during the pandemic. According to Ibnian (2019), teachers frequently employ the traditional approach.; therefore, teachers think using technology in the classroom is more of a burden than an advantage. This result is in line with a study by Shreaves et al. (2020), in which 76% of the responses mentioned the inability of online learning to provide the benefits of face-to-face teaching. Likewise, in a study by He and Xiao (2020), most teachers also preferred returning to a traditional face-to-face teaching environment sooner than later because it was difficult to monitor students' learning effectiveness and interact with students.

After the pandemic, one question remained on the mind of many teachers: Should e-learning continue, or should face-to-face instruction resume? The answer to question was answered directly after the pandemic. Remarkably, online Education has ceased after the pandemic, and regular face-to-face classes have resumed. This experience should make schools and the Ministry of Education reconsider developing a standard online education system that will function better in future emergencies. Accordingly, it is necessary to take several steps to encourage and facilitate adaptation to this new teaching approach. Schools could provide training sessions for teachers to improve their performance and the quality of Education. These training sessions assist teachers in reworking and adapting suitable teaching methods and learning how to interact with students in the online environment. Indeed, the government must offer teachers rewards for using technology more frequently. In addition, decision-makers must develop policies to facilitate learning technologies by generating circumstances in which professional growth by teachers is more important. Blended learning is an alternative to post-Covid learning because it maintains the online learning created during the epidemic and combines physical presence and social interaction, which are the primary characteristics of face-to-face learning.

Through blended learning, the digital skills and infrastructure established during the epidemic can be polished and utilised in the utilised-COVID era.

VII. CONCLUSION

During the COVID-19 pandemic in Jordan, both private and government schools Jordan forced to shift to e-learning by the government. This sudden shift presented all schools with serious challenges because most had not used any form of e-learning before the pandemic. Before the pandemic, teaching math to English language learners presented numerous difficulties for math teachers. However, after the pandemic, new challenges were added to the previous ones, with e-learning as a teaching medium.

The results of this study indicate that teaching math to school students in English is a serious problem. Students are not yet prepared to teach math in English, even if they have already started learning English as a foreign language. Teaching math in English requires a set word terminology in teaching math. However, teachers often met with challenges, such as students with undeveloped English reading comprehension skills and a lack of communication during math lessons. After the pandemic, technology challenges added a new complication to teaching math in English. Teachers face an enormous workload, and students are not skilled in working with technology. The results are consistent with the recommendations of UNESCO (2020), which considers successful access to technology key to successful online teaching. No one can deny that teaching math in English online has its challenges. However, these challenges can be met by preparing training courses for teachers to help them develop online teaching strategies and acquire the much-needed technological skills to avoid any shortcomings. In addition, schools can offer students preparation lessons that provide the required mathematical vocabulary and reading comprehension abilities.

The pandemic caused incalculable harm to the teaching process. Everyone involved must take lessons from this experience, considering the need to offer students better Education in the future. The study focused on teachers' perspectives regarding future lessons they learned from the experience of e-learning during the pandemic. One thing is sure; this experience should prompt educational institutions and the Ministry of Education to rethink creating a regular online education system that would perform better in emergencies. Teachers could receive training from schools to enhance their effectiveness and the standard of Education. These training programs help teachers revise and modify effective teaching strategies and learn how to communicate with students online. Teachers should receive incentives from the government to use technology more regularly. Additionally, policymakers must create conditions prioritising teachers' professional development to encourage learning technologies.

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The Evolution of Lexicon in Generative Grammar

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Abstract—The lexicon is a microcosm of the development in generative grammar. It has its own idiosyncrasy from no status at the outset to the position of all variations among languages in generative grammar. Recently, the lexicon is much greatly simplified in Neo-constructivism, which conforms to the fact that language is a recent and emergent system in biolinguistics and meets the needs of a genuine explanation: learnability and evolvability. Future research on the lexicon will proceed in these directions.

Index Terms—lexicon, generative grammar, Neo-constructivism, functional category

I. INTRODUCTION

Generative grammar was created by Chomsky in 1957, which has a history of development for 65 years. In these 65 years, many major changes have occurred in its theoretical structures and theoretical contents. However, generative grammar survives and develops in changes, becoming a unique scientific phenomenon. The lexicon is a microcosm of the development in generative grammar. A lexicon, which lists all the lexical items/words in the language and their linguistic properties, is a dictionary, an abstract dictionary that is stored in the mind (Xu, 2009, p. 92). From no status at the outset to the position of central importance, that is, the position of all variations among languages, the lexicon has its own idiosyncrasy, which constitutes the unique track of development in generative grammar. In light of Smith (2004, p. 47), there is only one human language apart from differences in the lexicon. Therefore, it is necessary to tease out the evolution of lexicon in generative grammar.

This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 examines the lexicon from early stages of generative grammar to GB theory. Section 3 gives the lexicon in MP framework. Section 4 touches upon recent development of the lexicon in generative grammar. Section 5 concludes the paper.

II. LEXICON FROM EARLY STAGES OF GENERATIVE GRAMMAR TO GB THEORY

There was no lexicon in the early stage of generative grammar (Cheng, 1999, p. 13). At that time, all syntactic phenomena were processed by phrase structure rules and transformations. Now that verbs have a variety of selectional properties, there are various rewriting rules for sentences, as illustrated in (1).

(1) a. S→[NP [vp V]]
   b. S→[NP [vp V NP]]
   c. S→[NP [vp V NP PP]]
   d. S→[NP [vp V NP NP]]

In (1), (1a) is the intransitive structure, (1b) is the transitive structure, (1c) is the dative structure, and (1d) is the double object structure.

However, rewriting rules like (1) simply express the unique properties of lexical items. These rewriting rules cannot represent the syntactic phenomena completely, that is, they are inadequate. Therefore, there must be a part (that is, the later lexicon) in the syntax to define which verbs are transitives and which are intransitives. On the other hand, these rewriting rules also bring a lot of problems. They are huge in number and lack of inner connections with each other, making the syntactic component very complicated.

By the 1960s, syntax and lexicon were separated. The lexicon was used to define the unique features of each word, including its phonetic features, syntactic features and semantic features, as shown in (2).

(2) a. murder: V; [__NP]
   b. die: V; [__]

In (2), aside from the category "V" of "murder" and "die", the transitivity of the verb is also marked via distributional frame in the lexicon. In the distributional frame of "murder", NP is followed by the blank, which denotes that the verb "murder" selects a noun phrase as its object, so "murder" is a transitive. In the distributional frame of "die", there is not any category mark, which means the verb "die" does not select any element, thus "die" is an intransitive.

The lexicon and the syntax are connected through the Projection Principle, as illustrated in (3).

(3) Projection Principle

Lexical information is syntactically represented. (Haegeman, 1994, p. 55)

The separation of the syntax and the lexicon has great significance. It greatly simplifies the analysis of the syntactic analysis, and even makes the phrase structure rules lose the necessity of existence, which are eventually canceled. The part opposite to the lexicon is called the computational system, which forms the syntactic part of the language together with the lexicon.

Chomsky (1970) divides morphology into two kinds: inflectional and derivational. Inflectional morphology, which is operated by the syntax, refers to agreement, tense and the like, while derivational morphology, which is stipulated by the lexicon, denotes affixes of categories and so on. This constitutes the Lexicalist Hypothesis, which plays an important role in controlling the ability of transformation and simplifies the syntactic analysis. Chomsky (1970) is the start of Lexicalism.

(4) Lexicalist Hypothesis:

The syntax neither manipulates nor has access to the internal form of words.

(Anderson, 1989, p. 1)

Generative grammar has entered the stage of GB in the 1980s and the status of lexicon in the syntax is not clearly defined, although it is taken as a starting point of syntactic computation. The model of syntactic derivation in GB Theory is illustrated in (5) (Chomsky, 1986, p. 68).

