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Correlation of EFL Learners' Metalinguistic Knowledge and Grammatical Accuracy

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Abstract

Grammar teaching has been a topic of debate for a considerably long time. Researchers and teachers discussed the benefits and shortcomings of its explicit instruction, which entails students' awareness of metalanguage. Although much research has investigated metalanguage, its effect on improving students' grammatical accuracy is still an unresolved issue, and the research concerning it is relatively limited. Nevertheless, it is widely recognised that metalanguage is beneficial for grammar teaching. Responding to this research gap, the present study investigated the relationship between EFL students' metalinguistic knowledge and their grammatical accuracy. The researcher adopted a descriptive quantitative research design where two tests were administered to undergraduate participants (n=124). The tests scores were analysed using the Blackboard item-analysis tool and SPSS software to generate statistical information regarding the participants' scores. The study findings revealed a significant positive correlation between the scores. This correlation was moderate and occurred at the students' overall score level. Moreover, the study revealed a proper level of metalinguistic knowledge that was not in perfect parallel with students' grammatical accuracy. The generated findings can provide insightful implications for grammar teaching. This finding is significant for EFL teachers as it supports claims on the importance of explicit grammar instruction. It is also essential for learners as they can use metalanguage to develop their learning. Moreover, the study suggests areas that may be helpful for researchers to further explore the issue.

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1. INTRODUCTION

A commonly asked question about grammar instruction is whether to teach it explicitly or implicitly (Harun et al., 2017). Both methods have undergone assessment and analysis, creating a heavy debate on grammar teaching methods. Implicit teaching (and learning), on the one hand, received greater attention with the calls for a more meaningful acquisition of second language (L2) or foreign language (FL). These calls led to the advent of the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) method (Savignon, 1987), which is a "largely implicit" approach (Mallia, 2016). Nevertheless, explicit instruction remained the favorite of teachers and researchers, especially after a considerable decline in the accuracy level of students' who studied through CLT was noticed (Alderson et al., 1997; Munalim, 2015).

In the EFL setting, the issue becomes more checkered. It was found that numerous difficulties are experienced by both learners and teachers in terms of grammar instruction. The most prominent challenge is the students' inability to "transfer their grammatical knowledge into communicative language use" (Almekhlafi & Nagaratnam, 2011, p. 78). As foreign language teachers view their primary goal as developing students' proficiency (Ellis, 1994), explicit instruction is practiced in a broader range.

The situation in Saudi Arabia is not an exception. Rather, it is thornier since several studies acknowledged that students face grammatical difficulties (Almuhammadi, 2020) and their general English proficiency levels are low. This situation can be traced back to the teaching methods as English in Saudi Arabia is "taught as a subject, not as a means of communication" (Sofi, 2015, p. 2), where rote learning and lecturing are primarily used in public schools. This can be acceptable to a limited extent to save class time and to prepare students for further learning. However, when it comes to teaching grammar at the university level, it is anticipated that teachers utilize more advanced teaching techniques that correspond to adult cognitive abilities and result in proper language use. Such methods should be based on the explicit instruction methods that learners were formerly exposed to at their public education stages.

One significant component of explicit instruction is language knowledge. This knowledge can be about the language as an object or as a medium and is believed to affect students' language proficiency positively. Students need to explicitly know what forms a language contains, how they operate, and what types of relations exist between them. It is suggested that "higher degrees of explicit knowledge should be associated with greater accuracy in language use" (Alderson et al., 1997, p. 97). Knowledge of language forms, however, is not normally available during implicit instruction since the focus is placed more on the communicative activities and meaning rather than on forms and structure. It is believed that "what is good for developing the ability to process language for meaning in context may not be effective in developing an advanced linguistic competence" (Basturkmen et al., 2002, p. 1). Therefore, it can be inferred that implicit instruction sacrifices the knowledge of language forms for the knowledge of language meaning.

Although this claim about the positive relation between metalinguistic knowledge and language proficiency seems logical and intuitive, this relation has not been studied to a significant extent that is proportionate to the heavy debate around the issue. The research gap is more evident when one explores studies of the correlation between metalinguistic knowledge and grammar teaching and learning or accuracy in the Arabic EFL settings. Searching for studies of these types in the most available research databases and repositories returns very few results. Accordingly, this study aims to revisit the issue and explore if direct relation exists between metalinguistic knowledge and students' grammatical accuracy by testing the null hypothesis that there is no significant correlation between students' metalinguistic knowledge and their grammatical accuracy.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Explicit vs Implicit Grammar Instruction

In the past, "language teaching and grammar teaching were synonymous in most language classrooms" (Nunan, 2003, p. 155). The dominant methods, i.e. Grammar-translation and Audio-lingual methods, were frequently informed by structural linguistics and behavioristic psychology. The primary goal of language teaching was the learners' correct output. Consequently, traditional teaching methods focused more on accurate language production, and teachers tended to correct students' mistakes to achieve habit formation through conditioning (Demirezen, 1988). Doing so was believed to prevent inaccurate linguistic forms, which is considered a bad habit (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012). Using this teaching practice creates the structure-based approach to language teaching. Grammar rules are taught explicitly, "errors are frequently corrected, and accuracy tends to be given priority over meaningful interaction" (Lightbown & Spada, 2013, p. 126).

Since the early eighties of the last century, grammar teaching has become less common as theories regarding second language acquisition claimed that acquisition cannot be fulfilled through conscious learning. According to Krashen (1982), learning cannot become acquisition. In other words, teaching grammatical rules does not guarantee students' successful use of that rule in their spontaneous speech, and hence "there is no necessity for previous conscious knowledge of a rule" (p. 84). Krashen's proposal to win over such a problem is to provide learners with a *comprehensible input* containing a structure that is beyond their current level.

The comprehensible input is suggested to be presented to learners in an *inductive method.* In such a method, a language sample is provided to students so that they can discover the embedded grammatical principles (Nunan, 2003). The language sample is given through different communicative activities because "plentiful exposure to language in use and plenty of opportunities to use it are vitally important for student's development of knowledge and skills" (Harmer, 2007, p. 69). This concept formed the base of CLT, where formal grammatical instruction was rejected and considered unnecessary.

However, it turned out later that CLT does not necessarily develop native-like fluency or communicative competence. This might be because "learners, especially those with low proficiency levels, have limited processing capacities, such that they cannot easily attend to both meaning and form at the same time" (Basturkmen et al., 2002, p. 1). Furthermore, stressing communicative ability in the target language and emphasizing sociolinguistic approaches affect students' accuracy negatively (Alderson et al., 1997). Accordingly, the suggestions were turned into a hybrid method that incorporates communication and linguistic forms.

The *focus-on-form* method suggests developing accuracy through communicative-based activities. Focus-on-form "involves briefly drawing students' attention to linguistic elements (such as words, collocations, grammatical structures, and pragmatic patterns) in context, as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning, or communication" (Long, 2000, p. 105). Thus, explicit instruction was partially reintroduced in classrooms.

The deterioration of ESL learners' level in grammar and their low level of accuracy in general cause researchers and teachers to return to explicit grammar teaching. Accordingly, "more recently, the consensus seems that some form of grammar is useful" (Nunan, 2003, p. 157). Furthermore, the concept that direct instruction cannot develop acquisition was refuted. Schmidt (2012, p. 29) introduced the noticing hypothesis (1990-2001), suggesting that "learners must attend to and notice linguistic features of the input that they are exposed to if those forms are to become intake for learning". Otherwise, learners, especially adults, will not develop grammar and morphology through overreliance on implicit learning via interaction only. Accordingly, explicit teaching is practiced on a large scale.

2.2 Metalanguage and Metalinguistic Knowledge

Explicit instruction entails using metalanguage (Schleppegrell, 2013). In an explicit instruction session, teachers use what is known as metalanguage. The term metalanguage is a loose term that can include a broad spectrum of indications. However, a general definition that can work for the current study is that it is the language to talk about language (Berry, 2005; Keen, 1997; Munalim, 2015), including any term relating to grammar, morphology, and language skills (Ellis , 2016; Hardman & Bell, 2019; Roshan & Elhami, 2016). Teachers use such terms to explain grammar points anticipating that students will have a more profound comprehension of how language is formed and how meaning is shaped, which will help in improving their language proficiency (Alderson et al., 1997; Hu, 2010). Metalanguage is also used in formal and informal classroom interaction using words like 'mean', 'say', 'write', 'read', 'right', etc.

The advantages of metalanguage to improve linguistic proficiency have been proven in many previous studies. Hu (2010) reviewed research that investigated this correlation and concluded that there is a "substantial positive correlations between knowledge of metalanguage and L2 proficiency" (p. 63). These advantages are represented in developing knowledge of forms and functions and facilitating grammar instruction. Moreover, using metalanguage can limit grammatical rules to their required contexts and help students avoid making overgeneralization. Metalanguage can also "be used profitably by teachers to help their learners link up newly encountered structures with knowledge of the target system that has already been acquired" (p. 66). In other words, newly taught items can better be explained to students by referring to previously taught concepts. For example, tenses can be better described by showing the forms of verbs and adverbs of frequency.

Metalanguage use is not limited to class time by teachers. It may also "be considered a learning strategy which leads to increased learner autonomy" (Ellis, 2016, p. 143). Students who possess a more expansive knowledge of metalanguage can study the language more effectively as they utilize "tools for parsing language into meaningful constituents and recognizing what goes together to make meaning" (Schleppegrell, 2013, p. 165). The role of metalanguage here is a "psychological tool to support learners' cognitive and linguistic development in their L2 learning" (Harun, et al., 2017, p. 1) more than a communicative tool.

The use of metalanguage, however, was not immunized against criticism. "Opponents of metalanguage use in language instruction argue that it is an unnecessary burden on language learners that inhibits communication" (Ellis, 2016, p. 143). Other critics stemmed from its linkage to explicit instruction of grammar (Hu, 2010), which was believed unnecessary in language acquisition and communicative competence development. In general, there is no consensus about the role and benefit of metalanguage for language proficiency and competence. However, it is deemed essential in constituting a broader and more significant concept in language pedagogy literature, i.e. metalinguistic knowledge.

Metalinguistic knowledge is a term related to and usually overlaps with metalanguage. In many previous studies, the term metalinguistic knowledge is used interchangeably with metalanguage, explicit knowledge, and grammar (Chen & Myhill, 2016). However, other researchers have stated that the two terms are slightly different. For them, while metalanguage refers to the hardcoded terms that describe language units and structures, metalinguistic knowledge "denotes the general understanding of language itself, including its metalanguage." (Ellis, 2016, p. 145). Yet, for all, this knowledge is "grammatically informed," (Chen & Myhill, 2016, p. 101), though it "is often seen as synonymous with knowledge about language and not knowledge of metalanguage" (Berry, 2005, p. 11).

Metalinguistic knowledge is informed basically by metalanguage. Alderson et al. (1997) stated that "whatever the explicit knowledge looks like, it must include metalanguage, and this metalanguage must include words for grammatical categories and functions" (p. 97). Thus, it can be inferred that "knowledge and use of metalanguage are likely to make the development of an L2 learner's metalinguistic awareness easier" (Alipour, 2014, p. 2641). Stemming from these claims, the present study adopts the term metalinguistic knowledge to refer to the research participants' knowledge of the grammatical terms. As metalinguistic knowledge is believed to positively affect language learning (Chen & Myhill, 2016; Ellis, 2016), it is expected that students with a higher level of metalinguistic knowledge are more grammatically accurate users.

2.3 Previous Studies

One of the pioneer studies in the relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and language proficiency is the one conducted by Alderson et al. (1997). The researchers tested 509 undergraduate students to investigate whether metalinguistic knowledge, language proficiency, and aptitude correlate. They utilized tests of metalinguistic knowledge, language aptitude and French linguistic proficiency. The results indicated that the relation between metalinguistic knowledge and language proficiency is weak. They also found that level of this metalinguistic knowledge varied. However, the researchers acknowledged that metalinguistic knowledge is worthwhile in its own right, though limited evidence to support teaching metalinguistic knowledge as a means for student language proficiency was found.

Basturkmen et al. (2002) investigated the correlation between the use of metalanguage and the subsequent use of the taught items in the later student production (the uptake). They studied a collection of 12 hours of recording of classroom interaction, including teachers and learners. The classes followed a CLT method where different communicative activities were conducted. They reviewed focus on form episodes where attention was given to specific linguistic elements. They aimed at identifying the metalanguage used in such episodes and the uptake by the students, either successful or unsuccessful. Their findings revealed an insignificant correlation between metalanguage used and students' uptake in teachers'-initiated focus on form. However, a significant correlation was found between metalanguage used and students' uptake in students'-initiated focus on form. These results suggested that metalanguage is vital for students to start talking about language in the classroom.

Using data from 3-year design-based research in U.S. schools, Schleppegrell (2013) reported the effect of using metalanguage in supporting L2 learners in general curricular activities and developing their L2. The study incorporated nineteen teachers trained to use System Functional Linguistic metalanguage in grade 2 to 5 classes. The students in these classes were non-native English learners. After implementing the project for two years, the results indicated that metalanguage supported language development and helped learners to accomplish complex curricular tasks regarding other disciplines. The researchers reported that the use of metalanguage was beneficial in that it enabled students to generalize what they learned in the language classroom. It also helped them recognize variations and patterns and improve their reading comprehension and writing. They concluded that explicit and focused instruction is helpful for learners' language development.

In another study, Alipour (2014) investigated the relationship between linguistic and metalinguistic knowledge. The researcher operationalized metalinguistic knowledge as the students' ability to describe, correct, and explain L2. Consequently, he administered a metalinguistic test where 40 EFL students were asked to describe, correct, and explain errors in 30 sentences. Later, the students' scores were compared with a cloze open-ended test score designed to measure students' language proficiency. The researcher claimed that both the metalinguistic knowledge and linguistic tests were parallel in terms of tested grammar points to find a meaningful correlation. The results indicated that the participants' metalinguistic knowledge correlates to their linguistic proficiency. However, this metalinguistic knowledge did not entail success in producing general grammatical points. In other words, students can describe, explain, and correct errors in specific grammatical points, but they sometimes fail to produce error-free structures related to other points. This finding suggests that the correlation between metalinguistic knowledge and language proficiency is due to the fact that the same grammatical features are tested across the two tests, which may be a limitation of the followed method.

Tokunaga (2014) administered a metalanguage knowledge test to 1180 EFL learners in Japan and compared the students' scores to their language proficiency tests scores. The results showed a significant correlation between the two scores, especially in more advanced learners. Nevertheless, it was found that students' knowledge of metalanguage is generally poor, especially among low and intermediate students.

Furthermore, the findings of the studies revealed that complete knowledge of metalanguage does not guarantee an equal performance on the proficiency test. It can be inferred from these results that teaching metalanguage in its own right is invaluable. Roshan and Elhami (2016) conducted an experimental study to investigate the impact of metalanguage on grammar noticing in elementary and intermediate students. The researchers used the Oxford placement test to examine their participants' proficiency levels, audio recording to monitor teachers' use of metalanguage, and a noticing task to assess the levels of noticing by the participants after the treatment. The results showed that the experimental group, those who received metalanguage-based instruction, outperformed the control group members in the noticing task creating a significant difference between the students' scores. The findings suggested that metalanguage-based instruction affected low-level students' noticing of grammar points.

Research implied varied insights into the impact of metalinguistic knowledge on learners' proficiency. Most studies acknowledged that it is beneficial for learners; however, studies found disparate correlations levels between metalinguistic knowledge and language performance. The different operationalizations of the term and the broad scope of the dependent variables of the previous studies may cause this weak or low correlation. Since most research recognizes the importance of metalinguistic knowledge for learners, more research is required to investigate this relation. Accordingly, the current study focuses on exploring the correlation between students' metalinguistic knowledge, represented in the knowledge of grammatical terms, with their grammatical accuracy, which is a rarely-investigated correlation. The paper builds on the existing literature by adopting the conceptualization of the terms and the assessment method. Accordingly, metalinguistic knowledge is represented in the knowledge of grammatical terms, while grammatical accuracy is measured through students' judgement of the grammaticality of sentences.

3. METHODS

The present study adopted a descriptive design. Quantitative data was utilized to measure the students' knowledge of metalanguage, their grammatical accuracy, and the correlation between the two variables.

3.1 Participants

The participants were 124 undergraduate students (65 female and 59 male) in levels 5 (Third year) at Prince Sattam University, Saudi Arabia. The research sample was selected following the cluster sampling method, where a whole unit of the population is selected, and all the members incorporated in the unit are examined (Dornyei, 2007). Accordingly, two sections of students were chosen from the female and male campuses of the university. The rationale for selecting these specific sections is that they study Applied Linguistics Course (ENGL3170), and hence they have good knowledge about language and grammar teaching. Such a feature was deemed an added value to the participants as their responses would be based on a more profound knowledge of both metalanguage and language forms and structure, hence increasing the data validity. Their English language levels, however, range from intermediate to upper-intermediate. By the time of conducting the study, they had studied the English language for nine years at public schools and as a major for 1 to 6 semesters at the department of English language, including two grammar courses: Grammar I in semester two and Grammar II in semester three.

3.2 Instruments

Two tests were used to gather the research data: a Metalinguistic Knowledge Test and a Grammaticality Judgment Test.

3.2.1 Metalinguistic knowledge test

The researcher designed a Metalinguistic Knowledge Test (MKT) to assess the participants' knowledge of metalanguage related to grammar. The MKT is composed of two parts. Part one includes 30 general grammatical terms distributed into six matching questions. Participants were asked to match each term to its equivalent L1 (Arabic). Part two comprises twenty of the same grammatical terms; however, students were asked to match each term to its example. It contains four questions, each of which is composed of five items. In total, the test comprised fifty items, and the ceiling score was set to twenty-five marks. See Appendix A for the detailed test.

To design the MKT, the researcher reviewed documents related to the university's previous courses studied by the students. Course Specifications and Course Reports of three previously learned courses informed the selection of the grammatical terms to be included in the test. The first course (*Grammar I*) is devoted to enlightening students about the eight major parts of speech in English. *Grammar II* course focuses on tenses, verb forms, and the basic structure of English, while the third course (*An Introduction to English Language*) addresses general linguistics aspects related to parts of speech, sentence cases and basic grammatical structures. The test was designed to cover all the mentioned features in the specifications and rule out any grammatical points that are not included in these courses to avoid unexpected results that might occur due to individual differences.

3.2.2 Grammaticality judgement test

The grammaticality Judgement Test (GJT) is a "standard method of determining whether a construction is well-formed" (Rimmer, 2006, p. 246). GJT has been used since the 1970s to measure learners' language proficiency and knowledge of grammar (Tan & Noor Izzati, 2015). In the present study, a 25-item GJT consisting of two parts was used. In the first part, students were asked to decide on the correctness of twelve items (eight incorrect and four correct). In part two, the participants were required to choose the right words to produce thirteen grammatically-correct sentences. The test covered selected grammatical features: *articles, nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs*. The test elements were presented in different cases: affirmative, negative, and interrogative, and the grammatical features were selected to match the points assessed in the MKT. The researcher adopted the GJT questions from Swan and Baker's (2008) Grammar Scan Test. Appendix B shows the GJT.

3.2.3 Test reliability

Two university professors specialising in ELT and Applied Linguistics reviewed the tests. Further, a pilot study that incorporated 27 participants was conducted. The participants took the tests twice at a 2-week interval. The coefficient reliability for the MKT scores was 0.69, and it was 0.74 for the GJT. These coefficients suggested a significant correlation between the two administrations of the tests, which implies acceptable reliability.

For the reliability of the data used in this research, the item-analysis tool was used. The item analysis tool is provided by Blackboard, and it provides statistical analyses based on test takers' scores. Figure 1 presents item analysis results for the MKT and the GJT provided by Blackboard.

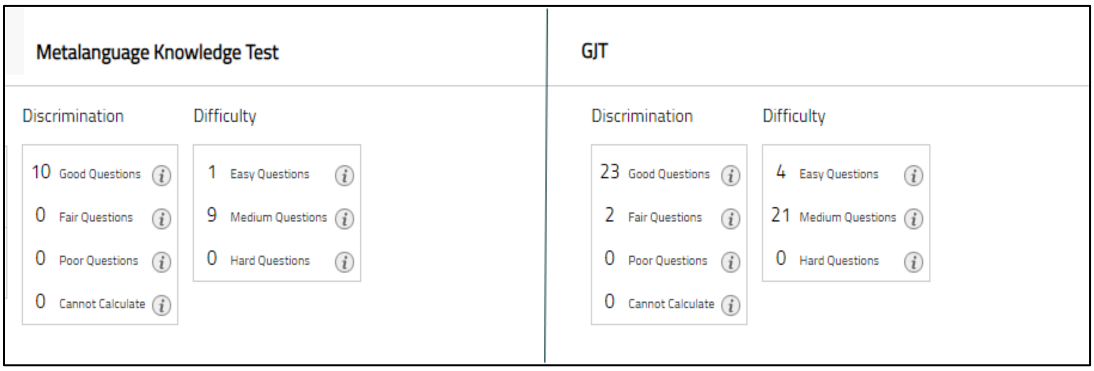

Figure 1. Item analyses of the MKT and GJT.

3.2.4 Administration

The two tests were administered through Blackboard Learning Management System. Each test was set to be taken in an hour with a single attempt for each participant. To ensure more security of the tests, they were administered through Respondus Lockdown Browser to ensure that participants would not consult external sources for answering the questions. This precaution was deemed insufficient since students could still access and consult external sources. Accordingly, other blackboard features, such as the random ordering of questions and options and the single attempt feature, were applied to reduce this possibility to the lowest possible extent. Moreover, the number of questions relating to the allocated time was expected to prevent students from attempting to consult other sources, and a countdown timer presenting the remaining time and questions was used to enhance participants' noticing of this characteristic.

3.3 Data Analysis

The gathered data were analyzed at two stages. In the first stage, the researcher applied the Blackboard item-analysis tool. According to the Blackboard help manual, the item-analysis tool provides statistical information regarding the questions of an individual test. Therefore, it is considered helpful for the present study as it gives a detailed overview of how the participants responded to each question. Accordingly, it can provide insights into students' knowledge of metalinguistic terms and its application to the GJT. Item-analysis tool provides statistical information on the following.

1) Average score: the average score that respondents achieved on each of the questions.
2) Discrimination: it indicates how well a question differentiates between students who mastered a form from those who did not. Its values can range from -1.0 to +1.0 and are calculated using the Pearson Correlation Coefficient. There are three categories of discrimination in terms of their values. The categories are *Good* (greater than 0.3), *Fair* (between 0.1 and 0.3) and *Poor* (less than 0.1). A question is a good discriminator when students who answer the question correctly also do well on the test.
3) Difficulty: it indicates the percentage of students who correctly answered the question. Difficulty values can range from 0% to 100%. The higher the percentage is, the easier a question is considered.
4) Standard Deviation (SD): this computes the deviation of the scores from the average score. A small standard deviation indicates low variation between the participants' scores.
5) Standard Error (SE): this is an estimation of the variability in participant scores that occur due to chance. Smaller standard error of measurement means the measurement provided by the test question is more accurate.
6) In the second stage of the data analysis, the researcher computed the Pearson Correlation Coefficient to find the correlation between the overall students' scores at the MKT and the GJT.

4. RESULTS

The study results are presented in three batches. First, item analyses of the tests were presented to check the consistency and quality of the questions. Second, students' scores in the two tests were presented to compare their performance in the MKT and GJT. Finally, the correlation between the students' scores on the two tests was computed.

4.1 Item-Analysis of the Two Tests

The item-analysis results for the MKT test are provided in Table 1.

Table1. Item-analysis results of the MKT (sorted by difficulty)

Qid	Q Type	Discrimination	Difficulty	Average	SD	SE
Q10	Examples	0.62	0.36	0.91	0.79	0.14
Q7	Examples	0.55	0.37	0.93	0.95	0.17
Q8	Examples	0.79	0.44	1.10	0.94	0.17
Q9	Examples	0.78	0.47	1.19	0.96	0.17
Q4	L1 Terms	0.71	0.64	1.60	0.84	0.15
Q6	L1 Terms	0.64	0.66	1.66	0.99	0.18
Q3	L1 Terms	0.71	0.71	1.78	0.92	0.17
Q2	L1 Terms	0.72	0.75	1.88	0.92	0.16
Q5	L1 Terms	0.80	0.76	1.91	0.94	0.17
Q1	L1 Terms	0.60	0.82	2.05	0.88	0.16

The results indicate that example questions were more difficult than translation ones; however, the overall difficulty level of the test was convergent. Moreover, the item analysis results revealed that all questions have a 'good' discrimination ability as all the discrimination values were above 0.3. This result suggests that the MKT can differentiate between students substantially. The results further exhibited a high homogeneity between the participants' gains as the low SD values indicate and high accuracy of the measurement represented by the minimal values of SE measurement. In the same vein, the item-analysis results for the second test, i.e. the GJT are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Item-analysis results of the MKT (sorted by difficulty).

Qid	Target	Type	Discrimination	Difficulty	Average	SD	SE
Q10	Article	Either/Or	0.14	0.21	0.21	0.41	0.07
Q15	verb form	Either/Or	0.24	0.23	0.24	0.43	0.07
Q9	verb form	Either/Or	0.04	0.38	0.39	0.5	0.08
Q6	adjectives	Either/Or	0.08	0.41	0.42	0.5	0.08
Q20	Adverbs	MCQ	0.26	0.46	0.47	0.51	0.09
Q22	Adverbs	MCQ	0.35	0.46	0.47	0.51	0.09
Q25	adjectives	MCQ	0.26	0.46	0.47	0.51	0.09
Q23	verb form	MCQ	0.24	0.51	0.52	0.51	0.09
Q7	verb form	Either/Or	0.31	0.54	0.54	0.51	0.09
Q4	Nouns	MCQ	0.23	0.59	0.59	0.50	0.08
Q12	Pronoun	Either/Or	0.33	0.59	0.59	0.50	0.08
Q17	Nouns	Either/Or	0.30	0.62	0.62	0.50	0.08
Q18	adjectives	MCQ	0.45	0.62	0.62	0.50	0.08
Q8	adjectives	Either/Or	0.32	0.64	0.65	0.49	0.08
Q16	Adverbs	Either/Or	0.23	0.64	0.65	0.49	0.08
Q21	Nouns	MCQ	0.18	0.64	0.65	0.49	0.08
Q1	pronouns	MCQ	0.32	0.72	0.72	0.46	0.08
Q24	pronouns	MCQ	0.49	0.72	0.72	0.46	0.08
Q14	Adverbs	Either/Or	0.44	0.77	0.77	0.43	0.07
Q3	Articles	MCQ	0.37	0.79	0.8	0.41	0.07
Q11	Nouns	Either/Or	0.16	0.79	0.8	0.41	0.07
Q13	Pronoun	Either/Or	0.27	0.79	0.8	0.41	0.07
Q19	Articles	MCQ	0.29	0.79	0.8	0.41	0.07
Q5	Articles	Either/Or	0.21	0.82	0.83	0.39	0.07
Q2	Nouns	MCQ	0.27	0.85	0.85	0.37	0.06

The results show no consistency in the problematic grammatical items tested. However, questions related to verb forms can be considered the most difficult ones. All the questions on this feature have difficulty values ranging between 0.24 and 0.54. The same can be stated about 'adjectives' whose difficulty values range between 0.41 and 0.64. Other grammatical points difficulty values varied greatly. Among the twenty-five questions, twenty-three were considered 'good' questions regarding their discrimination ability, while the remaining two were deemed to be 'fair'. The test results of the GJT were also tightly grouped around the average and accurate, as implied by the noticeable low values of SD and SE.

4.2 Overall Scores

As for the participants' overall scores, Table 3 reports the two tests' descriptive statistics.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics of the participants' scores on the two tests.

	MKT	GJT
Mean	19.05	16.16
Std. Error of Mean	0.33	0.37
Std. Deviation	3.71	4.08

The results show that students' performance at the MKT was higher than their performance at the GJT. They also demonstrate high measurement accuracy as represented by the low standard error of means. It can further be inferred that most of the scores are clustered around the average score suggesting homogeneity of the participants' performance.

To test the central hypothesis of the research, Pearson correlation was computed to assess the relationship between students' scores at the MKT and the GJT. The results are reported in Table 4.

Table 4. Pearson Coefficient of the MKT and the GJT.

		GJT	MKT
GJT	Pearson Correlation	1	0.436**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000
	N	124	124

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

From the results above, it was found that there was a positive correlation between the two variables, $r(122) = 0.44$, $p < 0.01$. This result suggests that the null hypothesis is rejected, and it can be inferred that there is a significant correlation between students' metalinguistic knowledge and their grammatical accuracy.

5. DISCUSSION

The present study investigated the correlation between students' metalinguistic knowledge and their grammatical accuracy. Metalinguistic knowledge was operationalized as students' comprehension of basic grammatical terms pertaining to word classes and forms. The research participants took two tests: MKT to test their metalinguistic knowledge and GJT to measure their grammatical accuracy. The results were generated by analyzing the two tests' discrimination, difficulty, standard deviation, and standard error values. Moreover, the Pearson correlation coefficient between the participants' scores on the two tests was computed to test the correlation between students' metalinguistic knowledge and grammatical accuracy.

The study's findings demonstrate different performances at the MKT and the GJT. Students' scores at the MKT were higher than their scores at the GJT. Though the difference was modest, i.e. around 12%, it indicates that the participants' knowledge of the grammatical term exceeded their ability to apply their knowledge to the actual use of language. This result implies that the students' knowledge of grammatical terms was not applied completely in producing well-formed grammatical structures though it may be a critical factor. In other words, students could comprehensively understand metalanguage as independent units, but when it come to uptake or implementing this knowledge on real language production, specific aspects of their knowledge were not implemented.

This result supports evidence found by previous research (e.g. Basturkmen et al., 2002), which found an insignificant correlation between metalanguage used and students' uptake in teachers'-initiated focus on form. It also supports the findings of Alipour (2014), which suggested that the students' metalinguistic knowledge did not entail success in producing general grammatical points. Though this result is not novel and supports previous literature, it should be considered cautiously. The reason for this is that it may be due to the type of questions used in the metalinguistic test, especially the L1-equivalent matching questions. Even though this type of question can provide insight into students' knowledge of the grammatical terms, simply translating the term to Arabic does not mean understanding the linguistic and semantic properties of the words represented by the term. However, these questions were suitable per se as they were used to test students' current state of metalinguistic knowledge not the application of this knowledge or the uptake.

The study also revealed that the student's knowledge of metalanguage was invariable, and their grammatical accuracy was to a considerable extent consistent. This result meets the expectation as the students were homogenous in terms of their education levels and linguistic experience. However, the finding contradicts some previous studies, e.g. Alderson et al. (1997), that found significantly varying levels of metalinguistic knowledge among students. The research sample size might be a reasonable interpretation of this finding as Alderson et al. (1997) conducted their study on a larger sample (n = 509), which might cause more significant variation between the participants.

The most significant finding of this study is that there was a significant positive correlation between students' metalinguistic knowledge and their grammatical accuracy. These results fit with the common belief that explicit grammatical instruction involving a clear explanation of terms would help develop students' grammatical accuracy. In this vein, researchers provided various justifications, such as providing more effective ways for learning the language (Schleppegrell, 2013), developing learner autonomy (Ellis, 2016), and supporting learners' cognitive development (Harun et al., 2017).

Many previous studies also yielded similar results, e.g. Schleppegrell (2013), Alipour (2014), and Roshan and Elhami (2016). However, other studies found no or weak correlation between metalinguistic knowledge and grammatical accuracy, (e.g. Alderson et al., 1997; Basturkmen et al., 2002), while other researchers claim that metalanguage can further be a burden on students (Ellis, 2016) and is less useful for language learning (Hu, 2010). However, even the studies that found no correlation between metalanguage use and grammatical proficiency recognized the valuable role of metalanguage in fostering learning grammar. The value assumed is represented in language accuracy rather than proficiency (Steel & Alderson, 1994) and metalanguage is believed effective for organizing learning grammar and developing learners' autonomy (Ellis, 2016).

The correlation between metalinguistic knowledge and grammar accuracy is represented clearly in the students' performance on some grammatical points. For example, 'verb forms' were one of the problematic features to be identified correctly in the GJT. Similarly, most students failed to answer MKT questions related to 'infinitive, gerund, and past participle'. Notwithstanding, most cases, e.g. articles, singular and plural forms, and possessive case, do not show a significant relationship between the participant's performance in the two tests. This can be adopted to justify the medium correlation between MKT and GJT scores since the value of 0.44 does not imply a strong correlation. In other words, this correlation can only be yielded when computing the correlation between the overall scores. When comparing students' performance on the grammatical terms and their work on the relevant GJT tests, the correlation is not noticed clearly as the participants' scores on some grammatical points were low while their scores at the related points in the MKT were high and vice versa. Consequently, the limitations of this study should be taken into account. These limitations are represented in the sample size and lack of diversity. Results of students' performance regarding each metalanguage point can be obtained by matching difficulty values scores from Table 1 with the corresponding question as displayed in Appendix A. Further, the results of the corresponding grammatical points are displayed in Table 2.

The results of this study imply the significance of metalanguage in improving the grammatical accuracy of EFL learners. However, this knowledge should be considered an assistant factor in developing learners' grammar. This is mainly implied by the fact that students' performance at the MKT was higher than their work on the GJT. Furthermore, while a positive correlation was found between the students' performance on the two tests, this correlation was only moderate.

6. CONCLUSION

The use of metalanguage in teaching is the core point investigated in this research. This issue has been discussed in a wide range for decades. However, no equal research interest was provided to it. Therefore, the researcher aimed at revisiting the issue and measured the EFL learners' knowledge of metalanguage and its relationship to their grammatical accuracy. Utilizing an MKT and a GJT, the researcher collected quantitative data and analyzed them through the Blackboard item-analysis tool and SPSS software.

The study results revealed that students' knowledge of metalanguage was high. However, it is not reflected in an equal linguistic performance by the participants. Still, a significant correlation between metalinguistic knowledge and grammatical accuracy was spotted. The correlation was moderate and could be realized at the overall score level. The results imply that despite implementing different teaching methods that focus on communication and socio-cultural aspects, the importance of explicit grammatical teaching is undeniable. It further necessitates introducing students to metalanguage to inform their grammar learning. However, it should be acknowledged that the knowledge of metalanguage does not necessarily mean development in all grammatical features and aspects. Accordingly, elaborated teaching strategies that guarantee the application of such knowledge to the actual language use should be developed and implemented. This can be achieved by continuously applying grammatical concepts to authentic sentence production, explaining rules based on the linguistic components, and introducing terms for sentence forms and structure.

Future research should utilize a larger sample to eliminate possible limitations that might be present in the current study. These studies should also be conducted on a longitudinal basis with frequent checkpoints to investigate the effect of metalanguage-based teaching strategies on language teaching. Moreover, experimental research is more suitable for measuring metalanguage's impact on grammatical performance, especially when control groups are used. A suggested area for future research would be investigating what features of grammar can benefit from the knowledge of metalanguage and what cannot. In other words, research that answers the question of what areas of grammar would metalanguage develop and in what ways.

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APPENDIX A.

Metalinguistic Knowledge Test

Metalanguage Knowledge Test

SheetID: …… …… ………..

P1: Match each term to its Arabic meaning

Q1	Term	Arabic Term		Arabic
1	Spelling			قواعد نحو
2	Present			تهجئة
3	Grammar			حاضر
4	Future			ماضي
5	Past			مستقبل

Q2	English	Arabic		Arabic
1	Affirmative			ملكية
2	Negative			نفي
3	interrogative			إثبات
4	Phrase			استفهام
5	Statement			عبارة

Q3	Term	Arabic Term		Arabic
1	Subject			مفرد
2	Object			جمع
3	Singular			فاعل
4	Plural			مفعول به
5	Phrase			عبارة

Q4	Term	Arabic		Arabic
1	Word			حرف
2	Morpheme			وحدة صرفية
3	Sentence			كلمة
4	Letter			شبه جملة
5	Clause			جملة

Q5	Term	Arabic Term		Arabic
1	Pronoun			أداة نكرة
2	Main verb			اسم
3	Adverb			ضمير
4	Noun			فعل تام
5	Indefinite article			ظرف/ حال

Q6	Term	Arabic		Arabic
1	Modal verb			صفة
2	Preposition			حرف عطف
3	Adjective			فعل شرطي
4	Auxiliary verb			فعل مساعد
5	Conjunction			حرف جر

P2: Match Each Term to its example

Q7	Term	Example		Examples
1	Past verb			to teach
2	Gerund			teaching
3	Infinitive			who
4	Past participle			went
5	Relative pronoun			spoken

Q8	Term	Example		Examples
1	Singular noun			dictionary
2	Plural noun			children
3	Subject pronoun			we
4	Object pronoun			us
5	Possessive adjective			our

Q9	Term	Example		Examples
1	Adjective			an
2	Adverb			well
3	Indefinite article			good
4	Preposition			with
5	Definite article			the

Q10	Term	Example		Examples
1	Modal verb			must
2	conjunction			have
3	Interjection			but
4	Main verb			Oops!
5	Auxiliary verb			help

Appendix B

Grammaticality Judgement Test

Part A. Decide if each of the following sentences is correct [C] or incorrect [IC].

1. Don't through out of the window empty cups. [.........]
2. My brother is three year old than me. [.........]
3. A cat is said to have 9 lifes. [.........]
4. I live in Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. [.........]
5. I burnt me in the hot pan. [.........]
6. I rung the bell six times. [.........]
7. She has been working there until long time. [.........]
8. I did a lot of homework last night. [.........]
9. He called his family on Friday. [.........]
10. The sun rises in the east and set in the west. [.........]
11. Everyone are dreaming of better future. [.........]
12. She is very beautiful than her sister. [.........]
13. He badly needs to pass the exam. [.........]

Part B: Choose the word that makes the sentence correct.

1. Who said that? (she did – her did)
2. I have some important (information – informations) for you.
3. I met (a – an) woman who told me that you were here.
4. Fahd's (was – been) living here for 3 years.
5. He played very (good – well) last night.
6. A *milk chocolate* is .... (a kind of milk / a kind of chocolate.)
7. She is a great (actor – actress).
8. Both children have .... (their own – themselves) rooms.
9. She likes biology, she will be (a – the) doctor.
10. Stop (talk – talking) and listen to me.
11. I think that fish you caught is still (live – alive).
12. I love McDonalds! I (especially like – like especially) cheeseburger

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The Challenges and Strategies of Islamic School Mentor Teachers in Implementing ELT Lesson Plans

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Abstract

The availability of the lesson plans as organized guidance for teachers is critical in achieving the objectives of English Language Teaching (ELT) in policy decisions, curriculum planning, and classroom implementations. However, it is unavoidable if teachers experience difficulties generating lesson plans, necessitating specific strategies to deal with the situation. This study aims to examine the challenges faced by state Islamic secondary school English mentor teachers in implementing lesson plans and the strategies they utilized to overcome those challenges. This study employed a qualitative research design utilizing data purposively gathered from the semi-structured interviews involving five English school mentor teachers from State Islamic Secondary School No. 4 in Banda Aceh. The findings revealed that teachers' most significant challenges in implementing lesson plans were time constraints, format changes, administrative burdens, and students' lack of interest. The study also found out that attending the MGMP (Musyawarah Guru Mata Pelajaran, or the Teachers Professional Development Forum), using a guidebook, asking for advice from colleagues, and using the internet as a learning resource are common strategies the teachers used in overcoming their challenges. It is expected that the impact of this study provides a practical and critical reflection to develop a more realistic and workable ELT lesson plan implementation for mentor teachers amidst their demanding roles and increased administrative responsibilities. This study also recommends that

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university/faculty administrators and lecturers be more attentive to courses related to lesson plan design, such as English Curriculum Design, English Course Design, and Micro Teaching.

Keywords: Challenges, Islamic school, lesson plan, mentor teacher, strategies.

1. INTRODUCTION

The teaching and learning process is recognized as the interface between teachers, students, and learning resources or study materials in education, particularly English Language Teaching (ELT). Learning, according to Wilson and Peterson (2006), is the ability to adapt and enhance resources, develop and assess courses, and acquaint teachers with the needs of students. The first stage in teaching is to create a study plan, also known as a lesson plan. In ELT, the lesson plan is essential because it allows language teachers to balance curriculum success and long-term sustainability (Daoud, 2019). Fernandez (2002) states that the origins of the lesson plan can be traced back to Japan in early 1900. At that time, teachers gathered to discuss the teaching plan in-depth and then witness it in the classroom. Hollingsworth and Oliver (2005) mention that when the lesson plan was successful in Japan, other countries followed suit, such as the United States of America in 1993.

In every education system, a syllabus is structured by a curriculum, and it guides teachers in creating a lesson plan. Without the curriculum and the syllabus, teachers cannot design a lesson plan (Musingafi et al., 2015). As Wahyuni (2016) explains, a curriculum has a variety of learning objectives and several courses and instructional tools. Some courses and curricula are more like lesson plans, with detailed information on how to implement a course. As a result, a lesson plan can be created based on the information provided in the curriculum.

The curriculum is thought to have been initially implemented in Indonesia in 1947, following the country's independence. Wahyuni (2016) observes that the Indonesian national educational curriculum was revised multiple times, in 1947, 1952, 1968, 1975, 1984, 1994, 2004, 2006, and 2013. All of these Indonesian national curricula are based on *Pancasila's* national philosophy and the State Constitution of 1945. Teachers are more likely to encounter challenges while developing and implementing lesson plans as a result of these changes.

Several studies have attempted to explain teachers' difficulties in implementing lesson plans. Some examine the difficulties that student-teachers encounter; for instance, Akmal et al. (2019) say that time management is a common issue that student-teachers have when implementing a lesson plan. As we all know, time plays a significant role in academic success. However, the findings of the study revealed that not all student-teachers use their time effectively.

Amanati (2017) finds that one of the teachers in her study did not follow the lesson plans that were prepared in advance. The teacher explicitly wrote the time allocation in the lesson plans. However, in reality, it was challenging for her to stick with time allocation in the lesson plans. In a similar vein, Jasmi (2014) reveals that some teachers spent their time in ways that are not in accordance with the lesson plans. This is because teachers did not have enough time to construct their lesson plans under the framework outlined in Indonesia's Curriculum 2013. It was discovered that teachers frequently use online lesson plans and then modify them to meet the needs of their students. Uppal (2011) discovers that the majority of the teachers admitted to using the internet to help design lesson plans. They use the computer and the internet to look for lesson plan samples and best practices. Some even go beyond lesson plans by considering their students' voices and perceptions to improve lesson plans and modified teaching instruments (Ubit, 2017).

Some studies have stressed the ongoing discussion on the implementation of the lesson plans in the school curriculum in the Indonesian Muslim environment. Qoyyimah (2018), for example, concentrates on the implementation of comparative aspects between public schools and Islamic private secondary schools in East Java but overlooks the Islamic state/public secondary schools curriculum in their study. On the contrary, Said and Yusof (2014) have thoroughly examined the implementation of Curriculum 2013 for English teaching in state Islamic secondary schools by using the Delphi questionnaires to collect the data and focus on the curriculum rather than the lesson plans.