(5)
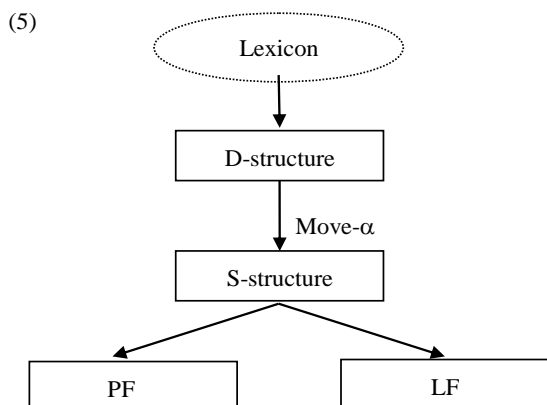
This model in (5) is often referred to as the T-model because of its inverted T shape. In the T-model grammar, the lexicon is represented by the dotted line, which shows that the lexicon does not belong to the syntactic process. Apparently, Chomsky wants to give the lexical-morphological process a certain independent status. This idea is confirmed by Chomsky (1986), which mentions that there should be a lexical component in the system of grammar. According to Di Sciullo and Williams (1987, p. 3), the lexicon is the storage house for listemes, that is, "objects of no single specifiable type (morphemes, words, idioms, and perhaps intonation patterns, and so on) that fail to conform to established laws" and it, like a prison, "contains only the lawless, and the only thing that its inmates have in common is lawlessness".

In GB Theory, many lexical items are stored out of order in the lexicon. Most of them are substantive items, a few are functional items. What is stored in GB is lexical items without any lexical morphological changes. Take the verb "like" for example, there is only the infinitive form "like" in the lexicon and there is no lexical item "liked", which has the morphological change. The tense form "liked" is obtained by moving the original form of "like" to the head of "I" and adjoining it with the suffix "-ed" in the process of syntactic derivation. This process is usually called the derivational morphology.

In a nutshell, the lexicon describes the individual, unique properties of lexical items, such as their phonetic, syntactic, and semantic properties. In terms of research strategy, the general trend of generative grammar at that time is to use abstract, simple principles to deal with computational systems, and to transfer the parts that cannot be dealt with by these principles to the lexicon. This strategy continues to work in MP.

III. LEXICON IN MP FRAMEWORK

The paper "A minimalist program for linguistic theory" published by Chomsky in 1992 symbolizes the establishment of MP. This paper was later included in Hale and Keyser (1993), the title of which used minimalist program (MP for short) for the first time. The grammar model of MP is simplified on the basis of the T-model in GB theory. Specifically, D-structure and S-structure are cancelled, and PF and LF are retained, as shown in (6) (Chomsky, 1995).

(6)

```
┌─────────────────────┐
│       Lexicon       │
└─────────────────────┘
           │
           ▼
┌─────────────────────────────┐
│ Syntactic Computational system │
└─────────────────────────────┘
           │
           ▼
      ╭──────────╮
      │ Spell-out │
      ╰──────────╯
        ╱        ╲
       ▼          ▼
┌──────────┐  ┌──────────┐
│    PF    │  │    LF    │
└──────────┘  └──────────┘
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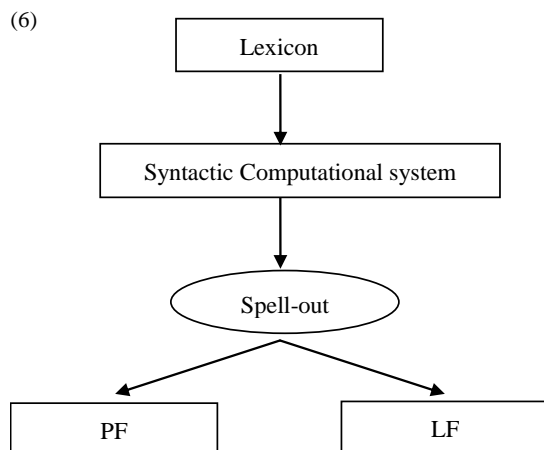
In the grammar model of MP, the syntactic stage is composed of two components: lexicon and syntactic computational system. In other words, the lexicon becomes one of the formal syntactic stages in MP. The syntactic computational system selects lexical items from the lexicon, which are derivated directly to PF and LF, and all the principles apply only to PF and LF.

Chomsky explicitly limits language variation to the part of the lexicon, which is confined to two main aspects. One is the way in which concept (meaning) is combined with sound. Because of the conventionality of this combination, the so-called "Saussure's arbitrariness", it has become an important source of linguistic difference. Another major aspect is the functional category, that is, the (inflectional) morphology in the traditional sense. The lexical items in the lexicon of MP belong to the inflectional morphology, that is, morphological forms of each lexical term have changed. Take the verb "like" for example again, in GB, there is only the infinitive form "like" in the lexicon and there is no lexical item "liked", which has the morphological change. However, in MP, "like", "likes", "liked", and "liking" are taken as different lexical items listed in the lexicon. In other words, lexical items are stored in the lexicon in units of concrete forms of words. Each lexical item can be regarded as the sum of various features, including phonetic features, semantic features and grammatical features, for instance, "like" and "likes" have different person features, "like" and "liked" have different tense features.

In MP, the lexicon is not simplified and decomposed like the syntactic component but is given more contents and a more prominent position, to the extent that it is almost on par with the syntactic component (Chomsky, 1995, 2008). The lexicon in MP has the following characteristics: generativeness, autonomy, multi-module and multi-level, and projectiveness (Cheng, 2018).

First, the lexicon in MP is generative. Since the mainstream theory of generative grammar contends that the starting point of syntactic computation is lexical items, the lexicon undertakes the task of lexical item formation, that is, the lexicon is responsible for combining morphemes into lexical items and endowing lexical items with semantic and phonological interpretations. In this way, the lexicon has changed from a static list to a dynamic computational system. Thus, the lexicon has become a module of the grammar system, with functions that are highly similar to the syntax.

Second, the lexicon in MP is autonomous, that is, lexicon and syntax are closed to each other in information, and the two are independent and different from each other. Lexical rules can change the categorical and subcategorical characteristics of objects, but syntactic rules cannot. For example, the word formation operation "translate→translate" not only makes the verb into a noun, but also removes the former's transitivity, that is, the ability to carry NP complements obligately. "Lexical Integrity Hypothesis" proposed by Lapointe (1980) maintains that syntactic operations cannot enter and affect the internal structure of lexical items. "No Phrase Constraint" proposed by Botha (1983) contends that morphological operations cannot use structures generated by syntax, that is, phrase structures cannot be applied to word formation. Lieber and Scalise (2005, p. 2) point out that "In fact, the two principles of Lexical Integrity Hypothesis and No Phrase Constraint are designed to prevent cross-module interaction: Lexical Integrity Hypothesis prevents syntax from 'seeing' morphology, and No Phrase Constraint prevents morphology from 'seeing' syntax."

Third, the lexicon has the characteristics of multi-module and multi-level. Starting from the first complete lexicon model proposed by Halle (1973, pp. 3-16), until now, it has always included several independent internal modules and the main parts are as follows: (i) A list of morphemes, which is used to enumerate all morphemes in a certain language, indicating their individual properties: free or bound, root or affix, what part of speech they belong to, what subcategorization they have, what meaning they have, etc.; (ii) word formation rules, which are responsible for combining words, determining their morphological core (Williams, 1980, pp. 203-38), and penetrating the features of that core into the word (Lieber, 1980). Sometimes movement rules are also used to adjust the structural relationship of each component in the word, so that the semantics can be correctly reflected (Roeper & Siegel, 1978, pp. 199-260; Hale & Keyser, 2002); (iii) Interpretation rules, which are responsible for the phonological and semantic expression of words. (iv) Filters, which filter out the words that are compliant but not recognized (possible words), keeping only the accepted

parts (actual words), and forming a complete list of words for options of syntactic operations.

Each module in the lexicon generally needs to set several derivation levels internally. For example, just to solve problems related to stress, some researchers, who study on phonology-morphology of the lexicon, such as Siegel (1979) and Selkirk (1982), set up four levels for the English lexicon: The first level is affix boundary affixes, mainly derived from Latin , generally attached to the bound root, which can trigger morphological changes such as stress transfer; the second level is the word boundary affixes, mainly derived from Germanic languages and generally attached to the free word base, without triggering morphological and phonological variations; the third level is compound, which is able to trigger stress transfer; the fourth level is regular inflections, which cannot trigger stress transfer. The "Ordering Hypothesis" proposed by them stipulates that the affixes of each level can only be attached to the components of the same level or the next level, and there cannot be any order reversal.

Finally, another important characteristic of the lexicon is the projectiveness, that is, it largely determines the operation of syntax. After years of research, the lexicon contains more and more information, mainly including (i) a system for describing the inherent characteristics of lexical items, (ii) subcategorization frame, (iii) insertion rules of lexical items, (iv) theta grid, (v) various inflectional variants of lexical items, etc. (Chomsky, 1965, 1981, 1995). Mainstream theory contains various principles, which ensure that this information is embodied in syntactic operations. The well-known Projection Principle stipulates that lexical information must be obeyed at every level of syntax; this principle is later extended to Theta Theory, stipulating that syntactic operations must not violate the theta grid in the lexicon. In MP, the syntactic operation basically depends on the features specified by the lexicon, and the features are not added, not reduced, or tampered with according to the requirements of the condition of inclusiveness. As Adger (2010, p. 2) has argued: "MP can be viewed as a lexicon-driven combinatorial system." This theoretical approach is called "Projection Theory" in that the lexicon specifies a large amount of critical information and determines syntactic operations, and it is also known as the theory of "big lexicon, small syntax".

To sum up, the lexicon is a department responsible for enumerating the primitive units of syntactic operations (the so-called "syntactic atoms") and marking their idiosyncrasies in grammar. The lexicon in MP, like the one in GB, stores lexical items. Different from the lexicon in GB, lexical items in MP syntax, which bear sets of features for lexical items, is the ones whose morphology has changed. In MP, the lexicon is not simplified and decomposed like the syntactic component but is given more contents and a more central position, to the extent that it is almost on par with the syntactic part (Chomsky, 1995, 2008). Obviously, this does not conform to the spirit of minimalism.

IV. RECENT DEVELOPMENTS OF THE LEXICON IN GENERATIVE GRAMMAR

In the study of contemporary biolinguistics, a generally accepted hypothesis is that language is a recent and emergent system. The so-called "being recent" means that human beings acquired the capacity for language in a relatively recent development process, which will not be earlier than 200,000 years. "Being emergent" is the opposite concept of evolution. It means that the language system is not formed by slowly and gradually transformation of existing organs. On the contrary, it originated from a single, rapid, and emergent event (Bolhuis et al., 2014, p. 4). According to the general principles of biology, recent and emergent physiological systems are most likely caused by genetic mutations and "embedded" in a certain existing system. Moreover, its internal structure must be simple, and only a system that has undergone long-term evolution can it be possible to derive a complex internal structure. From the perspective of biolinguistics, the lexicon is incompatible with the fact that the language a recent and emergent system in that it is so big and complicated.

Chomsky (2021) argues that a genuine explanation has to satisfy the conditions of learnability and evolvability. Obviously, the current design for the lexicon violates the two conditions. For one thing, big lexicon is a barrier for children to acquire language in that it contains too much information. For another, a recent and emergent language system cannot result in such a big and complicated lexicon.

In view of drawbacks of "big lexicon" in MP, since the 1990s, many scholars have turned to an approach called Neo-constructivism (Levin & Hovav, 2005, p. 191) or Generative Constructivism (Ramchand, 2008, p. 4), trying to explain issues related to argument structure from the perspective of syntactic structure on the basis of event structure, such as Hale and Keyser (2002), Borer (2005), Ramchand (2008), etc. Neo-constructivism, which takes the stance of anti-Lexicalism, is different from the traditional Construction Grammar (Goldberg, 1995, 2003, 2006), which considers constructions to be language-specific products that are stored in the lexicon (Sugimoto, 2019).

The Neo-constructivism holds that the semantic structure of an event can be represented by syntactic projections, that is, the syntactic structure is isomorphic with the event structure (Borer, 1998; Travis, 1994, 2000). The content of lexicon in Neo-constructivism has been greatly simplified, which contains simply roots and functional categories. There are two different views for the nature of root, as illustrated in (7).

(7) a. The naked roots view