In a study conducted by Syamdianita and Cahyono (2021), they discovered pre-service teachers' experiences and obstacles in designing teaching materials in East Kalimantan, Indonesia. In the study, the use of the TPACK (Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge) framework and Learning by Design (LBD) was the center of their study. Their findings showed a significant positive change due to combining application and technological support. However, this study did not address the actual challenges and strategies associated with traditionally designing lesson plans, which teachers in various parts of Indonesia continue to struggle with.

Nuraeni and Heryatun (2021) attempt to describe how pre-service English teachers might improve their professional skills by using reflective practice methodologies during teaching practicum. In their study, pre-service English teachers promote reflective recollection, action-reflection, and mentoring as effective methods for developing their teaching models. The earlier studies stressed the need for a more profound study on teacher experiences, challenges, and strategies in developing instructional materials. However, the mentor-teacher perspective is lacking, which is crucial to student-teacher development.

In light of those studies and the need to understand mentor teachers' perspectives on implementing lesson plans, this study formulated two main research questions: (1) what challenges do the state Islamic secondary school English mentor teachers face in implementing lesson plans? (2) what are the strategies they utilized to overcome those challenges? Thus, the objectives of this study are to find answers to the abovementioned research questions: scrutinizing challenges faced by the Islamic secondary school English mentor teachers in implementing lesson plans and dissecting the strategies they used to overcome the challenges.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Mentoring in ELT

In ELT, a mentoring program is necessary for developing mentor teachers, student teachers (mentees), and institutions. These components (mentor teachers, mentees, and institutions) are central to creating an effective mentoring program in ELT contexts. The goal of a mentoring program and teaching practicum in English language teaching is to promote self-reflection and autonomous learning (Smith & Lewis, 2015), to have deep teaching comprehension and ability (Islam, 2020), to facilitate professional development (Smith & Lewis, 2018), and to serve as an exploratory practice for student teachers (Dogan et al., 2016). Equally important, Aydın and Ok (2020) and Tanjung et al. (2021) point out that models for improved collaboration between mentoring components are among the most critical factors in addressing the program's challenges and deficiencies.

Mentor teachers are mostly senior teachers at schools assigned to supervise student teachers in their school practicum. They are required to deliver good role models in terms of attitudes, behaviors, and values as real teachers in and out of the classrooms during student teachers' teaching practicum (Phang et al., 2020). For mentor teachers, mentoring ELT student teachers during teaching practicum is beneficial in continuing their professional development and identity (Holland, 2018; Shanks et al., 2020). Khojah and Asif (2020) highlight the importance of mentoring for mentor teachers to focus on concrete demonstration and deconstruction of their teaching methods and practices.

In addition, student teachers (Çankaya, 2018; Uerz et al., 2018), also popularly known as novice teachers (Dvir & Schatz-Oppenheimer, 2020; Klassen et al., 2018), teacher candidates (McGee, 2019; Voss & Kunter, 2020), would be teachers (Ricohermoso et al., 2019; Yusof, 2017), or pre-service teachers (List, 2019; Scott et al., 2018), are university students who are practicing or studying to be a teacher, observe classroom instruction and closely supervised by their experienced or certified mentor teachers during teaching practicum in elementary or secondary schools as a requirement for a degree in education. ELT student teachers can profound their experiences during the mentoring and teaching practicum to deal with initial shocks and cultural differences, design better classroom management, have an improved pedagogical competence and readiness, and develop better communication in the classrooms with students (Akmal et al., 2019; Simons et al., 2020; Tambyah, 2019). The most significant impact the mentoring program may have on student teachers, as mentioned by Arslan and Ilin (2018), is that teaching practicum can provide the awareness of teaching-related issues in real contexts, where theories they learned from universities can be bridged with the practical school environment.

Institutions, particularly schools and universities, also benefit from ELT mentoring programs. In their study, Grimmett et al. (2018) identify that schools' and universities' partnership can improve their learning spaces for all components involved in the program. As Gravett and Ramsaroop (2017) suggest, schools can become an education laboratory in a way that entails a considerate take of intelligible teaching practicum and positive reflection on the existing teaching and learning process. Similarly, universities can improve their coordination mechanism with schools and student teachers and enhance their overall planning, training, and school and mentor selection (Gjedia & Gardinier, 2018). Carpenter and Blance (2007) add that teacher education faculties and universities will be able to strengthen their reputation through internships and mentoring programs for pre-service teachers.

2.2 Mentor Teachers: Responsibilities and Challenges

In practice, mentor teachers must balance their responsibilities with the difficulties and strategies they encountered during their teaching practicum. A good educator is not necessarily a good mentor (Ambrosetti, 2014). Facilitative roles and a willingness to promote inclusive teaching environments for student teachers are crucial (Maddamsetti, 2018). In a study conducted by Holland (2018), identity, support, solidarity, engagement, and interaction of mentor teachers are important for student-teacher participants. Advice and teaching techniques and comprehensive school and social awareness can be valuable assets that student teachers acquire from their mentor teachers (Mutlu & Dollar, 2018).

Andreasen et al. (2019) found that the characteristics of a good mentor teacher include school climate, personal conviction, and university collaboration. These are challenges associated with establishing quality standards for mentor teachers. In addition to a lack of professional and pedagogical knowledge, mentor teachers are currently facing a number of obstacles (Albakri et al., 2021). In addition, the planning and implementation phases of practicum, as well as its length, are widely mentioned as challenges (Aydın & Ok, 2022). Likewise, Kourieos (2019) explains that one of the most persistent issues in mentoring is the educational system's inability to provide participants with meaningful outcomes. Other research reveals the increasing tension between mentor teachers and student teachers, the conflict between mentors and supervisors, administrative responsibilities, and management issues (Graham, 1997; O'Brien et al., 2020).

2.3 Lesson Plans

A lesson plan is a collection of teaching methods that assist teachers in determining what they want to teach and how they will teach it (Villagran & Grinberg, 2019). When organizing a class, there are two key terms to remember: 'what' and 'how'. These questions can help teachers figure out what they should do before beginning to organize a lesson. As a result, a lesson plan can be valuable to teachers. Jensen and Ottesen (2022) believe that a lesson plan is beneficial and can serve as a structuring tool or mechanism because it includes a solid mix of resources, student populations, instructor reflection, texts, methodologies, and goals. A teacher should be aware that a lesson plan is more than just a note; it also contains detailed information on the activities carried out in class with specific objectives. In other words, the lesson plans reflect how lessons are delivered and the teachers' ideas of what constitutes an effective lesson plan.

Conferring to Harmer (2007), a lesson plan is a teacher's preparation that includes the teachers' ideas on teaching and learning activities based on the curriculum and syllabus. The preparation can be defined as all the plans for teaching and learning activities to attain particular objectives based on curriculum and syllabus. As a result, teachers must consider the students' needs and interests when devising a lesson plan. A lesson plan, as defined by Spratt et al. (2011), is a teacher's directive that specifies what resources to use and how to teach them to the students in the classroom. The lesson includes the materials that will be presented to the students and the methods and strategies that will be used to teach the materials. It should include the resources that students require and the teachers' methods and strategies to ensure that the materials are given effectively to the students.

Robertson and Acklam (2000) stress that multiple factors contribute to the importance of lesson planning for teachers. First and foremost, some form of planning will demonstrate the teacher's professionalism. Professional teachers with well-organized lessons will be viewed more favorably by students (Jones, 2000). This is because the lesson plans focus on what the teachers want the pupils to learn and how they will learn it. Second, teachers can tailor their educational activities to the needs of their students. Teachers will have more opportunities to select acceptable materials to teach in their classes if they plan the lesson ahead of time. Finally, Robertson and Acklam (2000) claim that by organizing the lesson, a teacher might anticipate potential problems in the classroom and know how to address them.

2.4 Considerations in Implementing Lesson Plans

The implementation of the CBC (Competency-Based Curriculum) in 2006 necessitates time for teachers in Indonesia to adapt to the Curriculum 2013. When Curriculum 2013 was initiated in July 2013, one of the issues teachers faced was adjusting to the changes in Curriculum 2013; as asserted by Gani et al. (2017), the new Curriculum 2013 caused certain changes in the lesson plans. However, Jasmi (2014) proposes that teachers must first be familiar with the curriculum to create a successful lesson plan. Therefore, teachers may find it difficult to construct and implement lesson plans during the adjustment period.

Furthermore, according to Kibret (2016), when planning a class, a teacher must consider the particular learning needs of each student. By employing externally generated feedback data on students' performance, teachers should base instructional decisions on their performance data. This feedback data demonstrates students' accomplishments and informs teachers about how students have met learning objectives and educational standards.

According to Fernandez (2002), a group of Japanese instructors met in groups to evaluate, discuss, observe, and learn from their daily work to create a strong lesson plan and effective teaching and learning activities. However, according to Mon et al. (2016) some teachers perceived peer observation of their teaching as a challenge. Educational officials also routinely observed teachers, but they still felt uneasy when their classes were being observed.

As previously stated, some teachers experienced anxiety when their lessons were being monitored. It was caused, according to Mon et al. (2016), by a lack of teaching knowledge and teachers' confidence. The teachers who lack teaching knowledge and confidence tend to feel shy and uncomfortable while participating in the discussion of the lesson plans. In short, it affected their participation and became passive.

In her study, Jasmi (2014) revealed that teachers did not have enough time to design their own lesson plans according to the format outlined in Curriculum 2013. Teachers frequently use internet-based lessons then modify them to the need of their students. She also mentioned that some teachers did not get any training in implementing the lesson plans of Curriculum 2013. Thus, it might cause the teachers difficult to understand its implementation.

Teachers struggled to create assessments for the Curriculum 2013 because there are so many rubrics for assessment that it took them longer to grasp (Natsir et al., 2018). Furthermore, on the assessment, teachers must analyze not only the cognitive components but also the psychomotor and affective aspects, notably in the Curriculum 2013 (Gani et al., 2017). Gani et al. (2017) and Natsir et al. (2018) find that in Banda Aceh, some teachers struggled to develop lesson plans based on the Curriculum 2013.

Teachers have a responsibility to create a lesson plan aligned with the curriculum. If the teachers run into problems while developing the lesson plan, they can seek advice from other teachers to help them solve the problem. It will be easier because the teacher will be able to ask and share information with other teachers and from anywhere in the school. Therefore, it is believed that by discussing the problems, teachers will be able to overcome the challenges in planning and implementing the lesson plan (Miloslavsky et al., 2017).

3. METHODS

This study employed a qualitative design to elicit participant insights. To facilitate a clearer comprehension of the data, we conducted semi-structured interviews with five MTsN 4 participants (State Islamic Junior High School No.4 Banda Aceh). The decision regarding which school to attend was based on the institution's relatively positive learning environment and culture. Moreover, the school was more than willing to assist external researchers, as evidenced by its prompt responses and permission to collect the data. Data were purposefully chosen to represent their role and responsibility concerning the subject of this study. They consisted of the school's principal, the school deputy for curriculum affairs, and three mentor teachers teaching the first, second, and third year students.

Some points of consideration for participants' selection were their status, roles and responsibilities, mentoring and teaching experience, and academic titles (see Table 1). The school principal was a very senior female teacher. She had been teaching for more than 20 years, mentoring student-teacher more than ten times, and had completed her master's degree in Islamic Education. The school deputy of curriculum affairs was the third most-experienced teacher. She had been teaching for more than 15 years. The first-year students' mentor teacher was the second oldest teacher, had been teaching for more than 15 years, had been involved in more than ten mentoring programs, and had gained her Bachelor's degree in Education. The second-year students' mentor teacher oversaw more than five times mentoring programs, had been teaching for more than 10 years, and gained her first degree in Education. She was the youngest and the least experienced mentor teacher among all participants. The third-year students' mentor teacher was the second youngest mentor teacher, and she had been teaching for 13 years. She gained her first degree in Islamic Education and has participated in mentoring programs more than 10 times.

To summarize, the participants share some similarities. All participants were females with a permanent teacher or civil servant status. In most schools in the region, female teachers and school principals, including assistant principals, are more prevalent than their male counterparts, who appear to be less interested in teaching-related positions. Except for the school's deputy for curriculum matters, all participants were graduates of the Faculty of Education and Teacher Training at Unviersitas Islam Negeri Ar-Raniry, Banda Aceh.

Table 1. Research participants' profiles.

P	Gender	Status	Roles	Mentoring experiences	Teaching experiences	Title
P1	Female	Permanent teacher	School principal	More than 10 times	20 years	M.Ag.
P2	Female	Permanent teacher	School deputy of curriculum affairs	More than 10 times	15 years	S.Ag.
P3	Female	Permanent teacher	Mentor teacher for first-year student	More than 10 times	20 years	Dra.
P4	Female	Permanent teacher	Mentor teacher for a second-year student	More than 5 times	10 years	S.Pd.
P5	Female	Permanent teacher	Mentor teacher for third-year student	More than 3 times	13 years	S.Pd.I.

The purposive sampling technique was used because we only interviewed participants who were willing to participate in this study (Hamied, 2017). Etikan et al. (2016) further explain that the purposive sampling technique is useful for providing data variety. The five participants agreed to sign the consent form, and their names were confidentially coded. We coded the school principal as Participant 1 (P1), the school deputy for curriculum affairs as Participant 2 (P2), first-year (Grade 7) mentor teacher as Participant 3 (P3), second-year (Grade 8) mentor teacher as Participant 4 (P4), and third-year (Grade 9) mentor teacher as Participant 5 (P5).

In conducting the interviews, we prepared a list of questions to ask about teachers' challenges in implementing lesson plans and the strategy they used to resolve them. We used an interview protocol for participants consisting of overall 17 questions. The questions revolve around their teaching and mentoring experiences, roles, and responsibility as mentor teachers, differences between the constantly changing curriculums and lesson plan formats, the profound reflection of challenges in the mentoring program, and strategies in dealing with those challenges that could hinder the mentoring programs.

The following interview procedure was arranged to facilitate a better data collection mechanism. First, the participants were asked about their willingness and consent to participate in the study. Once they agreed, we arranged the interview accordingly to their convenience, taking into account their already packed and tight school schedules. Second, the one-on-one interview duration took approximately between 45-60 minutes in their office with audio recording upon the interviewee's approval; otherwise, we took note of their comments and explanations. Third, the interview sessions ended with clarifications on some confidential notes, if any. In this part, participants were given time to check back on their comments, should any of the remarks were indicatively improper or were not allowed to be published. Fourth, the interview audio recordings and notes were transcribed accordingly before proceeding with data analysis and coding.

The data were then analyzed by using qualitative coding. Cope (2010) defines coding in qualitative research to have three main purposes; data reduction, organization and the creation of finding aids, and analysis. First, coding was used to reduce the amount of data. The data was condensed by grouping it into smaller packages based on the topic, the characteristics of participants, or other aspects of the research content. Therefore, by reducing the data, we could manage the data better and focused on the content. Second, coding is useful for creating an organized and searchable framework. This method, however, made it easier for us to locate certain information. Last but not least, coding was done for analysis. Coding began with basic codes derived from the research question, background literature, and categories and that as time went on, the codes became more interpretive in nature, resulting in patterns and correlations. We transcribed the data from the interview and reviewed the transcript thoroughly to provide some overall sense of information like general thoughts expressed by the participants. We then analyzed the data to come up with numerous ideas and themes. Teachers' experiences in developing lesson plans were elaborated.

4. RESULTS

The results of this study are reported under two main themes; mentor teacher challenges in implementing lesson plans, and strategies in resolving those challenges.

4.1 Mentor Teacher's Challenges in Designing Lesson Plans

4.1.1 Time limitation

The majority of instructors' responses suggested that they had limited time to prepare for classes. This was partly because the mentor teachers had a lot of classroom hours and were overburdened with additional administrative tasks. One of the teacher's challenges in developing this lesson plan was the time constraints. The following are some of the teachers' responses:

E1: But for me, the problem is about time. A lot of teaching hours are charged to the teachers. At the same time, the teachers also have other obligations outside the class, such as creating daily test questions and examinations, checking student assignments and examinations, etc. Therefore, in the end, the teachers only have very little time to think about the lesson plan. (P1)

Similarly, another participant (P2) shared the same opinion:

E2: All teachers also feel the thing that I feel and this is about time. We have a lot of teaching responsibility which is 24 hours per week. We do not only teach in one class but many classes. The teachers also have other non-teaching obligations, such as making examination questions and daily tests as well, and again having to check the assignments or homework of the students. The teachers do it all by themselves. So, there will be so little time to make the lesson plan, but there are many lesson plans that have to be made. Sometimes, on school holidays we do these lesson plans, even though we also need rest. (P2)

Furthermore, the teachers' excessive workload contributes to the time constraint, as shown in the following response from P3:

E3: The teachers ever told me maybe the problem for the teachers is too many teachers administration. The teaching hours are also full, but the lesson plans are obligated for the teachers at the beginning of the new school year. (P3)

Another teacher (P5), for example, admitted:

E4: Usually, what makes it difficult is the limitation of time. Because, as we know, the teachers have been obligated to teach for certain hours per week. They also have to do a lot of administrative duties, so the time to make the lesson plans becomes limited. (P5)

The majority of the teachers stated that they only had a limited amount of time to arrange the class. Due to these commitments, teachers' time was spent not just in the classroom but also on other classroom-related activities outside of the classroom, such as checking students' assignments and developing examination questions for daily and semester tests. The teachers were unable to construct their lesson plans as a result of this. Consequently, teachers attempted to cope with the problem by simply copying lesson plans.

4.1.2 Format changes

In Indonesia, numerous curricula have been introduced. Many teachers may require more time to acclimate to the constantly changing curriculum. This inevitably confused teachers because the format of the lesson plans constantly changed. According to the teachers' replies, the changes in format in the lesson plan could be a big stumbling block for them. Aside from the format differences, the learning method differs from one curriculum to the other. The teachers revealed the following:

E5: The difference initially confuses us as teachers because there are so many curriculum changes, especially if the changing of government will consequently change the curriculum later. It does have some similarities with the previous ones, but what makes it different is the terms, and also the changing format. (P4)

Furthermore, another teacher added:

E6: The changing format sometimes continues to be very confusing. I used to remember that when the curriculum changed from KTSP (*Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan* or Educational Unit Level, well known as Curriculum 2006) to Curriculum 2013, for those of us who were older, it became dizzy, even though until now, it has been revised up to the Curriculum 2017. (P2)

Similarly, another teacher expressed the same feeling:

E7: The curriculum, from the time I first taught until now, has changed a lot. As a result, it affects the lesson plans. Lots of reading about changes and guidelines for understanding new terms in this lesson plan. So because there are too many, sometimes we as teachers do not read and understand everything. The lesson plan continues to develop and change both in terms and its form. That can be confusing. Even though we are old, we have taught for decades; sometimes it is hard to focus only on this lesson plan. (P3)

Teachers needed to adapt to the new style of the lesson plans. To create an efficient lesson plan, teachers must first become familiar with the curriculum, which took some time. According to a teacher:

E8: Yes, I keep using lesson plans while teaching, but maybe not all of it. Of course, the lesson plan is obligated for each teacher because it is one requirement. It can be said as an administrative matter only. (P1)

In addition, another teacher noted that:

E9: It can be said that the lesson plan is defined as a guideline. But I don't bring this thick RPP (*Rencana Pelaksanaan Pembelajaran* or Lesson Plans) into the class. I still have my own notes, so everything is written there. (P5)

Some teachers admitted that they did not carry the printed lesson plans into the classroom with them when they taught. Only their own notes regarding what they would do in class were used. As a result, people tend to believe that the lesson plans were created solely to fulfill a school requirement that was imposed on all subject teachers. Furthermore, one of the teachers stated that the lesson plans were merely a school administrative problem. The most important factor was that the teaching and learning activities went well and that the materials were delivered to the students.

4.1.3 Lack of students' enthusiasm

The lack of excitement among the students has resulted in a far from perfect implementation of the instructional plan. Motivating students is typically difficult for teachers, and the participants in this study noted how this type of meeting might have most of the pupils in the class to be quite passive, then it became even more difficult to implement the lesson plans completely. According to a teacher:

E10: But, even though we design the lesson plans well, it is doubted to be able to be implemented in the class well. For example, in the lesson plan, all the activities and the time were written, but in the application, in the class, it was not necessarily the same, the students could not understand the material so it still had to be discussed at the next meeting. So, the children's level of understanding can be an obstacle when implementing this lesson plan. Then, many children are passive. So it is difficult, then the application is not following the lesson plan (P1).

Then, another teacher added:

E11: But sometimes in designing this lesson plan, even though it has been well prepared, not all of it will be appropriate when implemented in class because not all students are active. (P3)

However, the teacher also expressed that:

E12: The lesson plan implementation here is quite difficult because of the lack of students' competences and motivation. It cannot be forced and it cannot entirely be implemented based on what has been written. The most important thing is the students know about the materials, and they can understand the teachers. But, as I said before, it is only a plan. (P5)

The findings of this study also demonstrated that the students' lack of motivation hampered the teachers' ability to construct a lesson plan. The majority of students in the target school did not participate actively in class during the teaching and learning activities. As a result, the teachers concentrated more on delivering the contents to capture the attention and understanding of the students. It is also suggested that teachers use a variety of tactics to encourage pupils to participate actively in classroom activities. In short, to anticipate this kind of encounter, when a teacher plans a lesson, they normally think about it before teaching. Otherwise, performance generally occurs in the classroom while the teacher implements the lesson plan.

4.2 Mentor Teacher's Strategies in Resolving Challenges of Lesson Plan Implementation

4.2.1 Attending the MGMP (Musyawarah Guru Mata Pelajaran, or the Teachers Professional Development Forum)

Teachers agreed that the MGMP (*Musyawarah Guru Mata Pelajaran*, or the Teachers Professional Development Forum) was beneficial in overcoming their difficulties in creating lesson plans. Teachers came together in this discussion to share their experiences in teaching various courses. It also contained a section on any difficulties they might have had in implementing the lesson plans throughout teaching and learning activities. Even though the MGMP did not always work, the instructor could confer with other teachers to help alleviate the problems. It could be simpler because the teacher could ask and share information with other teachers and from anywhere in the school. As a result, it was hoped that by consulting the obstacles, the teachers could overcome the difficulties in planning and implementing the lesson plans. Following that, the MGMP should continue to discuss and solve problems through discussions with colleague teachers in depth. Accordingly, the responses of the teachers are presented in the following excerpts:

E13: There is no special training about RPP ((*Rencana Pelaksanaan Pembelajaran* or Lesson Plans). If the teachers have a problem, I think if it is not a big one, they can solve it by themselves. However, the teachers also do other activities such as the MGMP (*Musyawarah Guru Mata Pelajaran*, or the Teachers Professional Development Forum) or teachers' discussions. If the teachers have a problem, they can discuss it there, and the problem in the lesson plan can be discussed together with other teachers.

Correspondingly, another teacher also uttered:

E14: Then, right now, there is the MGMP *(Musyawarah Guru Mata Pelajaran)* or Teachers Professional Development Forum. If there is any problem or difficulty in the lesson plan or another one, the teachers can discuss it. This is routine activity at certain times, but it is really useful for the teachers to solve problems. (P2)

The MGMP is a forum for teacher professional development and serves as a place for teachers to network and assist one another in improving capabilities based on their areas of expertise. This teacher forum's usual tasks include discussing curriculum, material development, and test or assessment to better understand the lesson plans and classroom action research. Based on the participants' replies, they agreed that the MGMP had helped them addressed their challenges in planning and implementing the lesson plans. It was in line with the World Bank study in 2010, which stated that the implementation of teachers' professional development has played a positive role in helping Indonesian teachers' professional learning activities.

However, nowadays, teachers are required to be more professional and they need intensive guidance and support to be able to achieve that goal. Giving teachers professional development is quite important since it will benefit developing teachers' competencies and skills in practical and instructional practices. The teacher may also attend training in addition to participating in the teachers' professional development forum. It is critical to support the teaching abilities of the teachers. During the training, the teachers can have the opportunity to discuss any pedagogical issues with the expert in a face-to-face discussion. The school principal, in collaboration with the school deputy for curriculum affairs, plays a key role in ensuring that these opportunities for teacher development are available. The principal of the current school under study claimed that the school had provided variety of professional development activities for teachers, such as having them to attend workshops, seminars, and conferences.

4.2.2 Using guide book and personal notebook

Teachers' complaints about constant curricular changes may cause confusion when planning lesson plans. The use of a guidebook, according to one participant, can assist them in solving this challenge. The teacher also drew up their notes as a reference book to create the lesson plan. The teacher argued in this case:

E15: The curriculum that keeps changing can confuse the teachers because the teachers have taught (using the curriculum at the time), but then it was changed again. Therefore, I already have my own guidebook. So, it is up to them how it will be changed, we keep teaching based on the needs. It is quite difficult for the teachers, even if we look at the term that are different between curriculums, but they actually mean the same. (P1)

The teachers with more than 20 years of experience in the classroom were able to handle their difficulties in creating lesson plans in the face of continual changes in the curriculum structure. They made notes, including the requirements and suggestions for building the lesson plans. Teaching experience was helpful to improve teaching abilities and the selection of teaching goals and lesson plans, as well as appropriate worksheets, assessments, media, and methodologies. In addition, one of them noted that:

E16: But for myself who has been teaching for 20 years, experiences can help. (P2)

In the same way, another response also explained that:

E17: But the teacher was also given an example of how to make the RPP, so it can be developed independently as long as it is following the syllabus and essentially the material can reach out to the students' notion. (P5)

4.2.3 Asking for someone's help to develop the lesson plans

The teachers stated that they had requested help creating the lesson plans. This happened when the teachers only had a short time available to arrange the lesson. According to one of them:

E18: Finally, it must also be helped by others because the school also requires it. So, finally, the results are not so optimal. (P3)

Another teacher expressed:

E19: Even if the difficulty exists, we can overcome it ourselves. If I will ask for help from students (who often change my teaching, too), we will discuss it later until the RPP is finished. (P4)

4.2.4 Using internet

At this time, the teachers could no longer afford to exclusively teach technology; they must also use it to increase students' grasp of the desired subject. Here is what a teacher shared:

E20: However, now everything is so easy, there is the internet. So it becomes easy. Everything can be searched there, and many websites post the lesson plan on the internet. (P3)

Likewise, another teacher shared the same opinion:

E21: There are no major problems or difficulties that the teachers face, so there is no special assistance from the school for this lesson plan's problem. Even if the constraints that I mentioned earlier existed, I can usually ask for help with this lesson plan; usually, there is an example from the internet, which needs to be changed. After all, there are also many examples of lesson plans that can be downloaded on the internet, so everything is easy. (P1)

The difficulties English mentor teachers faced in implementing lesson plans and how they dealt with them in state Islamic secondary schools are discussed in this article. Some might believe that the teachers faced difficulties during the implementation phase of a lesson plan. However, this study demonstrated that the problem existed even before the lesson plan was implemented. Teachers reported that such incidents were caused by a lack of time due to rigorous administrative tasks, continual curriculum changes in curriculum and formats, and the full teaching hours. These issues have demonstrated that legitimate justifications from mentor teachers should not be used to influence educational policy, particularly when it comes to curricular modifications and formats, which should be implemented with care and precision. Teachers' experiences and problems must be considered while introducing a new curriculum and changing the format, as they are the only significant aspect in the process, aside from students' and more general end users' opinions.

As the world embraces limitless means of communication in globalized education, one might need to think about the strategies of a more reflective method in preparing lesson plans. This is important in improving teachers' professional interaction and foreign language teaching and training. Another way is that we must accept that innovative culture must no longer be a luxury idea for the teachers' pedagogical development. Together with self-determination and strong international motivation, it can play an important role in developing lesson plans and teaching English.

5. DISCUSSION

The most common problem encountered by English teachers while implementing the lesson plans was the time limitation. Due to the time constraints, most participants believed that teachers had many responsibilities outside of classroom activities. This responsibility resulted in the instructors' time being used for teaching and activities outside of the classroom. The mentor teachers already had a full week of teaching ahead of them, but they also needed to organize the lessons in their spare time. Shanks et al. (2020) further found a similar problem; coping with a full teaching schedule in mentoring new teachers is not easy. Mentor teachers need to be adaptive and creative with their schedules to allow some space for their pre-service teachers (Sparks et al., 2017). As a result, as the findings of this study revealed, some teachers resort to copying lesson plans from the internet or hiring someone to prepare lesson plans for them. This finding is agreed by Jasmi (2014) who said that the teachers lacked sufficient time to develop lesson plans. They retrieved a sample lesson plan from the Internet and modified it based on the needs of the students.

Moreover, another encounter that the teachers found was adjusting curriculum changes. This problem demonstrated that the format changes of a particular curriculum caused teachers' confusion in developing lesson plans. Arslan (2018) highlights that although lesson plans are essential for providing teachers with concrete examples of teaching practice, their new formats can delay the mentoring process. If such occurrences occur, the pre-service teachers' class enactment phase cannot proceed, leaving mentor teachers with problems in the development phase (Coenders & Verhoef, 2019). Similarly, Gani et al. (2017) who researched the implementation of the lesson plans in Curriculum 2013, explained that the teachers needed to adapt to the new format of the lesson plans. Jasmi (2014) also states that to have an efficient lesson plan, teachers must first understand the curriculum.

The result of the study also reported that pre-service teachers' enthusiasm and lack of motivation became a challenge for the mentor teachers in developing the lesson plans. As Yusuf et al. (2015) argue, mentor teacher experiences are important to combat a lack of student enthusiasm, as their various modified teaching techniques can be influenced by their own past experiences. Gray et al. (2017) are among the researchers who have similarly noticed the same challenge. They discovered that the majority of pre-service students assigned by the university to teach in the target school did not participate actively in class during teaching and learning activities, displayed unprofessional conduct, and lacked enthusiasm for mentoring. It also suggested that the mentor teachers can vary the strategies to make the students participate actively in the class. The mentor teachers also need to avoid the old student-centered method, such as one-way lecturing to address the lack of enthusiasm and motivation. To this end, mentor teachers also need to receive ongoing training and preparation before the mentoring program starts (Sowell, 2017).

Attending the MGMP, or *Musyawarah Guru Mata Pelajaran*, also known as Teachers Professional Development Forum on Subject Matter, is believed to help the teachers solve their problems in teaching since this forum always discusses teachers' experiences in teaching, including lesson plan problems. Gani et al. (2017) notice that the MGMP is a discussion forum for teachers that can increase their knowledge about many things in education. The teachers in the MGMP usually share and discuss their teaching experiences with other English teachers about the curriculum, lesson plans, and teaching methods (Apsari, 2018). This MGMP is a routine activity for the teachers. Thus, this forum can assist teachers in overcoming their challenges in developing the lesson plans.

Furthermore, based on the data, some participants were able to use the guidebook to overcome the challenge of preparing lesson plans. In the same vein, Vikaraman et al. (2017) also discovered that teacher mentoring professional and personal guidelines are helpful for student teachers during mentoring at schools. They were provided instruction manuals on designing a lesson plan that adhered to the most recent curriculum and syllabus. Another individual, on the other hand, was able to address the difficulty by seeking assistance from others. However, much to everyone's concern, the participant also stated that the instructions book provided was dense with information and that they did not read it all to grasp the new format of the lesson plan. As a result, they may need to enlist the assistance of others to complete their lesson plans. This reverse mentoring assistance or peer mentoring from colleagues, especially senior mentors, can be an option to handle the challenges and difficulties they encounter during the process (Kubberød et al., 2018; Zauchner-Studnicka, 2017).

Some practical implications from the results of this study can be offered. First, the study results suggest the need for more efficient support for mentor teachers in implementing lesson plans and continuous changes in the curriculum. The ongoing changes could prevent both mentor teacher professional and personal development if it is not accompanied by detailed yet straightforward guidelines to be followed. Multiple interpretations from mentor teachers have seriously hampered student teachers' understanding of this complex issue.

Therefore, the more workable and practical guideline in implementing lesson plans by taking into account mentor teachers' excessive administrative workloads and busy teaching schedules is mandatory. The analysis found that mentor teachers did their part in the mentoring program but with limited availability, less energy, and lack of enthusiasm. As a result, the impact of the mentoring program on student teachers' development has never reached its full potential.

This study is thus believed to provide modest but important empirical insights on the already multifaceted and complex aspect of mentor teacher opinions within Islamic secondary school context. It represents a rare yet practical perspective on theory development within English Language Teaching (ELT) and a critical benchmark for mentoring program best practices in similar settings.

6. CONCLUSION

The result of the study indicates that teachers face some encounters in developing the lesson plans. The encounters faced by the teachers in developing the lesson plans are: (1) the limitation of time, (2) the confusing format changes, (3) the lesson plan merely serves as an administrative obligation, and (4) students' enthusiasm. Findings from this research admitted that time limitation is a major challenge in implementing lesson plans. Moreover, there are some strategies used by the teachers to overcome the encounters in developing the lesson plans, such as (1) attending the MGMP, (2) using a guidebook, and (3) asking for someone's help (i.e., senior tutors or friends from the MGMP), and (4) using the internet.

This study is expected to be useful for English Language Education administrators and lecturers concerning lesson plan implementation. More specifically, in theoretical and practical subjects for student teachers like English Curriculum Development, and English Course Design, including in practical subjects to implement the lesson plans in Micro Teaching course and practicum teaching before sending them to teaching practicum at schools. In this light, as proposed by Tamilarasu (2013), what defines a quality education consists of at least two factors, namely quality teachers and the policymakers of education. Constant and persistent curriculum and lesson plan format modifications are severe impediments to achieving the ultimate goal of quality education if policymakers do not engage quality teachers who are familiar with many more issues in the field.

There may be some possible limitations in this study, as with the majority of other studies. These limitations also point towards topics to be addressed in the future. First, the involved participants were taken from one school, and there were only five available mentor teachers who agreed to be interviewed. Although the results are unique and reliable, future studies need to involve more participants with more diverse characteristics and viable perspectives of mentor teachers or school types. Second, as the focus of the study is the mentor teachers in Islamic secondary schools (junior high schools), the generalization to other contexts is not possible. We suggest that future studies may adjust their focus and emphasis, especially on the Islamic primary schools or Islamic senior high schools, comparing the state and private schools. Last, as one can see, the nature of a qualitative study like the one presented here always brings conflicts on biased views and personal issues during interviews with participants. Even though the data collection and sampling technique is valid and widely used in similar studies, this study did not employ a survey on a more extensive data set and must be interpreted with caution. For that reason, a statistical reading equipped with a robust quantitative or mixed research design for future works is recommended, as this present study did not yield a rigorous combination of research schemes with limited samples and participants.

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Online Collaborative Performance in Group-Based Tasks among Learners of Higher Education

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Abstract

Collaborative skills have been perceived as the most important skills by learners, instructors, and employers alike in comparison to communication and entrepreneurial skills. Despite its significant role in the workplace, many find that working together with others may complicate tasks due to limited background knowledge and problems with social dynamics. There has not been a single assessment created to assess online collaboration as an integrated performance during group-based tasks. The present study, therefore, attempts to examine learners' online collaborative performance and the dimensions contributing to effective online collaboration at the tertiary level. A mixed-method research design was adopted using surveys and interviews. A number of 508 undergraduates from local universities were given a questionnaire inquiring about their online collaborative behaviour in group work, while 30 of them were interviewed. The findings indicated that the communication tools and technological facilities category were rated the highest in online collaborative performance, whereas sharing responsibilities was rated the highest in team dynamics. There was also a significant correlation between online collaborative performance and

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team dynamics. Interview responses showed that learners agreed that good communication, clear goals, and team commitment were important elements for successful online collaboration. Despite the potential to enhance students' online collaborative performance, collaborative learning is demanding for learners and educators alike.

Keywords: Collaborative skills, group-based tasks, higher education, online learning, teamwork.

1. INTRODUCTION

The Covid-19 pandemic has significantly stressed the education system in Malaysia, and the closure of learning intuitions as a measure to decelerate and curb the spread of the virus has propelled many universities to develop alternative education opportunities. Hence, online learning has at this time replaced physical classrooms to perpetuate the development of human capital with cognitive, digital, and life skills remaining essential in coursework. However, social distancing and virtual classes may also create potential threats of cognitive deficit, disconnection or isolation, lack of motivation, and a downward spiral in mental health and well-being. To mitigate these, online learning and collaboration through group-based tasks have become an indispensable teaching and learning aid to support the undergraduates' welfare and improve their education experience – anytime and anywhere – through any device (phone, computer, tablet) and approach (Web-based email, cloud-based platforms, project- management tools, file-sharing applications, instant messaging, and SMS). The infusion of technology in teaching and learning has enhanced the efficacy of remote-learning opportunities (Mayweg-Paus et al., 2021) by empowering the online undergraduate community to gain access to an extensive set of skills and abilities through collaboration and by sharing their learning challenges or successes, information and resources through technology-shared space (Gikas & Grant, 2013).

Studies elucidate that collaborative skills such as decision-making, teamwork, communication, conflict resolution, critical thinking, leadership, and problem-solving are best developed in an education setting and that the earlier this is done, the better (Mehta & Fine, 2019; Soland et al., 2013; Vallance et al., 2010). These are vital skills for 21st-century learners and can be achieved through group-based tasks (in-person or online) that foster collaboration. Group-based tasks require groups of learners to form a 'partnership' to resolve problems, realise outcomes, or create products. By integrating these salient aspects – a standard task or activity, small group learning, cooperative behaviour or positive interdependence, individual responsibility, and accountability (Johnson, 1991; Laal & Ghodsi, 2012; Le et al., 2018; OECD, 2013, 2017) – collaborative learning has proven to generate numerous proximal (increased academic achievement and employability) and distal (increased workplace efficiency) benefits for undergraduates (Evans & Waring, 2020).

Group-based activities, for instance, essentially offer learner support and underscore interactivity – features that are not central in individual or independent learning (Nokes-Malach et al., 2015; Saqr et al., 2019). Dynamic engagement in discussions as a team or with other peers apart from the instructor, who functions as a learning facilitator, increases content proficiency through greater knowledge sharing, construction, development, and retention, especially for learners with low-level abilities. Moreover, group discussions encourage members to raise questions, generate ideas, and negotiate options collectively, thus making the collaboration process more engaging, critical, and robust. Group camaraderie also helps learners to stay motivated compared to work done in isolation (Lai & Viering, 2012). Decades of research reiterate the importance of collaborative learning in developing interpersonal and life skills because group work enhances the learners' ability to understand other people: what drives them, how they work and think productively, and work collectively (Binkley et al., 2012; Salleh et al., 2016). This understanding assists learners in co-operating and making progress with others, especially in the workforce. Nevertheless, many undergraduates find that working together with others may complicate tasks due to limited background knowledge and problems with social dynamics.

Collaboration in teamwork is indeed demanding, and it becomes more challenging when collaboration occurs online. Interaction among learners and task management are some of the common issues identified in online teamwork collaboration (King, 2007; Eubanks et al., 2016). Information and communication technology (ICT) competencies and communication and language competencies have been identified as two important domains which tertiary students need to develop in achieving effective online collaboration (Kolm et al., 2022). In addition, intra-group emotional support is found to be the main element that generates cognitive, social, and teaching presence in an effective online collaboration (Hernandez-Selles et al., 2019).

The importance of developing collaboration skills at the tertiary level cannot be undermined. According to Hart Research Associates (2015), employers emphasize the following five abilities as requisites for undergraduate employability: verbal communication (85%), teamwork (83%), written communication (82%), ethical judgment and decision making (81%) and critical/analytical thinking (81%). Effective human connection and productive work performance are best achieved through collaboration; therefore, being part of a community and having a support system is indispensable for the undergraduates' personal and career growth.

1.1 Problem Statement

With lockdowns imposed throughout Malaysia, online learning and task-based collaborations have gained prominence at the tertiary level. However, the efficacy and success of online collaboration necessitate several key elements converging to produce productive interactions, positive learning outcomes, and life skills. Online collaborations go beyond grouping undergraduates to complete work. To maximize learning performance and equip group members with essential collaborative skills for the job market, proper design and implementation of online group-based tasks are required. The inadvertent and rapid shift to online learning highlights the importance of training, digital equity, assessments, and preparation to set a conducive T&L environment for the undergraduates' sustained growth through online collaboration – individually and as a member of a larger social group (Li & Lalani, 2020). At present, there is extensive literature on online collaboration, but many underline aspects pertaining to the use of web 2.0 tools and applications to facilitate collective actions (Cheng & Yu, 2015; Garcia & Privado, 2020; Wang, 2014), learner views (Saghafian & O'Neill, 2018), learner attitude and self-efficacy (Konak et al., 2019) and the dynamics of online collaboration (Du et al., 2017). Research which has investigated the process of online collaboration itself (Hammond, 2017) is limited to compilations of reviews from secondary sources (Razali et al., 2014). Hence, there exists a gap of knowledge on learners' behaviour when collaborating on online group-based tasks.

Moreover, current studies on online learning in tertiary institutions in Malaysia focus on learners' perceptions and their readiness, inventive methods, and ways to expand instructors' online teaching competencies to handle the unprecedented changes in teaching and learning during the Covid-19 pandemic (Mohd Omar et al., 2020; Sia & Adamu, 2021). The role of online collaborative skills is often overlooked, thus causing the assessment of such skills in most university courses to be neglected (Coiro et al., 2018). In many group-based tasks, instructors are uncertain about what (criteria) and how (tools) to assess collaborative performance. Most group-based coursework is product-oriented evaluations, and an individual's less-than-expected effort in group work goes unnoticed (Coiro et al., 2018; Leu et al., 2017). In addition, Ruys et al. (2012) have also stressed how an instructor's lack of attention in determining group norms and facilitating activities can deter optimal learning and reduce the proximal and distal efficacy of collaborative work. More often than not learners are made to work together without preparing them to accomplish collaborative activities efficiently.

A return to the past in terms of in-person collaboration in classrooms seems inconceivable at this point with the pandemic showing no signs of abating. With synchronous, Web- and cloud-based applications (i.e. conferencing applications and collaborative document development opportunities), options for developing collaborative learning activities continue to expand. Therefore, it is timely to consider what aspects of online student collaboration that have been developed over the past one and a half years at higher learning institutions are worth holding on to, abandoning, overhauling, and introducing. Past studies carried out on students at the tertiary level show various factors affecting the effectiveness of online collaborative teamwork which include group size and group formation (Tosuntas, 2020), learning environment, learning design, and learning interaction (Razali et al., 2014), teamwork principles such as skills to evaluate the performance of other team members and negotiating skills (Gapinski, 2018) and student interaction and online collaborative tools (Hernandez-Selles et al., 2019). Not much attention, however, has been given to online collaborative skills and technology use.

Thus, it is imperative to identify the skills and technologies that have been useful or are necessary to increase the efficacy of online collaboration at higher learning institutions to help undergraduates develop their cognitive, digital literacy, and life skills. The present study answers the following research questions:

- How do tertiary-level English Language learners perform collaboratively in teamwork when completing online tasks?
- How do the learners' team dynamics contribute to their collaborative teamwork performance?
- Is there a relationship between the learners' collaborative performance and team dynamics in an online learning environment?
- What are the factors contributing to successful teamwork in an online learning environment at the tertiary level?