   The root contains no syntactically relevant information, not even category features.

   b. The well-dressed roots view

The root may contain some syntactic information, ranging from category information to syntactic selectional information and degrees of argument-structure information, depending on the particular theory. This information is mapped in a systematic way onto the syntactic representation which directly encodes it (Ramchand, 2008, p. 11).

In light of the Borer-Chomsky conjecture, differences in language can boil down to differences in functional categories (Chomsky, 1981; Borer, 1984). Functional categories are organizers of the syntax, which begins with selecting the corresponding root from the lexicon, and then categorizing it by relevant functional category, as shown in (8).

(8) Categorization Assumption

Roots cannot appear without being categorized; Roots are categorized by combining with category-defining functional heads.

(Marantz, 1995; Embick & Noyer, 2007; Embick & Marantz, 2008)

In light of (8), roots must always be categorized by category-defining functional heads, such as *v, n*, etc.

It should be avoided that the root functions as the label of the categorized constituent, as illustrated in (9).

(9) a. [$_v$ v √ROOT]

b. [$_{√ROOT}$ v √ROOT]   (Alexiadou & Lohndal, 2017, p. 205)

V. CONCLUSION

The lexicon in generative grammar has experienced the development process from nothing to big lexicon. Recently, the lexicon is much greatly simplified in Neo-constructivism. A simple lexicon is in line with the fact that language is a recent and emergent system in biolinguistics. Meanwhile, it also meets the needs of a genuine explanation: learnability and evolvability. Future research on the lexicon should continue in these directions.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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Google Classroom as an Online Learning Media for Indonesian Language Learning During COVID-19 Pandemic

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Abstract—**The COVID-19 pandemic forced schools to change their offline learning model to online. Teachers can use many platforms for online learning, such as Google Classroom. This study aims to reveal the use of google classroom in online learning of Indonesian subjects at schools during the pandemic. A literature study is used in this research. Data is collected from various sources, such as journal articles, proceedings, books, and online news. The results of the analysis show that in learning Indonesian during a pandemic, Google Classroom is used by teachers as an online learning medium because it is easy for students to access. Using Google Classroom effectively increases student understanding and can increase student activity in learning.**

Index Terms—**google classroom, learning media, COVID-19 pandemic, Indonesian language**

I. INTRODUCTION

In 2020 the health sector entered a worrying period. It is felt by all countries in the world, not only developed countries but also developing countries, including Indonesia. This concern is the impact of the emergence of a coronavirus outbreak (Ginaya et al., 2021) that first spread from Wuhan, China, to be precise, at the end of 2019 (Claria et al., 2022; Rothan & Byrareddy, 2020; Susilo et al., 2020). Covid-19 was first reported in Indonesia in early March 2020, and two cases were found (Susilo et al., 2020). Initially, the Indonesian government did not want to inform the public about the coronavirus that had entered Indonesia (Rokhmansyah, 2021). The Indonesian government did it to avoid public panic and unclear issues. Regarding the development of the coronavirus, the Indonesian government finally made a policy as a first step, namely in the form of social distancing recommendations. The Indonesian government is aware that the transmission of Covid-19 is through droplets, namely liquid or splashes of saliva that a person emits from the nose or mouth when sneezing, coughing, or even talking. So to reduce or even break the chain of transmission of Covid-19, everyone must maintain a safe distance from other people, at least 2 meters, not make direct contact with other people, and avoid mass gatherings (Buana, 2020; Yunus & Rezki, 2020).

Apart from impacting the health sector, the Covid-19 pandemic has also impacted other sectors of life, such as the economic, social-community, and education sectors. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) stated that the Covid-19 outbreak impacted the education sector. UNESCO is very supportive of countries in the world in their efforts to reduce the direct impact of school closures due to Covid-19, especially for people who are more vulnerable and less fortunate, as well as facilitating the continuity of education for all through distance learning with online learning (Hawa, 2021). The Covid-19 pandemic has caused various countries to implement lockdown, isolation and social distancing measures, including limiting social contact between lecturers and students (Nuryatin et al., 2022). This phenomenon forced the government to close schools and colleges (Ebner et al., 2020). To prevent the spread of Covid-19 cases, the supervisory agency decided to close more than 100 schools (Sukendro et al., 2020).

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In Indonesia, the Covid-19 outbreak also impacted the education sector. By eliminating face-to-face learning activities (offline learning), the Indonesian government has made online learning a solution to maintain teaching and learning activities amid the spread of the coronavirus (Dewantara & Nurgiansah, 2021). Activities carried out by teachers and students relying on technology also form a new normal in the world of education. Teaching activities occur between teachers and students and between teachers, students, and parents of students (Zulaeha, 2021). Technology is the main tool in the learning process during the Covid-19 pandemic.

Online learning during the Covid-19 pandemic in Indonesia uses a distance learning model. Distance learning is carried out remotely, not face-to-face, between teachers and students and students with other students. E-learning can be an option in implementing distance learning because it is internet-based and does not require students and teachers to come to school (Triyanto, 2020; Yaumi, 2007). With conditions that do not allow face-to-face learning, e-learning will be an option because it saves time and is more flexible (Ningtyas et al., 2008). In addition, e-learning can be used with easier access and independent learning and requires students to be more active (Tigowati et al., 2017).

Distance learning using e-learning can be done on various platforms, such as Google Classroom, Zoom Meeting, Google Meet, and Microsoft Teams. In addition, learning can also take advantage of social media platforms that are of great interest to teenagers, such as Facebook, Twitter, Instagram (Komariah et al., 2020; Noesgaard & Ørngreen, 2015; Perumal & Ajit, 2022), and the messaging platform WhatsApp (Mulyono et al., 2021). The implementation of distance learning is not without obstacles. Such a sudden change from offline to online learning makes teachers and students encounter many obstacles in implementing learning. It has caused many students to complain about online learning. Apart from adding to the burden of costs for purchasing internet quota, students also do not get relief in terms of school payments. Not to mention the many assignments that make students lazy in carrying out their obligations in doing schoolwork (Mulawarman, 2020). Even though the use of online or multimedia-based media is one solution so that students understand the subject matter correctly, the material delivered by the teacher can be absorbed perfectly by students (Mustakim, 2020; Prabowo et al., 2020).

This article discusses using Google Classroom as a learning medium during the Covid-19 pandemic in Indonesia, especially in learning Indonesian. The use of learning media is one thing that needs to be considered in the active learning process. Learning media is an intermediary, container, or tool to convey learning messages. The use of learning media also allows direct interaction between students and their environment because, through interactive media, it is hoped that it can attract students' interest in participating in learning. Students get teaching material theoretically and are expected to be directly involved in learning activities to gain new experiences and be more active in learning (Aukmasari et al., 2020).

The use of media is intended to help make learning activities more effective and efficient in terms of effort, time, and cost. The selection of media must be carried out by the teacher appropriately so that the material or learning content can be conveyed correctly to students. The function of the media as a tool in learning activities is to provide visual experiences to students to encourage learning motivation and clarify and facilitate complex and abstract concepts to become simpler concrete, and easy to understand.

II. METHOD

This article is qualitative research using the library method. Research data were obtained from documents in the form of journal articles, proceedings, books, and articles on the internet that are relevant to the topic of this article. The collected data is then analyzed to find facts related to online learning media for Indonesian language subjects, especially those using Google Classroom. The stages of data analysis are organizing, sorting, synthesizing, and finding patterns using interpretation (Hudiyono et al., 2021; Miles et al., 2018; Rokhmansyah et al., 2021; Sugiyono, 2016). In addition, content analysis and in-depth reading methods were used in this study to obtain maximum research results. Hopefully, this research can provide information regarding the use of Google Classroom in online learning conducted at schools during the COVID-19 pandemic, especially in learning Indonesian.

III. RESEARCH RESULTS

The worldwide emergency of Covid-19 widespread constrained all instructive education to switch from face-to-face to separate learning (online) (Kaharuddin, 2022). During the Covid-19 pandemic, there has been a change in learning patterns, from face-to-face learning to distance learning. The learning process, usually carried out face-to-face in schools, was halted during the Covid-19 pandemic. All students must study at home. Therefore, teachers must prepare all learning processes so all students can access them (Eriyaningsih et al., 2022). This situation forces teachers to change the process of delivering material, so teachers must think about appropriate and appropriate teaching methods. This change in learning patterns also challenges teachers to manage virtual classes to become effective classes (Mashuri & Hasanah, 2021; Yulianto & Nugraheni, 2021).

Learning with the system is not directly known as learning from home or distance learning. This learning allows students to access learning resources and materials freely, without limitations of time and place (Herianti et al., 2022). Distance learning with an online system is implemented so students can continue learning, without being hindered by