With these questions in mind, the objectives of this research are:

- to examine English Language learners' collaborative performance in teamwork when doing online tasks at the tertiary level;

- to examine the contribution of the learner's team dynamics in their collaborative teamwork performance;
- to determine whether there is a relationship between learners' collaborative performance and team dynamics when completing online tasks at the tertiary level;
- to identify the factors contributing to successful collaborative teamwork in an online learning environment.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Vygotsky's Social Constructivism and Siemens' Connectivism

The two theoretical keystones that support this research paper concerning collaborative online group-based tasks among learners of higher education are social constructivism (Vygotsky, 1978) and connectivism (Siemens, 2005). Social constructivists see individuals as social creatures that develop by acquiring knowledge and skills through interactions with diverse communities (Saqr et al., 2018). In social constructivism, knowledge happens first within a social context (Vygotsky, 1978). As human cognition is fashioned through social activity (Mirzaei & Taheri, 2016), interaction is viewed as an important strategy of self-regulated learning (Annamalai, 2018). Social constructivism perceives learning not as knowledge transfer, but as knowledge constructed. According to Vygotsky (1978), higher order thinking is more likely to be constructed via social interaction and this can be done through peer-to-peer collaborations. Overall, this theory emphasizes the collaborative effort for the construction of knowledge and meaning in an interpersonal and interactive setting which focuses on the importance of the dialogic and dynamic nature of peer-to-peer communication (Mirzaei & Taheri, 2016). Learners profit from each other's interpretations of the context due to their diverse experiences, and together they build knowledge and negotiate meaning while exploring the online space (Kleinsasser & Hong, 2016). Nevertheless, the construction of knowledge in online collaborative teamwork does not solely lie in social interaction alone. The use of interactive software and synchronous meetings are considered important in online teamwork among mid-western graduates (Ku et al., 2013), while another study highlights the role of accountability in teamwork and instructor input and interaction which appear to be the major concerns among undergraduates enrolled in online programmes (Konak et al., 2019). The present study attempts to investigate the aspects that contribute to Malaysian learners' collaborative teamwork in the tertiary level settings.

Connectivism is a recent theory derived from behaviourism, cognitivism, and constructivism theories (Al-Abri et al., 2017). It is a theory expanded to focus on learning in the digital age in which it claims that knowledge and learning happen from a variety of perspectives and that learning as a process happens by connecting sources of information (Saqr et al., 2018). The connectivism theory by Siemens (2005) posits that online learning is a network phenomenon influenced by technology and socialization. The theory distinguishes the significance of ascertaining learning environments that stimulate group connectivity and collaboration experiences that help learners to participate skilfully in learning communities and social networks. In other words, the theory is about learners acquiring knowledge by connecting with each other and with technology. In connectivism, knowledge is actuated by learners connecting to and participating in a learning community (Goldie, 2016). Learning consists of collaborative efforts made in retrieving information to create knowledge and utilizing information to present contexts (Brindley et al., 2009). Based on this theory, connections formed by actions and experience via networking require tools like social media to facilitate information creation, storing, sharing, and retrieval (Al-Abri et al., 2017).

Similarly in the present study, the learners achieve learning through the connection of information sourced from various platforms when completing their teamwork tasks collaboratively. The platforms include web browsers (such as Google Chrome and Netscape Navigator), social media (such as Instagram, YouTube, and Tik Tok), cloud computing, and video editing applications (such as Kinemaster and FilmoraGo) which they use to retrieve and utilize information to develop and create new knowledge.

2.2 Past Studies on Collaboration in an Online Learning Environment

Since the introduction of social constructivism as an appealing learning theory within the field of the second language (L2) education, the concept of collaboration has gained substantial interest in many studies (Mirzaei & Taheri, 2016). Recently, research on collaborative learning has grown considerably due to the influence of the constructivist social dimension of learning in L2 education (Jeong, 2019). The definition of collaboration is much more complicated than merely working with others. In a collaborative learning setting, knowledge is shared or communicated among learners as they work towards common learning goals (Brindley et al., 2009). This view is shared by Scoular et al. (2020) who defined collaboration as an act where learners share knowledge, resources, and skills from various sources in order to attain a mutual goal. They further classified collaboration into three strands:

- Building shared understanding: communicating, pooling resources and information, negotiating roles and responsibilities.
- Collectively contributing: participating in a group, recognizing contributions of others, engaging with roles and responsibilities.
- Regulating: ensuring own constructive contributions, resolving differences, maintaining shared understanding, adapting behaviour and contributions for others.

Stephens and Roberts (2017) defined peer collaboration as learners working together on the same task rather than individually on different sections of the same group-based task. They pointed out that peer-to-peer interactions can influence a learner’s success. Mirzaei and Taheri (2016) defined collaboration as an environment in which a learner interacts with his or her collaborative peers to resolve a stipulated problem. Due to sharing among peers, the learning process forms a link between and among learners as their knowledge formation depends on each other’s input to the collaboration (Brindley et al., 2009).

Apart from sharing input and working towards mutual goals, learners also benefit from the collaborative experience regardless of their intellectual standings or proficiency levels (Robinson et al., 2017). Students working in groups can pool their knowledge, as the shared knowledge of a group will be better than that of a person (Robinson et al., 2017).

In addition, there is an immense trend in implementing collaboration techniques in teaching-learning settings particularly with the advent of online social media tools because they present a prospective approach for refining learners' interaction, engagement, and collaboration (Al-Abri et al., 2017). Online communications can be considered valuable and constructive behaviour to solve problems in learning activities (Annamalai, 2018). According to Annamalai (2018), when students are placed in an online environment, higher order thinking can be attained with the accessibility of materials, resources, time, and space. According to previous studies, interaction and collaboration among learners in the same group are able to entice them to learn better and can motivate each group member to involve in problem-solving together (Wan Hussin et al., 2019). Scoular et al. (2020) further added that ongoing regulation of the group dynamic and individual's contribution to the group is significant for effective collaborative work.

Recent research on online collaborative learning addressed how the aspects of traditional collaborative learning evolve in the online setting. In a qualitative case study, Annamalai (2018) investigated patterns of peer interaction among Malaysian ESL students in online writing tasks, and the findings of the study presented three main types of online interactions: language-related assistance, using partners as resources, and providing motivation. Such interactions show the transition of learners from traditional classroom learning to be more committed, purposeful, and relevant, moving towards autonomous learning via peer support.

Shah and Chowdhury (2016) in their experimental designed comparative study looked into the online and offline learning environment of 20 higher education students' performance, attitude, intention, personal interactions, and satisfaction with collaborative learning. The findings of the study indicated that the quality of the performance was higher in the case of all groups undertaken in an offline environment than in the online environment. However, personal interaction among students was higher online than offline.

On the other hand, Noguera et al. (2018) surveyed 114 students on their perceptions of online collaborative agile learning strategies and found no significant impact on students' satisfaction or performance. They suggested that various strategies are needed to help groups improve group dynamics in order to effectively learn in collaboration and increase teamwork satisfaction. This was echoed by Abrams (2019) in her study on collaborative writing by university learners in which she found that successful collaboration depends on group dynamics rather than the learners' proficiency levels as the more collaborative and equal a group was, the more opportunities it had to generate and enhance learners' engagement in the on-going task.

Despite the compelling benefits discussed in online collaboration, some researchers identified the frustrating effects such as learners' attitudes (Konak et al., 2019), staying connected, focusing on the task at hand, and managing faceless communications (Saghafian & O'Neill, 2018). Shah and Chowdhury (2016) warned that when learners do not collaborate successfully, the social and cognitive benefits of collaboration will be lost.

While research literature extensively describes the benefits and challenges of online collaboration, limited attention has been given to learners' collaborative performance in online learning. The kinds of interaction held, the decision-making process carried out and the technology used in the collaborative process should also be a concern for a positive online learning environment. Hence, the present study attempts to examine such collaborative behaviour among the undergraduates in Malaysian higher education context.

3. METHODS

A number of 508 students from two public Malaysian universities, namely Universiti Teknologi MARA and Universiti Malaysia Sabah, were involved in the study. These two universities were selected as both are public universities in the country. The students are enrolled in four faculty clusters – Arts and Humanities, Business and Management, Science and Technology and Social Science – majoring in Business Studies, Engineering, English for Professional Communication, Information Studies, Art and Design, and Applied Science. All of them were taking an English Language course in the semester when the research data were collected.

The present research adopted a mixed-methods design that used a survey questionnaire and a semi-structured interview. The questionnaire was used to examine learners' collaborative behaviour and team dynamics when doing group-based tasks, while the interview was carried out to identify the factors considered important in a successful collaboration. Table 1 shows the demographic details of the respondents.

Table 1. Demographic profile of the respondents.

		Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	160	31.5
	Female	348	68.5
	Total	508	100.0
Level of education	Pre-Diploma	85	16.7
	Diploma	68	13.4
	Bachelor's Degree	355	69.9
	Total	508	100.0
Faculty	Arts and Humanities	83	16.3
	Business and Management	182	35.8
	Science and Technology	182	35.8
	Social Science	61	12.0

A total of 348 (68.5%) female respondents and 160 (31.5%) male respondents responded to the survey. Among them, 355 (69.9%) were bachelor's degree students, 85 (16.7%) were pre-diploma students, and the rest 68 (13.4%) were diploma students. A total of 182 (35.8%) respondents were from the Business and Management, and Science and Technology faculties respectively. The other 83 (16.3%) respondents were from Arts and Humanities faculty and the rest 61 (12.0%) respondents were from the Social Science faculty. Students from the four faculty clusters were selected for easy monitoring and management of data collection.

The selected learners were first asked to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire which is called the Online Collaboration Scale was adapted from Tseng et al. (2009), Ku et al. (2013), and Altinay (2017). The questionnaire consisted of two parts: Part A – Performance Skills and Part B – Team Dynamics. In the Performance Skills section, the respondents were inquired about their communication skills, communication tools, and technological facilities, collaborative skills, higher-order thinking, and time-management skills. In the Team Dynamics section, however, the respondents were asked about their experience in team interaction, sharing respondents, and managing work. A reliability test using Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to measure the internal consistency of the questionnaire. The scale is accepted if the coefficient value is above 0.6 (Ursachi et al., 2015). The test shows that the coefficient value of Performance Skills is 0.898, while Team Dynamics is 0.953, which concludes high consistency and reliability of both scales as a measurement used in the study (Table 2).

Table 2. Summary of the Cronbach's Alpha of each scale.

Scale	Cronbach's Alpha	No. of items
Performance skills	0.898	35
Team dynamics	0.953	21

After completing the questionnaire, 30 of the respondents were selected for the interview. A semi-structured interview consisting of eleven questions was adapted from Shahvar (2018). The questions are related to their experiences and preferences in teamwork in online learning, as well as their opinions on the crucial aspects contributing to effective collaboration in online assignments. Due to the Covid-19 pandemic, the students were given a choice either to be interviewed on Google Meet or Zoom sessions or to be interviewed through the telephone (voice call or WhatsApp). Each interview lasted between 20-30 minutes. Meanwhile, the survey responses were analysed using descriptive analysis, correlation analysis, and regression analysis, while the interview responses were transcribed and analysed using thematic analysis.

4. RESULTS

4.1 Respondents' Performance Skills and Team Dynamics in Online Collaboration

A descriptive analysis was carried out to identify the online collaborative performance of the respondents. The mean, standard deviation, and Pearson Correlation between the subcategories were identified. The results showed that the communication tools and technological facilities category indicates the highest mean score, M=29.087 compared to the other four subcategories in Performance Skills, while in Team Dynamics, sharing responsibilities indicates the highest mean, M=30.329, compared to the other two subcategories. Furthermore, the Chi-Square analysis found a significant relationship between each subcategory, p=.000. Table 3 shows the descriptive analysis for all subcategories for Performance Skills and Team Dynamics.

Table 3. Descriptive analysis for all sub-sections for the performance skills and team dynamics (n=508).

	Mean	SD	p-value
Performance skills	139.559	14.236	.000
Communication skills	28.874	3.442	.000
Communication tools & technological facilities	29.087	3.922	.000
Collaborative skills	27.433	3.614	.000
Higher-order thinking skills	27.795	3.895	.000
Time-management skills	26.370	3.261	.000
Team Dynamics	89.248	11.944	.000
Interaction in team	29.799	4.043	.000
Sharing responsibilities	30.329	4.476	.000
Managing work	29.120	4.355	.000

4.2 Relationship between Respondents' Performance Skills and Team Dynamics

A correlation analysis was used to determine the relationships between the variables. The significance level of correlation coefficients was set at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). Table 4 shows a significant correlation was found between Team Dynamics and Performance Skills in the respondents' online collaboration when doing group-based tasks, r=.597, p<.01.

Table 4. The relationship between performance skills, team dynamics, and the socio-demographic variables.

Variable	**Performance skills**
Team dynamics	.597**

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

4.3 Factors Contributing to the Success of Online Collaboration

A number of 30 respondents who answered the questionnaire were all involved in group work or projects at the time of data collection. The students were interviewed on:

a) their preference in teamwork collaboration (online or face to face),
b) the five most crucial factors they feel are important which influence the success of the online collaboration.

Based on the interview responses, 16 (53.33%) of the respondents preferred collaborating online, ten (33.33%) preferred face-to-face collaboration, and four (13.33%) felt both depending on the situation. Many of them thought that online collaboration provides flexibility for them to work and carry out discussions at their own preferred time, sometimes till late at night. It also allows them to communicate with others across borders, voice their opinions freely, retrieve information, and update each other more easily. However, if given a choice by some of them, working face-to-face is preferable as it is difficult to communicate online, especially when there are internet connectivity issues. They found that it is difficult to find a common time to set up a meeting or discussion online since they were also tied up with domestic responsibilities at home. Some students had problems committing to working online due to bad time management. Table 5 summarises the respondents' preferences.

Table 5. Respondents' preference for collaboration mode.

No. of respondents	**Collaboration mode preferred**	**Reasons**
16 (53.33%)	Online collaboration	Flexibility Ease of communication Updating work progress Ease in information retrieval
10 (33.33%)	Face-to-face collaboration	Internet connectivity issues Easier to set up a meeting time Not tied up to house chores
4 (13.33%)	Depending on situation	Requires proper time management

The interview responses also reveal the factors deemed crucial by the respondents in contributing to the success of the online collaboration. Out of 13 factors given, seven factors were ranked as the top five aspects which affect the online collaborative performance of the respondents. The highest rated factor is clear communication which was chosen by 23 respondents (76.66%). This is followed by team commitment and time-management skills which are both rated by 21 respondents (70%) respectively. The third factor is the ability to retrieve information from the right sources which was rated by 13 respondents (43.33%), while the fourth factor is work-management skills which were rated by 12 respondents (40%). Two factors are positioned as the last of the top five factors namely having clear goals and team support which were rated by 11 respondents (36.66%) respectively. Table 6 lists the rankings of all the factors made by the respondents.

Table 6. List of factors ranked by the respondents.

No.	Factors	No. of respondents (n=30)
1.	Clear communication	23 (76.66%)
2a. 2b.	Team commitment Time-management skills	21 (70%)
3.	Ability to retrieve information from the right sources	13 (43.33%)
4.	Work-management skills	12 (40%)
5a. 5b.	Clear goals Team support	11 (36.66%)
6.	Frequent commitment	10 (33.33%)
7.	Well-defined instructions	8 (26.66%)
8a. 8b.	Instructor support Use of interactive software	7 (23.33%)
9.	Higher-order thinking skills	4 (13.33%)
10.	Synchronous meetings	1 (3.33%)

5. DISCUSSION

The high rating given to the communication tools and technological facilities category in respondents' collaborative performance confirms the importance of identifying learning environments that stimulate group connectivity and collaborative experiences as asserted by Siemens (2005) in his connectivism theory. Such tools and facilities help learners to participate skilfully in their group assignments and social networks. The respondents' sharing of responsibilities in team dynamics indicates evidence of the construction of knowledge and negotiation of meaning among the team members (Kleinsasser & Hong, 2016). The findings display a similar notion by Scoular et al. (2020) who identify collaboration as the sharing of knowledge, resources, and skills by learners in order to achieve a mutual goal.

Nevertheless, an intriguing finding worth to be highlighted is that interaction in teams was rated the lowest in Team Dynamics. This contradicts Shah and Chowdhury's (2016) study which indicates higher personal interaction among students online than offline, and Annamalai's (2018) research which identifies peer interaction as a motivation toward autonomous learning. Being open in communication and the ability to give to and accept criticism from others are still lacking in students due to Malaysian cultural appropriateness. It was found that some students were still unable to open up and hesitate to express their ideas due to shyness. They were scared that their opinions would not be considered by the rest of the team members, though some knew that what they wanted to say was true. They were also scared that they would be criticized if their opinions were not accepted by the rest. Respect, politeness, language use, and care for others' feelings are part of Malaysians' man of culture (*budi bahasa*) that has become the norms and taboos instilled by the society (Ramli, 2013).

Although it is not a written rule, it has defined the lines between what is permissible and unacceptable in society. Apparently, such appropriateness may need to be compromised in academic settings and students ought to be taught the nuances of politeness in communication. In fact, Ryu and Sandoval (2015) suggest that more emphasis should be given to social influences on student argumentation and collaboration.

In addition, the students' communication also reflects lack of intra-group emotional support. There was a weak rapport among the students considering the remote learning sessions carried out. Most of them had not met each other physically for the whole year as all lectures were conducted online. Time constraints, uncertainties and deaths among family members amid lockdowns due to COVID-19 pandemic had also prevented initiatives to foster closer relationship among the students. This has become a hindrance to build strong socio-emotional bonds among the team members which is the basis for developing trust as well as a sense of group belonging and responsibility (Hernandez et al., 2019).

The results also show a strong correlation between team dynamics and collaboration which supports Abrams' (2019) study indicating the role of group dynamics in successful collaborative writing. In the present study, the respondents' interaction with team members, ability to share responsibilities, and the way they manage work to influence the quality of online collaborative performance produced. Dinh and Salas (2017) identify team cognition, which includes sharing responsibilities, as part of the core process and an emergent factor in teamwork effectiveness. Failure to develop team cognition may result in impaired performance and negative outcomes for the collaboration.

The seven contributing factors chosen by the respondents in the present study have been identified as part of the nine categories suggested by Salas et al. (2015) as crucial to effective collaboration. According to Salas et al. (2015), these nine categories are the key dynamics that influence teamwork. Clear communication factor is similar to Salas et al.'s communication, team commitment, and time management skills are part of team coordination, while the ability to retrieve information from the right sources, work management skills, clear goals, and team support are related to team cognition. Communication is a crucial component of teamwork (Dinh & Salas, 2017; Herrera et al., 2017) as it inherently affects other aspects of teamwork such as coordination. Dinh and Salas (2017) suggest two methods in order to optimize team communication, namely increasing accessibility of information and practicing closed-loop communication procedures to ensure the receipt of messages and clarify any ambiguities in interpreting the message. Team coordination involves the behavioural mechanism necessary to perform a task and transform team resources into outcomes. Coordination, which can be explicit or implicit, is the driving force of team performance. Team cognition, however, refers to the shared understanding among team members and may involve knowledge of roles and responsibilities, team mission objectives, and norms. All these factors are interdependent with each other. Table 7 shows the relation of the factors between the present study and Salas et al.'s (2015).

Communication, however, may not be the only skills to emphasise on in an effective online collaboration. Kolm et al. (2022) identify six competence domains emerging from a review of 14 studies related to online collaboration competencies.

ICT competencies are found to be the main competence domain reported, while communication and language are the third competence domain emerged. ICT competencies include the students' ability to use Web 2.0 tools for basic task completion and to use internet technology for communication. The present study however, yields different results. ICT skills are ranked the eighth and tenth place deemed important for a successful collaboration by the students. Nevertheless, in collaborative performance, the most common skills used by the students are related to communication tools and technological facilities compared to the other four skills.

Table 7. Mapping of the respondents' factors to Salas et al.'s (2015) core processes.

No.	Factors in the present study	Factors in Salas et al.
1.	Clear communication	Communication
2a. 2b.	Team commitment Time-management skills	Team coordination
3.	Ability to retrieve information from the right sources	Team cognition
4.	Work-management skills	Team cognition
5a. 5b.	Clear goals Team support	Team cognition

The findings of the study have several implications for online instructors and course developers. Based on the students' feedback, communication, team coordination, and time-management skills are the three most essential skills needed for effective online teamwork. Instructors should give more attention to developing these skills among learners. More opportunities to develop the skills can be created in the online collaboration assignment, such as including the skills as part of the assessment evaluation. Student interaction can be fostered by encouraging instructors to use designated instructional design consisting of tasks which help to generate communication and knowledge construction (Strauss & Rummel, 2020). Effective task management and team development can be achieved by defining the roles, tasks and responsibilities of the project managers which proves to be a useful strategy in facilitating group dynamics (Noguera et al., 2018). More emphasis on the use of technological tools, while pedagogical guidance and technical support can be provided since online collaborative tools have been identified to facilitate student interaction and promote intra-group emotional support (Hernandez-Selles et al., 2019). Instructors should also be cautious to not allow learner frustrations to be turned into negative attitudes toward online teamwork in the long run. Therefore, course developers need to consider the challenges of online collaboration when designing online learning courses and assessments. The findings also suggest the need for a different approach when preparing assessments which involves online collaborative teamwork. Further research is needed to examine the kinds of evaluation instruments appropriate for online collaborative teamwork and also to understand which variables are worth to be assessed while taking into account the challenges faced in online collaboration.

6. CONCLUSION

In order to cut off the chain of Covid-19 spread; the government has obliged the learning to be conducted online. Various platforms are used in online learning and educators have decided to include more collaborative group tasks in their courses for students to fulfil. Based on the research, the results illustrated that online collaborative performance and team dynamics were significantly correlated. The findings confirmed the positive relationships that exist between communication tools and technological facilities with group dynamics as the former is rated highly significant in order to help students participate in an online collaborative group task efficiently. Additionally, interview responses show that learners agree that good communication, clear goals, and team commitment are important elements for successful online collaboration.

The correlational study gives an educated insight into the interplay of online collaborative learning and the performance and team dynamics of undergraduate students in online learning environments. While the findings of this study have their contribution, future research is recommended. Due to the study only focusing on two local universities, this study cannot be taken to be representative of learners in other tertiary institutions in Malaysia. However, there are still elements of the results which may be transferable to other research contexts. Future research may further look into the facets of good communication that result in effective collaborative performance, be it offline or online. The type of skill set functional for productive team coordination is also worth investigating, while the competency domains in team cognition should be identified to better understand the mental processes involved in a successful teamwork collaboration.

Online education can benefit from collaborative learning, as this teaching strategy not only fosters social presence but also promotes learning of new content knowledge and collaboration skills. As far as practical implications go, educators can leverage these benefits by rethinking the design of their online courses to incorporate elements of collaborative learning and strategies to develop a sense of team dynamics such as by providing learners with additional support that helps them engage in a productive interaction. Doing so seems to support an increase in performance when taking online courses.

In conclusion, despite the potential to enhance students’ online collaborative performance, collaborative learning is demanding for learners and educators alike. Yet, we hope that our study inspires others to implement collaborative learning into their online courses, as students can greatly benefit from well-designed online collaborative learning activities.

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Revisiting Thompson's Multicultural Disposition Index in Preservice English Teacher Education in Indonesia

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Abstract

Despite the growing body of literature recognizing the importance of multicultural education in the 21st Century, little is known about the preservice English teachers' (PSETs) multicultural disposition (MD) in the Indonesian setting. This survey study examined the Multicultural Dispositions Index (MDI) of PSETs. The 22 items of Thompson's (2009a) MDI scales with four dimensions, i.e., cross-cultural competence, multicultural worldview, knowledge of professional and personal self, and professional skills and commitment, were adopted to explore the PSET MDI in this study. It was a nine-type self-report scale. The study involved 185 PSETs (aged 17–22 years; 146 females and 39 males) from one of well-established teacher education universities in Indonesia. A Confirmatory Factor Analysis was conducted to confirm the underlying MDI dimensions. The findings showed that the PSETs MDI was best represented by 18 items that emerged into the same four dimensions. It means the PSETs in Indonesia possess the four dimensions of multicultural dispositions, facilitating them to navigate school-level multicultural education. Four items from the original 22 items of MDI must be due to the cross-loading and low factor loading since the value was found to be

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more than 0.50. Therefore, it is strongly recommended that the MDI be revised when used in the Indonesian multicultural context.

Keywords: Disposition, English, multicultural, preservice, teachers.

1. INTRODUCTION

The broad dimensions and critical role of cultural understanding for democracy, peace, and justice have made multicultural education significant (Fox & Gay, 1995; Gollnick & Chinn, 2017; Raihani, 2020). Multicultural issues in teacher education have been studied worldwide (e.g., Arsal, 2019; Diem & Abdullah, 2020; Harjatanaya & Hoon, 2018; Palaiologou & Dimitriadou, 2013; Pattnaik & Vold, 1998; Rahmawati et al., 2014; Solehuddin & Budiman, 2019). In the globally interconnected VUCA (volatility, uncertainty, complexity, and ambiguity) world, cultural and linguistic diversities that currently become an international phenomenon (Banks, 2011) require transnational professionals to be culturally and linguistically flexible (Shliakhovchuk, 2019; Skerrett, 2015) as they will face a professional context with substantial racial, cultural, linguistic, and socio-economic diversity. This issue should become a concern of the preservice English teacher (PSET) education in multicultural non-English speaking countries. Student teachers must respect their own and others' cultures and be critical to actively adapt to a diverse society (Arsal, 2019; Skerrett, 2015). Multicultural content inclusion in intra- and extracurricular activities (Mo & Lim, 2013; Solehuddin & Budiman, 2019) is highly recommended to develop multicultural social justice teaching (Fox & Gay, 1995; Sleeter, 2013). Some studies showed positive effects of multicultural education in preservice teacher education on teachers' attitudes and sense of efficacy (Bodur, 2012; Dee & Henkin, 2002). However, other studies (Kim et al., 2015; Kumar & Hamer, 2012; Palaiologou & Dimitriadou, 2013; Raihani, 2017; Yoon & Sharif, 2015) reported the lack of scientific evidence that a teacher education program adequately and effectively encourages preservice teachers' multicultural values, attitudes, and dispositions related to teaching culturally different students.

One of the most relatable issues, which has received relatively little empirical attention and more contention, is the PSET multicultural dispositions (MD) scale (Thompson, 2009a, 2009b, 2013). There have been different concepts about multicultural dispositions regarding definitions, psychometric properties, and measurement (Jensen et al., 2018; Thompson, 2009a, 2009b). For the sake of education quality, the front-end sorting and the recruitment of student-teachers who are predisposed to multiculturalism are necessary (Arsal, 2019). It is also essential to monitor and assess student teachers' MDs (Jensen et al., 2018; Thompson, 2009a, 2009b, 2013) by in-house researchers (Pattnaik & Vold, 1998) to have optimum results. Nevertheless, a valid, reliable disposition measure is hard to find (Jensen et al., 2018). Moreover, a disposition measure also raises the dilemma of knowledgeable, skillful teachers with troublesome multicultural attitudes (Dee & Henkin, 2002). The MD scale is considered essential to reveal student teachers' "positive, ambivalent, or negative multicultural" dispositions (Thompson, 2009a) and to predict actions or reactions (Facione et al., 2000; Jensen et al., 2018) toward specific issues or circumstances and to cope with, adapt to, and succeed in multicultural situations

(Ponterotto et al., 2008). Earlier detection will help plan the learning process (Jensen et al., 2018) and the MD assessment in the end phase of the study will inform the effectiveness of the education process in promoting positive MD growth (Thompson, 2009a).

Among the existing scales, e.g., Multicultural Teacher Dispositions Scale/MTDS (Jensen et al., 2018), Teacher Multicultural Attitude Survey/TMAS (Ponterotto et al., 1998), and Pluralism and Diversity Attitude Assessment/PADAA (Stanley, 1996), Thompson's Multicultural Disposition Index/MDI is a feasible alternative for measuring multicultural dispositional growth (Thompson, 2009b). Its building blocks are cross-cultural competence, multicultural worldview, knowledge of personal and professional self, and professional skills and commitment. MDI is claimed to be usable for measuring multicultural view changes in a longitudinal study and a valuable tool for student-teachers to determine if teaching is the right profession (Thompson, 2009a).

The frame of the present study is the view that MDI set in western multicultural settings may have different constructs when used in Indonesian multicultural settings. Indonesian society, which has more than 300 ethnic groups, is multicultural and distinct from American migrant society (Hoon, 2017). American or Western multicultural society is commonly founded on liberalism/human rights; meanwhile, Indonesian society considers religion a vital life foundation. The tension between religion and liberalism, in some cases, cannot be resolved. For example, until now, the majority of the Indonesian public does not welcome lesbians, gays, bisexual people, trans-genders, and queers (LGBTQ) because it is against religious values stated in *Pancasila*, the Five State Principles, verse 1: *Ketuhanan Yang Maha Esa* (belief in the one and only God) and verse 2 *Kemanusiaan Yang Adil dan Beradab* (just and civilized humanity). Therefore, it is forbidden to endorse such orientation in educational institutions. Based on the assumption that each society has its multicultural problems and solution, it is argued that western multicultural theories and practices might not be fully understood and compatible with the Indonesian context as both have different historical, cultural, demographical, and geopolitical situations (He & Kymlicka, 2005). Therefore, since types of multicultural society/multiculturalism are varied (Hall, 2000), multiculturalism should be discussed contextually (Hoon, 2017; Nye, 2007).

Nowadays, Indonesia faces increased social problems linked to cultural, religious, and worldview differences. There has been an alarming rise in verbal and physical violence threatening national unity. The pattern of such violence was random; it could be done by the majority group to the minority, by the minority to the majority, or by an institution to a particular group and vice versa. Some cases are the destruction of some worship places, murder, persecution, blasphemy, hate speech, and disrespectful actions. Additionally, in the education sector, some educators have long been suspicious of the negative impacts of western liberal values embedded directly and indirectly promoted in English learning to the Indonesian cultures, values, and behaviors (Lauder, 2008). The love-hate attitudes of English "represent an emotional and irrational dimension in Indonesian national language policy which might have had a negative effect on development" (ibid, p.14). Therefore, the country needs a system of education that accommodates diversity to sustain societal harmony (Rahmawati et al., 2014). Diversities require the Indonesians to respect and tolerate differences for "a peaceful and harmonious life" (Madya, 2015).

In this case, Thomson's MDI is a useful scale to measure the MDs of Indonesian PSETs. However, it was established for teachers and counselors in diverse American settings that is possibly less representative of Asian multicultural situations, including Indonesia, which is the context of this study. Hence, it is necessary to revisit it to identify which multicultural dispositions manifested in the items that suit the Indonesian context. This study was conducted to provide empirical data concerning whether the PSETs in Indonesia also own the MDs as those in western multicultural settings represented in MDI. Therefore, this study would give important information concerning tools to gather data concerning multicultural dispositional growth in Indonesian preservice English teacher education.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Teacher Disposition

Disposition is defined as "the values, beliefs, attitudes, behaviors, commitments, and professional ethics of educators" affecting their pedagogical practice and interactions with the pupils, families, colleagues, and society (Gollnick & Chinn, 2017, p. 379) and seen as "a point of convergence" (Schussler, 2006, p. 258) between teachers' mental schema and the way they interact with the pupils. Teachers play a critical role in supporting students to learn the necessary knowledge, skills, and dispositions and be productive citizens (Gollnick & Chinn, 2017). Since student teachers' dispositions encourage the culturally responsive inclusive teaching practice (Louderback, 2016), initial teacher education programs must help them develop these to grow and become effective educators (Thompson, 2009a). In addition, teacher educators need to make their classrooms a place for social change and promote social justice (Aronson & Laughter, 2016) rather than merely a site for information transfer. The proficiencies related to diversity and multicultural education in the USA are listed in Interstate Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC) (Gollnick & Chinn, 2017) (see appendix A). In brief, INTASC comprises learning differences, content knowledge, planning for instruction, professional learning, ethical practice, and finally, leadership and collaboration. The vital role of multicultural disposition is also highlighted in the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). The conceptions of multicultural disposition given in INTASC and NCATE are reflected in Thompson's MDI. Both documents suggest that MDs have been encouraged in the American education system.

In Indonesia, MDs count as the primary teacher competencies based on Law No. 14/2005 on Teachers and Lecturers. They reflect the country's ideology, *Pancasila*/ the Five State Principles, and the Indonesian motto *Bhineka Tunggal Ika*, meaning unity in diversity. For years, the moto has become the unifying spirit and the indispensable nation's values and multicultural view (Riany et al., 2016). Unification should become the ultimate orientation when a country deals with diversity. However, the operationalization of the motto and the concept of multiculturalism in education remain unclear (Raihani, 2017). It will be relevant to explore if the present MDI scale, oriented toward the west, is appropriate for usage in Indonesia. Therefore, a statistic examination is required to understand whether the MDI suits this context.

2.2 Multicultural Education

The root of Thompson's MDI is Multicultural Education (ME). It is a construction of an educational system that integrates cultural diversities and promotes equality and social justice in schools (Gollnick & Chinn, 2017). Fox and Gay (1995) mentioned at least seven ME goals, especially in the context of teacher education, namely (1) to develop ethnic and cultural diversity literacies, (2) to encourage the students' personal development, (3) to encourage individual empowerment and clarify attitudes and values about cultural diversity, (4) to help improve students' social skills to function in a diverse society, (5) to improve their quality of learning opportunities and (6) to improve the academic performance. In their opinion, the first goal deals with multicultural knowledge acquisition, while the second deals with "self-understanding, positive self-concepts, pride in one's own ethnic identity" (p.71). The third goal reflects the decision-making, social act and leadership skills, and "moral commitment to act upon one's beliefs about the value of cultural diversity, and the right of all humans to freedom, dignity, and equality" (p. 72). The fourth goal supports revising beliefs and attitudes that threaten inter-ethnic and intercultural relationships. The fifth goal demands students' multicultural behavior and action. Finally, the rest goals have to do with basic literacy skills.

Culture determines whether certain behaviors are acceptable and defines biases and prejudices that are mostly unchecked and unrealized (Shliakhovchuk, 2019). It is necessary to have a specific set of knowledge to express and understand the complex ideas and references that constitute people's culture (Hirsch, 1987; Hui, 2014). When learning English as a foreign language, the student teachers would start making cross-cultural interactions with the lecturers, peers, or learning materials/resources. They must actively involve themselves in a diversity dialogue to develop objective reasoning in pursuing personal, social, and political transformation (Weil, 1993). In this case, having only self-culture literacy was insufficient (Hirsch, 1983) to support communication with the global community. They need to own multicultural and multidimensional literacies. In short, student teachers with monocultural beliefs need to update themselves by instilling multicultural literacies and proficiencies required in professional and social lives. In addition, teacher educators need to provide supports for such literacies to grow.

2.3 East vs. West Multiculturalism

East and West cultural values are different in terms of (a) self-concept versus group-concept, (b) doing versus being, (c) equality versus inequality, (d) informality versus formality, (e) uncertainty reduction, and (f) acceptance of a person based on an area of common interest versus acceptance of the whole person (Javidi & Javidi, 1991). They claimed that Western society is more concerned with self-preservation, is interested in what people do, assumes people are equal in their relationships, prefers more informal communication methods, communicates indirectly, and limits friendship to a shared interest. They are individualistic and have "an independent conception of the person" (Watkins, 2000, p. 62). The eastern society, on the other hand, is more focused on preserving group affiliation and promoting cordial social relationships, is interested in someone's background, has hierarchical, unequal relationships, tends to communicate formally, communicates in explicit codes, and tends to be more person-oriented, accepting the whole person as a friend. Family centrality, collectivist culture, discipline, complex work values, and high parent expectations of educational success support the Asian group's learning achievements (Paik et al., 2017).

2.4 Indonesian Multicultural Context

Indonesia is a diverse archipelagic country inhabited by thousands of ethnicities spread over 17,000 large and small islands. The country is rich in ethnicities, religions, cultures, customs, and local vernaculars. The majority of the Indonesians are Muslims, and the rest are Christians, Catholics, Hindus, Buddhists, Confucians, and others. The number of immigrants is relatively small; however, the citizen mobility due to urbanization and massive national transmigration policy during Soeharto's era has caused Indonesian society to be more mixed. Therefore, in conceptualizing Indonesian multiculturalism, Hoon (2017) suggested three criteria: maintaining the unity-diversity balance, providing room for "cultural boundary-crossing and hybridity," and including religion.

Unlike Western multiculturalism, which is colored with individualist and liberalist/secularist values (He & Kymlicka, 2005; Watkins, 2000), Indonesian multicultural society is greatly influenced by religious/spiritual values (Hoon, 2017; Raihani, 2017), collectivism (Paik et al., 2017) and interdependence (Mehta & Leng, 2006). *Pancasila* and *Bhineka Tunggal Ika* have been used as "tools" a mechanism to maintain peace. Indonesia also has a concept named *gotong royong* (working together) regardless the personal background. This mechanism has been used to sustain solidarity, engagement, and collective senses of identity and belonging (Suwignyo, 2019).

3. METHODS

3.1 Instruments

The instrument was made online using Google Forms that could only be accessed using university email accounts. It consisted of three essential parts: the rationale, demographic data, and the adapted version of the MDI survey. The rationale part explained the objective, the relevance of the study for the respondents, the importance of respondents' voices, confidentiality, and general information on how to participate. It was mentioned that the survey was voluntary and anonymous. The participants did not need to write their names; however, respondents' emails can be detected and recorded. Part B dealt with demographic data, such as the enrollment year, age, ethnicity, religion, gender, disability, place of origin, and economic level. Finally, part C consisted of the adapted Thompson's MDI survey.

Thompson's MDI was selected because it is made for educators, including student teachers, and has been claimed to be valid. It was a 22-item, 4-dimension assessment tool that has been empirically validated through a set of statistical tests for construct validity and inter-rater reliability. It is a nine-point Likert-type self-report scale (1 = strongly disagree to 9 = strongly agree) that consists of four correlated factors: cross-cultural competence (5 items), multicultural worldview (8 items), knowledge of personal and professional self (5 items), and professional skills and commitment (4 items). Factor analysis showed that the MDI measures cross-cultural competence, multicultural worldview, knowledge of self, and professional skills and commitment (Thompson, 2009a, p. 99). Respondent ratings of the MDI ($M = 7.52$, $SD = 1.73$) ($t(1060) = 64.62$, $p <.0005$, $d = 1.47$) and the practice of adopting dispositional self-assessment as a program completion requirement ($M = 7.22$, $SD = 1.36$) ($t\ (1038) = 47.42$, $p < .0005$, $d = 1.98$) were reported significantly greater than the median score of 5 (ibid, p. 97).

In this study, the researchers did not add any new items. The MDI was adapted by modifying an item to adjust to the Indonesian socio-cultural situation, i.e., changing the phrase in item 3 "gay and lesbian persons" to "those who have different beliefs/orientations." It is to make it more neutral. All items were translated to the Indonesian language and checked with a language expert to ensure the translation was valid. The list of the statement in the measure is given in Appendix B.

3.2 Subjects and Sample used in Validation

The present survey study involved preservice English student teachers enrolled in the English Education Language Department in a teacher education university in Yogyakarta Special Region province, a culturally diverse city on Java Island, Indonesia. The intended population was 240 junior student teachers (years 1 and 2) studying Basic Educational Courses, Faculty Stream Courses, University Stream Courses, and Foundational Content Specific Courses. Wang and Wang (2020) mentioned that the appropriate sample size for SEM has been an unresolved issue in the literature since it depends on many factors. They mentioned that the sample size for a CFA model with 6–12 indicator variables per factor is $N=50$, while a model with 3-4 indicators per factor must at least $N = 100$. In this study, the random sampling technique was employed to meet one of the requirements of the survey study and CFA. The returned questionnaires were 190, but five were excluded because their responses were incomplete, and some respondents were not early-year students. So, the total sample was 185, i.e., approximately 77% of the targeted population. The participating respondents were early year student teachers (year 1: 58.8% and year 2: 41.2%) consisting of female (79.4%) and male (20.6%) students and ranged in age from 17 to 21 years old. In terms of respondents' ethnicity, most of them (89.5%) self-reported as Javanese, while the rest consisted of Sundanese, Betawi, Bugis, Batak, Dayak, Melayu, Wasarisa, and others. They came from eight different provinces: West Java, Yogyakarta Special Region, North Sumatra, South Sulawesi, Central Java, East Java, East Kalimantan, and Bali. Religious affiliations among the respondents included 84.5% Islam, and the remaining were Catholic and Protestant. Concerning socio-economic background, 89.7% of respondents reported coming from medium-income families, 9.3% were from low-income families, and 1% were from high-income families. They did not report any disability.

3.3 Data Collection Strategy

Some steps were taken to get the data. First, the researchers asked for permission from the head of the English Education Department. Next, the team explained the research study to some lecturers and requested their help to share the survey link in their classes and encourage their students to participate. The link contained information about targeted respondents, the purpose and importance of the study, the consent, and the way to participate. The respondents could only respond by logging in to the survey using their official university student accounts to avoid duplication. Reminders were sent every other week and three days before the closing date. It took approximately two months (December 2020-January 2021) to collect data. The data were stored in a joint Google drive. In the form of an excel file, the responses were downloaded for further data process.

3.4 Data Analysis

Various statistical analyses were applied to provide evidence of the MDI's construct validity and an estimation of its reliability. The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and Cronbach's alpha analysis (reliability test) were subsequently done. The model fitness was assessed using the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR), and chi-square. The chi-square statistic was considered the original fit index for structural models (Wang & Wang, 2020). Because the chi-square's sensitivity to sample size leads to rejection of the null hypothesis of a good fit, chi-square was rarely used as a reason to reject a model (Wang & Wang, 2020). The items would be removed if the value was more than 0.05.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This study aimed to revisit the MDI instrument to examine whether the dimensions that emerged in the original version of the instrument also emerged in the Indonesian setting. Originally, the instrument had 22 items of four dimensions. However, the current study revealed that when used in the context of PSETs in the Indonesian multicultural setting, the MDI best represented the eighteen items emerging from the MDI's four dimensions. A series of confirmatory factor analyses with MPlus version 7.2 led to the final model with an entire set of 18 items. All the retained items represented strong item-factor correspondence as they had standardized factor loadings greater than .50. The model showed an excellent fit to the data, with fit indices of x2 = 196.994, df = 129, RMSEA = .033, SRMR = .043, CFI = .917, and TLI = .901. Table 1 shows the results of CFA for the retained 18 items and their corresponding factors, standardized factor loadings, and Cronbach's Alpha of each factor as a reliability measure.

Table 1. CFA standardized factor loadings and Cronbach's Alpha.