time constraints, even during the Covid-19 pandemic. Learning activities from home are expected to support the distance learning process and make it easier for teachers to convey and distribute the material to all students.

Implementing distance learning during the Covid-19 pandemic in Indonesia faced various obstacles and quite complex challenges. Even though various methods have been taken to improve the quality of education by considering the health protocol by the joint decree of the four ministers, various obstacles, limitations, and difficulties are still encountered in the field. Problems in distance learning exist in various factors that influence it, including student and student family factors and inadequate facilities and infrastructure (Mashuri & Hasanah, 2021; Septyanti & Kurniawan, 2020). During the distance learning process, all teachers must be able to create effective distance learning and achieve learning goals properly. Teachers must be able to carry out distance learning management (Chandra, 2020) properly so that students can meet the planned learning success indicators. In this context, teachers must be competent in conducting learning management according to current needs. As stated by Ramdhani and Istiqlaliyah (2018), learning management can be interpreted as managing the resources used to achieve learning objectives effectively and efficiently.

Alahmadi and Alraddadi (2020) expressed that the advancement of e-learning has extended to incorporate different online learning approaches such as virtual classes, video conferencing, and mixed learning. It is evident that the development of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) has spread all through the world and has been utilized in each perspective of life (Ta'amneh, 2021). Teachers utilize computerized utilities and all other IT apparatuses to benefit the teaching and learning process. Al-Zaidiyeen et al. (2010) state that Information and Communication Technology (ICT) has been demonstrated to be a dynamic and compelling device for instructive preparation and has broadened and changed the way understudies learn and instruct. Due to the expanding mindfulness of the significance of ICT in instruction, numerous instructive teachers have propelled e-learning ventures to present fitting innovation so that the quality of instructing and learning can be effectively progressed.

Online learning media may be a sort of learning that permits the conveyance of instructing materials to understudies utilizing web media. As an elective to electronic-based learning, online learning media gives numerous benefits, particularly for instructive forms that are carried out remotely. In making online learning media, it is essential to pay consideration to their trust and objectives in taking part in online learning media, speed in getting to the web or arrange, transfer speed confinements, web access costs, and foundation information almost availability to require portion in learning (Nurjaya & Yasa, 2022). Learning media like this requires offices and infrastructure that are not cheap. In this manner, schools must arrange it well so that online learning infrastructure (e-learning) can be satisfied.

Learning media in online learning is utilized to extend the viability and productivity of learning. Learning media is utilized to realize objectives, such as passing on messages outwardly, so they are not as well verbal. Learning media can overcome the confinements of space, time, and the five faculties. In expansion, the learning environment quickens the instructing and learning preparation, brings out eagerness for learning, offers openings for understudies to connect specifically with the environment and substances on the ground, and permits autonomous learning agreeing to student's abilities and interests (Nuriansyah, 2020).

The use of e-learning learning media has drawbacks. For students, learning with e-learning media can trigger a lack of student responsibility for the assignments given by the teacher. In addition, students will feel at a loss and wasteful because many use the internet quota to participate in learning using e-learning (Adickalam & Yunus, 2022). For teachers, in learning using e-learning, interaction with students is felt to be lacking. Teachers cannot know the characteristics of students. This problem occurs because the application of e-learning learning media seems monotonous, especially for students who have not maximized the use of Information and Communication Technology (ICT).

Several studies have been compiled showing that information technology positively affects learning, which is very large. Information technology can be adopted as a tool in the educational process, including supporting the teaching and learning process, which also involves seeking references and sources of information (Wekke & Hamid, 2013). One technological medium often used today is smartphones (Khusniyah & Hakim, 2019). Besides smartphones, other supporting facilities are tablets and laptops. The Indonesian government has prepared several applications to be used as a liaison during the online teaching and learning process during the Covid-19 pandemic. It helps teachers to be able to teach face-to-face with students even though they use a virtual model, namely by utilizing applications that must be accessed via an internet network (Handarini & Wulandari, 2020).

The preferences of the e-learning model are that it permits the transmission of learning without being constrained by space and time, employments numerous diverse sources accessible on the web, and gives reading material that is generally simple to overhaul day by day. In expansion, e-learning can too increment understudy freedom within the learning handle. Online learning handles not as it places understudies as audience members or watchers but also empowers the dynamic interest of understudies to connect, discourse, work together, share and work together to construct information. Besides, in e-learning, teachers must be imaginative, inventive, and basic in choosing learning materials. Teachers must be more moral in utilizing the fabric and dodge utilizing pictures or sounds that are less important to the learning fabric. Through online learning, teachers must moreover empower the dynamic cooperation of understudies. Not as it were that, but teachers must moreover pay consideration and give more time to understudies, not restricted to face-to-face classes, and persistently direct understudies who have trouble utilizing online learning. It will appear the teacher's proficient demeanor. With online learning, teachers can be spurred to learn and progress their knowledge and skills.

Online learning, for the most part, takes a few shapes: either understudies are not required to commit to a particular time to require classes, or they are required to go to classes online on an assortment of stages chosen by instructors or teach and as a rule, in both cases, the materials are conveyed using electronic media and accessible for understudies anytime. Direction instructors on how to utilize cutting-edge innovation and social media increments the concept of self-education. Effective utilization of innovations depends on the teacher's vitality, learning capacities, and past involvement and capabilities to exceed expectations in current circumstances. Ordinarily, Understudies take after their teacher's information and adjust themselves to any framework and how instructors instruct or assess understudies. E-learning creates a rich and broadened instructive environment, fortifies communication among instructive partners, and makes a difference in demonstrating instruction perfect for the understudies. Showing fabric consistently and in an organized way helps in planning an era able to manage innovation and prepared with the foremost up-to-date capacities (Al-Awawdeh & Kalsoom, 2022).

In online learning, many platforms can be used as learning media. It makes online learning more accessible, practical, and efficient to use. From the results of searches conducted on relevant research via the internet, several learning media platforms were used for learning in schools during the Covid-19 pandemic, such as Google Classroom, Google Meet, Zoom Meeting, and WhatsApp (Sutiah et al., 2020). Of these several platforms, teachers more often use Google Classroom as a learning media platform (Fauzan et al., 2022), for example, in learning Indonesian language (Herianti et al., 2022; Lim & Tan, 2022).

Google Classroom could be an unused innovation that has existed since 2014 in different stages, such as desktops, websites, and Android or iOS-based versatile applications. The Google Classroom application is broadly utilized by teachers, lecturers, and students since it is considered valuable for learning. The widespread COVID-19 has made Google Classroom indeed more well known. The app has been downloaded by over 50 million versatile clients and is at the best of the list of beat Playstore apps (Francom et al., 2021). Google Classroom was created in collaboration with education specialists to create time went through within the instructing and learning to handle more successful, spare instruction costs, offer assistance with superior course coordination, and energize more interaction between teachers and students (Zulherman et al., 2021).

Google Classroom is a platform used as a learning medium during a pandemic because it is the most basic and user-friendly medium. Google Classroom is used for many purposes, to submit and grade assignments, quizzes, surveys, provide materials, and so on (Sharda & Bajpai, 2021; Ushakova et al., 2022). Google Classroom can meet schools' teaching and learning needs, and these activities are recorded just as well as lectures in class. Google Classroom can be a learning medium based on research-based learning methods as it maximizes students' ability to discover, understand, research, analyze and develop learning outcomes (Septyanti & Kurniawan, 2020).

The Google Classroom app has its strengths to make distance learning more memorable. It aims to shape students' proficiency in using technology in the 21st century in order to compete in global rankings. Therefore, teachers are expected to use the Google Classroom application. The use of Google Classroom can help students as support for digital learning in the era of information technology-based education. Learning using the Google Classroom application can be used as a distance learning solution if offline learning is impossible (Herianti et al., 2022).

The application that Google introduced in 2014 can assist in the implementation of learning. Google Classroom application can be used to study from home, especially during the Covid-19 pandemic. This internet connection-based application can be used very quickly without having to face to face in a classroom and only relying on a stable network. Teachers can manage all the documents students need to learn. Learning documents can be stored on Google Drive, such as Google documents, spreadsheets, etc. With Google Classroom, students can complete lessons sequentially and work collaboratively with other students to complete group assignments.

Based on research conducted by Diny et al. (2020), learning using Google Classroom can be said to be effective in improving students' writing skills. In addition, the application of learning with Google Classroom encourages students to participate more in the teaching and learning process inside and outside the classroom. It increases their interactions with classmates and teachers. Students can open materials, complete exercises, and carry out activities anywhere and anytime via a computer, laptop, tablet, or smartphone if they have an internet connection. As a result, more exposure to online material and practice improves writing skills (Adas & Bakir, 2013).

The use of Google Classroom platform for learning Indonesian is presented with various materials, so students do not get bored. In addition, the presentation of varied material can help students learn according to their learning style. The variation in the presentation of the material will undoubtedly attract students' interest so that it can influence the process and output of student learning outcomes (Okmawati, 2020). Apart from presenting Google Classroom, the methods used, and the combination of methods also affect learning outcomes using Google Classroom. It is supported by the results of previous research, which stated that a combination of learning methods could make it easier for teachers to insert norms for students (Ni, 2020). The combination of methods carried out will be able to complement the weaknesses of each method used. Thus, not only will learning materials be delivered, but also learning messages will be conveyed. Combining methods is also an alternative in online learning activities with the Google Classroom platform. It is because Google Classroom cannot completely replace face-to-face lecture activities (Rahmawati et al., 2020). Therefore, by combining various methods, it will be able to minimize things that cannot be reached with Google Classroom.

Using Google Classroom, teachers can creatively teach students by giving assignments, learning videos, material links, and video conference links (Damayanti, 2021). Google Classroom can be used as a track record for teachers and students to evaluate teachers teaching Indonesian online. Learning using Google Classroom, teachers can increase student motivation in learning during a pandemic. The positive response of students can show it. The elaboration form produces a learning syntax that can be used in asynchronous online learning, which can foster student self-development when participating in Indonesian language learning in the era of adaptation to new habits.

Google Classroom is a great educational platform and an accessible medium for sharing knowledge. Performance comparisons are good regarding ease of access, perceived benefits, tracking student progress, and communication and interaction between teachers and students. This study shows that librarians effectively use Google Classroom to share electronic content and provide various electronic library services that would not be physically accessible during the Covid-19 pandemic. Google Classroom performs all the teaching tasks, from marking attendance to submitting Grades. Google ensures data security in encrypted and secure media. Google Drive cloud storage system allows access from anywhere and anytime. Google Classroom is recommended for use to improve the teaching and learning process quality in all academic activities, especially during the Covid-19 pandemic (Sharda & Bajpai, 2021). Google Classroom also has a flipped classroom facility, a pedagogical approach that transfers direct learning from one classroom to an individual study room. The new learning space will be more active learning where the teacher acts as a coach while students apply their knowledge concepts by involving creativity and problem-solving in the subject matter (Khophadung & Vongtathum, 2016).

Google Classroom has a positive impact on learning Indonesian. According to a literature search of several articles, Google Classroom is the most popular e-learning platform among students. Google Classroom effectively improves students' access and attention to learning, knowledge, and skills (Pratama, 2021) and improves students' critical thinking skills. Students find that the learning process with Google Classroom makes learning interesting, effective, and motivating and encourages independent, active, creative learning attitudes. Learning the Indonesian language with Google Classroom greatly impacts students' motivation to learn (Etika et al., 2020; Rohman et al., 2020). Learning the Indonesian language using Google Classroom also to increase students' interest in reading during the Covid-19 pandemic was very effective. Students' interest in reading by using Google Classroom during a pandemic can be used as an alternative for students to re-develop students' interest in reading and to learn at this time.

IV. CONCLUSION

Online learning has become a critical requirement in instruction, particularly amid the widespread Covid-19. One stage that's broadly utilized as a learning medium is Google Classroom. Google Classroom is utilized in learning Indonesian since the interface is simple for instructors and understudies to utilize and can be accessed using a computer or smartphone. Applying Indonesian learning with Google Classroom also empowers understudies to participate more in the instructing and learning to handle the interior and exterior of the classroom, expanding their intelligence with classmates and instructors. Understudies can open materials, total work out, and carry out exercises anyplace and anytime using a computer, tablet, tablet, or smartphone as long as they have an online association.

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Examination of the Use of Feedback in EFL Writing Instruction: A Case Study of Jordan

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Abstract—When comparing public and private schools, it is clear there are significant differences in teaching methods, and this may be used to help pupils become writers that are more creative. The goal of this research is to examine the concept of creative writing by analyzing comments made by EFL educators in their instruction. Fifteen EFL teachers in Jordan were interviewed and observed. The researcher interviewed fifteen teachers to get their opinions on how they think feedback may be used to foster creativity in writing among EFL students. The interview results revealed that thirteen instructors utilized student comments to encourage English as foreign language writers to be more creative. Moreover, observations found that ten instructors employed feedback in their courses, including peer feedback. This research supports the use of a pre- and post-test in an experimental evaluation of the impact of interventions (such as feedback) on students' writing creativity. Why some instructors oppose using creative writing exercises (feedback) is a subject that requires deeper exploration.

Index Terms—English as a Foreign Language, creativity in writing, feedback

I. INTRODUCTION

An individual's creative output is seen as a reaction to environmental cues under the behaviorist paradigm. Based on this view, creativity is something that can be taught and supported by various means of stimulation, reinforcement, and response (Craft, 2001). The principles of behavioral IQ tests have been frequently used in the evaluation of creative potential. A reinforcer may be anything that makes getting the right response more likely to occur, such as a positive comment, a high grade, or a feeling of accomplishment or pleasure (Krashen, 1982). The affective-filter theory states that the learner's emotions serve as malleable filters that either facilitate or obstruct the necessary information for language learning. Krashen (1994) argues that students with strong motivation, confidence, a good self-image, and low anxiety have the best chance of excelling in language acquisition.

Study after study highlights the importance of a supportive learning environment and constructive feedback for encouraging creative writing. Coaching, feedback, and social presence were all studied to see how they affected higher-order thinking in an online community by Stein et al. (2013). Training occurred beforehand, and comments were provided instantly thereafter. The results revealed that the frequency of higher-order thinking increased greater in the group that received coaching and feedback over time compared to the group that did not get coaching and criticism. The results demonstrated that the Community of Inquiry framework might serve as a coaching manual in addition to being utilized for course development, facilitation, and assessment.

II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)

Vygotsky focused a lot on how images might be projected and how human culture could be passed down through generations in his writings. Vygotsky, like Bruner, is concerned with the effects of language on learning and the enhancing effects of social interaction on education. As with Bruner's scaffolding learning, Vygotsky's (1978) "Zone of Proximal Development" (ZPD) posits that the student is directed to a higher level of performance with the help of his classmates and instructor. Vygotsky developed a model for the learning-development relationship in his ZPD, arguing that growth in behavior occurs along a spectrum.

As such, a teacher's actions facilitate student learning and growth through a process known as scaffolding, in which the educator uses a variety of strategies, including direct instruction, materials in the classroom, and extracurricular activities, to help students retain knowledge and develop skills (Berk & Winsler, 1995). Learner accomplishment with the aid of a competent instructor and learner achievement with the help of a knowing teacher are two points on a

continuum between aided performance and autonomous performance in the context of behavior development. Gaining independence in learning is facilitated by the teacher's one-on-one guidance, and the Zone of Proximal Development expands accordingly (Bodrave & Leong, 1996).

Vygotsky's ZPD has been extended outside the realm of problem solving to include a wider range of skills and abilities. Teaching is supposed to help the student in this comfort zone, and it's supposed to motivate and encourage them to achieve in areas where they may not yet feel competent. For students to be creative in their writing, they need strategies and methods that spark ideas for them to explore. Students' literacy and critical thinking skills benefit from opportunities to write and engage with others (Dyson, 1995; Rababah & Bani Melhem, 2015; Rababah, 2019).

That is why it's so important to foster an environment in the classroom that promotes teamwork. The role of the educator is to foster student participation in projects, including the generation of improvisational ideas and the implementation of those ideas. In addition, avoiding giving students static assignments is supported by Vygotsky's theory and knowledge of how social interaction influences student growth. Static exercises do not provide a challenge for students' intellectual advancement. Particularly, the ZPD lays the groundwork for many cutting-edge pedagogical techniques in the field of education today.