Items	Cross cultural	Multicultural	Knowledge	Professional
V1	.784			
V2	.831			
V4	.610			
V6		.630		
V7		.505		
V8		.617		
V9		.223		
V10		.665		

Table 1 continued…

V11		.297		
V12		.550		
V13		.670		
V15			.553	
V16			.678	
V17			.621	
V18			.464	
V19				.687
V20				.797
V22				.569
Reliability	**.766**	**.732**	**.633**	**.660**

The final round of CFA confirmed that the total 18 items converged into four factors or dimensions of MDI, similar to the proposed model. The Cronbach alpha's reliability values of each ranged from .633 to .766. The reliability values of Factors 1 and 2 were higher than the acceptable value (0.70). It means that these constructs showed good reliability for a good model fit. Meanwhile, the reliability values of the other two factors were less than the acceptable value, meaning that they did not show good reliability for a good model fit. Most of these sub-scales have relatively small numbers (3 items), except for Factor 2, their internal consistency is reasonably high.

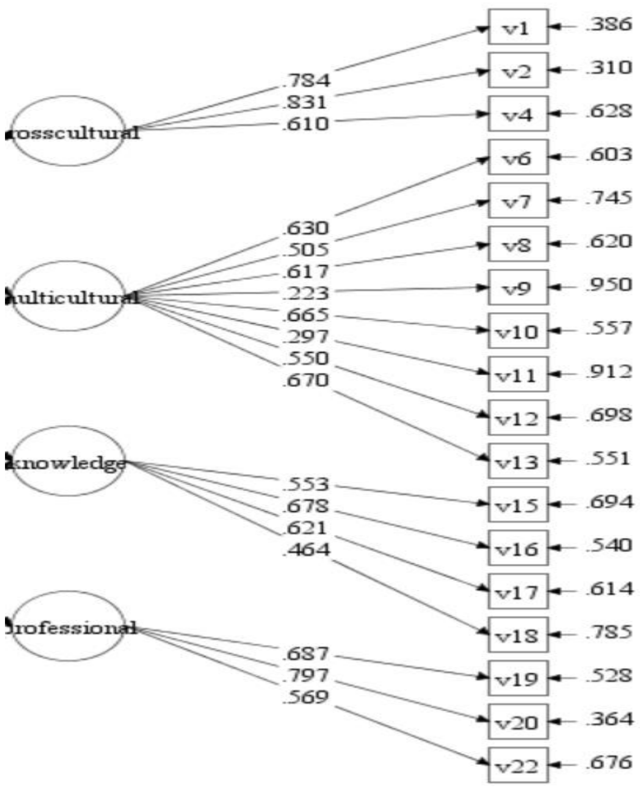

Figure 1. The CFA structure of the Multicultural Dispositions Index.

Based on Figure 1, four latent factors, cross-cultural competence, multicultural worldview, knowledge of personal and professional self, and professional skills and commitment, were confirmed through the data. The data showed that the loading factors of the items were relatively high in measuring each of the latent factors as their values were more than .050 unless for items V11 (=.297), V9 (=.223), and V18 (=.464). The model indicated that the items used are relatively good in measuring the MDI construct.

Factor 1 consisted of 3 items, namely V1, V2, and V4. All items contributed significantly to the latent factor. Among the three, V2 was the highest contributor (= .831), followed by V1 (=.784) and finally V4 (=.610). It could be interpreted that cross-gender awareness and communication skills, skills to work with people of different races and ethnicities, and the ability to interact with the elders strongly contributed to PSET's cross-cultural competence.

Factor 2 consisted of eight factors, namely V6, V7, V8, V9, V10, V11, V12, and V13. The strongest contributors to the latent factor of multicultural worldview are V13 (= .670), V10 (= .665), V6 (= .630) and V8 (= .617). It indicates that the preservice English teacher's multicultural worldview is most saliently represented by their knowledge and ability to deal with persons having a different opinion from them and ability to defend their opinion/argument in whatever situation confidently. Moreover, their multicultural worldview is also influenced by their open-mindedness concerning multicultural education and objectivity in maintaining communication with others.

The other items which also showed substantial factor loadings but were not as strong as the previous four items are V12 (= .550) and V7 (= .505). This finding suggests that the PSET multicultural worldview is moderately influenced by their understanding of others (empathy), flexibility, unbiased way of thinking, and respect for differences. On the other hand, the last two items, i.e., V11 (= .297) and V9 (= .223), contribute the least to making up the multicultural worldview, showing that these items are somewhat different from the other items. It implies that preservice English teachers comprehend that racial differences do not equate to racial supremacy and that deference and optimistic thinking (optimism) did not significantly contribute to their multicultural worldview.

Factor 3 consisted of four items, i.e., V15, V16, V17, and V18. The data show that the most substantial contributors to the knowledge of personal and professional self are V16 (= .678) and V17 (= .621), suggesting that preservice English teachers' efforts to improve their communication and people skills, as well as awareness of potential use of mental games for justifying actions and wrongdoings, contribute to this knowledge. Meanwhile, another strong contributor item was V15 (= .553), indicating that proactive efforts to avoid biases and prejudices toward others contribute to personal and professional knowledge. Conversely, the last item, V18 (= .464), is below the accepted value, suggesting that the awareness of other people's strengths contributes less to the factor.

Factor 4 consisted of three items, namely V19, V20, and V22. The strongest contributing items to this latent factor are V20 (=.797) and V19 (=.687), while the least strong is V22 = (.569). It suggests that listening to others and handling and solving conflict/problems contribute significantly to the PSET's professional skills and commitment factor. Similarly, PSET's self-pride and confidence also contributed to the factor, although the strength was not equal to the other two.

Some noteworthy findings related to the four factors and the remaining eighteen items could be summarized as follows. First, all four factors have roles in predicting the multicultural dispositions of the Indonesian PSETs. In other words, they can be used as indicators of diversity awareness levels of educators in two different multicultural settings: American and Indonesian societies, which represent west and east cultures. Second, the remaining cross-cultural items show typical Indonesian cultural values (e.g., respecting the elderly and working with people of different races and ethnicities) and do not contain "sensitive issues" in Indonesian society, e.g., sex orientation and disability. Third, the remaining items represent the importance of respecting diversity and less authoritarianism which generally represent Indonesian cultural values.

Table 2. Correlation between the four factors.

	Cross cultural	Multicultural	Knowledge	Professional
Cross cultural	1.000			
Multicultural	0.797	1.000		
Knowledge	0.820	0.959	1.000	
Professional	0.812	0.870	0.890	1.000

As shown in Table 2, the correlations amongst the four factors indicated by the r-value (ranging from .0.797 to 0.959) are very strong. These strong correlations suggest that the construct is shared between the four factors, and there is a shared variance of the MDI concerning the construct. For example, the high correlation between Factors 2 and 3 suggests that PSETs with a better multicultural worldview would also have better knowledge of personal and professional self. It could be said that the better the student teachers' multicultural worldview, the better their knowledge of personal and professional self, the better their cross-cultural competence, and the better their professional skills and commitment. Hence, the high correlation also indicates the close relationship between all four factors.

Reliable and valid instruments to measure dispositions define the value of dispositions (Jensen et al., 2018). Although MDI is not specially made for preservice English teacher education- it is for teaching and counseling -, both professions have a less similar nature, i.e., they deal with diverse people in terms of race, ethnicity, social class, nationality, language, religion, gender identity, and sexuality. Hence, this study informs whether the tool understudy is somewhat reliable to use in varied contexts.

In general, the data showed that this study reaffirms the validity and reliability of the instrument. The first significant finding is that the dimensions of both previous and current studies are similar. The initial study proved that the MDI measures the four listed dimensions (Thompson, 2009a). In this study, as the CFA showed a good fit to the data, it is clear that all factors represent the dimensions of MDI. Both contexts of studies, Indonesia and America, are diverse countries whose citizens might find the four dimensions listed valuable and essential to maintaining good social relationships and social justice. Indonesia and the USA have one thing in common, i.e., both are big, populous, and diverse countries with heterogeneous ethnic and cultural realities in all regions. Both countries support the idea of multiculturalism reflected in their motto and slogan: the *Bhineka Tunggal Ika* (Unity in Diversity) and *E Pluribus Unum* (Unity in Diversity). The awareness of diversity, promoted in the early years of education, potentially influences student teachers' perception of multiculturalism and affects their perception of multicultural dispositions.

The second finding in this study is that four items were not valid and then dropped. The four items are considered unsuitable for the Indonesian context (see Table 3). The low empirical support for the lost items can be associated with sampling, which was small in number, which is the limitation of this study. However, it might also indicate different characteristics of multicultural disposition relevant to teacher education in the two settings.

Table 3. The Suitability of the MDI items in the Indonesian context.

Factors	No	Items	Suitable	Unsuitable
Cross-cultural competence		I possess the skills to work with people of different races and ethnicities.	√	
		My cross-gender awareness and communication skills are sharp	√	
		I possess the skills to work with people who have different beliefs/orientations, whether or not I agree with their beliefs/orientations		√
		I interact well with elderly persons.	√	
		I interact well with physically challenged and disabled persons		√
Multicultural worldview		I am not a resistant learner who is suspicious of the goals of multicultural and diversity education.	√	
		I am not locked into one way of thinking. I can appreciate many views and perspectives.	√	
		The content of my communication with others is found in sound reasoning and historical facts, not just emotions or the way my parents and family raised me.	√	
		I understand that racial differences do not equate to racial inferiority or superiority; different is just different.	√	
		I am not fragile. I can take heat from opposing views and not wilt in the kitchen of hot debate.	√	
		I am a Pollyanna (i.e., let's just all get along) thinker. I understand that quick fixes and politically correct clichés don't always work. ‘	√	
		I take the responsibility of making myself understood rather than insisting others must understand me.	√	
		I know how to disagree with others without being a disagreeable person.	√	
Knowledge of personal and professional self		I am aware of my own personal strengths and weaknesses; I know myself well.		√
		I actively seek to clear up my biases and prejudices against others who are unlike me.	√	
		I do a good job of getting after myself to be a better person and improve my communication and people skills.	√	
		I am aware of the mental games I can potentially play with others and myself to justify my actions and wrongdoings.	√	
		I am aware that just when I think I know it all, there is somebody of a different persuasion who can teach me something new that I didn't realize before.		
Professional skills and commitment		I am an excellent listener.	√	
		I do a good job of handling conflict resolution.	√	
		I have the skills to motivate and direct today's young people.		√
		As far as I can tell, I am the best person my age or younger to serve as a role model for kids	√	

5. CONCLUSION

A tool to measure dispositional awareness is high in demand but short in supply (Thompson, 2009a, 2009b). A valid, reliable instrument will help predict whether the student teachers grow into responsible, respectful global citizens who can see problems from multiple lenses of different cultures and take actions based on multicultural perspectives. This study reaffirms the reliability and internal validity of the MDI. When tested in two diverse contexts representing America and Indonesia's multicultural nature, it showed a slightly similar story. Therefore, English teacher education programs in multicultural settings can use it at the beginning of the semester to allow the PSETs to get "a better grasp of the personal and professional tools needed to work with a diverse group of learners" and to help them decide on their teaching career (Thompson, 2009a, p. 99). It is also useful for the stakeholders to design and implement a teaching-learning process and an assessment system that promotes diversity.

Nevertheless, the most important implication of the current study is that the different nature of multicultural contexts impacts the validity and reliability of the MDI items. Practically, the validated MDI scale can be used in the Indonesian and Asia setting, especially in a similar context to the current study. However, it is worthwhile to identify other multicultural factors and items that are more suitable to the Indonesian context, such as including religious multiculturalism, as suggested by Hoon (2017). Additionally, the different multicultural experiences of the respondents significantly influence their responses (Arsal, 2019). Hence, continuous and sustainable evaluation of the instrument is suggested.

The limitation of this study is the small size of the sample and less varied respondents. Thompson involved 800,000 teacher and counselor candidates from four multiracial/ethnic groups whose ages were between 18 and 52 years attending a university in an urban setting in America. In contrast, the current study only involved 185 mostly Javanese preservice English teachers between 18 and 23 years old enrolling in a suburban state university in Indonesia. Therefore, further study intending to revisit and revise the MDI scale by involving a more significant number of respondents representing Indonesian diversity is encouraged. Finally, the MDI is an explicit self-report measure; the PSETs are likely unwilling to report on their unbiased attitudes; hence, to get more convincing data, these instruments should come along with a more objective measurement tool.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Table A. 1. The List of Dispositions mentioned in INTASC.

Aspects	Disposition proficiency
Learning differences	The teacher believes that all learners can achieve at high levels and persists in helping each learner reach his/her full potential. The teacher values diverse languages and dialects and seeks to integrate them into his/her instructional
Content Knowledge	The teacher realizes that content knowledge is not a fixed body of facts but is complex, culturally situated, and ever-evolving. S/he keeps abreast of new ideas and understandings in the field.
Planning for instruction	The teacher respects learners' diverse strengths and needs and is committed to using this information to plan effective instruction.
Professional Learning and Ethical Practice	The teacher reflects on his/her personal biases and accesses resources to deepen his/her own understanding of cultural, ethnic, gender, and learning differences to build stronger relationships and create more relevant learning experiences.
Leadership and Collaboration	The teacher respects families' beliefs, norms, and expectations and seeks to work collaboratively with learners and families in setting and meeting challenging goals.

Appendix B

Table B.1. MDI constructs and items (adapted from Thompson, 2009a).

Items	Statements
Cross-cultural competence:	I possess the skills to work with people of different races and ethnicities. My cross-gender awareness and communication skills are sharp. I possess the skills to work with people who have different beliefs/orientations whether or not I agree with their beliefs/orientations I interact well with elderly persons. I interact well with physically challenged and disabled persons.
Multicultural worldview:	I am not a resistant learner who is suspicious of the goals of multicultural and diversity education. I am not locked into one way of thinking. I can appreciate many views and perspectives The content of my communication with others is founded on sound reasoning and historical facts, and not just emotions or the way my parents and family raised me. I understand that racial differences do not equate to racial inferiority or superiority; different is just different. I am not fragile. I can take heat from opposing views and not wilt in the kitchen of hot debate. I am not a Pollyanna (i.e., let's just all get along) thinker. I understand that quick fixes and politically correct clichés don't always work. ' I take the responsibility of making myself understood rather than insisting others must understand me. I know how to disagree with others without being a disagreeable person.

Table B.1. continued…

Knowledge of personal and professional self:	I am aware of my own personal strengths and weaknesses; I know myself well. I actively seek to clear up my biases and prejudices against others who are unlike me. I do a good job of getting after myself to be a better person and improve my communication and people skills. I am aware of the mental games I can potentially play with others and myself to justify my actions and wrongdoings. I am aware that just when I think I know it all, there is somebody of a different persuasion who can teach me something new that I didn't realize before.
Professional skills and commitment:	I am an excellent listener. I do a good job of handling conflict resolution. I have the skills to motivate and direct today's young people. As far as I can tell, I am the best person my age or younger to serve as a role model for kids

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Online Project-Based Learning for ESP: Determinants of Learning Outcomes during Covid-19

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Abstract

Evaluating the learning outcomes of a certain course implementation can improve the quality of education. This study is focused on Indonesian EFL undergraduates' perceptions of the relationships between teacher performance, technological resources, online project-based learning (OPJBL), and ESP learning outcomes. Participants of the study have attended English for specific purposes (ESP) online courses during school closures due to Covid-19. A survey was addressed to 350 undergraduates after a one-semester implementation of the OPJBL. The students were requested to rate their perceptions on validated items using a 7-point

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Likert-type scale for the data collection. The data were modelled and computed through partial least square structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM). The main findings of the study revealed that teacher performance and technological resources were significant in predicting OPJBL. Similarly, OPJBL was found to play a significant role in affecting ESP learning outcomes. Teacher performance and technological resources were also correlated to ESP learning outcomes. Significant differences were found among students' locations for all variables. The findings highlight the benefits of the SEM approach for establishing the proposed framework and assessing the links between variables concerning the OPJBL and learning outcomes.

Keywords: English for Specific Purposes, learning outcomes, online project-based learning, teacher performance, technological resource.

1. INTRODUCTION

Course evaluation is a critical element of the learning system (Guba & States, 1981). Evaluation provides a strong platform for course execution decisions including comments on long-term changes and procedures. The evaluation process should mainly be concerned with the effectiveness and efficiency of putting educational policies into practice. What is to be evaluated includes contents, methods for local, national, and global concerns, and outcomes of educational program goals. Prior studies have advised academic stakeholders to keep a focus on the evaluation of classroom-based courses (Encandela et al., 2019; Karas, 2021; Villalba, 2022).

The advancement of information and communication technologies has undoubtedly altered the teaching and learning process. In fact, in the 21st century, using technology in the classroom and teaching and learning online through remote and open education systems may have become widely regarded as an effective method of teaching and learning. As a result, many educational researchers are keen to explore the benefits of integrating technology into classroom pedagogies to investigate the relationship between ICT (information and communications technology) and pedagogy. Technology, the internet, in particular, plays a crucial role in language teaching (Habibi et al., 2020b; Ulla & Perales, 2021). Various technologies in language education have transformed the classroom instructional environment and provided teachers and students with quick access to learning connections and rich online materials. Similarly, students can now build language learning connections with their friends and peers to participate in the continuous learning process. The application of technology in teaching processes has increasingly become widespread during Corona Virus Disease 2019 (Covid-19) pandemic, particularly online learning.

While online education has been around for more than two decades, it still faces a number of obstacles in a variety of professions. Courses such as English for specific purposes (ESP) that rely heavily on hands-on skills can be harmed by the existence of additional obstacles posed during online learning. Students are unable to meet on a regular basis to converse in English about specific themes. Furthermore, due to the virtual setting, there may be a weaker tie between the students (Croft et al., 2010). Although systems like video conferencing allow teachers to organize project-based learning groups, the students are physically separated. As a result, there is a chance of differing traits and dynamics among students (Dhawan, 2020), necessitating nesting variances at the personal level and conducting cross-level analysis for a more comprehensive view. Meanwhile, understanding the cognitive and epistemological foundations of the disciplines in ESP has enormous pedagogical potential for both students and teachers. It can offer more individualized guidance on the study and research methods and help students gain deeper insights into their chosen topic (Pennarola, 2019).

Limited studies, particularly in language learning, explored the implementation of certain techniques, such as online project-based learning (OPJBL) in the online environment during Covid-19 (Rahayu & Fauzi, 2020; Randazzo et al., 2021; Siska et al., 2022). In this study, OPJBL is defined as project-based learning conducted online, utilizing learning tools such as social media, video conferencing, and a learning management system. Evaluation studies on certain techniques are important to understand their impact on students as the main priority of teaching and learning activities. Therefore, this study was conducted to investigate the perceptions of ESP students, in the context of Indonesia, toward the effects of teacher performance and technological resources on OPJBL as an online learning technique during Covid-19. Besides, the influences of teacher performance, technological resources, and OPJBL were also explored toward ESP learning outcomes. Supporting the relationship assessment, and the difference tests of two variables (OPJBL and ESP learning outcomes) were also carried out. Three research questions are proposed in this study;

- Is OPJBL affected by teacher performance and technological resources?
- Are ESP learning outcomes affected by teacher performance, technological resources, and OPJBL?
- Are there any significant differences regarding all proposed variables based on the respondents' location?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Project-Based Learning in Online Settings

Project-based learning (PJBL) is one of the greatest ways for teaching to develop crucial soft skills such as inventiveness and critical thinking. When students complete project tasks with proper decision-making, the analysis and resolution they have will enable them to acquire knowledge and problem-solving skills. PJBL allows students to learn about and reflect on real-world issues while developing 21st-century abilities such as cooperation, communication, problem-solving, and inventiveness (Guo et al, 2020). Besides, PJBL facilitates students' expression in their education and allows for a more accurate assessment of their abilities and skills. Its conversion to an online learning environment, however, necessitates thoughtful and deliberate preparation and should not be simplified to a scripted procedure of reading text, viewing videos, filling out virtual worksheets, and handling various quizzes (Awuor et al., 2022). In distance learning situations, the same degree of investigation, questioning, criticism, observation, scaffolding, and cooperation is required (Chen et al., 2019).

Four different ways to implement OPJBL into online learning are: being aware of the equipment that students utilize, using video conferencing systems for meaningful collaboration, employing program management tools for effective teamwork, supplying continuous feedback, and encouraging learning reflection (Awuor et al., 2022). Involving students in project-based assignments might be considered an efficient strategy to ensure that students in online classrooms use the knowledge learned in the course units (Chen et al., 2019). The OPJBL used in the ESP course within this study context were interconnected and subsequently integrated to form a bigger task; listening, speaking, reading, and writing should be integrated with various activities in PJBL related to the ESP.

2.2 Language Learning and Online Project-Based Learning

Online project-based learning (OPJBL) is a complete teaching technique in which students work together to study and solve an issue in an organized and supportive online environment. OPJBL is defined as a person or group action that takes place over time and results in production, presentation, or engagement via online instruction (Awuor et al., 2022). Project-based learning is reflected in this study via the creation of OPJBL. OPJBL typically has a timeline, milestones, and other features of formative review as the project progresses (Heo et al., 2010). This innovative instructional technique involves students in gaining information and skills through an extensive investigation process organized around complex, genuine inquiries and carefully constructed products and assignments. The preceding concepts are represented in constructivist learning theory, where students create knowledge by attempting to construct meaning using their previous and present knowledge.

In language learning, when students engage in meaningful debate and interaction with more capable classmates or professors, concepts emerge, and understanding occurs. This encourages students to model problem solving, and aid in the discovery of solutions, enabling them to track progress and assess success while participating in PJBL. PJBL is undeniably advantageous to students because they learn and practice skill sets and language skills while completing project activities. PJBL encourages students to distribute concepts learned in configurations that are similar to the real contexts into prospective scenarios, as students believe language learning is connected to their daily lives (Petersen & Nassaji, 2016). It solidifies students' diverse needs and abilities in the cooperative nature of the project task (Moss & van Duzer, 1998). In addition, PJBL provides students with project-related skills such as planning, organizing, negotiating, reaching consensus, accepting responsibility, conducting research, and presenting information (Petersen & Nassaji, 2016). The activities allow students to gain significant insight and interpretation from their peers and materials, beyond their current language knowledge (Kearney & Ellis, 1995). Incorporating PJBL into a professional communication skill unquestionably increases language learning while meeting employer needs. Project-based work is seen to be ideal for assessing both language and employability abilities (Moss & van Duzer, 1998).

2.3 The Study

The four constructs examined in this study are teacher performance, technological resources, OPJBL, and learning outcomes. To examine the disparities appearing in all variables, demographic information (location) was also incorporated (see Figure 1). Previous research has evaluated the quality of teacher performance in terms of educational, training, and research outcomes (Arimoto et al., 2012). Teacher performance focusing on the quality improvement of their teaching could increase the degree of student motivation and the quality of higher-order thinking skills based on the implemented course (Brown et al., 2011; Dehdashti et al., 2013; Fu & Sibert, 2017; Khalil & Kibble, 2014). The purpose of this study is to examine if teacher performance affects OPJBL and ESP learning outcomes to better understand the role of teacher performance in ensuring course implementation success and improving learning outcomes. Prior research has also found that instructional resources are essential influences in ensuring course implementation success (Cobb et al., 2015; Mehralizadeh et al., 2017). The term 'technology resource' is used in this study to refer to all items needed to implement the program. The impacts of resources such as the library, computers, classroom space, and laboratory facilities on the OPJBL and learning outcomes have been investigated. The course implementation is a multi-step process involving many different approaches. The totality of information, knowledge, abilities, and competencies that students should have after an ESP course is referred to as ESP learning outcomes. Aside from examining factors that influence the OPJBL and learning outcomes, demographic data were also included (Hammer, 2011). Demographic information provides data on research respondents and is required to establish whether respondents in a given study differ in their attitudes toward the topics at hand. To complement the structural model, the location of the respondents was included for the different tests related to OPJBL and learning outcomes.

The instrument was distributed to all ESP students after one-semester implementation of the OPJBL during school closure due to Covid-19. A 7-point Likert-type scale instrument was included to achieve the purposes of the study and it was discussed with four users and five experts. The main data were computed in the SmartPLS 3.3 to report the measurement and structural model of the study. Besides, the data were also computed through SPSS 23.0 for the tests of difference. A number of nine hypotheses were included in this study:

H1. Teacher performance will significantly affect OPJBL.
H2. Technological resources will significantly affect OPJBL.
H3. Teacher performance will have a significant role in affecting ESP learning outcomes.
H4. Technological resources will have a significant role in affecting ESP learning outcomes.
H5. OPJBL will have a significant role in affecting ESP learning outcomes.
H6. Teacher performance will be statistically different based on location.
H7. Technological resources will be significantly different based on location.
H8. OPJBL will be statistically different based on location.
H9. ESP learning outcomes will be significantly different based on location.

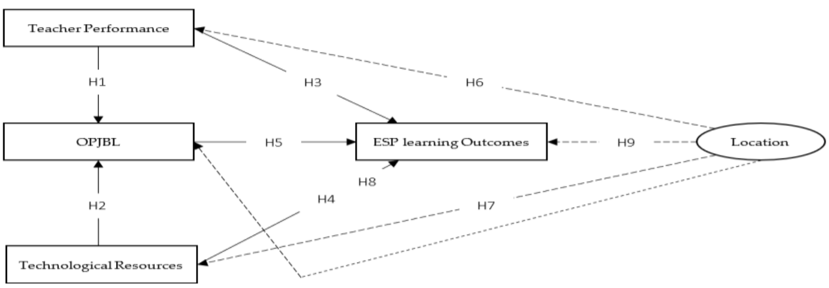

Figure 1. OPJBL-evaluation framework.

3. METHODS

3.1 Instrumentation and Data Collection

A self-administered questionnaire was developed for this study, which was adapted from previous research (Brown et al., 2011; Mehralizadeh et al., 2017; Watson et al., 2013). Furthermore, consultations with teachers having extensive expertise in ESP greatly contributed to the questionnaire development. The perceptions of students who have experience with the OPJBL, attending the course for one academic semester, were evaluated using four constructs: teacher performance, technological resources, OPJBL, and ESP learning outcomes (see Table 1). The scale included descriptive indicators for self-reporting on the OPJBL and the learning outcome, intending to improve the ESP course quality. Our survey instrument comprised thirty indicators in its first draft. The survey's initial validation included suggestions from users and professionals; the users were four ESP students having similar characteristics to the main samples of the study, while the professionals were five curriculum and educational technology experts with experience in research and teaching activities. In face validity, four ESP students contacted had previously attended the OPJBL. The extent to which an initial evaluation or assessment appears to assess the construct is defined as face validity. When an assessment appears to perform what it claims to do, it is tested for face validity (Nevo, 1985; Umanath & Coane, 2020). As a result, users' perceptions of the scale proposed in this research are critical. Five experts, including two academics in curriculum and instruction and university professors with experience in ESP, were invited to discuss the indicators as part of the content validity.

Through these two phases of initial validity procedures, five indicators were dropped, while five others were revised. Three indicators were dropped due to unsuitable context and setting, and two were eliminated because of repetition statements. Five indicators were revised to facilitate understanding of the indicator statements. As a result, twenty-five indicators were present in the final version distributed for the main data collection (see Table 1). Responses were given on a 7-point Likert-type scale, and a back-translation procedure was implemented (Behr, 2017). The scale was translated from English to Indonesian language and vice versa. Two translation experts were invited to discuss the back-translation process.

Table 1. Construct, indicators, and definition of the scale.

Construct	Indicators (25)	Definition
Teacher performance	TP1-TP6	Educational and training quality of the ESP teacher.
Technological resources	TR1-TR3	The infrastructures of the university supporting OPJBL.
OPJBL	OPJBL1-OPJBL10	Online courses, ESP, implemented during school closures due to Covid-19.
ESP learning outcomes	ESPLO1-ESPLO6	The degree to which respondents perceived enhancements of their cognitive knowledge, skills, and abilities after the implementation of OPJBL in ESP.

3.2 Respondents

The target subjects consisted of students who had attended ESP courses through the implementation of OPJBL. The survey was conducted as an evaluation tool for the course implementation. The inclusion criterion was having attended ESP courses. For sampling procedures, *G power 3 was used to examine multiple linear regression (Mukminin et al., 2020). *G power is a statistical analysis program designed to analyse different types and different statistical tests, such as the *F*, *t*, chi-square, and *z* tests. Issues relating to sample size can also be computed in *G power (Erdfelder et al., 1996). For four key predictors, the computation showed 146 minimal samples for this study. This study collected 347 measurable responses from 350 respondents or students who had passed ESP courses with OPJBL as one of the teaching strategies from two institutions.

3.3 Data Analysis

To be able to draw conclusions from the study, three phases were conducted: measurement model evaluation, structural model evaluation, and demographic difference level evaluation. The Partial Least Square Equation Modelling (SEM-PLS) procedure was used to assess the measurement model, including implicit or explicit models relating the latent variable to its indicators, by reporting reflective indicator loadings, internal consistency reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity (Habibi et al., 2021; Hair et al., 2019). Similarly, with the elaboration of path coefficient and R2, the structural model was evaluated using PLS-SEM techniques. A t-test was used to determine whether there were any changes in OPJBL and ESP learning outcomes based on respondent location

4. RESULTS

4.1 Measurement Model

As previously mentioned, the assessment of indicator loadings, internal consistency reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity were included to report the measurement model of the study. For the indicator loadings, according to the recommendation by Hair et al. (2014), the outer loadings should be ≥.708. However, indicators loading above .500 were still retained. Since some experts argue that if indicators loaded between 0.5 and 0.7 are to be included, the values of average variance extraction (AVE) must be between 0.5 and 0.7 (Hair et al., 2011; Noor et al., 2019). From the computation, two items' loadings were below 0.600. All loadings having values below the threshold should be subsequently dropped (Hair et al., 2014). The items dropped in this phase were OPJBL1 and OPJBL2. After cleaning the low-value of loading, 23 items remained for the next assessment phase of the measurement model (see Table 1).

Further, the internal consistency reliability was used to evaluate the consistency of results across items. Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability (CR) were tested (Habibi et al., 2020a), in which the values of the alpha and CR should be between 0 and 1. Greater values indicate a higher level of reliability. Both values must be higher than .700 (Hair et al., 2019). Table 1 presents the details of alpha and CR that are stable and have appropriate internal consistency reliability exceeding the recommended value of .700. For convergent validity, AVE values are recommended as the metric (Hair et al., 2019). The minimum acceptable AVE is ≥.500, which explains 50% or more of the items of the construct. From the computation, all constructs reached values higher than .500. Thus, convergent validity is not an issue in this measurement (see Table 1).

Table 2. Outer loading and construct validity and reliability.

Construct	**Items**	**Load**	**A**	**rho**	**CR**	**AVE**
ESP learning outcomes	ESPLO1: I can understand the learning materials of ESP	0.775	0.842	0.847	0.884	0.561
	ESPLO2: I can evaluate the ESP material	0.807				
	ESPLO3: My English writing is improved after the OPJBL	0.761				
	ESPLO4: I can speak English more fluently	0.667				
	ESPLO5: It is easier for me to understand people who are speaking English	0.792				
	ESPLO6: I can read English materials better	0.680				
Online Project-based Learning	OPJBL10: The OPJBL trains students to be more active in English speaking	0.740	0.901	0.902	0.920	0.591
	OPJBL2: The meeting sessions for the ESP course were held appropriately	0.717				
	OPJBL3: A scoring system for each learning objective is sufficient	0.790				
	OPJBL4: The evaluation system of each meeting through OPJBL is properly developed	0.748				
	OPJBL5: Teaching materials regarding the ESP course are sufficient	0.808				
	OPJBL6: When I finished the course, I felt more competent in ESP	0.827				
	OPJBL7: The OPJBL includes material related to the development of dynamic learning	0.774				
	OPJBL8: The OPJBL can provide a clear picture of the teaching and learning process	0.737				
Teacher performance	TP1: The ESP teacher dedicates sufficient time to teach students and support the learning process	0.702	0.871	0.872	0.903	0.608
	TP2: The teacher has appropriate qualifications and expertise in ESP, suitable for student learning	0.773				
	TP3: The teaching workload allows the teacher to fully carry out their roles	0.836				
	TP4: The teacher provides students with a variety of ESP learning methods and approach	0.832				

Table 2 continued…

Teacher performance	TP5: The teacher has appropriate teaching and research experience for ESP	0.768				
	TP6: The teacher facilitates innovative methods and thinking for the development of hard skills and soft skills of students in the field of ESP	0.761				
Technological resources	TR1: Computer and information technology facilities support the OPJBL	0.869	0.790	0.810	0.876	0.703
	TR2: The Internet access necessary to OPJBL is available	0.864				
	TR3: OPJBL is compatible with the device I use	0.780				

The discriminant validity is the extent to which a construct is empirically distinct from other constructs in the structural model (Hair et al., 2019). The discriminant validity was assessed through cross-loading and the heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio of correlations. The cross-loading could emerge if loading on a construct is greater than that of all its cross-loadings on the other constructs (Hair et al., 2019). Based on the computations, the outer loadings in Table 2 (in bold and italic) for every construct were greater than the whole cross-loadings on the other constructs. To sum up, the discriminant validity is established through the assessment of cross-loadings. Another assessment (the main consideration for the discriminant validity) is HTMT. The threshold for HTMT in this study follows the rules of Hair et al. (2019); HTMT should be below .900. As shown in Table 3, all HTMT values are below .900. Therefore, the discriminant validity of the active constructs is acceptable.

Table 3. Cross loading.

	ESP learning outcomes	**OPJBL**	**Teacher performance**	**Technological resources**
ESPLO1	***0.775***	0.554	0.534	0.386
ESPLO2	***0.807***	0.564	0.556	0.408
ESPLO3	***0.761***	0.478	0.487	0.411
ESPLO4	***0.667***	0.406	0.412	0.308
ESPLO5	***0.792***	0.555	0.577	0.381
ESPLO6	***0.680***	0.564	0.624	0.301
OPJBL10	0.496	***0.740***	0.579	0.339
OPJBL2	0.530	***0.717***	0.561	0.364
OPJBL3	0.579	***0.790***	0.618	0.424
OPJBL4	0.563	***0.748***	0.631	0.351
OPJBL5	0.586	***0.808***	0.607	0.300
OPJBL6	0.574	***0.827***	0.602	0.305
OPJBL7	0.496	***0.774***	0.501	0.309
OPJBL8	0.468	***0.737***	0.546	0.333
TP1	0.662	0.659	***0.702***	0.289
TP2	0.515	0.578	***0.773***	0.340
TP3	0.576	0.609	***0.836***	0.397
TP4	0.548	0.596	***0.832***	0.384
TP5	0.492	0.487	***0.768***	0.343
TP6	0.528	0.584	***0.761***	0.376

Table 3 continued…

TR1	0.460	0.411	0.433	***0.869***
TR2	0.399	0.424	0.408	***0.864***
TR3	0.366	0.259	0.282	***0.780***

Table 4. Heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT).

	ESP learning outcomes	**OPJBL**	**Teacher performance**
OPJBL	0.795		
Teacher performance	0.821	0.846	
Technological Resources	0.596	0.514	0.538

4.2 Structural Model

Assessment of the structural model for the course evaluation included an examination of the model's predictive capabilities. The process began with an examination of multicollinearity. The path coefficients (β) and the coefficient of determination (R^2) were examined. Multicollinearity issue emerges when two or more predictors in the model are correlated, which provides redundant information regarding the response. Multicollinearity in PLS-SEM should be measured by variance inflation factors (VIF). When VIF values exceed 4.0, there will be an issue with multicollinearity (Hair et al., 2010). Two sets of predictors were examined to obtain the VIF values, 1) Teacher performance and technological resources as the predictors of OPJBL; 2) Teacher performance, technological resources, and OPJBL as the predictors of learning outcomes (see Table 4). All VIF values were lower than 4.0; thus, multicollinearity is not an issue for the model of this study.

The assessment of the structural model is done to assess if the relationships are significant between exogenous and endogenous variables. The data were bootstrapped with a sub-sample of 5000, reporting that five coefficient correlations are significant with an assumption of a 5% significance level. The significances support H1 (teacher performance will significantly affect OPJBL), H2 (technological resources will significantly affect OPJBL), H3 (teacher performance will have a significant role in affecting ESP learning outcomes), H4 (technological resources will have a significant role in affecting ESP learning outcomes), and H5 (OPJBL will have a significant role in affecting ESP learning outcomes). Teacher performance has a significant contribution to OPJBL (β=.702; p<.01) that supports H1, the highest significant relationship. Similarly, technological resources have significant effects on OPJBL (β=.125; p<.01), supporting H2. Teacher performance significantly predicts OPJBL (β=.392; p<.01) that endorses H3. ESP learning outcomes are also significantly predicted by technological resources (β=.164; p<.01), confirming H4. Finally, OPJBL was found to be significant in determining ESP learning outcomes (β=.331; p<.01); supporting H5. The coefficient of determination (R^2) is reported to support the structural model. The R^2 is defined as the value measuring the model's predictive accuracy and is calculated as the square's correlation between a specific endogenous construct's actual and predicted values (Rigdon, 2012). R^2 value should be between 0 and 1. A greater value indicates a greater level of predictive accuracy. The R^2 value of .75 is considered substantial, .50 is moderate, and .25 is weak (Hair, et al., 2019). Figure 2 exhibits the result of R^2; OPJBL (R^2=0.594, moderate), and ESP learning outcomes (R^2=0.588, moderate). In conclusion, the data of this study is at an appropriate level of predictive accuracy or R^2.

Table 5. VIF, β, t, and p values.

H		VIF	β	M	*t* value	*p*-value
H1	Teacher performance -> OPJBL	1.299	0.702	0.703	20.246	0.000
H2	Technological resources -> OPJBL	1.261	0.125	0.125	3.113	0.002
H3	Teacher performance -> ESP learning outcomes	2.456	0.392	0.394	6.304	0.000
H4	Technological resources -> ESP learning outcomes	1.261	0.164	0.166	3.631	0.000
H5	OPJBL -> ESP learning outcomes	2.427	0.331	0.330	5.378	0.000

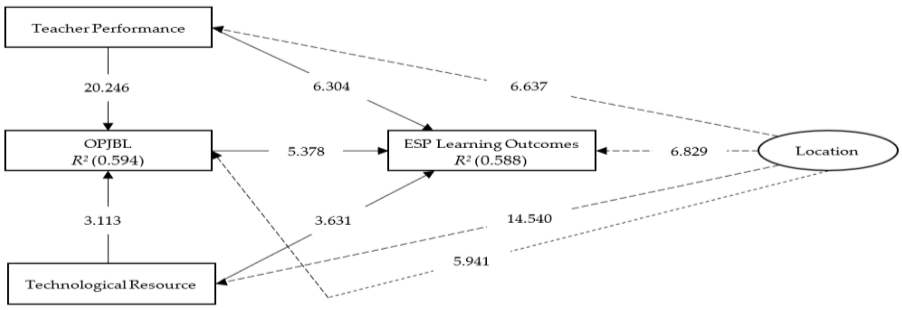

Figure 2. Final framework; *t*-value.

4.3 Differences Based on Respondent Location

In addition to the structural model reported in this study, demographic information (respondent location) is different regarding all variables; teacher performance, technological resources, OPJBL, and ESP learning outcomes. A number of 145 respondents were urban residents, while 202 were rural residents (see Table 5). The *t*-test findings reported that a significant difference emerged between locations regarding teacher performance (t=6.637; p<.01); the result confirms H6 (teacher performance will be statistically different based on location). Similarly, the technological resources are also reported to be significantly different based on location (t=2.079; p<.05), supporting H7 (technological resources will be significantly different based on location). OPJBL and ESP learning outcomes are also different based on the research participants' location; with the significance levels being below .01 with *t* values of 5.941 and 6.829, respectively. The results reveal that H8 (OPJBL will be statistically different based on location), and H9 (ESP learning outcomes will be significantly different based on location) are accepted. Table 6 presents the details of the t-test results.

Table 6. Group statistics.

Location		N	Mean	Standard deviation	Standard error
TP	City	145	4.1241	0.51624	0.04287
	Village	202	3.7145	0.60074	0.04227
TR	City	145	3.9908	0.47458	0.03941
	Village	202	3.2162	0.49989	0.03517
OPJBL	City	145	4.1717	0.49000	0.04069
	Village	202	3.8134	0.59598	0.04193
ESPLO	City	145	3.9966	0.45832	0.03806
	Village	202	3.6427	0.48823	0.03435

Table 7. t-test.

	t	Degree of freedom	*p*-value	Mean differences	Standard error	95% Confidence interval	
						Lower	Upper
TP	6.637	345	0.000	0.40962	0.06171	0.28823	0.53100
TR	14.540	345	0.000	0.77463	0.05328	0.66984	0.87942
OPJBL	5.941	345	0.000	0.35836	0.06032	0.23971	0.47700
ESPLO	6.829	345	0.000	0.35381	0.05181	0.25192	0.45571

5. DISCUSSION

Construct validity and reliability of the current study were assessed using face, content validity, and measurement model. Based on the computations, 23 valid and reliable indicators were reported. The valid and reliable criteria of the scale might be used to shape future evaluations of ESP courses with similar interests in diverse locations and scenarios; future researchers can adopt, adapt, or extend the instrument. Previously, certain studies have been conducted in the context of curriculum and educational technology with similar procedures to validate and assess instrument reliability (Hernández-Ramos et al., 2014; Mehralizadeh et al., 2017; Scherer et al., 2017), supporting the results of these validation procedures.

Furthermore, all hypotheses' significant correlations are reported in this study. Teacher performance had a direct impact on OPJBL (H1), with the structural model showing the strongest link. This influence was around five times that of the technological resources and OPJBL combined (H2). This means that the quality of the teacher's performance is critical in explaining the course integration in the ESP course after one semester of deployment. In other words, students' opinions of OPJBL integration will increase significantly if they receive more mentor encouragement in course integration (Gerlach, 2008).

According to a recent study, academic course assessments should be centered on the teaching performance activity (Koo et al., 2016). Studies have significantly informed that student-teacher interactions are crucial for successful course integration in education (Fu & Sibert, 2017; Khalil & Kibble, 2014). Similarly, the current study found that instructor performance and technological resources have a significant effect on ESP learning result prediction (H3 and H4). Academic departments with technology programs could increase teacher performance by taking into account their contacts with students, qualifications, knowledge, and effective teaching methods. Quality improvement strategies and technological resources could be applied to assist students to raise their standards for their future careers. Therefore, the results indicate that in the ESP setting, the two factors (teacher performance and technological resources) must be improved to increase learning outcomes.

The OPJBL course quality can be characterized as a determining factor in increasing ESP learning outcomes in this study (H5). Students who rated the OPJBL materials as appropriate reported an increase in their learning abilities, teamwork, and knowledge. According to the reports, OPJBL has a considerably favourable impact on student ESP achievement. The types of instructional methodologies used at the tertiary level play an important role in providing students with the knowledge and skills needed to succeed in their chosen profession (Watson et al., 2013; YuekMing & Manaf, 2014). Educational activities that engage students in a planned course may inspire situations that can improve educational outcomes and students' future professional preparedness regarding their English skills.

The differences in all variables (teacher performance, technological resources, OPJBL, and ESP learning outcomes) were computed to support the conclusions based on respondents' location. According to the *t*-test, respondents from urban and rural environments vary in all factors. Students living in cities benefit more from technology access (Silviyanti & Yusuf, 2014), which influences all types of opinions they had about OPJBL ESP in this study. Furthermore, school sites play an important role in the differences in OPJBL and ESP learning outcomes, alluding to the disparity between cities and villages in terms of digital technology infrastructure and training (Conrads et al., 2017).