ZPD is a sociocultural theory that has been applied previously to cognitive and linguistic development; however, its use in the context of second language acquisition is novel. According to Schinke-Llano (1995), peer teaching plays a significant role in promoting collaborative learning by transforming the classroom into a place where the instructor is a source of both information and help and the learner's contributions are valued. By illustrating the gap between a learner's capacity without aid and his ability with assistance from others, Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development made a significant contribution to understanding the social origins of higher mental processes. Teaching, small-group discussion, modeling, reflecting on one's own performance, and providing feedback are all examples of scaffolding.

In other words, teachers must first provide contexts for learning in which instruction may guide students' development before they can be considered successful teachers (Shayer, 2003). Therefore, education ought to emphasize teaching students how to learn, helping them build habits of lifelong learning, and providing them with experiences that have real-world application (Williams et al., 1997; Rababah & Almwajeh, 2018; Rababah & Banikalef, 2019).

Numerous studies have shown the importance of constructive criticism and a welcoming classroom atmosphere for encouraging imaginative writing (Rababah Alshehab & Bani Melhem, 2018; Rababah & Banikalef, 2019; Rababah, 2022; Rababah, 2018; Rababah & Rababah, 2018). The impact of social presence and a coaching and feedback intervention on higher-order thinking in an online community was studied by Stein et al. (2013). Before the lecture, the students were coached and given quick feedback on their performance. The results showed that, over time, the frequency of higher-order thinking was greater in the group that got coaching and feedback than in the group that did not. Based on the results, it was found that the Community of Inquiry paradigm may be utilized for more than only facilitating and assessing academic programs. It has the potential to serve as a useful coaching manual as well.

According to Jiang (2012), writing instructors may aid their students in gaining valuable feedback on their work via the use of peer feedback, which also gives students valuable experience in a wide variety of skills that contribute to their development as writers. Writing tactics used in English as a foreign language classrooms often find the best success when including peer criticism. Many scholars have examined this issue, each taking a little different tack and looking at it from a slightly different angle. Some teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL) employ pre- and post-peer feedback to try out activities designed around student comments.

Morris (2008) argues that students can make the transition from the present to the future with the help of peer evaluation. In order to aid in language learning, peer feedback requires a two-way conversation in which each participant debates the other's interpretation of a given statement (Rollinson, 2005). Students may learn more about their own abilities and areas for improvement by receiving and giving criticism from their peers (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). Students' motivation in EFL settings is very critical as this can help them have positive attitudes, and thus their performance can improve (Al-Shboul, 2022).

III. METHODS

Fifteen English as a Foreign Language (EFL) instructors in Jordan were interviewed and observed for this research. Researchers utilized semi-structured interviews because they are "one of the most potent means by which we attempt to grasp our fellow human beings" (Cresswell & Creswell, 2017, p. 645). At this study, the researchers opted to take on the role of a bystander, sitting in a strategic spot outside the action (like the back of the classroom) and taking notes on observations. Here is how the responses were categorized: teacher X; (TA) for "Teacher A," for instance. The same coding strategy was used throughout the interviews. In the following paragraphs, we will discuss the analysis of the qualitative data while protecting the identity of the interviewees by the use of the aforementioned coding.

IV. FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

A. Results of Interview

A common thread ran across the educators' responses, and that was the importance of feedback. Analysis of interview responses revealed that educators valued using feedback strategies when working with students on their writing. Thirteen lecturers discussed how they utilize feedback to inspire originality in their EFL students' writing. During their instruction, the lecturers stressed the value of offering students constructive criticism. It is not always easy to pinpoint one person as the best source of helpful comments on written work; it might vary by when and what kind of input is needed. In order to get feedback, you might ask your classmates or your professors. The views of the educators on the method are as follows. TC emphasized "students expect feedback," especially on writing assignments. It would be too late if the instructor waited until the students had completed their writing tasks, which may lead to feelings of discouragement (TC, Interview, November, 2021). However, other educators, like TJ, felt that feedback was an appropriate method to utilize in EFL classes, and that "Teachers should acquaint themselves and coach their students on how to use feedback in an efficient way to acquire both proficiency and competence as English writers" (TJ, Interview, November, 2021). TF theorized that by encouraging students to provide constructive criticism to one another, classroom discourse—and hence student learning—could be enhanced. In his words:

> Students look more self-assured and engaged in writing classes when given the opportunity to edit and fix the work of their peers. This is due to the fact that effective feedback may help authors establish rapport with readers beyond simply the instructor. It has the potential to promote and facilitate student-to-student communication, resource sharing, and the evaluation of student work. (TI Interview, November, 2021)

Some people, like TG, went even farther and argued for electronic feedback. The use of e-feedback was crucial for TG, since it brought the ideas of vocal reaction into the digital sphere (TG, Interview, November, 2021) In addition, TH provided useful training and comments to the pupils. It is essential to correct pupils' misunderstandings in a supportive way. For instance, a teacher may point up that the student's draft may benefit from being written in clearer language to make it more accessible to the intended audience (TH, Interview, November, 2021).

Similarly, TE provided feedback by returning student manuscripts annotated with constructive criticism. Instead of just pointing out the student's flaws and editing the work with a red pen in front of the class, a skilled instructor would provide constructive feedback on how to improve the draft. A great educator is one who fosters an atmosphere of learning and innovation by providing students with new perspectives and opportunities (TE, Interview, November 2021).

Though opinions differed, many educators stressed the significance of students' reactions to their work. Teachers have reported employing e-feedback, peer feedback, and instant feedback. Teachers saw timely, actionable feedback as not just one of the most successful classroom tactics, but also a means by which to gauge their own students' progress and tailor their own instruction accordingly. Nonetheless, TB said that she was unable to implement the tactic. TB said that time limitations prevented him from implementing any kind of feedback. He said that there just is not enough time to provide kids constructive criticism.... It is not worth the effort.... The issue with feedback is that it often ignores the actual substance in favor of nitpicking over spelling and grammar (TB, Interview, November 2021). Regarding the opinions of his contemporaries, he said:

> Students who are just starting out in school do not benefit from peer evaluation since their writing abilities are not yet developed enough to provide insightful remarks. Allowing students to provide feedback at this stage is very dangerous for the students' and each other's writing growth (TB, Interview, November, 2021).

B. Reviews of Observations

In order to encourage more originality in their students' English as a second language (ESL) writing on this topic, ten teachers utilized feedback—including peer feedback—in their classrooms. In particular, TD encouraged his pupils to learn from one another. He explained to his pupils the value of criticism and how, by cooperating, they may learn to value experiences more deeply. Students were seen working together, and the instructor provided timely corrections as necessary (TD, Observation1, December, 2021). Similarly, TH was seen encouraging her students at every stage of the activity. He helped the pupils enhance their writing skills via one-on-one conferences (TH, Observation2, December, 2021).

In addition, the observed teachers used many drafts and comments. All of the observed teachers made extensive use of authentic feedback in their classrooms. Some students relied on input from their peers, while others looked to their teachers or even employed electronic feedback systems. In specifically, TG led an in-class writing project in which students wrote thank-you notes. Students drafted their notes on computers, and then shared them with TG for feedback and correction before moving on to a final draft. Each student was given access to a computer in order to make any necessary changes (TG, Observation1, December, 2021). Overall, the educators surveyed been optimistic for the strategy's potential to spark originality in their EFL students' writing.

Similarly, TE used student comments into his lessons. Students were put into groups or paired up to create classroom assessment exercises for each other. Following completion of their evaluations, students were to sign off on the assignment by pointing out issues with the assigned essay, making pertinent remarks, assigning letter grades, and providing any other feedback they felt was necessary (TE, Observation3, December, 2021). TJ also gave his pupils a rundown of expectations before providing criticism. Students were to provide content-based feedback during the first review session, before shifting their attention to more broad areas of grammar, mechanics, and vocabulary during the

second session. The instructor gathered the pupils' work after they had done commenting so that he could inspect it (TJ, Observation3, December, 2021).

V. Discussion