6. CONCLUSION

The structural model, generated from this study, is beneficial for evaluating ESP courses and allowing all stakeholders to gain important data for internal program design and assessing the educational environment fit. One of the most successful ways to teach an ESP course is through project-based learning (Shaalan, 2020). The students not only study the fundamental concept of ESP theoretically but also build projects to demonstrate it.

The current study, however, does have some limitations. The research only analysed data from two academic institutions concentrating on ESP courses, and the variables developed may be limited to this study field. As a result, alternative contexts and study settings for course evaluation are suggested. Further data collection methods such as interviews, experiments, and research and development are recommended for future investigations. The suggestion can serve as a guide for different majors in using internet devices to perform project-based learning. It is critical to advance online teaching and learning, particularly during Covid-19, when schools are closed, and face-to-face learning is prohibited in several big cities to reduce the Covid-19 spread.

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Texts Used in the English Language Arts Classroom of an American Islamic School

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Abstract

In this article, we examine what texts were selected for use by a middle school language arts teacher working in an American Islamic school. The literature has found that schools play an important role in supporting immigrant students to navigate a new culture, especially by selecting and providing appropriate texts for learning. Since students' interaction with texts can mediate knowledge and identity construction, what cultural information and whose culture is embedded in the texts matter for language learning. As such, we wondered what texts a teacher would use to bridge the minority culture of the students with the majority culture in which the students lived. One teacher's language arts class with 20 students at one American Islamic school was observed for one academic quarter and then described using a case study method. We qualitatively analyzed classroom observations, field notes, teacher interviews, and teacher and student work samples. We found that the teacher was able to use both academic texts, virtual texts, and teacher-created documents to explore some of the issues that the students face on a daily basis. This study further adds to the existing knowledge that culturally relevant texts may mediate students' understanding of the larger socio-historical contexts in which they reside including a chance to develop language skills necessary for communication and learning.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Immigrant children constitute the largest minority and the fastest-growing sector of the U.S. child population (Toppelberg & Collins, 2010). The majority of these children are ‘second-generation immigrants’, children born in the U.S. to one or two foreign-born parents, and most of them speak a language other than English at home. This population presents new challenges and opportunities for classroom teachers. Studies have shown that immigrant children often struggle to navigate the culture and language of their school and community. The major impediment for this student population to successfully participate in U.S. classrooms is their limited English proficiency which can lead to failure in literacy attainments and other subjects (August et al., 2014; Martinez et al., 2014). This process of becoming competent members of their community also entails a negotiation of new identities at the intersection of becoming an American while retaining their heritage (Ghiso & Low, 2012; Lucas, 2011).

Additionally, immigrant children’s literacy and personal identities as learners are often developed in faith settings, including faith-based schools and places of worship like churches or mosques (Baquedano-López 2008; Gregory et al., 2012). These settings provide uniqueness and exclusiveness for children’s literacy development that is intertwined with faith-based literacy practices in addition to the process of knowledge building. Specifically, Lytra et al. (2016) argue that children in these settings acquire rich and complex language and literacy repertoires, extending two or more languages and scripts, including vernacular, standardized, and liturgical languages. Children in these settings not only share a common faith, beliefs, and values but also develop literacy skills that create social affiliation and belonging over time and space through continued socialization (Peele-Eady, 2011).

Understanding immigrant children’s interaction with literacy in faith settings like religious-based schools or places of worship provides a window to the children’s experiences of becoming community members and academically literate citizens. Faith-based settings provide both personal and community support for immigrant children’s learning. Researchers in this area highlight that texts can mediate immigrant students’ literacy learning, especially when the texts acknowledge their agency and identity (Campano & Ghiso, 2010; Honeyford, 2014). Through continuous use of texts, immigrant students simultaneously internalize and challenge the dominant sociocultural knowledge of a society different from their own (Veum et al., 2020; Zine, 2008). Other studies have also demonstrated that immigrant children’s interaction with various types of texts may enrich their language skills, such as oral language and comprehension (e.g. DelliCarpini, 2008; Kibler et al., 2015; Purdy, 2008). Thus, the texts available and used in schools matters for immigrant students’ literacy learning.

1.1 Integrating Cultural Information in Texts

Immigrant students bring a set of distinct knowledge and cultural capital into the classroom. We undertook a wide-ranging review to identify what literature would inform this study. First, we are in line with the notion that what cultural information and whose culture is brought into the classroom needs to be carefully examined (Lantolf, 2011) because culture can support language learning (Drucker, 2003; Hite & Evans, 2006; Toppel, 2015). As such, teachers must make connections between the students' culture and the target culture read in the text. Thus, this study is grounded in the notion and the significance of culturally-relevant texts for learning (e.g. Kganetso, 2016; Louie & Sierschynski, 2015; Sharma & Christ, 2017) and the notion of culturally-linguistically relevant pedagogy to facilitate the English and literacy learning in the mainstream classroom (e.g., de Oliveira & Shoffner, 2009; Islam & Park, 2015; Lucas & Villegas, 2013; Lucas et al., 2008; Lucas et al., 2014).

The idea of including or integrating cultural information in texts in the mainstream classroom lies in the underpinning notion that children need to develop a particular schema, including cultural schema and background knowledge to comprehend text (Drucker, 2003). In particular, they easily understand a meaning of the text that appears similar or close to their own culture. In their description of how teachers could implement more culturally relevant teaching, Sharma and Christ (2017) argued that a greater diversity of perspective and culture within the classroom can be represented in texts that reflect such diversity. This suggests that teachers should reflect on and evaluate their own beliefs and the framework of teaching and learning.

In a similar vein, Kganetso (2016) argued that compared to other genres of text, access to procedural and informative/explanatory genres that are culturally relevant is limited. Informational texts have been used largely to develop students' expertise in the content area, including in language and literacy learning. As students progress through school, they are required to rely more on informational texts to acquire knowledge across disciplines (e.g., science experiments, history books). As such, Sharma and Christ's (2017) notion may be followed with an extra emphasis on familiar content and genre-specific characteristics and processes, not just relevance or responsiveness.

Louie and Sierschynski (2015), in addition, suggested another way to incorporate cultural information in the text by the use of a wordless picture book. This type of book poses all the literary elements and narrative structures as found in written texts but is delivered through a series of illustrations. It allows students to engage with complex contents as they discuss complex meanings toward oral language and construct the written text of their own. The teacher's role is to help readers identify the plot and structure, the characters, and the setting of the book; support their decisions to use details from the book; and help readers orally retell the story, using details of the illustrations to construct a text.

1.2 The Present Study

Today's classroom may consist of very diverse students with various linguistic and cultural backgrounds. This diversity should be seen as a resource for learning in which its recognition in the class might facilitate language and literacy development. As such, teachers should make sure that the students have access to culturally relevant texts that help them build the necessary schema and background knowledge to construct meaning from the text. Additionally, teachers should make connections between the students' own culture and the target culture being learned. This connection can be built through the implementation of culturally responsive/relevant teaching in which issues around self, culture, larger social-political context, and knowledge construction are made visible during the process of learning. That being said, this notion supports Martinez et al.'s (2014) study that a culturally compatible classroom is needed for students to achieve higher rates of literacy attainment.

The purpose of this study was to answer the following research questions:

1. What kind of texts were available for and accessible to the students studying English Language Arts (ELA) in an American Islamic School?
2. How do the ELA teacher used these texts to bridge the students' minority culture with the dominant majority culture?

By minority culture, we mean practices and viewpoints held by immigrant Muslim children and community, and by majority culture we mean the practices and viewpoints held by the city in which the school was located. The site of the study was a private Islamic school situated in a suburban Midwestern area of the U.S., which teaches a state-approved literacy curriculum to Muslim children.

2. METHODS

Using a case study design, we wanted to explore what kinds of texts are available and how a middle school language arts teacher used the texts to bridge students' minority culture with the dominant majority culture. The case study that we used in this study is grounded in Merriam's (1998) work. She states that a case study is a descriptive-holistic-analytical tool to help uncover the complexity of a particular case bounded to its complex context that cannot be made explicit in other research designs.

2.1 Site and Participants

We conducted the study in an Islamic private school situated in a suburban Midwestern area of the United States where the classrooms were composed predominantly of students with diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds. The participants included one English Language Arts (ELA) teacher and 20 sixth graders. The ELA teacher was selected based on the recommendation of the school principal and her willingness to participate in the study. Generally, not all teachers in private schools are licensed by the state. However, the teacher participant in this study did successfully complete a graduate-level teacher preparation program, held a state-issued teaching license, and had 5 years of teaching experience. The teacher participant self-identified herself as an American Egyptian who speaks English as her primary language and Arabic as a second language. In this paper, the teacher is coded with TC, while the students are coded as S1, S2, S3 and so forth, until S20.

In addition to the teacher participant, we sent parental consent forms to parents whose students were taught by the teacher participant in the sixth-grade classroom. The parents were asked to confirm their children's participation by returning a signed consent form. Their children's participation does not affect their performance at school. The 20 students whose parents/guardians responded positively to the study were included as participants. More demographic information about the student participants can be found in Table 1.

Table 1. Demographic information of the student participants.

Characteristics	Number of students
Number of student participants	20
Male students	5
Female students	15
Age range	11-12 years old
Language background:	
Somali	8
Arabic	7
Turkish	1
Indian	4
Parents' cultural background:	
Somalia	8
Syria	4
Egypt	3
Turkey	1
India	4
Socio-economic status:	
High-income family	6
Middle-income family	14

2.2 Data Collection and Analysis

We conducted data collection for four months. The tools of data collection included classroom observations, field notes, interviews, and documentation. The use of multiple tools for data collection is necessary in case study design to promote data validation and the holistic coherence of the inquiry (Merriam, 1998). The classroom observation was conducted to see what texts are available for and accessible to the student participants and to see how these texts were used by the participants in the classroom. Observations lasted for the duration of 2-hour English Language Arts classes for the second academic quarter which ran between four months. This equated to about 50 observations and 100 hours of instruction. We audiotaped all of the observations and used fieldnotes to record thick descriptions of the texts used in the classroom.

We also used interviews that focused on the teacher participant as a tool to understand her opinion and perceptions of the texts being used. Kvale (2007) explains that interviewing is a good way to find out how people make decisions. We conducted two types of teacher interviews. The first was short 1-2-minute interviews before and after lessons which allowed us to clarify what was observed and how the teacher made particular decisions on the texts. The second was two semi-structured hour-long interviews at the beginning and ending of the quarter in which deeper levels of questions related to text options, choices, and teaching were discussed. All of the conversations during the interviews were audio-recorded. Finally, we used documentation to collect information on texts used and produced by the teacher and students. Bretschneider et al. (2017) suggested that documenting work samples is a good way to understand the classroom.

In a qualitative case study, data collection and analysis are conducted simultaneously as suggested by Merriam (1998). Since our interest is to explore the kinds of texts and how they were used by the participants, we first organized the data obtained from the documentation into categories, such as print books, digital texts, teacher-made worksheets, and school policy and curriculum. We decided to start with this process to avoid collecting abundant data that were irrelevant to the research focus (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). Likewise, we conducted interviews with the teacher participant. We audiotaped, transcribed verbatim, analyzed, and coded all interview data into temporary categories (e.g. teacher perception of texts, teacher's decision making, school policy and curriculum, instructional practice). After that, we reanalyzed and compared these interview transcripts to the data obtained from observations, field notes, and documentation to find out similarities and differences related to our codes. We stopped the analysis process when a core category emerged and no more negative cases were found (Dei, 2004; Marshall & Rossman, 2016; Thornberg & Charmaz, 2014).

To address the trustworthiness of the study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Marshall & Rossman, 2016), we employed member-checks, peer-debriefings, negative case analysis, and data triangulation. The member checks were conducted with the teacher participant to support the confirmation of the findings. Peer-debriefings were conducted with two doctoral students and one university faculty member in literacy who were engaged in qualitative research. A negative-case analysis with a focus on instances, situations, and causes that may not fit with the patterns of interpretation was conducted. The intent was to reduce the effect of predisposed notions on the participants (Merriam, 1998).

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Using four kinds of data sources; documents, interviews, observations, and fieldnotes, we tried to make sense of the data to understand what texts were available for the students and how these texts were used by the middle school ELA teacher in literacy learning to bridge the students' minority culture with the dominant culture of the U.S society. We presented the findings in three sections based on the three main codes derived from the data analysis, including texts such as print books, digital texts, and teacher-made worksheets. Within each section, we offered multiple examples of each type and then described the contents of the material, how the teacher used the materials, and how the students responded.

3.1 Print Books

The state's learning standards for K-12 English Language Arts (ELA) advocate a wide range of independent and proficient reading in complex literary and informational texts. We found that in this study the participants read and discussed 'Bud Not Buddy' (Curtis, 1999), 'Out of the Dust' (Hesse, 1997), and 'Blood on the River' (Carbone, 2006), which contain stories portraying the history and cultural diversity of America. Since the student participants were considered second-generation immigrants whose parents came from different nationalities, their learning about American culture and the larger historical context was crucial, so that they can become competent and knowledgeable members of the community (Heath, 2010; Soto Huerta & Perez, 2015). During the process, their identity was also negotiated which included an intersection between what it means to be American and an effort to maintain their heritage (Ghiso & Low, 2012; Lucas, 2011).

The teacher selection of those texts was informed by the State Standard for ELA's literary texts for 6th-8th Grades as reported in Table 2. However, the list of texts in Table 2 is only a recommendation. The teacher in this study also considered text exemplars provided by the school curriculum, Wit & Wisdom. For example, the major theme of the literary texts of module one in this curriculum is 'Resilience in the Great Depression' with the essential question 'How can enduring tremendous hardship contribute to personal transformation?' ("Implementation guide: A guide for teachers," 2017, p. 22). Two suggested core texts were 'Bud Not Buddy' by Christopher Paul Curtis and 'Out of The Dust' by Karen Hesse. Different texts were suggested in the other modules.

Table 2. Print books selection.

Texts Suggested by the State Standards	Texts Suggested by Wit & Wisdom Curriculum	Teacher's Selection
1. Little Women by Louisa May Alcott (1868) 2. The Adventures of Tom Sawyer by Mark Twain (1876) 3. A Wrinkle in Time by Madeleine L'Engle (1962) 4. The Dark is Rising by Susan Cooper (1984) 5. Dragonwings by Laurence Yep (1975) 6. Roll of Thunder, Hear My Cry by Mildred D. Taylor (1976) 7. The People Could Fly by Virginia Hamilton (1985) 8. The Tale of The Mandarin Ducks by Katherine Paterson (1990) 9. Eleven by Sandra Cisneros (1994), and 10. Black Ships Before Troy: The Story of The Iliad by Rosemary Sutcliff (1993).	1. Bud Not Buddy by Christopher Paul Curtis (1999) 2. Out of the Dust by Karen Hesse (1997) 3. The Odyssey by Homer (1990) 4. Ramayana: Divine Loophole by Sanjay Patel (2010) 5. Blood on The River by Elisa Carbone (2006) 6. Written in Bone: Buried Lives in Jamestown and Colonial Maryland by Sally M Walker (2009) 7. Shipwreck at the Bottom of the World by Jennifer Armstrong (1998), and 8. I am Malala: How One Girl Stood Up for Education and Changed the World by Malala Yousafzai and McCormick (2013)	1. Bud Not Buddy by Christopher Paul Curtis (1999) 2. Out of The Dust by Karen Hesse (1997) 3. Blood on The River: James Town in 1607 by Elisa Carbone (2006) 4. Number the Stars by Lois Lowry (1989) 5. Written in the Bone: Buried Lives of Jamestown by Sally Walker (2009) 6. Shipwrecked at The Bottom of The World by Jennifer Armstrong (1998), and 7. I am Malala: How One Girl Stood Up for Education and Changed the World by Malala Yousafzai and McCormick (2013)

The teacher's selection of texts was mainly informed by the state standards and the school curriculum. However, her decision regarding the text quality was based on her judgment and teaching experience:

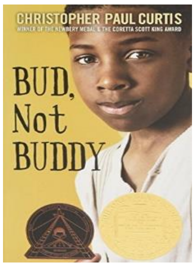
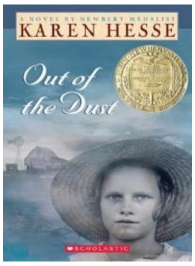
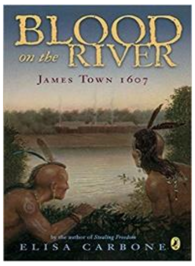
(1) "As different years go by and as I see how kids react to the book, I change the map a little bit. For example, in the Wit & Wisdom curriculum, I read the books that they gave us with the kids, you know, for the first time or I read them on my own, and then if I am bored with the book and I can't handle it, then I don't put my kids to read them". (TC)

She also explained that her selection of the book should be approved by the principal and be at the students' grade level. Grade 6 students are required by the state standards to read 6-7 books a year. Only the teaching of the first three books was observed during the study as can be seen in Table 3. The seven literary books selected by the teacher in Table 2 were expected to be read in four quarters throughout the academic year. Each quarter, which is a ten-week period, included two books to read. Because of different circumstances, the class may not finish all of the books within a year depending on the students' reading progress and any other possible interruptions.

(2) "Last year I did [finish all of the books]. This year I am not really sure because I have a lot of students in that class who are lower level than what I normally have last year. I slow it down a lot. We just have done with Bud Not Buddy. I should have been done with that like a month ago. I am doing a lot more hands-on group projects with them so they can grasp the information, so I doubt that we are going to get through every single book unless, you know, they pick up with them and start moving quickly". (TC)

We argue that the teacher's selection of the print books was considerate. Reading texts about past American society through a series of literacy events enabled the student participants to construct knowledge and identity in American culture within the timeframe and setting of the texts. Appropriate learning materials, in this case, books, can be extremely effective in fostering students' multicultural communication competence (Deswila et al., 2021). Additionally, the participants may connect to the global ecology or the larger social situations where the texts and the participants reside mediated by language or talk about the texts which take place in a local ecology (Erickson, 2004).

Table 3. Description of three books observed.

	'Bud Not Buddy' (Curtis, 1999) 'Bud Not Buddy' showcases the difficulties of the Great Depression and portrays American cultural diversity while encountering day-to-day issues of racism and discrimination against people with different skin color, economic status, and political views. In terms of alignment with state learning standards, this book contains opportunities for students to use knowledge of language and language conventions and enrich vocabulary acquisition, including figurative language, word relationships, and word nuances.
	'Out of The Dust' by Karen Hesse (1997) This book is related to 'Bud Not Buddy' which was set in the 1930s, but an American white child is the main character. The Dust Bowl or Dust Storm is also an important episode in the history of America during the Great Depression. This book portrays how a low-income American family struggled to survive financial difficulties during that time. It also pictures the condition of American society in general. 'Out of The Dust' (Hesse, 1997) is cleverly written in a poetry format, so it may be categorized as a cross-over novel or novel in verse.
	'Blood on the River': James Town 1607 by Elisa Carbone (2006) This book is about Native Americans and the new colonies in American history. It portrays the life and culture of Native Americans, which now have become an indigenous minority group in the U.S. The story of this group is crucial in American history because it tells the success and failure of European colonialism in the 'New World'. As a work of historical fiction, each chapter of this book begins with a quote from the primary source. These quotes became topics for classroom discussion.

3.2 Digital Texts

Digital texts were also available for the student participant that focus mainly on informational texts. We found that every student had access to the internet with an iPad and was used when the teacher asked them to research information on online sources. Most of the texts that they accessed on the internet were informational texts. The iPad was used only for certain activities like 'Current Events' as the teacher explained in an interview:

(3) "What I like to do is depending on the topic that we're on in class and the reading that we are doing, I like to have them figure out something that relates to a real-life situation, so that's when the 'Current Events' come in. And they watch the news, listen to the radio, and go online. So, I told them, you know there is a lot of racism going on these days right, not just against different people of different races, but also with religion. So, their 'Current Events' assignment was to go online or watch the news, and find the topic that relates to discrimination". (TC)

'Current Events' activity was usually conducted as an after-reading activity. The participants engaged in literacy events that reformulated their thoughts regarding the larger culture and history of the community around them. They also constructed a connection to how these issues relate to their current roles and identities within the community. The digital texts in this sense serve as mediational means for the student participants to understand what Gee (2013) said is a cultural model of society. A cultural model can be defined as "what is typical or normal from the perspective of a particular Discourse [or a related or aligned set of them" (p. 144), which is dynamic across times and spaces (Peele-Eady, 2011).

One of the students that observed during the 'Current Events' activity, S1, read an article, found on Google search, from the 'Guardian' about the life of a black man growing up in the U.S. The article was an argumentative text written by Brian Jones and published on June 6th, 2018. After having scanned a couple of other articles, he decided to use this particular article because he thought that it was easier to read and understand. Since the text was going to be gathered as an artifact, we asked why S1 decided to use this article. S1 stated:

(4) "I think this one is simpler like the sentences are easy to read. The writer of this article is a black man. Bud is also black. They have the same experience of racism in America. Bud's story was in the 1930 and this article is in 2018. It means that racism is still happening till today. That is why I think this article is related to the book 'Bud Not Buddy'". (S1)

To this end, this finding indicates that the digital text helped the student participant to make a connection to the texts previously read and construct new ideas for learning. A similar finding was found in Rajendra and Kaur's (2022) study which investigates how multimodal texts can help 10 secondary school students in Selangor, Malaysia generate ideas for their language learning. S1 built a sense of cultural awareness and understanding (Wąsikiewicz-Firlej, 2021), which according to Telaumbanua et al. (2020) is crucial for effective communication and establishing healthy social relationships in the future.

Another use of the iPad to research informational texts online was in the activity called 'Islamic Misconception'. It was a group work activity where the students were assigned to a topic related to common misconceptions about Islam in the U.S. They were given some time to work in their groups, search for supportive information, and solidify their arguments as a group. Each group needed to explain the misconception and defended their arguments during the whole class discussion. This is one example:

(5) T1 : But I see that there is a lot of war in Islamic countries, why is that? If Islam is so peaceful, why is that happening?
S2 : They [the society] think that we are terrorists because I read that Al Qaeda and ISIS consider themselves as Muslims, that's why they think we are terrorists.
S3 : There are terrorist groups like ISIS and Al Qaeda that consider themselves as Muslim. Fake Muslims. Bad Muslims. Also, in the holy book that we call the Quran, there is a verse in surah Maidah that says [reading an article in iPad] 'Indeed, the penalty for those who wage war against Allah and His Messenger and strive upon earth [to cause] corruption is none but that they be killed or crucified or that their hands and feet be cut off from opposite sides or that they be exiled from the land. That is for them a disgrace in this world, and for them in the Hereafter is a great punishment'. So, there is a huge punishment for people who start a war and kill their brothers.

In (5), the group's topic was 'Does Islam permit terrorism?' The students were trying to answer the teacher's question about why there is a lot of war in Islamic countries. S2 argued that ISIS and Al Qaeda were the terrorist groups that create a bad image of Islam in society. His argument was derived from a news article in The New York Times published on July 6th, 2018 entitled 'ISIS Maybe Waning but Global Threats of Terrorism Continue to Spread'. This finding indicates that the discourse used by the students contains an expression that is more of a feeling. It shows learning and understanding of the larger social context which derived from reading multiple texts. The complexity requires the building of relationships and coherence both inside and across texts (Britt & Rouet, 2012). Similar support to this argument was found in Triana et al.'s (2020) study examining students' social practices and discourses while engaging with digital texts on Facebook. They mention that the participants in their study were able to produce new discourses for discussion as a result of reading other texts.

3.3 Teacher-Made Worksheets

Another important finding related to what texts are available in literacy teaching and learning in this study was the teacher-made worksheets that focus on literary text, informational text, and vocabulary learning. Worksheets are considered texts because they resemble both texts and tasks that are used in the classroom (Evans & Cleghorn, 2022). Most of the teacher worksheets were used as supplementary materials to the main reading texts. The worksheets were in the form of reading comprehension tests or vocabulary tests. The worksheets were made in relation to the book that they currently read or a current class discussion.

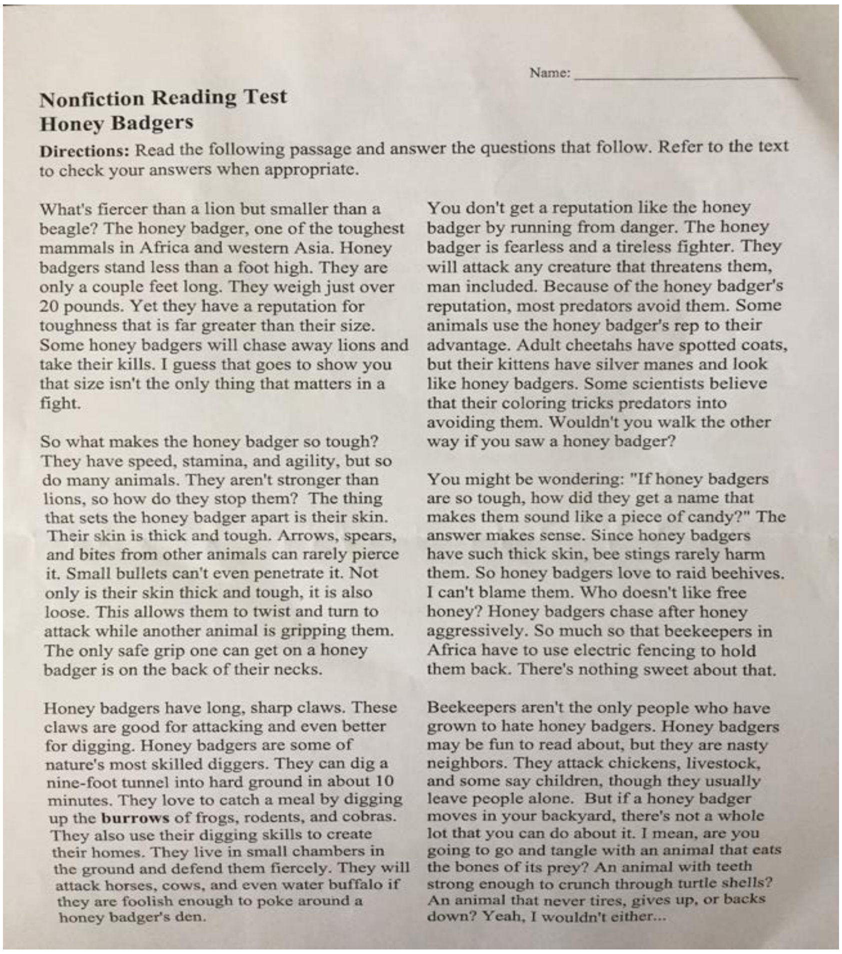
For example, when the class was reading 'Out of the Dust' (Hesse, 1997), the teacher provided the students with an additional text of a poem entitled 'The Dawn's Awake' by Otto Leland Bohanan. This poem was part of the Wit & Wisdom curriculum. Otto Leland Bohanan is an African American poet during the Harlem Renaissance which was the same setting as 'Out of the Dust' and 'Bud Not Buddy'. Generally, the poem expresses the power and beauty of a sunrise as it clears away the darkness. The teacher gave the students this poem because she wanted them to have more exposure to figurative language which is one of the language standards included in the state standards. The teacher asked some comprehension questions related to the poem and the figurative language embodied in the poem.

During an observation, we noticed that there were didactical steps taken by the teacher in using this text. First, the students were asked to read the poem individually and try to answer the questions that followed. The questions were about figurative languages, such as personification, hyperbole, metaphor, and imagery. After reading the poem individually, the teacher began a whole class discussion for comprehension. Since the poem has a complex level of meaning, the class had an extremely rigorous discussion to unpack the meaning. For example, they talked about an interpretation of the 'Dawn' beyond its literal meaning of what the 'Dawn' might represent. They also talked about the tone of the line "Fathers! Torn and numb,--" and how it is different from the rest of the poem.

The second form of teacher-made worksheets was in the form of informational text followed by reading comprehension questions using texts from the school curriculum. T1 argued that,

(6) "The supplementary materials, like the worksheets and vocabulary in Wit & Wisdom, are really good. Sometimes I use them if I think my students need more exercises or they need a break from the book that we read…". (T1)

Figure 1 is an example of this kind of text.



Name: ____________________

Nonfiction Reading Test
Honey Badgers

Directions: Read the following passage and answer the questions that follow. Refer to the text to check your answers when appropriate.

What's fiercer than a lion but smaller than a beagle? The honey badger, one of the toughest mammals in Africa and western Asia. Honey badgers stand less than a foot high. They are only a couple feet long. They weigh just over 20 pounds. Yet they have a reputation for toughness that is far greater than their size. Some honey badgers will chase away lions and take their kills. I guess that goes to show you that size isn't the only thing that matters in a fight.

So what makes the honey badger so tough? They have speed, stamina, and agility, but so do many animals. They aren't stronger than lions, so how do they stop them? The thing that sets the honey badger apart is their skin. Their skin is thick and tough. Arrows, spears, and bites from other animals can rarely pierce it. Small bullets can't even penetrate it. Not only is their skin thick and tough, it is also loose. This allows them to twist and turn to attack while another animal is gripping them. The only safe grip one can get on a honey badger is on the back of their necks.

Honey badgers have long, sharp claws. These claws are good for attacking and even better for digging. Honey badgers are some of nature's most skilled diggers. They can dig a nine-foot tunnel into hard ground in about 10 minutes. They love to catch a meal by digging up the **burrows** of frogs, rodents, and cobras. They also use their digging skills to create their homes. They live in small chambers in the ground and defend them fiercely. They will attack horses, cows, and even water buffalo if they are foolish enough to poke around a honey badger's den.

You don't get a reputation like the honey badger by running from danger. The honey badger is fearless and a tireless fighter. They will attack any creature that threatens them, man included. Because of the honey badger's reputation, most predators avoid them. Some animals use the honey badger's rep to their advantage. Adult cheetahs have spotted coats, but their kittens have silver manes and look like honey badgers. Some scientists believe that their coloring tricks predators into avoiding them. Wouldn't you walk the other way if you saw a honey badger?

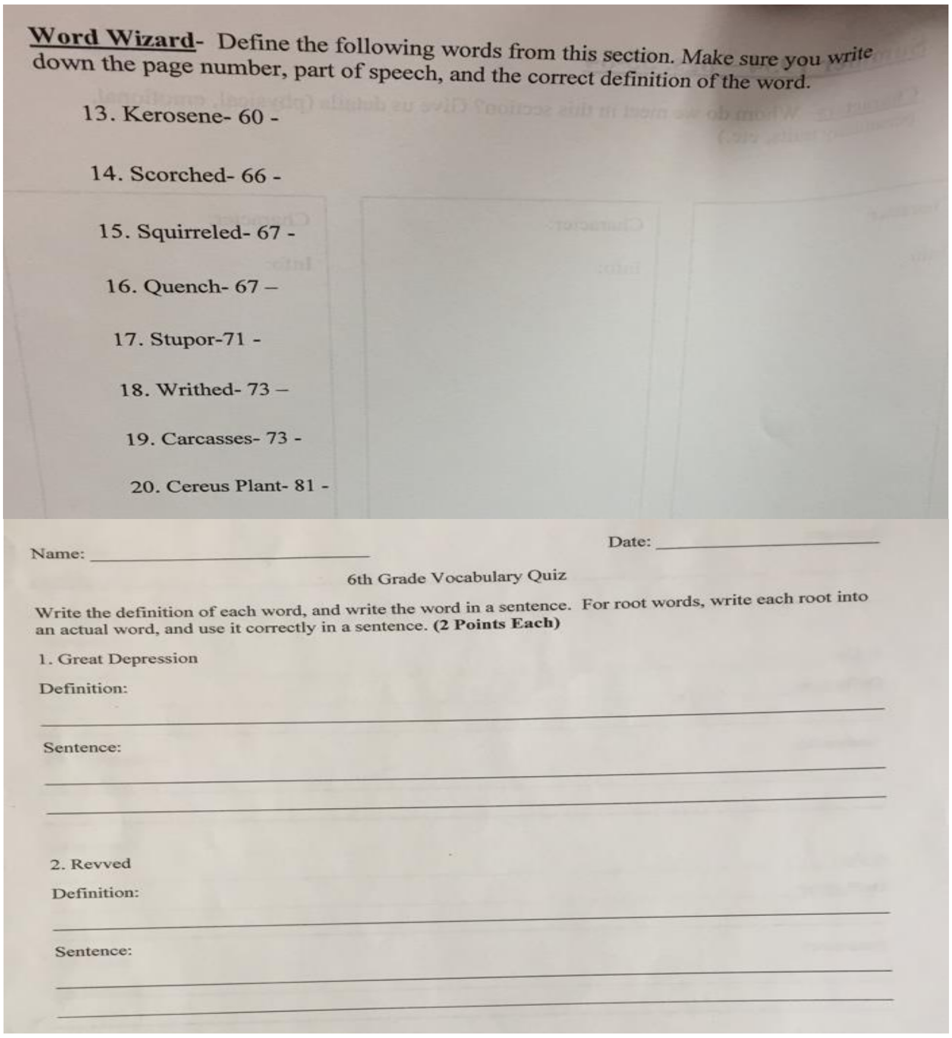
You might be wondering: "If honey badgers are so tough, how did they get a name that makes them sound like a piece of candy?" The answer makes sense. Since honey badgers have such thick skin, bee stings rarely harm them. So honey badgers love to raid beehives. I can't blame them. Who doesn't like free honey? Honey badgers chase after honey aggressively. So much so that beekeepers in Africa have to use electric fencing to hold them back. There's nothing sweet about that.

Beekeepers aren't the only people who have grown to hate honey badgers. Honey badgers may be fun to read about, but they are nasty neighbors. They attack chickens, livestock, and some say children, though they usually leave people alone. But if a honey badger moves in your backyard, there's not a whole lot that you can do about it. I mean, are you going to go and tangle with an animal that eats the bones of its prey? An animal with teeth strong enough to crunch through turtle shells? An animal that never tires, gives up, or backs down? Yeah, I wouldn't either...

Figure 1. Teacher-made worksheet on informational text

Figure 1 shows an informational text about 'Honey Badgers'. There are six paragraphs. Each paragraph consists of approximately eight to nine sentences. Some of the comprehension questions posted by the teacher following this text are questions about the main idea of each paragraph, the title, other textual information, the author's intention, and vocabulary questions.

The third form of teacher-made worksheets is related to vocabulary learning. The teacher argued that vocabulary is one of the major focuses of her teaching and it is also mandated in the state standards. The teacher always emphasized four aspects of the vocabulary that she introduced: definition, part of speech, a synonym of the word, and an example of the word in a sentence. Figure 2 is a teacher-made worksheet that asks the students to identify those components.



Word Wizard- Define the following words from this section. Make sure you write down the page number, part of speech, and the correct definition of the word.

13. Kerosene- 60 -
14. Scorched- 66 -
15. Squirreled- 67 -
16. Quench- 67 –
17. Stupor-71 -
18. Writhed- 73 –
19. Carcasses- 73 -
20. Cereus Plant- 81 -

Name: ______________ Date: ______________

6th Grade Vocabulary Quiz

Write the definition of each word, and write the word in a sentence. For root words, write each root into an actual word, and use it correctly in a sentence. **(2 Points Each)**

1. Great Depression

Definition:

Sentence:

2. Revved

Definition:

Sentence:

Figure 2. Teacher-made worksheet on vocabulary learning.

In Figure 2, the teacher made two different forms of vocabulary worksheets. The picture on the top consists of some vocabulary from 'Out of The Dust', such as kerosene, scorched, squirreled, quench, stupor, writhed, carcasses, and cercus plant. To complete this worksheet, the teacher asked the students to define each word and its part of speech. The teacher provided the page number where the word was located.

The picture below in Figure 2 was based on 'Bud Not Buddy'. The teacher asked the students to write a definition of the word and write the word in a sentence. For example, the word was 'Great Depression'. The students needed to fill in the blank provided in the worksheet for 'What does Great Depression mean?' and then provide a sentence that used the phrase Great Depression. Another example was the word 'revved'. Students were to define 'revved' and provide a sentence that used it.

Taken together, worksheets as supplementary texts play a significant role in language learning. Other studies have also demonstrated that worksheets enable students to exercise and learn better the concepts discussed in the classroom (Yerizon et al., 2018). When used appropriately, worksheets also promote learning autonomy, especially in building comprehension of texts (Kurniati & Suthum, 2019). Worksheets can also be an assessment tool in which teachers can also monitor students' progress in learning on how far they have internalized ideas and concepts (Ozturk & Tekin, 2020).

4. CONCLUSION

The findings showed that there were three types of texts available for the participants in this study: print books that focus on literary texts, digital texts that focus on informational text, and teacher-made worksheets that focus on literary text, informational text, and vocabulary learning. The texts were claimed to be inclusive of American culture as the target culture and the students' own minority culture. The idea of including or integrating cultural information in texts in the mainstream classroom lies in the underpinning notion that students need to develop a particular schema, including cultural schema and background knowledge, to comprehend text (Drucker, 2003). In particular, they will easily understand the meanings of the text that appear similar or close to their own culture. A greater diversity of perspective and culture within the classroom can be represented in texts that reflect the classroom diversity (Sharma & Christ, 2017).

Based on these findings, some recommendations can be made for ELA teachers. Teaching literacy to students with diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds requires teachers to select texts that permeate both the target culture and the students' own culture. The proximity between students' own culture and the target culture represented in the texts may facilitate students' reading comprehension. Additionally, culturally relevant texts may mediate students understanding of the larger socio-historical contexts where they reside. If the school is a religious school like Islamic school, text selection should consider the school's religious values, so that the students may have opportunities to develop knowledge and identity which are in line with their community practices.

Recommendations can also be made for future researchers. This study indicates that a culturally compatible classroom is needed for students to achieve higher rates of literacy attainment. More research is needed to support this framework. More research could demonstrate how culturally relevant teaching promotes literacy learning in mainstream classrooms through the instrumentation of multiple measures of literacy outcomes. For instance, experimental research could be conducted to examine the effects of this framework on outcome measures like reading comprehension or to evaluate whether this framework has more significant effects on literacy learning than other frameworks. More case studies, ethnographies, and discourse analyses are also needed to uncover teachers' decision-making and delivery of instruction, the detailed interaction and discourse processes of this framework within the classroom, and its connection to the sociocultural context of the students.

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Looking Inside an EFL Classroom: Promoting Productive Learning through Teachers' Questioning Strategies

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Abstract

Engaging students to participate in productive learning is a prerequisite for successful instruction. Teachers as instructional leaders should be creative and proactive in finding the best ways to enable effective learning to take place. One of the most well-known strategies is the use of appropriate 'questioning' during the instructional process. Teachers' questioning strategies can encourage learning, but at the same time, they can also discourage learning when they are not carried out effectively. As teachers' ways of posing questions are paramount for effective learning, it is timely to research this issue, teachers' ways of asking questions during classroom instruction, and their students' responses. The participants were two English teachers and their students at a secondary school in Aceh Province, Indonesia. The data were collected through classroom observations, in-depth interviews, and questionnaires. The study found that teachers used various questioning strategies, such as designing icebreaking activities and giving simple quizzes as attention grabbers. In addition, some types of questioning strategies, such as repetition, simplification, decomposition, structuring the questions, reacting to the students' answers (giving a reward, complimenting, and motivating the

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students), using native language, and giving students some wait time to think about the answers were among the many strategies applied in the classroom. These questioning strategies were considered effective by the teachers and students in the study to promote productive language learning.

Keywords: Instructional process, language classroom, secondary schools, students' engagement, questioning strategies.

1. INTRODUCTION

Teaching is a complex yet interesting profession; it requires not only teachers' knowledge of content but also teachers' pedagogical knowledge (Ashton, 2018). Teachers play a highly important role in classroom instruction. Their responsibilities range from determining appropriate teaching materials to managing the classroom for effective teaching to occur (Lazarides et al., 2018). Effective teachers would identify the most suitable teaching techniques and encourage students to engage in productive learning (Livingston, 2017; Louws et al., 2017). In fact, the basic tenet of the modern pedagogical process is in teachers' ability to encourage students to be fully participative in their learning, since it is only by doing so that students can absorb, seek, apply and share their skills and knowledge (Abdullah et al., 2012). In addition, Dewey (2019), the initiator of pragmatism argued that learning takes place only when someone experiences the process of learning, and this experience is only possible through prolonged interaction between teachers and students (Schmidt, 2010). For this reason, mutual interaction in the classroom is seen as mandatory. One way to encourage students to engage in the learning process effectively is through the good use of questioning strategies in the classroom. This is because the types of questions a teacher poses can yield various results; they may trigger an active classroom or vice versa. The questioning strategies also delimit teachers' domination during teaching, which represents the modern language teaching atmosphere (Zulfikar, 2015).

Brown (2001) emphasized the need for strategies to prevent teachers from dominating the class. It is important to note that classroom domination by teachers does not only harm students' creativity but also reduces students' ability to grasp subject matters (Otukile-Mongwaketse, 2018). In addition, Kim (2015) stated that "in the learning process, teachers' talk time, the structure of questions and students' response has a relation with teachers' strategies in the classroom" (p. 118). For that reason, teachers are encouraged to use appropriate strategies to attract their students' learning attention. To engage and stimulate students to participate in classroom instruction, teachers need to take initiative, in which they could use group discussions, pair work, collaborative learning, and questioning (Anderson et al., 2018). Teachers' questioning is an important part of the teaching process because it allows students to swiftly participate in classroom activities. Teacher-student and student-student interactions should occur during the learning process. Teachers' classroom questioning is at the heart of this interaction, and classroom questioning is important in teaching, especially in the context of EFL education.

Furthermore, questioning can improve communication between teachers and students while energizing the classroom environment at the same time. Students' attention and interest in class might be piqued by teachers' questions (Yang, 2017). It is believed that teachers' questions are paramount in the learning process. Questions, when they are posed appropriately, will not only stimulate students to think critically but also become ice-breakers for classroom interaction. However, if questions are wrongly put, it may impact students' learning motivation negatively (Yang, 2017).

It is important to note that, although studies on teachers' questioning strategies have been abundant (See DeWaelsche, 2015; Döş et al., 2016; Rido, 2017; Yang, 2017), this research interest has not been very popular in the Indonesian context. EFL students in Indonesia may feel anxious when using the target language (English) in the classroom, and it is for this reason that EFL teachers should be creative in posing questions to students to encourage them to engage in English lessons actively. Relevant studies in the Indonesian context are still limited. There were studies conducted by Fitriati et al. (2017) and Astrid et al. (2019) on this issue, but the contexts of their studies are different from the context of this recent research. For example, Fitriati et al. (2017) only focused on the relationship between the types of questions and the improvement of students' verbal skills, whereas Astrid et al. (2019) investigated teachers' questioning strategies used in one of the Islamic secondary state schools in Palembang. As the research on teachers' questioning strategies has not yet reached a wider audience in the Indonesian school context, the current research on the types of questions posed by teachers, especially in the EFL context, and how they lead to students' learning engagement, is timely. To proceed with this inquiry, we posed several research questions:

1. How do teachers use questioning strategies in their classrooms?
2. What are students' responses to these types of questions?
3. Do they see these questions to have benefitted their learning or not?