Depending on the circumstances and the nature of the feedback, different people may be more suited to provide constructive criticism on written work. Depending on the circumstances, you may decide to get feedback from classmates or teachers. TC and TE agreed that teacher feedback is a valuable tool for use in EFL courses, provided it is implemented properly. TJ believed that peer feedback may improve classroom dialogue and, by extension, student learning. He said, "They are confident that feedback is one of the most effective strategies used in classrooms, as it also helped teachers know the level of the students, offer them with this information in a timely manner." However, TB argued that there wasn't enough time to implement the strategy.

Ten teachers used student comments to encourage imaginative writing in their EFL lessons, as suggested by the study's authors. The feedback was used by ten different teachers, with some additionally including student-to-student remarks. Students benefit from TE in the form of peer feedback when they work in groups. He instructs them to critique the essays by identifying flaws in their reasoning, offering solutions, and assigning grades. Moreover, after the reviewers are done, they should sign it. TJ saw that there was a long learning curve between students and reading the literature. Every class, he had the pupils focus on a different facet of writing. Teachers who have utilized peer feedback in their classrooms know that there is a lot to do before, during, and after a peer feedback activity. Teachers served as a variety of functions, including fact-checkers, commentators, organizers, demonstrators, and role models.

Second, in terms of instructor feedback, it has been seen that TD students participate actively in group assignments and that their teacher offers prompt feedback. Throughout the exercise, TH was often heard supporting the students. Through individual conferences, he assisted his students in developing stronger writing abilities. Many scholars have spent the better part of the past few decades investigating the links between L2 writing feedback and creativity.

According to Vygotsky, social interactions between children and adults are crucial to the development and learning of the young. The process of learning benefits from both the development of language, which aids in thinking, and the giving of feedback and guidance supplied by social interactions. A crucial aspect of the ZPD framework for figuring out how to teach a language is feedback on the student's linguistic performance. Students are encouraged to ask questions, provide feedback, and share their knowledge in a scaffolded learning environment. Teachers' roles in the classroom change from that of authoritative subject experts to that of helpful advisers when they use scaffolding.

Most research shows that giving and receiving feedback improves language learning (L2). Nassaji and Swain (1997) state that kids gain more from support when it is negotiated within their Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) than when it is supplied at random. Nine teachers discussed ways to encourage creative thinking in EFL writing via the use of feedback. During the course of their writing instruction, teachers repeatedly hammered home the need of offering critical feedback to their students. Nassaji and Swain (1997) propose that feedback may lead to more in-depth learning by drawing on the Vygotskian sociocultural viewpoint and the Vygotskian notion of the ZPD. Additionally, as noted by Flower and Hayes, the writer evaluates either the intended or actual meaning of the text throughout the reviewing process (1981). The author checks the text for any problems that might reduce its effectiveness.

VI. Conclusion and Recommendations

The current study used a novel and practical method for stimulating creativity in EFL classes and, by extension, improving students' writing abilities. The goals of this research are, thus, to learn about and teach creative writing. The fact that the research was conducted in a real-world setting posed certain difficulties. I enjoyed the task since it forced me to show how things actually are. This research has given me a greater awareness and understanding of the difficulties that language learners have while writing, since I faced many of them myself as a second language student. Participant interviews and transcriptions were the most time-consuming aspect of the project. It took us a long time since this was unfamiliar territory for us. For instance, you will need around four hours to transcribe one hour of tape. Because of this, we made sure to make plenty of time to talk with my professors and hear their thoughts on how we might improve the quality of my qualitative research papers. They made it easy for us to focus on my studies and gave us the support and feedback we needed to succeed.

In addition, the many insights we got along with my experiences and challenges helped us develop as a writer. Putting one's ideas and thoughts down on paper is an involved process. The process of writing is cyclical and self-reinforcing, consisting of interconnected stages that logically progress one into the next. Given that the fundamental elements of the creative writing process are universal, students of any background or level of exposure to the English language are capable of developing into proficient and imaginative writers. Just as no student has a leg up on the competition because of innate talent, every student has the capacity to hone the abilities required to become an extraordinary creative writer with the right amount of practice and guidance. The instructor's job is to facilitate this growth by delivering praise and helpful suggestions for improving the students' writing in areas like grammar and spelling. It is vital, therefore, that while instructing students in the art of writing, they be guided toward an appreciation for the language as a whole rather than its component elements. It was illuminating to consider the potential of

collaborative and social writing activities, in which students work together and make meaningful contributions, for use in education at this level. Although dealing with children whose English is still developing might be challenging, teachers who create a classroom culture where students feel safe sharing and appreciating their unique histories and perspectives report feeling rewarded by their profession.

In conclusion, we think the findings from this study might be useful for other EFL classes, given the goal of educational research is to inform both practice and policy. It is hoped that by doing this study, we will get a better understanding of EFL authors' capacity for innovation and the methods available for improving one's own EFL composing skills. This study helped to fill a void in the literature by arguing in favor of teaching EFL students creative writing, which in turn may encourage EFL students in Jordan to work on their own writing skills.

In the future, it would be intriguing to see whether or if the Ministry of Education's creative writing approach is being applied in other schools and to what degree. Taking use of the clear differences between public and private universities' pedagogical techniques may boost writing abilities. This research supports the use of a pre- and post-test in an experimental evaluation of the impact of interventions (such as feedback) on students' writing creativity. Why some instructors oppose using creative writing exercises (feedback) is a subject that requires deeper exploration.

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- Cross-cultural studies
- Child, second, and foreign language acquisition
- Bilingual and multilingual education
- Translation
- Teaching of specific skills

- Language teaching for specific purposes
- New technologies in language teaching
- Testing and evaluation
- Language representation
- Language planning
- Literature, language, and linguistics
- Applied linguistics
- Phonetics, phonology, and morphology
- Syntax and semantics
- Sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, and neurolinguistics
- Discourse analysis
- Stylistics
- Language and culture, cognition, and pragmatics
- Language teaching and psychology, anthropology, sociology
- Theories and practice in related fields

Special Issue Guidelines

Special issues feature specifically aimed and targeted topics of interest contributed by authors responding to a particular Call for Papers or by invitation, edited by guest editor(s). We encourage you to submit proposals for creating special issues in areas that are of interest to the Journal. Preference will be given to proposals that cover some unique aspect of the technology and ones that include subjects that are timely and useful to the readers of the Journal. A Special Issue is typically made of 15 to 30 papers, with each paper 8 to 12 pages of length.

A special issue can also be proposed for selected top papers of a conference/workshop. In this case, the special issue is usually released in association with the committee members of the conference/workshop like general chairs and/or program chairs who are appointed as the Guest Editors of the Special Issue.

The following information should be included as part of the proposal:

- Proposed title for the Special Issue
- Description of the topic area to be focused upon and justification
- Review process for the selection and rejection of papers
- Name, contact, position, affiliation, and biography of the Guest Editor(s)
- List of potential reviewers if available
- Potential authors to the issue if available
- Estimated number of papers to accept to the special issue
- Tentative time-table for the call for papers and reviews, including
  - o   Submission of extended version
  - o   Notification of acceptance
  - o   Final submission due
  - o   Time to deliver final package to the publisher

If the proposal is for selected papers of a conference/workshop, the following information should be included as part of the proposal as well:

- The name of the conference/workshop, and the URL of the event.
- A brief description of the technical issues that the conference/workshop addresses, highlighting the relevance for the journal.
- A brief description of the event, including: number of submitted and accepted papers, and number of attendees. If these numbers are not yet available, please refer to previous events. First time conference/workshops, please report the estimated figures.
- Publisher and indexing of the conference proceedings.

If a proposal is accepted, the guest editor will be responsible for:

- Preparing the "Call for Papers" to be included on the Journal's Web site.
- Distribution of the Call for Papers broadly to various mailing lists and sites.
- Getting submissions, arranging review process, making decisions, and carrying out all correspondence with the authors. Authors should be informed the Author Guide.
- Providing us the completed and approved final versions of the papers formatted in the Journal's style, together with all authors' contact information.
- Writing a one- or two-page introductory editorial to be published in the Special Issue.

More information is available on the web site at http://www.academypublication.com/jltr/