Classroom observations, in-depth interviews, and questionnaires were used to generate findings for these inquiries.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Teachers' Questioning Strategies

Brown (2001) suggested that beginners have little or no prior knowledge whatsoever about the target language. This suggests that teachers should identify effective questioning strategies that may stimulate students' learning. Harvey and Goudvis (2000) described "questioning as the master key to understanding. It is a stimulus for student's talk, engagement, and the quest for new knowledge" (p. 81) It also refers to teachers' classroom tactics of asking various types of questions in various ways to help increase their students' learning accomplishments while also allowing students to express critical questions (Yang, 2017). Therefore, teachers' questioning is considered paramount in language teaching, and thus, teachers should find ways to identify appropriate questions to activate students' prior knowledge and engage them in the exploration and transformation of knowledge actively. The questioning strategy is defined as "one of the parts of the contextual teaching and learning method" (Nurhadi, 2004, p. 43). Questioning allows teachers to engage students in meaningful learning while allowing students to improve their problem-solving and higher-order thinking skills at the same time. Fitriati et al. (2017) also stated that one of the most significant aspects of classroom learning is 'questioning'. It allows teachers to learn what students know and understand while also providing opportunities for students to seek clarification and assistance from their teachers and peers. Furthermore, according to Harvey and Goudvis (2000), 'questioning' is the most effective strategy when it encourages students to completely participate in the learning activity.

In addition, questioning strategies in EFL/ESL classrooms produce effective learning only when these questions can encourage students' classroom participation, help teachers build a closer connection with their students, enable teachers to check students' understanding of subject matters, ease teachers to evaluate students, and help students deal with difficulties in expressing themselves in the target language (Cakmak, 2009). In addition, Ma (2008) asserted that the purposes of questioning are twofold. First, it helps teachers attract students' attention to learning topics. Asking preview questions on learning topics will open up students' curiosity about particular topics they will learn. Second, questioning is used to check students' understanding of that particular subject matter. Azerefegn (2008) also agreed that questioning functions as a formative assessment by which teachers identify the extent to which students comprehend their previous learning topics prior to learning new ones in a particular classroom meeting. In short, Ma (2008) suggested that a teacher asks questions in the classroom to check students' understanding and give spaces for them to express ideas. With this purpose in mind, the teachers can predetermine the types of questions they will ask. Although questioning strategies seem to be a small part of classroom instruction, it benefits the instructional process, and for that reason, teachers should identify the kinds of questions to use and what they expect to achieve by asking those particular questions.

2.2 Types of Questions and Questioning Strategies

Any questions posed by a teacher should lie on a certain philosophical basis. This is because different questions yield different responses. For example, questions asked to encourage students' interaction in the classroom are different from those used to stimulate the emergence of creative, critical, and higher-level thinking. Experts suggested that display and referential questions and open and closed questions are general types of questions used by EFL/ESL teachers (Brown, 2001, 2007) Huitt (2011) categorized learning into six stages, which is later known as Bloom's Taxonomy, and it is referred by many educational practitioners.

Table 1. Types of questions (Armstrong, 2010, as cited in Huitt, 2011).

Types of questions	**Definitions**	**Words used**
Knowledge questions	Eliciting factual answers, testing recall, and recognition of information.	Commonly words used: 'define', 'identify', 'tell', 'what?' 'who?' 'where?' 'when?'
Comprehension questions	Interpreting; also convey the information by using their own words and the ability to understand the meaning.	Commonly words used: 'describe', 'compare', 'contrast', 'rephrase', 'put in your word', 'explain the main idea'
Application questions	Applying information heard or reading new situations.	Commonly words used: 'apply', 'classify', 'use', 'give an example', 'solve', 'illustrate', 'how many'

Table 1 continued…

Analysis questions	Breaking down into parts, relating parts to the whole, and making a conclusion.	Commonly words used: 'analyze', 'summarize', 'determine evidence', 'why', 'categorize'
Synthesis questions	Combining elements into a new pattern. These questions help students make predictions and solve the problem.	Commonly words used: 'predict', 'develop', 'create', 'produce', 'combine'
Evaluation questions	Making a judgment of good and bad, right or wrong, according to some set of criteria, and stating why.	Commonly words used: 'decide', 'evaluate', 'give your opinion', 'assess', 'conclude'

These types of questions have been popular within educational settings. However, some other scholars classified different types of questioning as well. For example, Chin (2004) mentioned several types of questions. First, descriptive questions engage students to establish their own narrative information using the words, such as 'tell', 'discuss', 'describe', 'show', and 'illustrate'. In this questioning type, the students are only asked to recall information. Second, analysis questions, which seek to identify facts and call for sustained answers involving critical thinking using the words 'why', 'how would you explain the facts that', 'what is the importance of', and 'prove what you just claim'. The third type of question as suggested by Chin (2004) is the evaluation question. This kind of question requires students to be reasonable in their answers using the words like 'explain how' and 'evaluate the statement that'. Fourth, compare/contrast questions, which expect students to think critically and find out the similarities and differences between ideas or arguments. These questions begin with words like 'compare', 'contrast', 'what is the similarity', and 'what is the difference? The final question strategy offered by Chin (2004) is the causal relationship questions. These questions are posed using wording, such as 'what are the results of?' and 'what are the causes of?' to find out a causal relationship or determine whether such a relationship exists. All of these are the types of questions elicited by scholars in the field aiming at helping students to participate in meaningful learning.

2.3 Students' Learning Engagement

Students' learning engagement is resulted from the level of students' eagerness to learn (Dahliana, 2019). Students' engagement is a behavioral and emotional measure of a student's active participation in the learning process (Fredricks et al., 2004; Skinner et al., 2008). Furthermore, according to Harper and Quaye (2009), learning engagement entails not just active involvement and participation but also feeling and sense-making in addition to activity. Furthermore, according to Kuh et al. (2006), student engagement is defined as participation in an educationally beneficial goal. Furthermore, according to Stovall (2003, as cited in Beer et al., 2010), students' involvement encompasses not only the time students spend on assignments but also their willingness to participate in activities. The amount to which students can recognize the school's principles and participate in both non-academic and academic school activities can alternatively be defined as student involvement (Willms, 2000).

Fredricks et al. (2004) proposed three categories of students' engagement: first, affective engagement refers to positive emotions during learning activities, including students' attitudes, interests, enjoyment, and enthusiasm for learning. Like Fredricks et al. (2004), Chavan (2015) stated that emotional engagement includes motivation and feelings towards learning. Second, cognitive engagement is linked to learning-related mental processes, such as self-regulated learning, metacognition, focus, and learning techniques. Cognitive engagement, according to Chavan (2015), is comprised of students' beliefs and values, homework completion rate, response to learning obstacles, attentiveness, and effort devoted toward the learning process. Finally, behavioral engagement refers to students' participation in both academic and extracurricular activities. It can be quantified by observable behavior such as participation and attendance during the learning process. Behavioral engagement and external engagement can often be noticed, according to Ansong et al. (2017). It can be in the forms of asking and answering questions, participating actively in discussions, paying attention during the learning process, or any other constructive classroom conduct. Research suggested that students engage in learning activities at different levels. In the engagement rubric (see Table 2), Parn (2006) categorized four levels of students' engagement: fully-engaged, fairly-engaged, slightly-engaged, and disengaged students.

Table 2. The rubric of students' engagement level (Parn, 2006).

Indicators	**Fully-engaged**	**Fairly-engaged**	**Slightly-engaged**	**Disengaged**
Feeling (SPE)	Being excited	Being quite pleased	Being uninterested	Being bored
Focus (ACE)	Often listening to the teacher's instructions, working hard to do the tasks	Sometimes listening to the teacher's instruction, being reminded once to do the tasks	Seldom listening to teacher's instruction, being reminded more than once to do the tasks	Never listening to the teacher's instruction, leaving the group
Responsibility (BE)	Preparing the group/individual performance, completing the tasks	Being reminded once to prepare the group/individual performance and completing the tasks	Being reminded more than once to prepare the group/individual performance and completing the tasks	Not preparing the group/individual performance and completing the tasks
Participation (BE)	Often joining the group discussion	More than once joining the group discussion	Once joining the group discussion	Never joining a group discussion
Task Completion Time (ACE)	Being able to complete tasks early than the due time	Being able to complete tasks in time	Being able to complete tasks in the extra time	Being unable to complete the tasks until the end of the lesson

Description:
SPE: Social, Psychological Engagement;
BE: Behavioral Engagement;
ACE: Academic, Cognitive Engagement.

3. METHODS

This study was conducted using a mixed-method approach as it suited the nature of the study that required both types of data, namely quantitative and qualitative data.

We used explanatory sequential mixed methods (Creswell, 2012, 2014), in which the quantitative data is followed by qualitative data, such as interviews and observation of the instructional process in a secondary school in one of the regencies in the Province of Aceh, Indonesia. For this research, we observed the instructional process, interviewed teachers, and surveyed students' opinions. We provided a detailed explanation of the methodology in the following sub-sections.

3.1 Research Context and Participants

This research was conducted in one of the Islamic secondary state schools located in Pidie Jaya Regency. It is a medium-sized secondary school, in which 216 students were enrolled and 27 teachers were employed. In the context of the Indonesian education system, EFL (English as a Foreign Language) is considered a compulsory subject for all secondary schools. This suggests that in the research setting, namely the Islamic Secondary State School 4 of Pidie Jaya regency, English is compulsory. All students regardless of their interest in English are required to enroll in the subject. The participants of the research were two English teachers in Years 10 and 11. They are coded as Ss (i.e., students), S1 (student 1, S2 (student 2), and so forth, in this article. Furthermore, two teachers were selected on the basis of their length of teaching experience. The two teachers were purposively selected since the research aimed at exploring EFL teachers' questioning strategies and their impacts on students' learning engagement. They are coded as T1 (teacher 1) and T2 (teacher 2), respectively, in this article.

3.2 Techniques of Data Collection

To understand major trends of questioning strategies EFL teachers used in class, we surveyed students' opinions using questionnaires. It allowed us to map the types of questioning used and the responses of the students. McKay (2006) suggests that a questionnaire is one of the main research instruments used in survey research. Our survey focused on the behavioral and attitudinal information of our participants or respondents. We designed questionnaires to survey teachers' and students' behavioral information, such as their regular classroom practices. We also constructed a questionnaire that enabled us to understand students' responses and attitudes towards their teachers' questioning strategies.

The qualitative data, from which we understand the social phenomenon in-depth (Cropley, 2002; Glesne, 2006, 2015; Taylor & Parsons, 2011), were generated from in-depth interviews and observation. These are typical qualitative methods of data collection (Flick, 2018; Leavy, 2014). We observed two EFL teachers twice during their teaching and interviewed them afterward. The interview took place after school hours, as agreed upon by the researchers and teachers. We also observed students' classroom practices and their responses to teachers' questions.

To explore students' perceptions of teachers' questioning strategies, we developed a short questionnaire. The questionnaire was in the form of multiple-choice questions and Likert-scale type of questions (see Appendix). We also designed semi-structured interviews to gain more in-depth information regarding teachers' ways of asking questions during their classroom practices and the reasons leading to their particular practices. Moreover, we designed qualitative observation guidelines, which allowed us to explore teachers' classroom practices comprehensively. The observation was conducted throughout the class hour, in which we sat down at the back of the class to observe classroom practices and types of questions the teacher asked, and students' responses. In addition, to help us remember the phenomenon being observed, we video-recorded classroom practices upon securing permission from the teacher and students as well. The observation enabled us to take field notes to portray teachers' instructional process.

3.3 Techniques of Data Analysis

Quantitative data were analyzed following the standard method of data analysis, such as statistical measurement of the types of questions being used in the classroom. We used basic statistics to count and report the findings of the questionnaire. In analyzing the results of the questionnaire, we referred to Sudjana's (2005) model:

$$P= \frac{f}{n} \times 100\%$$

In which:
P = Percentage
f = Frequency
n = Total
100 = Constant value

The data generated through questionnaires were analyzed and scored based on the frequency of answers. The steps were as follows: scoring the students' responses to the teachers' questioning strategies, calculating the responses to find frequency and percentage, and displaying the data through tables consisting of the statement, the frequencies, and the percentage.

The qualitative data, on the other hand, were analyzed using coding techniques, as advised by scholars in the field (see, Babbie, 2018; Glesne, 2015; Silverman, 2017, 2020). Three stages of coding techniques were used, namely open coding (take the textual data and break it up into discrete parts), axial coding (draw connections between the codes), and selective coding (select one central category that connects all the codes from the analysis and captures the essence of the research).

4. FINDINGS

We reported our findings based on our main inquiries: understanding teachers' questioning strategies and students' responses to these strategies and the possible impacts of these questioning strategies on their learning engagement in the classroom. We first described the finding on types of questioning strategies, followed by the description of students' responses.

4.1 Types of Questions Used in the EFL Classroom

The results of our survey through questionnaires, in-depth interviews, and observation (the details of which have been explained in the Methods section), showed that there were six groups of questioning strategies used by the two teachers.

4.1.1 Descriptive analysis, and evaluation

This section first provides quantitative data through basic descriptive statistics. The data shows general trends in the questioning strategies used by the teachers.

Table 3. Teacher 1 (T1) questioning strategies.

Types of question	**1st observation**		**2nd observation**		**Total**	
Descriptive	76	93.83%	19	67.86%	95	87.15%
Analysis	0	0%	4	14.29%	4	3.67%
Evaluation	5	6.17%	5	17.85%	10	9.18%
Total	81	100%	28	100%	109	100%

Table 4. Teacher 2 (T2) questioning strategies.

Types of Question	**1st observation**		**2nd observation**		**Total**	
Descriptive	92	85.20	44	80.00	136	83.43
Analysis	9	8.30	10	18.20	19	11.66
Evaluation	7	6.50	1	1.80	8	4.91
Total	108	100	55	100	163	100

Out of three emerging types of questioning strategies, descriptive questions seem to be more dominantly used by the two teachers, reaching 87.55% and 83.43%, respectively. We found that most of the time, T1 and T2 asked descriptive questions, such as “What was our previous material?”, “What have you learned from the first picture in the book?”, “Last week, we have [sic] learned about invitation letters, right? Two types of them, what are they?” were questions asked to recall information. We understood that this type of questioning strategy was addressed to explore students’ understanding of previously presented learning topics. In fact, we found that descriptive questions were asked in the first several minutes of the meetings.

In addition, analysis questions were also sparingly used by the two teachers (3.67% and 11.66%, respectively). Students were given numerous types of information to fill out. For example, a question, such as “I or me come to Yogyakarta?” is a type of question intended to motivate the students to guess the answer based on the earlier discussion of the subject. The other question, such as “Do you think reading books is important? Why is it important?”, measures students’ analytical ability. The evaluation questions, reaching 9.18% and 4.91%, were used to find the reasons for their answers. For example, “Okay, then I am wondering if you know how to pronounce it?” It occurred when the students had the wrong pronunciation. The other evaluation question was also asked, “How many types of invitation letters we have learned?”

4.1.2 Analysis from in-depth interviews

From the interviews with both English teachers, we found that they employed various teaching questioning strategies.

a). Attention grabbers

The data show that the two teachers began the class in similar ways. They, for example, introduced the lesson and encouraged students to ask questions regarding topics such as icebreaking activities.

T1, for instance, stated:

(1) "Usually, I will start the lesson by asking some questions like 'how are you today?', 'how do you feel today?', 'have you got the breakfast?' something like that. It is, you know, like warming up. And then, I will give the students three or five questions about the last materials, our last materials as the quiz. I mean, when I give the quiz to the students, so the students who answer the question will get points as the rewards".

Similarly, T2 stated:

(2) "Maybe, I can say like warming up. I ask them 'how are you today?', 'who is not here today?' Next, I give them some questions about the last materials as a little quiz".

In addition, the teachers utilized questioning strategies, such as rephrasing, simplification, repetition, decomposition, and probing. For example, T1 stated:

(3) "The strategy, questioning strategy, I used to this one (point-out to the paper) rephrasing strategy. So, I used to use rephrasing when I ask the students because my students sometimes face difficulty in understanding the questions, so I need to rephrase and repeat it, umm...until they can give the best response to the questions".

In addition, T2 also used rephrasing, repetition, and probing, as she said: "I used translation: okay, rephrasing is also used, repetition is also available, and sometimes another strategy is also used". Moreover, the teachers also used modifying questions, which provided more chances for the students to understand the questions. Our observation showed that the teachers also employed repetition, simplification, decomposition, structuring the question, reacting to the students' replies (providing a reward, praising, and motivating the students), using their native language, and giving students time to work out the answers.

b). Repetition

The other questioning strategy used by the two teachers is repetition. The purpose of the repetition is to ask the same question again. To encourage students to answer the questions, the teachers asked them again. This method was demonstrated by T2 in the following excerpts:

(4) T2 : "*Memancing apa ya bahasa Inggrisnya?"* (What is *memancing* in English?)
Ss : (Silence)
T2 : "*Ikan apa bahasa Inggrisnya?"* (What is *ikan* in in English?)
Ss : "*Ikan*, fish"
T2 : "*Nah, kalau memancing apa bahasa Inggrisnya*?" (So, what is *memancing* in English?)
Ss : "*Memancing ikan*, fishing".

Similarly, the other teacher, T1 used repetition during teaching.

(5) T1 : "Okay, what did you do?"
Ss : (Silence)
T1 : "What did you do? *Katanya bantu ibu.* (You said you have helped your mom?). What did you do to help her?"
S1 : "*Memasak, cuci piring*". (Cooking, doing the dishes)

Repetition was used to clarify questions because they could be unheard or/and because students faced difficulties understanding teachers' questions.

c). Simplification

The method of simplification is to make the query more specific or to narrow down the initial question. It is similar to the strategy of rephrasing. However, the teachers are expected to simplify the meaning of their questions by utilizing a variety of tactics, such as clues, examples, and word concentration to make the prior question more understandable. The two teachers used the simplification technique below:

(6) T1 : "What is our last material? What have we learned last week?"
S2 : (One student raised her hand)
T1 : "Siti, what is the answer?"
S2 : "Conversation and vocabulary builder miss"
T1 : "That is the practice of? That is expressing of…"
Ss : (Silence)
T1 : "Come on, what is the answer? What is our last material? It's about…about… (pause) expressing of…"
Ss : (Silence)
T1 : "Anyone knows? What's our learning material last week? What we have learned last week".
Ss : "Ehmm".
T1 : "Come on, anyone knows? (pausing) expressing of congra…"
Ss : "Congratulations".

T2 also used the simplification strategy in asking questions, which can be seen in the following excerpts:

(7) T2 : "How many types of invitation letters have we learned? How many types of invitation letters we have learned so far?"
S3 : (Silence)
T2 : "How many…*Berapa banyak*? Do you still remember?"
Ss : "Two".

The simplification strategy was employed by T2 through the use of code-mixing questions (English and Indonesian) that elicited students' responses. In addition, by using the partially-completed utterance "expressing of congra…", the teacher expected that the students would continue/complete it.

d). Decomposition

Teachers used the decomposition approach to break down a large question into smaller components in order to inspire students to respond to it. The deconstruction was demonstrated by the two teachers in the following excerpts:

(8) T1 : "What is going on in the first picture?"
S4 : *"Menyanyi"*. (singing)
T1 : *"Yah, apa dia bilang?* (What does she say?) Can you read it?"
S4 : "What a wonderful performance".
T1 : "Performance". (correcting the students' pronunciations). *"Terus, apa respon laki-laki ini?"* (What is the boy's response?)
S4 : "Thank you".

We also found something in common in T2's class, as in the following excerpts:

(9) T2 : "Do you find any argument in the text? Do you find any argument?"
S5 : "Yes".
T2 : "Okay, how many arguments are stated in the text?"
S5 : "Four".
T2 : "What's the second structure?"
S5 : "Introduction".

The decomposition strategy was found to be helpful and useful for both teachers to encourage students' responses to their questions. It indicates in the excerpts that the teachers merely used simple sentences to assist their students in understanding their questions, and in turn, enable them to answer the teachers' questions.

e). Restructuring questions

The other type of questioning strategy is structuring questions. This type was implemented to help students figure out the topic being learned. An example of this could be found in the following excerpt.

(10) T1 : (Teacher wrote on the whiteboard 'expressing of complimenting') "*Coba apa ini*? (What are these?) Anybody knows? I think you have understood what congratulating means, congratulations mean *selamat*, so what if complimenting? Anybody knows?"
Ss : (Silence)
T1 : "For example, one of your friends puts on new clothes and then you comment on the new clothes, saying things like 'what good clothes, isn't it?' So, what do we refer to as that activity?"
S6 : "Complimenting".

Similar to T1, T2 seemed to restructure the question as well to help students comprehend the gist of the topic being discussed.

4.2 Students' Responses toward Teachers' Questioning Strategies

The other inquiry in this study was also obtained through questionnaires. The survey sought to identify students' responses to their teachers' questioning strategies in the classroom. The following data were revealed through questionnaires.

4.2.1 Students' perceptions of the teachers' questions

Table 5 shows the students' perceptions of the teachers' questions. All students had positive perceptions about their teachers' questioning strategies. Most of them stated that the ways of teachers posed the questions were in the 'excellent' category.

Table 5. Students' perceptions of the teachers' questions.

Options	Ten Graders A		Ten Graders B	
Excellent	13	70.59	11	50
Good	4	29.41	11	50
Fair	0	0	0	0
Poor	0	0	0	0
Total	100	22%	100	100%

4.2.2 Types of students' responses

Our observation revealed that teachers asked all students a particular question and allow any of them (students) to respond. However, the ways of students' responses were different. Table 6 shows findings from the questionnaire.

Table 6. Types of students' responses.

Options	Ten Graders A		Ten Graders B	
Voluntarily	11	64.71%	5	27.73%
Nominated	5	29.41%	3	13.64%
In unison with friends	1	5.88%	14	63.63%
Not involved	0	0%	0	0%
Total	100	22%	100	100%

The data show that most ten graders from both classes voluntarily responded to their teachers' questions while the other half of them only responded when they were nominated or assigned by the teachers. However, there was a big gap in the types of responses given by the two classes, in which Ten Graders B seemed to prefer agreeing with peers' responses to expressing their own ideas. Despite the difference, the data indicate that all students engaged in classroom instruction in some particular ways.

4.2.3 Students' enjoyment and excitement in answering the questions

The majority of the students appreciated the challenge of figuring out the answers to the questions. This was supported by the findings of the interviews, which revealed that students were actively engaged in the classroom. However, we discovered that some of them required additional motivation to participate.

Table 7. Students' enjoyment and excitement in answering the questions.

Options	Ten Graders A		Ten Graders B	
Strongly agree	3	17.65	0	0
Agree	13	76.47	16	72.73
Disagree	1	5.88	6	27.27
Strongly disagree	0	0%	0	0%
Total	100	100%	100	100%

4.2.4 Students' feelings on impromptu questions

The data in Table 8 show the information on students' feelings if they were asked impromptu questions. More than half of ten graders A and half of ten graders B were nervous and confused when they were asked to answer the questions spontaneously. Experiencing these kinds of anxiety might be due to the students' lack of preparation for the lesson, confusion while responding to questions, and fear of responding to teachers' questions in English.

Table 8. Students' feelings on impromptu questions.

Options	Ten Graders A		Ten Graders B	
Strongly agree	1	5.88%	1	4.55%
Agree	10	58.82%	11	50%
Disagree	6	35.29%	9	40.91%

Table 8 continued...

Strongly disagree	0	0%	1	4.55%
Total	100	100%	100	100%

5. DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The data of this study were generated through classroom observations, in-depth interviews, and a questionnaire. The findings showed that our participants used common strategies in questioning. They used descriptive questioning types most frequently in the teaching-learning process. This is in line with the findings of Rahmah's (2017), Rido's (2017), and Sari's (2017) studies. This is because descriptive questions do not require in-depth thinking to answer (Huitt, 2011). These questions allow students to just recall previous information. In Bloom's taxonomy, this type of question is seen as a low level of questioning strategy (Huitt, 2011). In fact, in every meeting, at some points of time, teachers employed descriptive questions as 'ice breakers' (Sari et al., 2020) prior to actual teaching, whereas analysis and evaluation questions were sparingly used by teachers since these questions require students' critical thinking, and thus may in fact discourage students to participate (Zulfikar, 2013). This suggests that the types of questioning strategies teachers use in some ways shape students' responses and behavior (Haydon & Hunter, 2011).

Other strategies used by the teachers were repetition, simplification, decomposition, and restructuring the question (see Wu, 1993). These questioning strategies were used to meet the students' needs. It is important to note that effective teaching occurs when teachers are responsive to students' needs (Lawes, 2000). Our data on teachers' questioning strategies were also shared by the study of Fitriati et al. (2017). Two EFL teachers in Central Java were found to use simplification, decomposition, and repetition questions. These types of questioning strategies were raised by teachers to facilitate students' learning. However, raising meaningful questions contributing to the enhancement of students' cognitive ability requires a high level of teachers' metacognitive skills, which will allow them to give thoughtful questions to students (Choi et al., 2005). For that reason, EFL teachers are also expected to prepare themselves with certain skills to enable them to ask effective questions to students.

The findings from the questionnaire suggested that most participants agreed that their teachers implemented good questioning strategies; the students were willing to respond; they were given a considerable amount of time to think before they responded to the questions posed by the teachers. Giving sufficient wait time is necessary for the students to think and digest their teachers' questions prior to giving answers (Döş et al., 2016). Lack of waiting time given to students was also found to have contributed to students' difficulties in answering questions correctly (Yang, 2017). Teachers' considerate feelings about their students' well-being are important to enact students' inner capacities. However, not all teachers spent time evaluating their classroom practices. It is for this reason that some commentators in the field of education urge teachers to engage in reflective practices (Burhan-Horasanli & Ortaçtepe, 2016; Salmani Nodoushan, 2011; Zulfikar & Mujiburrahman, 2018). Reflexivity allows teachers to not only monitor their classroom practices but also gain an in-depth understanding of their students. Upon engaging in reflective practices, teachers can be aware of their students' needs, which then helps them organize their classroom practices that fit their students' needs.

Although teachers attempted to use various questioning strategies, and in fact used a reasonable wait time to achieve students' responses, some of the students were not very engaged with learning. Students' lack of engagement was also the result of impromptu questions. However, the data suggest that none of them was withdrawn from classroom interaction. They might not respond to the teachers' questions directly. They would rather comment on their colleagues' responses occasionally. This is because cultural values indeed shape students' learning attitudes (Chiner et al., 2015; Wassell et al., 2018). The Indonesian students, for example, as suggested by Zulfikar (2013) tend to be not very talkative during learning. Students' ways of responding are different, yet the majority believe that the questioning strategies used by their teachers helped them gain knowledge during the instructional process.

Our research shows several teachers' questioning strategies in EFL classrooms, and although its context was limited to only one secondary school, it provided insights to teachers regarding various questioning strategies. The implication of this study is therefore obvious, by which teachers in many other types of Indonesian schools may evaluate their own classroom practices, particularly on whether they have used appropriate questioning strategies that meet their students' well beings. To promote students' activeness during learning, teachers are not only required to prepare 'well-designed' learning materials but they are also expected to create a learning atmosphere that activates students' learning modes and critical thinking. One of the strategies the teachers can implement to boost students' activeness is good choices of questioning strategies. As ways of questioning influence students' responses, it is time to believe that students' failure to engage in active learning is multifaceted; it might be because of students' lack of learning motivation themselves, institutional cultures, or their teachers' incapability to activate students' learning modes (Zulfikar, 2009).

6. CONCLUSION

Our study revealed important information on teachers' questioning strategies. The observation, in-depth interviews with teachers and students, and questionnaires showed that the two English teachers employed the following questioning strategies: repetition, simplification, decomposition, framing the question, reacting to the students' responses (i.e. providing a reward, complimenting them, and motivating them), utilizing native language, and asking descriptive questions. These strategies were intentionally used by the teachers to correspond to the students' responses and attitudes. The study also revealed that there was no single questioning strategy that worked best in all classroom contexts. The teachers shifted their ways of posing questions in accordance with the classroom atmosphere. Students' characteristics also dictated teachers' use of questioning strategies. In this case, teachers might simplify their questions when students were not responsive to a particular type of question. They could also decompose their questions so that their messages were well-received by the students.

The findings regarding the nature of students' responses were also discovered. Students' responses to the teachers' various questioning strategies were positive, which suggests that they saw their benefits, such as enabling them to interact more in the classroom. Another reason why they perceived it as advantageous was that they had time to digest their teachers' questions when they were posed differently. Our study also showed that the students enjoyed answering their teachers' questions and were unconcerned if their classmates would laugh at them if they answered them incorrectly. Finally, the researchers discovered that the teachers were successful in motivating their students to participate actively in the whole class discussion. They employed a variety of questioning strategies to make the students react to the questions. It is crucial to note that students' responded to the questions in a variety of ways, but they shared one similarity in which they believed questioning tactics can help them avoid learning anxiety.

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APPENDIX
Questionnaire for the Students

Dear Student,
This questionnaire is designed to collect data about the students' responses to the questioning strategies English teachers use in the classroom. This questionnaire will take about 10 minutes of your time, and I would be grateful if these questions were answered honestly. Please note, that there are no right or wrong answers and all the information will be kept confidential. It is believed that your response would help the researcher to get the necessary information.
Part 1: put a tick mark in the boxes given below!
Name :
Class :
Sex : ☐ Male ☐ Female
Choose one of the answers to the following questions and statements that is appropriate to your opinions!

1. Does your English teacher frequently ask a question in the classroom?
   - Always
   - Sometimes
   - Rarely
   - Never
2. Does your English teacher provide opportunities fairly and equally to each student to answer the questions?
   - Always
   - Sometimes
   - Rarely
   - Never
3. Do you care about the English teacher's questioning way?
   - Always
   - Sometimes
   - Seldom
   - Never
4. Do you think your English teacher should take care of the students at all levels when questioning?
   - Strongly agree
   - Agree
   - Disagree
   - Strongly disagree
5. Do you understand every question asked by your teacher?
   - Always
   - Sometimes
   - Seldom
   - Never

6. You enjoy answering the question asked by the teacher and even you challenge yourself to get the answer.
   - Strongly agree
   - Agree
   - Disagree
   - Strongly disagree
7. How often do you answer the questions?
   - Always
   - Sometimes
   - Seldom
   - Never
8. Are you sure that you give correct answers when you are asked by your English teacher?
   - Always
   - Sometimes
   - Seldom
   - Never
9. Do you care about the English teacher's evaluation in your answer?
   - Always
   - Sometimes
   - Seldom
   - Never
10. When you can't answer the teacher's question, the way the teacher will deal with is…
    - to ask others
    - to reduce difficulty
    - to provoke thoughts
    - to give more time
11. For your wrong answer, you hope the teacher will…..
    - correct at once
    - have no response
    - direct with a smile and patience
    - correct with covert way
12. Do you think the praise your English teacher gives is due……?
    - Very important
    - Moderately Important
    - Important
    - Not Important
13. You are confused and nervous if the teacher asks you to answer the questions spontaneously.
    - Strongly agree
    - Agree
    - Disagree
    - Strongly disagree

14. You are afraid that your classmates will make fun of you when you cannot answer the question correctly.
    - Strongly agree
    - Agree
    - Disagree
    - Strongly disagree
15. I like to answer the question in this way:
    - Voluntarily
    - Nominated
    - in unison with friends
    - Not involve
16. The time English teacher frequently lets you think teacher's question is…..
    - 2 seconds
    - 6 seconds
    - 10 seconds
    - More for difficult questions
17. Do you think how much time the English teacher should give you to prepare for answering the question?
    - 2 seconds
    - 6 seconds
    - 10 seconds
    - More for difficult questions.
18. If the English teacher gives you enough time to consider the question carefully, your performance will be…..
    - Excellent
    - Good
    - Slightly satisfied
    - worse (because of nervousness)
19. What do you think of the way your English teacher asks the questions in the classroom?
    - Excellent
    - Good
    - Fair
    - Poor
20. Do you think that your teacher's question will guide you to speak up to make the class more interactive?
    - Strongly agree
    - Agree
    - Disagree
    - Strongly disagree

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EFL Secondary School Teachers' Conceptions of Online Assessment in Emergency Remote Teaching: A Phenomenographic Study

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Abstract

The investigation of teachers' conceptions of online assessment during a global pandemic has received relatively scarce attention in the current literature. Situated in an emergency remote teaching, this phenomenographic study aims at identifying and describing EFL secondary school teachers' qualitative different ways of understanding online assessment. A cohort of fifteen EFL teachers from different Indonesian secondary schools were recruited purposively using a set of criteria. They were invited to involve in online semi-structured interviews to explore their online assessment conceptions. Then, the interview data were analyzed qualitatively in an iterative process to discern categories of description and an outcome space. The findings point out five categories of teachers' conceptions. The participants view online assessment in emergency remote teaching (ERT) as a means of (1) measuring knowledge, (2) checking learning targets, (3) enhancing online interaction, (4) facilitating authentic tasks, and (5) reflecting the teaching and learning process. Furthermore, an analysis of relationships among those categories is reported hierarchically, ranging from accountability to enhancement assessment purposes. Some implications promote our understanding to consider several mediating factors affecting teachers' conceptions.

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Although emergency remote teaching situation is provisional, the findings bring out the possibility of implementing assessment for learning, as an alternative to assessment of learning, in the context of online assessment after the pandemic.

Keywords: Conceptions, emergency remote teaching, online assessment, phenomenography.

1. INTRODUCTION

As an impact of the Covid-19 outbreak at the beginning of 2020, people worldwide had to adjust many aspects of their lives, from restricting physical interactions, working from home, and even cancelling face-to-face teaching and learning activities. Responding to that global health crisis, the Indonesian Ministry of Education and Culture urgently instructed all education institutions to close the schools and universities as a mitigation attempt to minimize the virus contagion in the education environment (Indonesian Ministry of Education, Culture, Research, and Technology, 2020). Due to the closures of all schools during the pandemic time, instruction delivery was shifted from face-to-face mode to distance online mode abruptly. This sudden transformation compelled teachers to integrate online learning pedagogy into their instructions without adequate preparation (Cahyadi, Hendryadi, Widyastuti, & Suryani, 2021; Erdem-Aydin, 2021).

The term Emergency Remote Teaching (henceforth, ERT) is gradually used in the current literature to address a temporary solution for possible instructions implemented in unexpected conditions, such as in pandemic crises time or warfare (Hodges et al., 2020). Unlike online learning or distance learning formed in careful, systematic, and well-planned instructional design and ecosystems, ERT is a sudden and interim online instruction that learners can feasibly access during the pandemic time (Hodges et al., 2020; Rahiem, 2020). Cahyadi, Hendryadi, Widyastuti, Mufidah, et al. (2021) propose five principles of ERT, i.e. it should be feasible, accessible, showing empathy, flexible, and affordable. Therefore, the ultimate objective of ERT is not to re-design a fixed instruction. Instead, it is a dynamic instructional design, as a response to crisis circumstances, that is possibly adjusted and contextualized based on the socio-cultural conditions, online readiness, and many other factors (Cahyadi, Hendryadi, Widyastuti, & Suryani, 2021; Kusuma, 2022; Luthfiyyah et al., 2021).

Shifting from a physical learning environment to ERT in a rapid time is demanding for many teachers, especially the ones who have no experience in conducting a distance learning (Hodges et al., 2020). Numerous studies have highlighted how teachers from different countries faced many challenges during ERT (Cahyadi, Hendryadi, Widyastuti, Mufidah, et al., 2021; Cahyadi, Hendryadi, Widyastuti, & Suryani, 2021; Erdem-Aydin, 2021; Rahiem, 2020). However, there is a paucity of information on discussion of online assessment practice during crisis time, especially how teachers understand and experience online assessment in ERT. We argue that exploring further discussions in online assessment is worth doing since it contributes significant inputs to the practices of assessment in the online environment after the pandemic.

Online assessment shares similar purposes with face-to-face assessment. It has dual functions, to measure students' achievement and to improve students' learning progress (Rovai, 2000). However, the implementation of assessment in an online environment tends to be more challenging since it is limited to physical distance interactions to directly monitor and provide timely feedback on students' works (Cheng et al., 2013; Hung & Chou, 2015). A number of studies have discovered some typical issues in online assessment during pandemic Covid-19. For instance, Meccawy et al. (2021) reported the result of an online survey distributed to 547 undergraduate students. It reveals that the biggest problem of online assessment during pandemic situations is students' low academic integrity. Cheating and plagiarism practices have become more prevalent problems due to a lack of security in assessment. Besides, Luthfiyyah et al. (2021) invited five experienced EFL teachers in Indonesia to reflect on their online assessment experiences in ERT. They found that students' workload and teachers' online readiness become other concerns in online assessment during ERT. Those unfavorable circumstances can decrease the primary function of online assessment as the medium to assist students in achieving their learning goals (Guangul et al., 2020; Meccawy et al., 2021).

The identified constraints of online assessment in the distance and remote situations led to an agreement to urge teachers to adjust and modify their assessment design and practices that meet the learners' needs in an online environment, especially in ERT (Cheng et al., 2013; Rovai, 2000; Zhang et al., 2021). Some scholars have explicitly suggested that formative assessment or assessment for learning is a more robust strategy for online assessment than a test or one-shot summative examination (Byrne et al., 2021; Cheng et al., 2013; Şenel & Şenel, 2021). Online formative assessment is not a fixed entity. However, it should be regarded as an integral part of learning activities that can assist learners in achieving the learning targets with the assistance of constructive feedback (Şenel & Şenel, 2021). Moreover, it is believed that online formative assessment or assessment for learning activities, such as online discussion forums and online collaborative writing, can promote social, teachers, and cognitive presences in online instruction and increase students' engagement in remote interactions (Byrne et al., 2021).

Although much evidence has distinctively pinpointed the advantages of implementing formative assessment in an online environment, the teacher, as an active doer in the classroom, plays a vital role in deciding the strategies for designing and practicing online assessment in their contexts (Mimirinis, 2019). Furthermore, there is a remarkable consensus among scholars pointing out a relationship between the teachers' conceptions and their instructional decisions, including in assessment practice (Brown & Gao, 2015; Gebril, 2017; Mimirinis, 2019). For instance, the way teachers assess their students in the online environments is influenced by their view and understanding of the concepts of online assessment and the concept of emergency remote situations. As such, we conclude that teachers' conceptions of online assessment in ERT are regarded as the prominent factor influencing their assessment practices in the ERT context.

The discussion on assessment conceptions has received enormous attention in the current literature (Brown & Gao, 2015; Dayal & Lingam, 2015; Gebril, 2017; Mimirinis, 2019; Postareff et al., 2012). Dayal and Lingam (2015) and Postareff et al. (2012) contend that teachers possibly have multiple and complex conceptions of assessment influenced by the socio-cultural factors they work with and individual factors they have. However, most of the previous studies prefer to report conceptions of assessment in face-to-face environments in higher-education levels rather than in online environments in secondary level settings. A study with a closer setting was conducted by Mimirinis (2019). He examined e-assessment conceptions of university academics from different disciplinary backgrounds using a phenomenographic study. The result of the study suggests elaborating further on a similar topic in fully online instructions. Responding to the previous studies' discrepancies, this study intends to explore EFL secondary school teachers' conceptions of online assessment in emergency remote settings. The research questions are formulated as follows:

1. What are EFL secondary school teachers' different ways of understanding and experiencing online assessment in ERT?
2. How is the hierarchical relationship among those categories of description?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Online Assessment in Pandemic Covid-19 Situation

It has been widely known that assessment is a pivotal part of the teaching and learning system that aims to collect and interpret information about students' performance and help them improve their learning. The principles of traditional assessment do not change in online assessment (Benson, 2003; Rovai, 2000). However, assessment challenges in online distance environments become more critical due to the limited interactions to monitor the students directly and provide effective feedback (Rovai, 2000). Moreover, when the instructional design is not prepared well due to the rapid and unprecedented transitions, assessing students in online remote situations has endangered significant challenges in the practices, such as the issues of cheating and plagiarism (Guangul et al., 2020; Meccawy et al., 2021). Ninković et al. (2021) contend that teachers must possess sufficient assessment literacy and technological knowledge to design and conduct an effective online assessment. Assessment literacy refers to knowledge and skills to construct, assess, and interpret the assessment data (Coombe et al., 2020; Inbar-Lourie, 2017; Stiggins, 1991). Meanwhile, technological knowledge in this study refers to the competency of selecting and utilizing technology for assessment purposes. Responding to those points, we argue that teachers should update and adjust their pedagogical and technological literacies based on the various contexts.

The nature of the educational assessment system in Indonesia generally focuses on high-stake examination culture aiming to improve the national education standard (Law & Miura, 2015). However, as a response to the crises, the Indonesian Ministry of Education and Culture mandated teachers to specifically implement on-going assessment activities to diagnose students' learning problems and assist them in improving their learning (Ministry of Education and Culture Act No. 719/P/2020). The regulation of assessment in emergency remote situations aligns with the literature discussing assessment strategies in the online environment. Many studies show a prevalence of formative assessment practices in an online environment (Gikandi et al., 2011; Rahiem, 2020; Şenel & Şenel, 2021; Zou et al., 2021). For instance, Şenel and Şenel (2021) reported that practicing formative assessment which provides helpful feedback can be the potential assessment strategy during ERT. In addition, Gikandi et al. (2011) argue that providing authentic formative assessment in an online or blended context can reduce the issues of academic integrity (e.g., cheating, dishonesty, and plagiarism). In this case, precise regulation and guidance from the institution are prominent to support the assessment strategies in a crisis time. In the same vein, it is strongly suggested that teachers be creative in designing and improvising the assessment strategies that fit online ERT settings (Rovai, 2000; Zhang et al., 2021).

Furthermore, online assessment in ERT requires a stable and sufficient infrastructure and technology resources, such as software, hardware, digital devices, and fast and affordable internet connection. Although the advancements of technology are massively used, the fact reveals that many places in Indonesia still have a low-speed internet network (Cahyadi, Hendryadi, Widyastuti, Mufidah, et al., 2021). The insufficient infrastructure can hinder the process of online learning during ERT, especially in conducting an online assessment. Therefore, teachers should consider the conditions of each student by ensuring that they have good access to join the online assessment. Teachers need to provide a flexible and alternative assessment for students with special unsupported conditions (Benson & Brack, 2010; Burgos et al., 2021). Providing various types of online assessment, such as online quizzes, e-portfolio, discussion forums, video presentation, simulations/gaming, and setting the assessment into the asynchronous mode, can be the alternative ways to facilitate students from different conditions (Pu & Xu, 2021; Rahiem, 2020) In short, those endeavors can lead to a fair online assessment for all students and not disserve students with the assessment procedure in emergency remote situations.

Given those challenges of practicing online assessment in ERT, teachers from different schools might have various experiences in assessing their students. We argue that some influential factors, such as the institution assessment policies, infrastructures, digital sources, teachers' knowledge on assessment and technology, can contribute to the way teachers understand and view the concept of assessment in the remote online environment. Consequently, this study intends to examine EFL teachers' conceptions of online assessment in ERT in secondary school contexts.

2.2 Teachers' Conceptions of Online Assessment in ERT

Teacher conceptions generally refer to the way teachers view, believe, interpret, and interact with the teaching environment (Brown et al., 2009; Marton, 1981). In the assessment context, teachers' conceptions of assessment are defined as how teachers understand and experience assessment. Numerous studies have been done to examine teachers' conceptions of assessment in different countries (Azis, 2015; Brown & Gao, 2015; Dayal & Lingam, 2015; Gebril, 2017; Mimirinis, 2019; Postareff et al., 2012). The studies suggest that teachers' conceptions of assessment are gradually formed through their experience toward a phenomenon (Gebril, 2017; Postareff et al., 2012). Further, it becomes a mechanism of how they react or respond to the phenomenon (Brown & Gao, 2015). In the same vein, teachers' experiences in conducting online assessment in ERT shape how they understand and view that phenomenon, and teachers' conceptions influence their assessment practice in the online remote environment.

While some previous studies investigate teachers' conceptions of assessment in traditional face-to-face context using longitudinal study or general case-study, a recent study from Mimirinis (2019) reports university academics' conceptions of assessment in an online environment using a phenomenographic study. Instead of examining e-assessment from the first-order perspective, he intends to discover a given phenomenon from second-order perspectives. His study seeks the twenty-one academics' conceptions of integrating technology to support summative and formative assessment purposes in online settings. The findings identify four categories of description of the ways participants view e-assessment and the relationships among those categories. The academics discern e-assessment as a means of the efficient way to manage and streamline the assessment process, facilitate dialogue and engagement, enhance student's learning, and develop digital identity and community. However, it should be taken into account that the study was conducted in a conducive ecosystem where the research settings had implemented online instructions in the advanced stage.

Referring to the previous academic work, this study aims to extend the investigation on teachers' conceptions of the online assessment. Nevertheless, some discrepancies are highlighted in this paper. First, the contexts where both studies were conducted are distinct. While the earlier study was conducted in well-prepared online instructions, the present study portrays the teachers' experience and understanding of online assessment in a crisis time. The transition is abrupt and not intentionally planned. Thus, the situation causes many significant challenges for teachers to conduct the online assessment. Second, unlike the previous studies, which are predominantly situated in higher education contexts, we prefer to explore the online assessment conceptions from EFL secondary school teachers due to the sparsity of discussion.

3. METHODS

3.1 Research Design

The study employs a phenomenographic approach. It is a qualitative approach which aims at discerning people's different ways of understanding a certain phenomenon (Åkerlind, 2012; Hajar, 2021; Marton, 1981). Adopting a non-dualistic ontology stance, the focus of phenomenography is neither on the phenomenon itself nor the individual's experiences on a particular phenomenon. Instead, it identifies and interprets the relational meaning between individuals (within a group and as a group of individuals) and a particular phenomenon presented in a limited number of qualitatively different categories. In this study, we generally intend to seek and describe EFL secondary school teachers' qualitatively different ways of understanding online assessment during Emergency Remote Teaching (ERT).

Another basic tenet of phenomenography also acknowledges second-order perspective rather than first-order perspective (Hajar, 2021; Marton, 1981; Marton & Pong, 2005). Marton (1981) explains that instead of investigating a phenomenon from a researcher's point of view (first-order perspective), a phenomenographer explores individuals' conceptions about a particular phenomenon that they have experienced (second-order perspective). The aspects of a phenomenon are described as it is understood and experienced by the individuals. In addition, highlighting the epistemological assumption of this approach, it is believed that each individual has various conceptions and experiences about a particular phenomenon, and they can change over time. However, those multiple understandings can be described, communicated, and understood by others in a limited number of qualitatively different ways (Sjostrom & Dahlgren, 2002). Hence, the outputs of the phenomenographic study are the variations of conceptions (categories of description) and the hierarchical relationship among those categories of description (outcomes space) (Åkerlind, 2012). In this study's context, we explored empirical evidence of how teachers understand, experience, and reflect online assessment during ERT in different ways. The phenomenographic data can portray teachers' understanding, represent complexity, and reflect different ways of experiencing online assessment in a disruptive setting. The data can further provide information for stakeholders and policymakers to amend the quality of online assessment and devise more meaningful and feasible regulations.

3.2 Context and Participants

The study was conducted in the context of an emergency remote teaching in Indonesia. Due to the outbreak of Covid-19, teachers were urged to shift their instruction swiftly into a fully online learning mode without any sufficient preparations. They strived to adjust their instruction, particularly in online assessment, to meet students' needs and conditions. On the other hand, the national assessment system in Indonesia adheres to test dominated culture, which identically assesses the students through a test. Consequently, the online assessment practices in ERT met several constraints, such as limited pedagogical and technological knowledge, exam culture, academic integrity, and lack of sufficient infrastructure. Furthermore, diverse backgrounds of participants, such as context, experience, age, and gender, are taken into consideration to maximize the variations of individuals' experiences of online assessment in ERT.

However, to obtain potential sources, the participants should be purposefully selected based on a set of specific criteria. They are experienced teachers who have more than five years of teaching experience. They actively join the assessment and technology-enhanced language training. The participants also must have three months of experience conducting fully online learning amidst pandemic time. At the first step, we distributed an online form to a group of EFL teachers who joined a national online webinar held by an association of technology enthusiasts. Then, fifteen EFL secondary school teachers who fulfilled the criteria were recruited as the participants in this study (the demographic data is available in Table 1). The invitations to participate in semi-structured interview were sent to their email. Then, all participants signed an electronic informed consent form confirming their agreement to participate.

Table 1. Descriptive characteristics of study participants.

Participants	Gender	Age	Years of Teaching Experience	Assessment Training Experiences	TELL Training Experiences
P01-JHS	F	28	6	Yes	Yes
P02-SHS	F	37	13	Yes	Yes
P03-JHS	F	34	10	Yes	Yes
P04-JHS	F	38	15	Yes	Yes
P05-SHS	F	45	16	Yes	Yes
P06-VHS	F	36	10	Yes	Yes
P07-JHS	F	30	14	Yes	Yes
P08-SHS	F	52	32	Yes	Yes
P09-JHS	M	32	10	Yes	Yes
P10-JHS	F	54	29	Yes	Yes
P11-VHS	F	36	12	Yes	Yes

Table 1 continued…

P12-JHS	F	27	12	Yes	Yes
P13-VHS	M	55	30	Yes	Yes
P14-JHS	F	38	20	Yes	Yes
P15-SHS	M	28	6	Yes	Yes

3.3 Data Collection

One of the most preferred techniques of gathering data in a phenomenographic study is interviews, for the technique can provide rich and deep data from the participants' perspective (Åkerlind, 2012). A semi-structured interview was conducted online using Zoom Meeting from May 2020 to November 2020 to investigate EFL secondary school teachers' understanding and experience of online assessment during ERT. The schedules of interview sessions were set based on the participants' convenience. Furthermore, a predetermined question was prepared to probe the teachers' experience of online assessment during ERT. All the participants received the same questions to convey the purpose and how they conducted online assessment during ERT, yet the interviews ran flexibly. Some followed-up questions were addressed to the participants to clarify, elaborate, or confirm their insufficient responses. During the interview sessions, it should be taken into account that the researchers should bracket their insights, knowledge, and experience to gain the participants' experience of online assessment during ERT (second-order perspective). Each online interview session lasted 40-60 minutes. The interview data were video recorded and transcribed verbatim.

3.4 Data Analysis

The main objectives of data analysis in phenomenography are to identify and depict a set of categories description of online assessment during ERT and the hierarchical relationship of those categories of description (outcome space). The analysis process started when all the interviews were conducted and transcribed. Following the data analysis procedures from Sjostrom and Dahlgren (2002), we analyzed the data through seven stages. The first stage is familiarization. The researchers read the interview transcripts iteratively to get a good sense and familiarity with the details of the data. After getting familiar with the data, the next stage is a compilation, in which the most significant and essential data are identified. The third stage is the reduction of the condensation stage. The researchers selected the most relevant data associated with online assessment during ERT and removed the most redundant data at this stage. It was followed up by categorizing the similar answers into the same group. Then, each group of categories was compared to establish borders among them. In the sixth stage, the categories of description were labelled or named to highlight the essence of each category. Finally, the last stage is arranging the outcome space, in which the categories of description were arranged systematically to see the relationship among them.

4. RESULTS

To answer the research questions, we first present five categories of descriptions discovered from EFL secondary school teachers' experiences in conducting online assessments in ERT. Second, to obtain a more profound and meaningful insight about the categories, we then reveal the hierarchical relationship among those categories into three conceptions.

4.1 EFL Secondary School Teachers Different Ways of Understanding Online Assessment during Emergency Remote Teaching

From the data analysis process, we discovered five different ways of understanding and experiencing from the transcripts. The EFL secondary school teachers view online assessment during ERT as a means of (a) measuring students' competencies; (b) checking the learning targets; (c) enhancing online interaction; (d) facilitating authenticity in assessment; (e) fostering teaching reflection. Those categories of description are elaborated further in the following subsections.

4.1.1 Measuring students' competencies (Category A)

The first category represents EFL secondary school teachers who perceived online assessment during ERT as an activity for measuring students' competencies. The teachers admitted that the objective of an online assessment is similar to that of a traditional assessment, that is, to measure students' competencies (P02-SHS, P03-JHS, P10-JHS, P13-VHS, and P14-JHS). They have a responsibility to regularly record and report the students' achievement for administrative tasks, as reported by one of the participants:

(1) "…. I think I have the same purpose in online assessment. I need to assess and score my students' competencies. I know that the assessment regulations in emergency time instructed us (teachers) to focus on the learning process. However, my institution (still) asked for quantitative reports to fulfil the administrative documents at the end of the semester". P02-SHS

On the other hand, P04-JHS and P15-SHS also contended that giving an online test was the easiest way to measure students' competencies. Some online quiz apps assist the teachers to measure students' understanding and to obtain instant results. However, they found that the results of online quizzes are less valid and reliable due to academic dishonesty practices. Unfortunately, some of the participants could not find the strategies to prevent dishonesty issues (P03-JHS, P10-JHS, P04-JHS and P15-SHS).

(2) "I prefer to give online quizzes or tests to measure my students' ability using assessment tools, such as Google Form or Kahoot. The tools help me get the results of my students' work quickly. …. Well, I know it is possible for my students to search for the answers (of the tests) from the Google search engine or ask for the answers from their friends or parents. However, I don't know how to solve the problems". P03-JHS

4.1.2 Checking the learning targets (Category B)

We also found that the EFL secondary school teachers view online assessment during ERT as a practical activity to check the learning targets. The teachers frequently provided regular assessments, such as online quizzes, tests, and project tasks to check students' learning achievement (P05-SHS, P06-VHS, P10-JHS). They emphasized that they have a responsibility to ensure that the students have achieved the learning outcome based on their levels. Furthermore, the assessment in a remote online environment focuses on cognitive skills rather than affective and psychomotor skills because of the limited assessment literacy. The following are excerpts from the participants.

(3) "I regularly give my students online quizzes, question and answer, or a simple task simply to check their understanding of the materials and ensure the learning objectives have already been achieved". P05-SHS

(4) "My responsibility is to ensure that the learning targets have been achieved. However, it is hard for me to assess my students' affective and psychomotor skills in an online setting; I don't know how to assess those skills. Thus, during the pandemic time, my assessment practices focus only on students' cognitive skills". P10-JHS

4.1.3 Enhancing online interactions (Category C)

The next category reflects the participants' understanding of online assessment during ERT to enhance online interaction among students and teachers (P07-JHS, P09-JHS, and P11-VHS). Besides, online assessment activities could engage students in online learning (P01-JHS and P05-SHS). P07-JHS contended that students could share their ideas through ongoing assessment activities, such as discussion forums or quick surveys. She encouraged students to respond to a given topic posted in WhatsApp or Padlet. It is one type of interactive online board where every student can post their ideas or answers and give comment or vote to their friends' ideas.

(5) "I posted a reading text in WhatsApp group or Padlet and gave my students time to comprehend the text. Then, I invited them to comment on what they understood from the text and posted it to Padlet. Actually, I prefer using a Padlet to WA group because it eases me to track my students' answers and to give feedback. Besides, both teachers and students could comment or vote on their friends' work directly on the interactive board". P07-JHS

Furthermore, by providing audio or video feedback to the students, P02-SHS found that she could guide the students to improve their work and engage more in the interaction. It is noted that the teachers integrated the assessment activities with the teaching and learning process, rather than giving homework or a test, to reduce students' workload and maintain students' well-being (P05-SHS, P09-JHS, and P12-JHS).

(6) "I frequently gave audio feedback by recording my voice or take a short video in giving difficult explanations. Interestingly, I found that it can substitute the face-to-face interactions between teacher and students to virtual interactions during online learning. Besides, audio and video feedback can save my time in giving individual feedback and help my students understand my feedback better". P02-SHS

(7) "During ERT, the students were overwhelmed with the homework from almost every subject. Thus, I preferred to give online quizzes during the teaching and learning process. I tried to minimize giving homework to my students". P12-JHS

4.1.4 Facilitating authenticity in assessment (Category D)

Some participants found that online assessment during ERT could facilitate authentic tasks (P02-SHS, P04-JHS and P11-VHS). They admitted that the tasks related to students' real-world context could reduce the students' nerves in doing online tasks and stimulate their creativity and higher-order thinking skills. Students reflected on their daily activities and solved the problems associated with their current situation, particularly the issues of health and the environment. For instance, P04-JHS reported that students demonstrated how to cook some viral foods and drinks during the pandemic (Garlic Cheese Bread, Nori Roll Rice, Dalgona Coffee, etc.) or described daily activities when they had to stay at home. Given the authentic and familiar topics, students worked on their projects excitedly. On the other hand, giving a real-world task to students could minimize the possibility of cheating and plagiarism practices (P02-SHS and P11-VHS). The students worked on their tasks based on the context they had. So, they produced more meaningful and specific reports. Here are some excerpts from the participants.

(8) "I realized that we faced a hard time teaching online during ERT. Therefore, I attempted to simplify the task for my students and reduce their anxiety, yet it was meaningful and fun for them. I gave some projects related to their environment. For instance, they had to record their voice, reporting their daily activities on weekends". P02-SHS

(9) "I gave a simple project to my students related to their favorite food. They should write a recipe for their favorite food and make a short video using VivaVideo for a cooking demo. My students did their project enthusiastically. They demonstrated the procedures to make Dalgona Coffee, Garlic Cheese Bread, or Nori Roll Rice, etc." P04-JHS

4.1.5 Fostering teaching reflection (Category E)

The last category represents EFL secondary teachers' understanding of online assessment during ERT as a teaching reflection. All participants admitted that their teaching experience in the first semester of ERT was very challenging. They had uncertain situations and insufficient knowledge and support to move their instructions to an online environment. However, P01-JHS, P05-SHS, P11-VHS, and P15-SHS revealed that their sensitivity and awareness to reflect and evaluate their teaching quality are more gradually increased during ERT than their experience in face-to-face (F2F) learning. They could reflect their teaching from the student's assessment results and students' learning reflections. For instance, when P01-JHS found that the results of students' works were far from their expectations, they would find the solutions to adjust their assessment strategies.

(10) "Teaching in a fully online mode is new for us. I learned a lot from my experience. For instance, I used to utilize the Quizizz application to conduct online quizzes. However, I stopped using that app since I knew that my students had a trick to finding the answer keys online easily. So, I tried to find another app and adjust the types of my questions". P01-JHS

Moreover, P02-SHS, P07-JHS, and P11-VHS directly invited students to reflect on their learning by distributing online exit tickets. The data obtained from students' reflections could be meaningful and valuable information for teachers to rearrange and improve their online instructions.

(11) "Once I gave my students an online task, I needed to ensure that all the instructions were clear and easy to understand. Otherwise, my students would misunderstand and get lost in doing the task. It happened in my class twice". P02-SHS

(12) "Teaching during ERT was challenging for all of us. I often questioned myself. Did I teach well? Did my students learn something? Why did my students tend to be passive in the discussion? etc. Therefore, I frequently asked my students to fill out an exit ticket, in which they can write what they like and dislike from the learning process". P11-VHS

4.2 Hierarchical Relationship among the Categories of Description

The second outcome of the phenomenographic study represents the categories of descriptions in an outcome space. The outcome space is presented in a diagrammatic representation to show a finite set of hierarchically structured categories of description of a given phenomenon and show the logical and inclusive relationships among categories (Åkerlind, 2012). The outcome space of this study can be seen in Table 2 and is explained rigorously in this subsection.

Table 2. Outcome space: Hierarchical relationship among the categories of description.

Referential aspects (the "what" of conception)	**Structural aspects (the "how" of conception)**		
Categories	Focus on Accountability	Focus on Learning Process	Focus on Enhancement
Measuring students' competencies	A		
Incorporating in (A) and expanding to check the learning targets	B		
Incorporating in (B) and expanding to enhance online interaction		C	
Incorporating in (C) and expanding to facilitate authenticity in assessment		D	
Incorporating in (D) and expanding to foster teaching reflection			E

We identified five conceptions of online assessment in ERT during the pandemic time in Indonesia from 15 EFL secondary school teachers involved in this study. Category A and Category B are considered less subtle than other categories since they simply focus on adopting accountability to measure and check the students' cognitive skills. Meanwhile, the following two categories (C and D) represent higher complexity than the previous ones. The focus is not merely on measuring students' cognitive skills but emphasizes the ongoing assessment activities that facilitate instruction, social, and content presence in online learning interaction. Through online assessment, students are expected to be more engaged and motivated in online learning. Finally, Category E, online assessment to facilitate teaching reflection, has the most advanced conceptions compared to others. This category generally includes all elements from the previous categories. In this case, teachers use the information elicited from assessment activities to reflect the whole online assessment process and devise a better online instruction.

Furthermore, the logical nexus among the categories elaborates further using a framework of referential aspect and structural aspect of online assessment in ERT. The former aspect refers to the meaning of experience ("what" of online assessment in ERT), and the latter describes the structure of that experience ("how" of online assessment in ERT). Those two aspects are linked to contextualize the conceptions (Marton & Pong, 2005). This study discerns three broader structural aspects that are associated with referential aspects, i.e. online assessments focusing on accountability, the learning process, and enhancement. Accountability deals with measuring and checking students' competencies. Categories A and B represent teachers' online assessment that simply measures and checks students' knowledge, whereas learning improvement is given little attention. On the other hand, Categories C and D emphasize that online assessments facilitate online learning. It portrays participants' conceptions that online assessments are a part of the learning process that can foster students' engagement in online learning through meaningful interactions and authentic tasks. At last, Category E highlights enhancement in the online learning process. It does not merely focus on students' scoring and online learning process, but it requires high awareness and deep thinking from the teachers to trace back their online instructions and devise them better.

5. DISCUSSION

The study generally attempts to extend a previous report by Mimirinis (2019) to identify and describe teachers' conceptions of the online assessment. However, this study provides a more specific context called emergency remote teaching (ERT). Instruction delivery was imperatively shifted from face-to-face to a fully online learning context without sufficient preparation and poor facilities due to a global crisis (Hodges et al., 2020). Having that particular setting, we found that all participants agreed that assessment plays a pivotal role in traditional and online environments. However, their conceptions of online assessment are multiple and range in different levels of conceptions, from simple to more sophisticated ways of understanding. We identified five qualitatively different ways of understanding online assessment in ERT perceived by EFL secondary school teachers in Indonesia. Those five categories are then presented in an outcome space which is mapped into three dimensions: focus on accountability, learning process, and enhancement. The findings broadly tune with the previous studies related to assessment conceptions (Mimirinis, 2019; Postareff et al., 2012).

It is believed that teachers' conceptions are generally affected by their socio-cultural factors (Brown et al., 2011; Gebril, 2017). For instance, teachers who teach in a context with an examination-oriented culture tend to have conceptions of accountability (Brown & Gao, 2015). In the same vein, the finding also reveals that most of the participants in this study perceived assessment as a means of measurement and checking learning targets through online tests or quizzes (Categories A and B). They contend that there is no significant difference between strategies in face-to-face and online assessment. The typical findings are also found in the previous studies with a similar context (Azis, 2015; Gebril, 2017).

On the other hand, teachers find that online assessment is more challenging. They cannot control academic integrity and do not know how to assess the students' affective and psychomotor skills due to their limited online assessment literacy. The findings corroborate the previous studies by Guangul et al. (2020) and Meccawy et al. (2021), revealing that cheating and plagiarism become prevalent in online assessment in ERT. Meccawy et al. (2021) proposed a multilevel approach as the strategy to overcome academic dishonesty. The strategies are developing students' academic integrity, providing creative and meaningful tasks that assess students' holistic skills, rather than information recall, and giving extensive training for teachers related to various assessment tasks, academic integrity, and assessment security. Those endeavors can improve teachers' online assessment literacy and enlarge their understanding to prevent identical issues.

The second finding shows a more developed understanding of online assessment. Teachers perceive online assessment in ERT as a medium to promote the online learning process. They enlarge and adjust the concepts of online assessment, from testing factual knowledge to integrating assessment as a part of the learning process. Through online assessment activities, students can communicate with their friends and the teacher (Category C). They feel the presence of their teachers and friends during the learning process. The finding is in line with the framework by Anderson and Garrison (1998), highlighting that providing student-student, student-teacher, and student-content is prominent in effective online instruction. In addition, the findings also echo one of the categories in Mimirinis' (2019) work. In a conducive online environment, he finds that technology can facilitate dialogue and students' engagement.

EFL secondary school teachers view another benefit of online assessment during ERT. They admit that online assessment can facilitate authenticity in assessment (Category D). Several works have pointed out the advantages of authentic assessment (Ashford-Rowe et al., 2014; Huang & Jiang, 2021; Villarroel et al., 2018). In the context of ERT, teachers contend that they provide assessment activities that allow students to solve problems related to their real-life problems. Providing authentic tasks can minimize students' tension in assessment, stimulate their creativity and problem-solving skills, and engage students in online learning. Besides, Gikandi et al. (2011) report that authentic formative assessment can reduce cheating practices.

The last category (Category E) represents the most advanced conception of online assessment in ERT among the other four strategies. The conceptions require complex and deep thinking from teachers to evaluate their instructions and make better instruction. The participants contend that moving on assessment practice from the physical classroom to the online environment is such a tough experience during ERT. They have to struggle to find valid and reliable yet engaging online assessment strategies that meet the intended learning purposes. However, they claim that the emergency remote situation increases their awareness and willingness to reflect on their online assessment practices and to change or improvise the assessment strategies. The findings echo a current report from Zhang et al. (2021). They argue that teachers adjust and redesign classroom assessment practice during pandemic time based on their reflection and teaching experiences.

Based on the findings gleaned from the present study, some implications can be yielded to support assessment practice in an online environment. Although emergency remote teaching is provisional, we believe that online assessment practices have a high possibility to be more prevalent in the classroom-based assessment area. The first implication is related to teachers' assessment and technology literacies. Since the transition of instruction is abrupt, we cannot expect that teachers have sufficient knowledge and capability to design various assessment strategies and to integrate various assessment tools that fit the online environment in ERT. However, due to the continuity of online instruction, teachers must update and enrich their knowledge and skills associated with online assessment and technology-enhanced assessments. Secondly, the study results can assist the government, institutions, and stakeholders in depicting teachers' clear understanding and experience in conducting online assessments during ERT. It is expected that they can devise bottom-up regulations that fit teachers' and students' socio-cultural contexts. Lastly, this study shows a silver lining to optimize the implementation of assessment for learning as a classroom-based assessment trend in Indonesia, especially in secondary schools.

6. CONCLUSIONS

The study highlights the unprecedented transition of online instructions due to Covid-19 spread. We identified and described EFL secondary school teachers' qualitatively different ways of understanding and experiencing online assessment during emergency remote teaching. The study identifies five different conceptions of online assessment and a hierarchical relationship among those conceptions. The findings reflect that EFL secondary school teachers in Indonesia have multiplied and complex understanding and experience in online assessment practices. Their various conceptions are generally affected by influential factors, such as regulations, policy, readiness, knowledge, and infrastructure.

At last, this study has limitations on using the small number of participants and unbalanced gender ratio. Future researchers are suggested to further explore online assessment practices in the post-pandemic time, especially at the secondary education level. The investigation should cover more than perceived online assessment, but it can go deeper to seek the actual practices of the online assessment.

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Vietnamese EFL Learners' Perspectives on Online Extensive Reading during Emergency Remote L2 Teaching

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Abstract

Previous research has shown a range of benefits of extensive reading for second or foreign language (L2) learning, as well as learners' positive attitudes towards extensive reading. However, during emergency remote teaching around the globe as a consequence of the Covid-19 pandemic, where all L2 classes have been moved online, little research has investigated online extensive reading as well as learners' perspectives on this activity. Therefore, the present study was conducted to investigate Vietnamese EFL learners' perspectives on online extensive reading during emergency remote L2 teaching amidst the Covid-19 pandemic. Eighty-seven Vietnamese EFL learners at a local university participated in the study. They were involved in one online extensive reading over 12 weeks. Data were collected through semi-structured interviews with the participants. The results showed that all the learners had positive attitudes towards online extensive reading during emergency remote L2 teaching. Learners reported enjoying the variety of topics and genres found in online extensive reading, the suitability of the texts for their L2 proficiency, the usefulness of the program for enhancing their L2 competence as well as general knowledge, along with the convenience that the program offers. Learners also suggested several improvements in the website interface and the addition of more topics, genres, and quizzes.

Keywords: Emergency remote teaching, English as a foreign language, extensive reading, Covid-19.

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1. INTRODUCTION

The global Covid-19 pandemic has resulted in a number of changes in different aspects of life around the world. In education, in particular, face-to-face classrooms have been forced to be moved online, which presented several challenges to teaching and learning. As for second or foreign language (L2) teaching, many studies have shown major issues in remote teaching during Covid-19, such as students' lack of focus and motivation, students' negative attitudes, technological issues, material adaptation, or classroom management (Gao & Zhang, 2020; Kitishat et al., 2020; Nguyen, 2021). There have been many recommendations for emergency remote L2 teaching during Covid-19, one of which is online extensive reading (Nguyen, 2021).

Previous research has reported various benefits of extensive reading for learning various L2 skills and aspects, including reading (Bell, 2001; Iwahori, 2008; Robb & Kano, 2013), vocabulary (Pigada & Schmitt, 2006; Senoo & Yonemoto, 2014; Vu & Peters, 2020, 2021a), grammar (Pigada & Schmitt, 2006; Sheu, 2003), and writing (Lee & Hsu, 2009; Mermelstein, 2015). Only a few studies have investigated online extensive reading programs as well as learners' perspectives on those programs (Arnold, 2009; Cote & Milliner, 2015; Milliner & Cote, 2015; Zhou & Day, 2021). In Vietnam, however, little research could be found on online extensive reading (Bui & Macalister, 2021). It is, therefore, remains unknown whether online extensive reading can be an effective technique for emergency remote teaching in Vietnam during the Covid-19 pandemic, as previously suggested (Nguyen, 2021). As L2 classes are moved online, online extensive reading can be a feasible option for L2 students to improve their English proficiency, considering the benefits of extensive reading for L2 learning, as shown in previous studies (e.g., Lee et al., 2015; Pigada & Schmitt, 2006; Renandya et al., 1999). For those reasons, the present study was conducted to shed light on how Vietnamese learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) perceive the effectiveness of an online extensive reading program amidst the global coronavirus pandemic.

In summary, it is worth exploring whether online extensive reading is effective during emergency remote L2 teaching from the perspective of L2 learners, especially those in Vietnam, where research on extensive reading and emergency remote L2 teaching is still somewhat limited. Also, most previous studies on extensive reading adopted quantitative methods and learners' perspectives were not often investigated (see Bui & Macalister, 2021; Vu & Peters, 2020 for exceptions). Therefore, the present study collected qualitative data to examine extensive reading from a different perspective. Specifically, the study sought to address the research question of "what were Vietnamese EFL learners' perspectives on online extensive reading?"

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Emergency Remote Teaching during the Covid-19

Emergency remote teaching refers to a temporary and sudden shift of instructional delivery from face-to-face to online instruction because of a disaster or crisis (Hodges et al., 2020). Since the outbreak of the coronavirus pandemic in 2019, emergency remote teaching has become an unavoidable option worldwide. As a sudden shift in instructional delivery, emergency remote teaching poses a number of challenges for teachers, learners as well as other stakeholders (Adedoyin & Soykan, 2020; Le & Truong, 2021; Sofianidis et al., 2021). As for L2 teaching, in particular, the challenges include teachers' limited information technology literacy, classroom management, technological issues, teachers' workload, material adaptation, and assessments (Gao & Zhang, 2020; Kitishat et al., 2020; Nguyen, 2021).

In Vietnam in particular, Nguyen (2021) found that one of the challenges in the emergency remote L2 teaching during the coronavirus pandemic was learners' difficulty staying focused and motivated because of their unfamiliarity with remote learning. Also, internet connection instability or breakdown might interrupt lessons. Another challenge was classroom management since it was difficult to monitor students' participation in each lesson, especially when they did not turn on their cameras during online lessons. Emergency remote teaching also requires more teacher's work in terms of feedback, testing and assessment, and material development. Consequently, a variety of techniques were reported to be employed, such as the use of code-switching to increase students' motivation (Nguyen & Vu, 2019), the adoption of a variety of activities to increase students' attention and engagement, or the implementation of online extensive reading to assist students in improving their L2 vocabulary knowledge and proficiency.

2.2 Benefits of (Online) Extensive Reading

Extensive reading can be defined as an "approach to the teaching and learning of reading in which learners read large amounts of material that are within their linguistic competence" (Grabe & Stoller, 2011, p. 286). According to Day and Bamford (2002), there are several characteristics of extensive reading. For instance, reading texts should be easy, address diverse topics, and interest students. In addition, texts should be read for pleasure, information, or general understanding, and the amount of reading should be subject to students' preferences. Also, extensive reading should be done individually and silently at a faster speed, with teachers providing guidance or working as role models.

Previous studies have shown that extensive reading benefits L2 learning in different ways. Renandya et al. (1999) found a significant positive correlation between the amount of extensive reading and improved L2 proficiency. Other studies reported a significant effect of extensive reading on reading fluency and comprehension (Bell, 2001; Iwahori, 2008; Mason & Krashen, 1997). The impact of extensive reading on L2 learning even extends to writing (Hafiz & Tudor, 1989; Lee & Hsu, 2009; Mason & Krashen, 1997; Mermelstein, 2015), grammar (Lee et al., 2015; Sheu, 2003; Yang, 2001), and especially vocabulary (Horst, 2005; Pigada & Schmitt, 2006; Senoo & Yonemoto, 2014).

Numerous studies in the Vietnamese context have demonstrated various advantages of extensive reading for L2 students. Extensive reading was found to affect the attitudes, reading fluency, and reading comprehension of Vietnamese EFL learners. For instance, Tran (2018) found that students' reading rate and comprehension were improved by extensive reading. More recently, Bui and Macalister (2021) also found that online extensive reading had a positive effect on learners' development of reading fluency. In terms of vocabulary, there is empirical evidence of the positive effect of extensive reading on Vietnamese EFL learners' acquisition of single words (Vu & Peters, 2020) and collocations (Vu & Peters, 2021a).

Considering the importance of vocabulary knowledge for L2 learners (e.g., Hsueh-Chao & Nation, 2000; Vu & Peters, 2012b), the Vietnamese EFL learners' limited vocabulary knowledge (Dang, 2020; Vu & Nguyen, 2019; Vu & Peters, 2021b), the high lexical demands of national high-stakes English exams in Vietnam (Vu, 2019), and the inadequacy of L2 textbooks in addressing different aspects of vocabulary knowledge (Vu & Michel, 2021), online extensive reading can be an effective way to enhance Vietnamese EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge during emergency remote L2 teaching in Vietnam.

2.3 Learners' Perspectives toward Online Extensive Reading

Concerning learners' perspectives on online extensive reading, a few recent studies have shown that learners have positive attitudes towards online extensive reading (Arnold, 2009; Bui & Macalister, 2021; Cote & Milliner, 2015; Milliner & Cote, 2015; Zhou & Day, 2021). For instance, Arnold (2009) found that online extensive reading increased learners' motivation to read, enhanced their confidence about their L2 reading ability, and encouraged more out-of-class reading for pleasure. Cote and Milliner (2015) revealed learners' appreciation of the convenience and accessibility of online extensive reading while Zhou and Day (2021) reported that learners felt improvements in their reading fluency, vocabulary, grammar, comprehension, writing, and speaking. In Bui and Macalister (2021), Vietnamese EFL learners claimed that online extensive reading helped them develop their reading fluency, vocabulary knowledge, reading comprehension, and pragmatic L2 use.

It has been noted that some features of online extensive reading are appealing to learners. Those features include the program's convenience or accessibility (Bui & Macalister, 2021; Cote & Milliner, 2015; Milliner & Cote, 2015; Zhou & Day, 2021), the variety of reading materials (Milliner & Cote, 2015; Zhou & Day, 2021), the availability of the quizzes to check comprehension (Zhou & Day, 2021), the suitability of reading texts for learner's proficiency (Bui & Macalister, 2021). However, some characteristics of online extensive reading might demotivate learners, such as technical errors (Cote & Milliner, 2015), eyestrain (Bui & Macalister, 2021; Cote & Milliner, 2015), the lack of genres, and the unappealing website design (Bui & Macalister, 2021).

3. METHODS

3.1 Participants

Participants were first-year economics and business majors at a local university in Vietnam who were 87 EFL learners aged 17 (14 males, 73 females). According to the listening, reading, grammar, and vocabulary entrance test at their university, their level of English proficiency was pre-intermediate. Due to the effects of Covid-19, convenience sampling was used to make it easier for the author to collect data. They are coded as S1 for Student 1, S2 for Student 2, and so forth, in this article.

3.2 Materials

All reading materials were online on the website https://www.er-central.com/ developed by Extensive Reading Central, a not-for-profit organization that develops the extensive reading and extensive listening approaches to L2 learning. This website was chosen for many reasons. Firstly, it contains a wide range of genres of texts on various topics for students to select from, which meets the requirements of an extensive reading program (Day & Bamford, 2002). Secondly, it was user-friendly with clear instructions on how the resources could be employed. Finally, it was free, making it more accessible to teachers and students in developing countries with limited financial resources like Vietnam. There are also quizzes to check learners' comprehension and ratings of the texts. More importantly, it allowed the teacher to create different classes to manage her students' reading progress. Also, students could easily monitor their progress.

3.3 Data Collection and Analysis

The current study used a qualitative methodology to explore Vietnamese EFL learners' perspectives on online extensive reading. More specifically, information was gathered by conducting semi-structured interviews with participants. Semi-structured interviews were conducted as a result of their flexibility, which allows participants to elaborate on pertinent topics and introduce new ones, according to Payne (2000). The interviews were conducted in Vietnamese or English at the participants' discretion. The guiding question for the participants was: "What do you think of the online extensive reading program?" The interviews were recorded, transcribed, and analyzed using the thematic analysis technique following Braun and Clarke's (2012) procedure. Firstly, the researcher read the transcripts of the interviews to familiarize herself with the data, followed by a systematic analysis of the data through generating initial coding. After that, the researcher reviewed the coded data to look for similarities and overlaps between codes to search for themes and subthemes. Then the researcher reviewed the developing themes with reference to the coded data to check the quality of themes before defining and naming them.

3.4 Procedures

The whole experiment lasted 12 weeks. In the first week, the participants were provided with informed consent forms to grant permission for their data to be used in the study. Next, they were informed of the objectives of the online extensive reading program as well as reasons why it should be implemented. Then, step-to-step instructions on how to use the website were provided and demonstrated. Class accounts were created for all participants who were instructed to log in and start with a reading level assessment available on the website to identify the most suitable level for their reading texts. According to the website, learners should choose a level that contains just about one or two new words to meet the 98% coverage required for appropriate reading comprehension (Hsueh-Chao & Nation, 2000). Learners were told to freely choose what to read and that what mattered most would be their experience, i.e., how much they would enjoy the reading rather than for testing purposes. From weeks 2 to 11, learners did an online extensive reading at home as instructed. The website tracked students' numbers of login, numbers of texts read, as well as total reading time spent on each text, all of which could be downloaded in an Excel sheet to help the teacher monitor students' engagement in online extensive reading. In addition, each week learners came to class to orally share in groups what they had read in the previous week. In week 12, 20 out of 87 learners were invited to semi-structured interviews on their online extensive reading experience.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Semi-structured interviews with all the participants showed that they all had positive attitudes towards online extensive reading, which was in line with previous research on online extensive reading (Arnold, 2009; Bui & Macalister, 2021; Cote & Milliner, 2015; Zhou & Day, 2021). Four major themes emerged from the semi-structured interviews regarding learners' perspectives on the online extensive reading program, namely variety and suitability, usefulness, convenience, and suggestions for improvement.

4.1 Variety and Suitability

Eighty-five participants reported their enjoyment of the variety and suitability in terms of topics, genres, proficiency levels, and length in the online extensive reading program. Regarding the topics, a number of the participants complimented the range of exciting topics found in the program. For example, two participants (pseudonyms) commented that:

(1) "Thanks to the diverse and interesting topics of the texts I didn't have to waste time looking for the texts I would love to read" (S1)
(2) "There were various familiar topics close to my daily life, so I really enjoyed them." (S2)

Meanwhile, the variety of genres made it easy for the participants to choose texts of their interest:

(3) "There was a great variety of genres; therefore, I could choose the genres of my interest." (S3)

As for proficiency levels, the participants reported easily finding texts within their English competence:

(4) "The texts were of different proficiency levels for me, so I could choose the ones that would be the most suitable for my current level of English competence." (S4)

Length of the texts was another factor that learners paid attention to:

(6) "The texts were in general of appropriate length, neither too long nor too short, so I could read without getting bored or tired easily." (S4)

Since extensive reading should be easy, of various topics, and interest to learners (Day & Bamford, 2002), it was clear that the online extensive reading program met these requirements. This finding suggests that online extensive reading can be a solution to the issue of limited resources for extensive reading encountered in many L2 contexts (Susser & Robb, 1990).

4.2 Usefulness

All eighty-seven participants highly appreciated the usefulness of the online extensive reading program for learning not only English but also general knowledge. As one learner stated:

(7) "I was very excited to do extensive reading online because I could improve my English proficiency and gain more general knowledge." (S5)

Concerning learning English, eighteen participants claimed that the online extensive reading program helped them improve different aspects of English competence, including reading, grammar, and vocabulary.

(8) "There were a lot of interesting stories, which made me motivated to read more and more. The more I read in English, the better I felt my English reading skills became". (S6)
(9) "I saw many interesting sentence structures in the texts and tried to learn them. So I believe that the program helped me improve my grammar." (S7)
(10) "I could learn so many useful words on different topics because there are clear definitions provided." (S8)

Regarding general knowledge, six participants claimed that it was the lessons acquired from the reading texts that were suggested to improve learners' knowledge of various topics.

(11) "I gained some general knowledge in life through meaningful lessons contained in each reading text" (S9).

Indeed, previous research has shown that extensive reading could improve learners' reading (Bell, 2001; Iwahori, 2008; Mason & Krashen, 1997), grammar (Lee et al., 2015; Sheu, 2003; Yang, 2001), and vocabulary (Horst, 2005; Pigada & Schmitt, 2006; Senoo & Yonemoto, 2014; Vu & Peters, 2020, 2021a, 2022). Therefore, online extensive reading could have the same effects on L2 learners' English competence as previously shown for extensive reading. As for general knowledge, Vietnamese EFL learners' beliefs about their improvement of general knowledge gained through online extensive reading might match those of L2 teachers (Macalister, 2010) as well as L2 learners in other contexts (Yamashita, 2013, 2015). When learners read various texts within their linguistic competence, they were provided with information about different topics. They thus were given opportunities to widen their knowledge of various areas.

4.3 Convenience

Eighty-six participants reported enjoying the convenience of online extensive reading. Several factors were mentioned, including the accessibility of the texts within learners' linguistic competence, the availability of reading levels assessment, the inclusion of dictionary definitions, the self-monitor of reading progress, the enclosed images as well short quizzes.

(12) "I have always struggled to find materials suitable for my English proficiency to practice. Thanks to this website, everything has become much easier, so I'm very excited about it." (S6)
(13) "Reading has never been so flexible to me. I can read anytime, anywhere". (S10)
(14) "I could assess my own reading level before I started reading, which was so great." (S11)
(15) "I loved it that definitions of new words were provided, so I didn't need to go to other websites to look up new words. That saved me a lot of time". (S12)
(16) "It was an effective learning experience for me because the website keeps track of my reading time." (S13)
(17) "I like the quizzes. They were very interesting and useful for me to check my own understanding of the texts". (S14)

The reported enjoyment of the convenience of online extensive reading was similar to other previous studies (Bui & Macalister, 2021; Milliner & Cote, 2015; Zhou & Day, 2021). Such convenience of online extensive reading can be attributed to the wide availability of the internet as well as the fast-paced development of information technology which has enabled the creation of a range of intelligent and interactive computer-based or mobile-based applications and programs.

4.4 Suggestions for Improvement

While all the participants had positive perspectives on online extensive reading, several of them made a few suggestions to improve their online reading experience, namely the interface of the website, the variety of topics and genres, the addition of quizzes, and some technical issues.

Regarding the website surface, seven students said that the interface could be more appealing with fewer distracting banners for advertisements. In comparison, three students suggested an increased font size to prevent eyestrain.

(18) "The current interface looks a bit boring. It should be made more attractive". (S15)
(19) "I don't like to see so many advertisement banners on the website because they sometimes distract me from reading." (S16)
(20) "The font size was so small, so my eyes were strained, and sometimes I lost my concentration. I would love a bigger font size". (S17)

Previous research has also reported eyestrain as a difficulty in the online extensive reading programs (Bui & Macalister, 2021; Cote & Milliner, 2015). Reading texts over a long time on a computer or mobile phone could inevitably lead to eyestrain, so learners might need to make their plans to rest during their reading. An increased font size might also be considered to help make the texts more enjoyably readable to learners. Regarding the unattractive design, the finding was similar to Bui and Macalister's (2021). Online extensive reading websites might need to pay more attention to this matter.

Two students insisted on more topics and genres:

(21) "Although there are a lot of topics and genres already, I still would love to read many more topics and genres to expand my knowledge." (S2)

It was interesting but not surprising that some learners still desired to read more topics and genres, which also resonated with Bui and Macalister (2021). However, it is challenging to address all topics and genres because of the vast differences in learners' preferences.

Five students suggested more quizzes to enhance their understanding of the texts.

(22) "I would like to take more quizzes so that I could understand the texts better." (S7)

Some previous research supported the assessment of extensive reading (Ng et al., 2019; Tamrackitkun, 2010; Zhou & Day, 2021). Extensive reading is clearly for pleasure and information, but taking quizzes on the texts might encourage learners to take it more seriously and make more efforts to understand the texts.

Finally, technical issues, such as login time, slow loading, and system errors, were reported to be problematic by six learners.

(23) "I do not like that I have to log in every time I want to read and it doesn't remember my username and password". (S18)
(24) "It is annoying that sometimes the website doesn't respond, and I have to reload it." (S19)
(25) "Sometimes it loads very slowly, which is quite irritating to me." (S20)

Given that extensive online reading requires an internet connection, it is understandable that technical issues could occur and unavoidably have a negative impact on students' reading experiences, as was also found in Cote and Milliner's (2015) study.

5. CONCLUSION

The present study investigated Vietnamese EFL learners' perspectives on online extensive reading during emergency remote L2 teaching amidst the Covid-19 pandemic. Through semi-structured interviews with the participants, the results showed that learners had positive attitudes towards online extensive reading because of its variety and suitability, usefulness, and convenience. Online extensive reading could offer reading texts of varied topics and genres reported suitable for learners' English proficiency. Online extensive reading was also claimed to enhance learners' English competence in different aspects, such as reading, grammar, and vocabulary. In addition, such features as self-tracked reading progress, enclosed dictionary definitions, or images were also favored by learners. A few issues, however, were also suggested to be addressed, such as the website interface, the addition of more topics and genres, quizzes, and technical errors.

The present study has several implications. It indicates that online extensive reading was generally enjoyed by Vietnamese EFL learners because of its distinctive features, such as convenience, suitability, and usefulness, so online extensive reading can be integrated into the L2 curriculum, especially during the Covid-19 pandemic. In addition, learners' perspectives on how the website could be improved might be useful for those who consider setting up online extensive reading programs.

However, the study was not without limitations. First, the study involved only 87 students at a local university, so the results were just exploratory. A larger-scale study on more students at different universities might provide a more comprehensive picture of learners' perspectives on online extensive reading. Secondly, the study only reported learners' beliefs, which leaves room for future research on the benefits of online extensive reading.

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ELT Lecturers' Communicative Language Teaching Approach in Directing Students' Emotions in Distance Learning

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Abstract

The study investigated whether, and how, Communicative Language Teaching Approaches (CLTA) significantly influenced students' academic emotions and achievement in self-directed distance learning. The participants were 76 university students in Denpasar. The data were collected through exam results and two questionnaires. Questionnaire A measured students' learning intentions, self-encouragement, and motivation, while questionnaire B was the DASS 21. Pearson Correlation was used to analyze the effect of CLTA on student learning intention and performance, and their perception of depression, anxiety, and stress. Descriptive analysis was also performed to examine the students' levels of negative emotions toward their academic experience. The quantitative results showed a significantly positive correlation between lecturers' content-based instruction (CBI) and learning intention, rob (0.536) > rcv (0.226); lecturers' communicative language teaching (CLT) correlated positively with learning encouragement, rob (0.655)> rcv (0.226); and lecturers' task-based language teaching (TBLT) correlated positively with motivation, rob (0.671)> rcv (0.226). This means that the CLTA strategy strongly and positively encouraged students to study and decreased the students' experiences of negative emotions. The study revealed that the more intensively the CLTA is applied, the fewer students feel depressed, and the better the students' achievement is. The study suggests that CLTA

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activates affective, cognitive, and conative norms even in online learning environments.

Keywords: Communicative Language Teaching Approaches, emotional norms, teaching strategy, TEFL achievement.

1. INTRODUCTION

Lecturers in English Language Teaching (ELT) assert that language teaching methods play a crucial role in forming students' learning behavior, in engaging students in the language learning process, and in equipping students with functional language skills. Therefore, the selection of an adequate teaching method should be related to the learning objectives (Boon, 2011), the psychological condition of the students (Fredrickson, 1998), and the environmental conditions (Nadezhda, 2020). Better learning objectives in ELT are achieved if the learning experience is shaped through the application of an innovative teaching method that generates positive learning attitudes in the students and which provides a conducive learning environment, especially in distance learning (Mahyoob, 2020). Under this assumption, positive emotional responses should be prioritized in the lecturer's selection of teaching activity to achieve better learning objectives.

Despite ELT lecturers historically applying multiple language teaching strategies in the distance learning environment (Vorobel & Kim, 2012), students continue to encounter difficulties during online learning interactions due to a reduction in direct verbal and non-verbal language exchanges (Khalil et al., 2020). Many students believe that face-to-face learning interactions are comparatively easier and more efficient for achieving learning objectives than online classes (Finkelstein, 2005). This belief causes some students to feel that it is academically unprofitable to engage with online lessons (Aronoff et al., 2017). To tackle this phenomenon, this study initially assumes that, through a communicative teaching strategy, lecturers can establish a better learning experience by prioritizing students' emotional wellbeing in a way that promotes and supports the development of knowledge and skills, even in distance learning conditions.

Distance learning in a pandemic situation can be complicated and frustrating, with limited interaction and unstable internet access leading to communication and task directions being potentially misunderstood (Joo et al., 2014); however, the anticipation of a psychological crisis in adult learners can play a greater role in self-directed negative emotions such as depression, anxiety, and stress (Goleman, 2012). Many scholars agree that emotional states can have a significant impact on education and learning (Strahan & Poteat, 2020), requiring further consideration for potential reciprocity between teaching strategy and emotional wellbeing. This study posits that there is a link between teaching strategy and academic emotion and aims to show that academic emotions affect the success of the selected teaching strategy, and the choice of teaching strategy affects students' academic emotions. Academic emotions can be defined as emotions that students experience in academic settings, which explain many kinds of psychological processes occurring during the learning process (Pekrun et al., 2002).

When considering academic emotions, Fredrickson (1998) confirms that these emotions are mostly misunderstood as obstacles that hinder effective teaching; however, in-class emotions play a more dynamic role. Positive academic emotions include strong learning intentions, self-encouragement, and motivation. Furthermore, in this study, learning intentions refer to what the teachers desire their students to learn in terms of language skills, knowledge, attitudes, and values within English language learning (Hattie, 2012). Self-encouragement is a student's innate ability to manage emotion despite unpredictable instrumental errors, unstable internet, and difficulty in managing relationships with peers in a distance learning environment (Engel, 2015). Finally, according to Ferreira et al. (2011), motivation is a process that starts with physiological or psychological deficiency or needs that activates a behavior or drive aimed at a goal or achievement.

Regarding positive academic emotions, directing students' emotions in a classroom context could stimulate students to reflect (Barbalet, 2002); therefore, emotional and conceptual teaching content plays a key role in language teaching, especially in language learning experiences occurring in an online learning environment. From this perspective, the present study assumes that communication-based teaching methods can strengthen the confidence of students and reduce the negative emotions experienced during distance learning, thus helping students to manage academic emotions and metacognition, and to develop language skills for a broad range of emotional contexts and situations.

Various recent studies on English teaching and learning strategies support this statement (Bar-On & Parker, 2000; Goleman, 2012; MacCann et al., 2020; Salovey & Mayer, 1990) and reveal that teaching strategies significantly affect learning behavior, with both negative and positive perceptions of the learning journey. However, despite numerous investigations into English language teaching strategies, there is a dearth of research examining the effects of communicative language teaching approaches (CLTA) on students' positive learning emotions during distance learning, especially in the Balinese context. This study proposes that CLTA can not only improve students' language performance but also direct students' academic emotions, such as learning intention, self-encouragement, motivation, depression, anxiety, and stress during self-directed distance learning.

CLTA is a behavior-based language teaching method that includes content-based instruction (CBI), communicative language teaching (CLT), and task-based language teaching (TBLT). When applied in the initial learning phase, CBI aims to empower students to become independent learners and to continue the learning process beyond the classroom (Davies, 2003). This approach can be applied by utilizing multimedia and technology to aid and encourage self-directed distance learning (Milarisa, 2019). A secondary phase technique, CLT aims to implement the theory of communicative competence by including the interdependence of language and communication to enable students to communicate with the target language efficiently (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). In the final and more complex phase, TBLT utilizes communicative and interactive tasks that require meaningful communication and interaction between learners (Ellis, 2003), allowing an implicit acquisition of grammar and negating the need for explicit grammar instruction. This study assumes that each approach has a different effect on students' academic emotions during online learning experiences (Nadezhda, 2020).

Considering the significant emphasis on the communicative approach and academic emotions, this study focuses on English language learning that is implemented through the emotive, cognitive, and conative domains in self-directed distance learning. The emotive domain is concerned with how the student's perception of the learning experience improves and how negative learning-related emotions, such as academic depression, anxiety, and stress, decrease after the application of CBI, CLT, and TBLT. The cognitive domain is concerned with the degree to which students' English language comprehension increases after those methods are applied. The conative domain is concerned with the way the students integrate language learning into their daily life contexts. Based on this classification, the present study proposes two research questions:

1. Does CLTA affect the student's ability to improve academic emotion in self-directed distance learning?
2. What factors might influence the strengths of CLTA in distance language learning, and what might its weaknesses be?

Considering these objectives, this present study is aimed at examining whether CLTA affects the students' ability to increase students' positive academic emotions of learning intention, self-encouragement, and motivation and to decrease their negative academic emotions of depression, anxiety, and stress experienced in a self-directed distance learning environment. This study is also aimed at determining any factors that may influence the strength or weakness of a CLTA.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Communicative Language Teaching Approach (CLTA)

The basic concepts of language teaching as a functional process are communicative competence and performance. CLTA plays an important role in developing academic emotions, language cognition, and language performance as it is derived from behavior-based teaching. One strategy of the CLTA observed in this study is content-based instruction (CBI), with several definitions of CBI provided by various language teaching scholars. Richards and Rodgers (2014) say that content-based instruction refers to an approach to second language teaching where teaching is organized around the content or information that students will acquire, rather than around specific linguistic or other curriculum aims. Content usually relates to the topic that people learn or convey through language (Joo et al., 2014). In fact, Joo et al.'s (2014) study confirms that CBI enables students to acquire the target language through unrelated content.

In terms of classroom implementation, CBI is a language teaching strategy that imbues language learning with content or information that is interesting and relevant to the learners (Intarapanich, 2013). The concept of CBI is firmly anchored in the principles of communicative language teaching as they involve the active participation of students in the exchange of content. According to Richards and Rodgers (2014), CBI is based on two relevant principles: (i) people learn English more successfully when they use the language as a means of obtaining and sharing information rather than as an end in itself; (ii) CBI better reflects learners' needs to learn a second language as lingua franca. However, the learning target must not just be understanding the language, but it must also be understanding and appreciating how the new language can be a tool to complete necessary life tasks such as getting food, studying, or finding a job.

Meanwhile, communicative language teaching (CLT) advocates for teaching methods that develop learners' abilities to communicate in a second language (Rahmawati, 2019). CLT represents a shift in the focus of language teaching away from the linguistic structure to the needs of learners to develop communication skills (Wardana et al., 2020). A study conducted by Sato and Kleinsasser (1999) shows that lecturers have a positive attitude toward CLT principles and gain positive teaching characteristics that can make English teaching activities more effective and meaningful. The learner-centered approach gives students a sense of ownership of their learning and increases their motivation. CLT emphasizes the communication process and leads the learner through different roles compared to more traditional language learning approaches. In a CLT classroom, a teacher acts as an analyst, advisor, and group process manager (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). In addition, the teacher is also a co-communicator who directs communicative activities with the students (Intarapanich, 2013). The effectiveness of the applied communicative teaching strategy is shown in the immediate language performance of the students as well as their permanent language habit formation (Wardana et al., 2020). However, CLT does not exclude grammar learning and suggests that the grammatical structure could be better understood when presented within different functional categories (Bax, 2003).

Another communicative-based teaching approach that is examined in this study is Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT). TBLT is based on communicative and interactive tasks that require meaningful communication and interaction between learners (Milarisa, 2019). According to Ellis (2009), TBLT refers to an approach that uses tasks as the core method of language teaching. Nunan (2004) states that TBLT has strengthened six principles and practices, including (i) a needs-based approach to content selection; (ii) an emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language; (iii) the introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation; (iv) the provision of opportunities for learners to focus not only on language but also on the learning process itself; (v) an enhancement of the learner's own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning; and (vi) the linking of classroom language learning with language use outside the classroom.

Based on these principles, Milarisa (2019) suggests that TBLT makes students more active participants in their learning and increases their enjoyment when self-directed motivation is engaged to complete tasks. Canals (2020) asserts that this approach is known to enable a focus on meaning and authentic communication in foreign language classrooms, something which is of paramount importance in online language learning settings, as van der Zwaard and Bannink (2016) point out. Ellis (2003) reveals that the student's English speaking ability, after the application of task-based language learning, was much higher than before encountering these methods, with a statistical significance of 0.05. A TBLT-oriented research agenda that is integrative and sensitive to the hybrid nature of discourse and accounts for the interactive and dynamic nature of the learning processes involved in the task-based performance (Ellis, 2009).

2.2 Academic Depression, Anxiety, and Stress

Consistent with the assumptions formed by this study regarding the affective domain and the effects on psychological wellbeing during a pandemic environment, Syahdan et al. (2021) found that students evaluated during the pandemic had much higher levels of anxiety, depression, and stress than the same students observed before the pandemic. Depression can manifest as decreasing desire, motivation, and productivity. In addition, Bar-On and Parker (2000) noted that sources of academic stress included "boring" teaching activities, high assignment numbers, teacher or peer disrespect, unstable internet access during distance learning, and confusing explanations. Unfortunately, even mild or moderate stress levels can hinder the learning process (Yikealo et al., 2018)

An increased academic stress level can trigger decreased academic competence, which affects the student performance index. However, anxiety during a pandemic can also affect students' performance as this emotion leads to confusion and distortion of perception (Yang et al., 2021) These distortions of perceptions disrupt students' concentration, affect memory, and create an inability to relate to one thing to another (Bar-On & Parker, 2000). Distance learning can potentially be stressful for students (Suadi, 2021) because a single negative condition can influence the student's perception of the learning experience as a whole (Barbalet, 2002). Because emotion is an inner drive, the function of emotions can both weaken and strengthen the language learning process. This condition is strongly influenced by the mental readiness of students to receive stimuli outside themselves (Pekrun et al., 2002). However, students' resilience in processing negative energy into positive emotional impulses can be influenced by age, problem-solving experience, and independence (Morales-Rodríguez, 2021) So, likely, the students in this research will not experience depression, anxiety, and stress in distance learning because of the above factors.

An excellent teaching technique will have an impact on learning outcomes (Sáiz Manzanares et al., 2017). Learning outcomes measure the extent to which the learning objectives are achieved and evaluation of these scores is a useful tool in providing information about which teaching strategies are most effective (Strahan & Poteat, 2020). Positive student perceptions can trigger increased motivation, increased interest, and a sense of responsibility for learning (Hromova, 2019) and, in addition to intelligence, a positive learning attitude toward the teaching method is an indicator of the future achievement of learning objectives and the success of the teaching and learning process. Students' perceptions of learning outcomes can be patterned positive or negative and, where student's perception of learning experience is positive, they may better receive and synthesize information so that ongoing learning outcomes can be ensured to be satisfactory. The same phenomenon can be seen in reverse, where negative perceptions of a learning journey can indicate learning outcomes will be unsatisfactory (Ferreira et al., 2011).

After considering theoretical and empirical statements concerning CLTA, psychological pressure, students' perceptions of the learning process and learning outcomes, this present study agrees with scholars that CLTA is a scientific teaching approach appropriate for use in the instruction of English as a foreign language, by the basic concept of functional language learning theory. However, previous studies only explain and prove how the strategies of this approach help students build, develop, and implement English mastery into two domains: language competence and language performance. These previous studies have not considered the importance of emotional factors in the success of this approach. Thus, based on direct observation, this study believes that: (i) the basic concept of CLTA includes three aspects of language teaching, namely attitudes, knowledge, and language skills; (ii) CLTA is believed to be able to build positive academic emotions through direct involvement, where the lecturer acts as a director in role-playing activities, group discussions, and turn-taking activities and where students become actors, effective thinkers, and problem-solvers, rather than just recipients of information; (iii) participation, perception, and independence of learning can help students achieve learning objectives, where the achievement of learning objectives can motivate students so that students' perceptions of learning experience can have a positive pattern; and (iv) depression, anxiety, and stress can be avoided by strengthening their mentality through building a positive learning attitude toward communicative learning activities.

3. METHODS

This study focused on the effectiveness of CLTA as a method of teaching, and how CLTA contributes to a change in attitude toward learning. Participants for this study were drawn from students in years 4 and 6 of the English Education Study Program of Universitas Mahasaraswati Denpasar. There were 76 participants, consisting of 25% year 4 and 33% year 6 boys and 51% year 4 and 67% year 6 girls, with 20 participants who were 18 or 19 years old, 37 participants who were 20 or 21 years old, and 19 participants who were 22 or 23 years old.

Referring to the two research questions, this study carried out a mixed-method data collection and analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data (Creswell & Creswell, 2003). The quantitative research in this study used a correlation research design to demonstrate the relationships between CLTA and students' emotions in distance learning environments. A qualitative method, using a case study research design, described the factors that determined: the weaknesses and strengths of the communicative teaching strategy; students' attitudes toward learning; and the students' emotions during distance learning.

The primary quantitative data were taken by administering exam paper questions written by the lecturers and used to measure students' language learning after the teaching methods were applied. Examinations included five essay items based on students' learning experiences, essay construction rules, and learning objectives. Exam paper questions were previously verified and validated by the English Education Study Program of the Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Universitas Mahasaraswati Denpasar, and so did not require analysis to measure content validity. The results of the tests were then checked to determine the raw score, mean score, and average score. Each score was categorized into specific criteria of "excellent" (84% - 100%), "good" (68% - 83%), "fair" (52% - 67%), "poor" (36% - 51%), and "very poor" (20% - 35%), where these categories directly reflect learning achievement.

Meanwhile, the secondary quantitative data were taken from two types of questionnaires: questionnaire A recorded the students' attention, self-encouragement, and motivation; and questionnaire B recorded the student's negative emotions. Further to these two questionnaires, observation checklist was used to collect data on the factors influencing the strengths and weaknesses of selected teaching methods.

Questionnaire A was developed by the researchers in this study and used statements on learning intention, self-encouragement, and motivation. There were six statement items for each domain. The items and their criteria were examined by five expert judges, and no items were reduced or added. The results from the first questionnaire were given criteria levels of high, medium, and low. The interval between 3.1 and 4.0 was classified as high, between 2.1 and 3.0 as a medium, and between 1.0 and 2.0 as low levels of intention, self-encouragement, and motivation.

Questionnaire B was the DASS 21 and was used to measure students' levels of depression, anxiety, and stress during distance learning applications of CLTA. Twenty-one items were adopted from Lovibond and Lovibond's (1995) study and deliberately matched the psychological pressure being investigated to remove the need for further verification and validation. The scores were classified into normal, mild, moderate, and severe. Interpretation of questionnaire scores in the DASS 21 is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Interpretation of questionnaire score in DASS 21.

Category	Depression	Anxiety	Stress
Normal	0-9	0-7	0-14
Mild	10-13	8-9	15-18
Moderate	14-20	10-14	19-25
Severe	21-27	15-19	26-33
Very severe	28+	20+	34+

The procedure of applying teaching methods in online learning interactions in this study was conducted through synchronous and asynchronous learning. Synchronous learning means that the lecturers and the participants in the course engage with the course content and each other at the same time but from different locations. Meanwhile, asynchronous learning means that the lecturers and the participants in the course all engage with the course content at different times without live face-to-face interaction. The activities in applying the CLTA through synchronous and asynchronous learning include: The lecturers interact with participants in real-time by means of tools such as zoom to display livestream audio, video, and presentations to hold live classes or meetings. An example, the video demonstration activity used during the application of this method could encourage the students to perform the language more effectively.

The lecturers provide participants with a sequence of units that the participants move through that might make use of assigned readings or uploaded media, online quizzes, discussion boards, and more. Participants can access the course content and initiate or respond to interactions with the lecturers and their peers when it best suits their learning goals. As an example, via the course discussion boards used in online class discussions, students could take advantage of extra time to process, practice, and respond lecturer's open-ended questions so the lecturers could activate all students in improving their comprehension and retention.

After the teaching using CLTA was conducted, students were given exams and questionnaires. The results of the exam and responses to the questionnaires were then scored and analyzed. The Pearson Correlation analysis was performed to study the effect of CLTA on student learning intention and performance, and their perception of depression, anxiety, and stress. Multiple correlation statistical tests were also used to describe how two independent correlations could affect the dependent variable at the same time (Bungin, 2003). Hence, this analysis was used to see if the strategy applied has a strong and positive correlation with learning intention and emotion. In addition, a two-tailed t-test was used to measure any correlation within variables when the correlation value of the coefficient was less than 0.05. The two-tailed t-test is used as a benchmark to reject or accept the hypothesis, and it is used to test the undirected hypothesis.

4. RESULTS

4.1 CBI and Learning Intention

The method of CBI that lecturers applied enhanced the student's understanding of the contents of either spoken or written texts. The participants were provided with opportunities to explore their language competence and activate language performance in an everyday life context. To determine the success of the method, lecturers evaluated the participants' learning experience over the session. The results of this evaluation are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Learning achievement with the method of CBI.

Criteria	Frequency	Male	Female	Percentage %
Excellent	32	7 (9%)	25 (33%)	42%
Good	41	16 (21%)	25 (33%)	54%
Fair	3	2 (3%)	1(1%)	4%
Poor	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0%
Very poor	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0%
Total	76	25 (33%)	51 (67%)	100%

The data in Table 2 indicated achievement in the English language after the implementation of CBI in a distance learning environment. The total score of the participants' learning achievement after the lecturers implemented CBI was 6169 and the average score was 81.00, which was categorized as a "good" achievement. In addition, the highest score obtained was 88 and the lowest was 64. The female participants performed more successfully in language learning through the method of CBI than the male participants. This successful performance was correlated with participants' learning intention. The effectiveness of CBI and the participants' learning intention in self-directed distance learning can be seen in Figure 1.

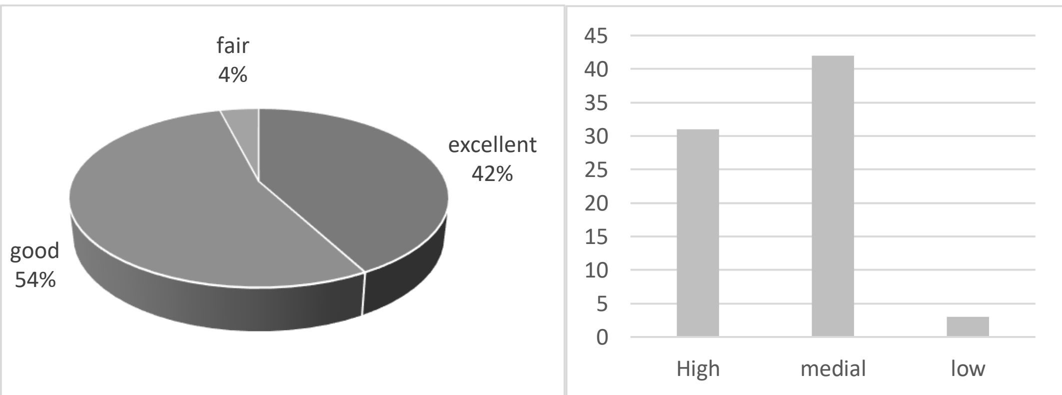

Figure 1. Effectiveness of CBI and learning intention in self-directed learning.

A comparison of two data in Figure 1 reveals that CBI had a major impact both on participants' learning achievement presented on the left chart and self-encouragement responses on the right graph. From the graph, it can be seen that 42% of participants, had "excellent" language performance, 54% of the participants, obtained "good" language performance, and only 4% of the students gained "fair" achievement after the CBI was applied. This successful achievement was correlated with participants' learning intention.

Through the application of the CBI during self-directed distance learning, lecturers promoted and mapped the students' prior knowledge, and these activities shaped participants' strong and positive characters by means of intensive learning intention. It can be seen from the result of questionnaire A, where the average score was 3.1 and categorized as a "high" learning intention. Furthermore, 41%, or 31 out of 76 participants, indicated a "high'" intention to learn English through the CBI strategy. Meanwhile, 42 participants or 55% of the whole participant load, had "sufficient" intention to learn when the CBI was applied. However, only 3, or 4% of participants, had a "low" learning intention due to both internal and external factors.

The internal factors appeared to be either due to a physical limitation, like fatigue or illness, to psychological conditions, such as decreased mood or lower self-esteem, that caused them to show less intention of learning. Meanwhile, external factors are something that originates from outside of the participants, like a build-up of postponed tasks, financial problems, unstable internet, or concerning relationships, like problems with parents, lecturers, or their friends. These matters made them frustrated and less likely to have high levels of intention to participate in the lesson.

The findings of the study advocate that the CBI method increases participants' language learning achievement and promotes more intensive learning intention. As a comparison, with an average score of 81.00, CBI method is considered effective in increasing participants' learning performances because it is 6 points higher than the minimum passing grade of 75.00. This method is slightly less effective than CLT, which is 81.64, but it is more effective than TBLT, which is 80.91.

This study revealed that, by implementing the CBI method in the online classroom, lecturers not only helped the students' overall metacognition but also positively affected students' learning intention, as seen from the correlation analysis. Pearson's correlation analysis, which included two flows, revealed a significant correlation between students' learning achievement and their learning intention after the application of CBI. This can be seen where $p = 0.000 < 0.05$. Furthermore, the level of significant correlation was indicated by rob (0.536) > rcv (0.226). The CBI teaching method had a strong relationship with, and positive influence on, students' learning intentions. It can be interpreted that the more intensively the CBI strategy is applied, the stronger the participants' learning intentions and the better their English language learning outcome.

4.2 CLT and Learning Encouragement

Lecturers activated the participants' language performance in communicative activities through the implementation of CLT. Each participant had an equal right and obligation to express ideas, ask questions, discuss current issues, or argue any statement in English. Hence, this method helped participants manage their verbal and non-verbal skills in a socially functional context. Through this method, the lecturers acted as mediators to manage the flow of class interaction and stimulate participants' academic emotions. The participant's performance after the application of CLT can be shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Learning achievement with the method of CLT.

Criteria	**Frequency**	**Male**	**Female**	**Percentage %**
Excellent	42	15 (20%)	27 (35%)	55%
Good	33	9 (12%)	24 (32%)	44%
Fair	1	1 (1%)	0 (0%)	1%
Poor	0	0 (0%)	0(0%)	0%
Very poor	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0%
Total	76	25 (33%)	51 (67%)	100%

The data in Table 3 explicitly reveals that the results of the exams indicated the success of CLT as an ELT method. The total score of learning achievement after the CLT was applied was 6205, with the average score of 81.64 categorized as a "good" performance. Male participants performed better in the lessons following the CLT structure, achieving a mean score of 81.80, while female participants achieved a mean score of 80.55. The minimum score was 68 and the maximum score was 87. This CLT method teaching strategy develops participants' self-encouragement and improves their language performance. The effectiveness of CLT and participants' self-encouragement can be shown in Figure 2.

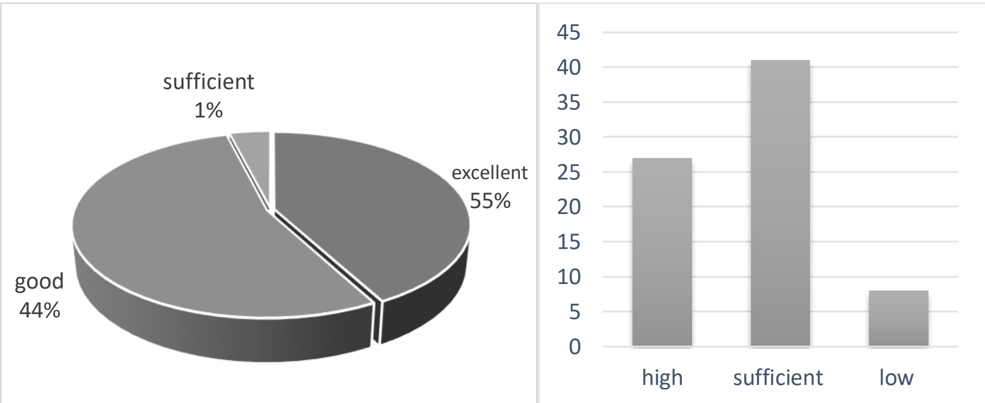

Figure 2. Effectiveness of CLT and participants' self-encouragement.

A comparison of two datasets in Figure 2 revealed correlated results between participants' learning achievement on the left chart and self-encouragement responses on the right graph. CLT had a major impact on the participants' language learning achievement. It can be seen from the result that 42 participants, obtained "excellent" achievement, 33 participants gained "good" achievement, and only one participant received a "fair" achievement. This successful performance was resulted from participants' positive academic emotions toward the CLT method. This method stimulated the participants' positive intrinsic strengths of attributes to gain knowledge and had a major impact on the participants' learning behavior. It can be seen from the results that 35%, or 27 participants, had high levels of self-encouragement after the method was applied. Meanwhile, 54%, or 41 of the students, achieved moderate levels of self-encouragement. However, 4%, or eight students, showed little self-encouragement. CLT impacts participants' self-encouragement, an academic emotion which then leads to their successful achievement. So, the higher the participants' levels of self-encouragement, the higher their overall learning achievement.

CLT was significantly correlated with levels of self-encouragement in a distance learning setting based on the result of Pearson correlation analysis with two flows, where p-value was less than 0.05. This means that there was a significant correlation between learning success and students' self-encouragement. Meanwhile, by the degree of significant correlation, the method had a strong and positive impact on student self-encouragement, rob (0.655)> rcv (0.226).

The CLT method provides lecturers an opportunity to empower the participants with communicative engagement through the roleplay of interesting topics, by modeling them with video or in written story displays. It was observed that the participants showed a strong and positive desire to perform the language task as the model given, revealing a strong and positive correlation. This finding advocates that the more intensively the method of CLT is applied, the more positive the participants feel toward the goal of language learning, and the more successfully they perform the achieve the learning outcomes.

4.3 TBLT and Motivation

TBLT is a teaching strategy that activates students' problem-solving skills. The strategy consists of three steps: language class preparation, task cycle, and language focus. Each step can guide and shape the students' language concepts and language performance patterns. Furthermore, it emphasizes discussion patterns, tasks, presentations, and a focus on language performance. The level and percentage of students' performance after applying TBLT teaching strategy are shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Learning achievement with the method of TBLT.

Criteria	Frequency	Male	Female	Percentage %
Excellent	39	15 (20%)	27 (35%)	51%
Good	37	9 (12%)	24 (32%)	49%
Fair	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1%
Poor	0	0 (0%)	0(0%)	0%
Very poor	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0%
Total	76	25 (33%)	51 (67%)	100%

Table 4 illustrates how effectively TBLT increases students' abilities in problem-solving language tasks during distance learning scenarios. This is evident from the total score of 6153, with the mean score was 81, which is characterized as a "high" achievement. It was found that the minimum score was six and the maximum score was 87. In this case, female participants performed better than male counterparts.

Furthermore, participants' high levels of motivation were influenced by their levels of involvement during TBLT classes. Participants felt more confident and motivated despite unstable internet access and other academic problems. It can be seen that 33% or 25 participants were highly motivated, 55% or 42 participants were moderately motivated, and only 12% or nine participants experienced low motivation. The effectiveness of TBLT and increasing motivation are presented in Figure 3.

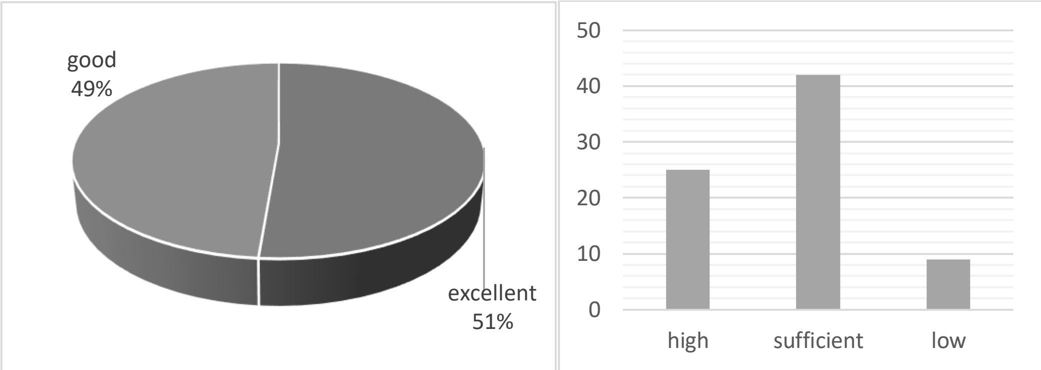

Figure 3. Effectiveness of TBLT and motivation.

Figure 3 illustrates participants' successful learning achievement and their motivation after TBLT was applied in a distance learning classroom. The left chart presented "excellent" and "good" levels of achievement, where participants could complete all, or most, tasks. Students were motivated when the lecturers engaged TBLT strategies in the lesson; however, nine participants experienced low motivation due to both personal and external factors. Despite this result, these participants were observed to be actively participating in the lesson, although with less frequency than their classmates. Additionally, despite their lack of motivation, these participants' learning achievement was sufficient. TBLT has a major impact on both participants' high motivation and their successful learning achievement. So, increased levels of learning motivation help participants achieve their learning goals.

The study indicated a significant correlation between TBLT and motivation in a distance learning setting. From the Pearson correlation analysis, p-value was less than the alpha ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$). This means that there was a significant correlation between learning success through TBLT and student motivation. Meanwhile, by the degree of significant correlation, the TBLT teaching method had a strong and positive impact on student's motivation, rob (0.671) > rcv (0.226). This means that the more intensively the students follow the activities of TBLT, the more they feel motivated and the higher the achievement they achieve.

4.4 Academic Depression, Anxiety, and Stress

The data on the psychological states of the students regarding depression, anxiety, and stress in distance learning was collected from the responses to the online questionnaire DASS 21. The 21 items consisted of seven items (3, 5, 10, 13, 16, 17, 21) that measured depression, seven items that measured anxiety (2, 4, 7, 9, 15, 19, 20), and seven stress measurement items (1, 5, 8, 11, 12, 14, 18). A score of 0 to 3 was given for each item. The interpretation of the interval values in DASS 21 is shown in Table 5.

Table 5. Percentage of student's academic depression, anxiety, and stress.

Criteria	Frequency	Male	Female	Percentage %
Depression				
Normal	61	17 (22%)	44 (58%)	80%
Mild	7	3 (4%)	4 (5%)	9%
Moderate	8	5 (7%)	3 (4%)	11%
Severe	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0%

Table 5 continued ...

Total	76	25 (33%)	51 (67%)	100%
Anxiety				
Normal	55	16 (21%)	39 (51%)	72%
Mild	3	1 (1%)	2 (3%)	4%
Moderate	18	8 (11%)	10 (13%)	24%
Severe	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0%
Total	76	25 (33%)	51 (67%)	100%
Stress				
Normal	58	18 (24%)	40 (52%)	76%
Mild	15	5 (6%)	10 (13%)	20%
Moderate	3	2 (3%)	1 (1%)	4%
Severe	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0%
Total	76	25 (33%)	51 (67%)	100%

This communicative-based teaching strategy plays a crucial role not only in supporting cognitive stimulation but also in promoting participant character. CBI, CLT, and TBLT have the conceptual and procedural steps in place to encourage student participation so that students feel valued, respected, and motivated. This study found that 80% of the distance learning students experienced no depression, 9% of the students had mild depression, and 11% of the students had moderate depression. Some female participants felt more depressed in distance learning, while male participants felt slightly bothered by depression. Some factors that protected students from depression included having self-directed emotions, personal learning goals, and family support. Meanwhile, some factors that caused mild and moderate depression were internal factors such as study devices (laptop, cell phone, and unstable internet), financial problems due to the Covid-19 pandemic, and the health of the individual.

Regarding the anxiety aspect of emotions, the study showed that 72% of the distance learning students did not experience any academic anxiety. Male and female students did not exhibit equal anxiety scores due to their different inward-facing abilities to manage their emotions, including positive thinking and step-by-step exercises. However, 4% of the total sample felt mild anxiety and 8% of the students had moderate anxiety in the academic sense of distance learning. Factors that primarily play a role in academic learning phenomena include the ability to socialize, the knowledge of how to handle and manage the emotions of today's pandemic, and higher expectations. These three personal factors are intrinsically intertwined with learning intention, feelings of encouragement, and motivation. This means that the less fear the students feel, the higher their learning intention and the easier they will achieve learning success.

The third emotional disorder measured using the DASS 21 questionnaire in the study was the students' stress levels. The stress scale is sensitive to non-chronic specific desires, such as feeling tense, finding it difficult to relax, feeling nervous, being easily offended, or feeling fearful, overreactive, or impatient. The result showed that 76% of the participants (24% males and 52% females) did not feel stressed. Meanwhile, 20% of the participants (6% males and 13% females) suffered mild stress, and 4% of the students experienced more significant stress during the distance learning. The observation revealed several factors influencing the small number of students who experienced stress in pandemic learning, including individual mental maturity, classroom strategy, and social adjustment. These factors can directly affect the strength of academic emotions in self-directed distance learning. Figure 4 shows the level of academic depression, anxiety, and stress experienced by distance learning students.

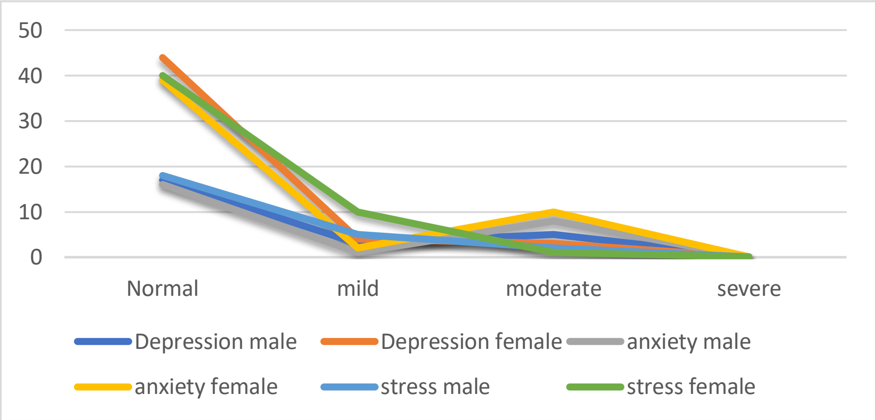

Figure 4. Participants' academic depression, anxiety, and stress during self-directed distance learning.

The CBI teaching strategy of the ELT lecturers included in this study correlated significantly with both student depression and performance, p-value = 0.000 < Alpha (0.05) and tob (27.048) > tcv (1.667). The result of the linear regression correlation test showed that p-value was less than Alpha, 0.000 < Alpha (0.05) and tob (5.866) > tcv (1.667). Similarly, depression correlated significantly with CBI and learning success based on p-value which is less than Alpha (0.022 < 0.05), rob (2.349) > rcv (1.667). Based on these analysis results, this study found that Ho: p = 0 (there is no simultaneous correlation between CBI teaching strategy and depression with student English language learning performance) is now rejected. Ha: p # 0 (there is a simultaneous correlation between CBI teaching strategy and depression in students' English proficiency) is accepted. This means that student learning performance is influenced by teaching strategy and the level of depression. If the teaching strategy is ineffective, students become depressed, which could affect the students' performance. It is also found that using the CBI strategy can reduce student depression so that students can achieve better learning outcomes.

Taking into account the linear regression correlation test, this study showed that there was a significant correlation between student learning intention and student performance, with Sig 0.042 <0.05) and tob (2.067) > tcv (1.667). Meanwhile, there was no correlation between CLT and learning intention and students' achievement, Sig 0.126 > 0.05 and tob (1.546) < tcv (1667). Therefore, it can be determined, based on the analysis results, that Ho: p = 0 (there is not any simultaneous effect between CLT teaching strategy and learning intention with students' English language learning achievement) is accepted. Meanwhile, Ha: p # 0 (there is a simultaneous effect between CLT teaching strategy and learning intention with students' English language learning achievement) is rejected. This means that the learning output may not be directly affected by CLT strategy but the significant correlation between learning intention and language achievement is caused by the CTL strategy and strongly affects the students' learning performance.

Based on the effects of stress, it can be determined that stress was significantly correlated with learning intention and at the same time had a positive effect on learning performance. The linear regression correlation test revealed that stress had p-value or

Sig of 0.002, which is lower than Alpha (0.05), and tob was 3.188. Meanwhile, learning intention had Sig. of 0.042, which is also lower than Alpha (0.05), and tob was 2.067, which is lower than tcv (1.667). Both significantly influenced students' learning because Sig (0.000) < Alpha (0.05) and tob (4.112) > tcv (1667). Therefore, Ha: p # 0 (there is a simultaneous correlation between the level of stress and learning intention with students' English language learning achievement) is accepted. It can be interpreted that the less stress students feel, the more intensely they follow the learning process, and both of these variables can have an impact on English language learning success.

5. DISCUSSION

This study evidenced a link between the effectiveness of CLTA in directing learning emotion and language learning achievement in an online learning environment. The teaching methods of CLTA provoke students' academic emotion, metacognition, and language proficiency. In the first stage, the application of CBI in distance learning was considered effective in combining academic emotions, language content, and language performance. This finding is in line with Davies' (2003) and Xiaoyun (2021) suggestion that CBI is an effective method of combining language and content learning. Through CBI, students do not only understand the content of the topics covered but they also learn the information alongside linguistic skills. Furthermore, as Ferreira et al. (2011) underscore, learner motivation increases when students are actively learning; this study also found that CBI had a great influence on students' learning intentions, motivation, and feelings of encouragement. Regarding academic emotions during distance learning, CBI strengthened the emotional aspects of learning, so the students stood away from severe depression, anxiety, and stress. This statement was supported by Dusenbury et al. (2015), who claim that positive social and academic emotions are critical in order that one becomes a good student.

In contrast, CLT develops learners' abilities to communicate in a second language with less concern for explicit linguistic content but with implicit discourse and context. This study supported previous findings by Farooq (2015) that ELT lecturers are aware of CLT characteristics, its implementation, and its impact on the communicative competence of the students. Moreover, this study revealed that CLT is more concerned with functional conversation in any genre of discourse and social context, with any errors of grammar or sentence structure not a main concern of the method provided the communication was comprehended. In terms of academic emotions, this finding supports previous research conducted by Wu (2010), who reveal that, despite students having a high level of anxiety in CLT method classes, both teachers and students showed positive attitudes toward the method and it was still considered a feasible teaching approach that could be applied in the ELT context. The present study found evidence that CLT was not only adequate at improving the students' language performance and positive learning attitudes but also helped to maintain positive academic emotions because the learning activities spread student-centered philosophy.

Compared to these previous teaching methods, TBLT involves students in developing class preparation, task cycle, and language focus. These components allow students to solve their language problems in such a way as to achieve not only language competence but also language proficiency, which is significantly correlated with a positive learning attitude toward the TBLT method. This statement agrees with Ashraf et al. (2018), that there was no significant difference between any intrapersonal, adaptability, and general mood scores before or after task-based instruction. The finding of the study revealed that students' language learning performance was categorized as a high achievement, which was significantly correlated with motivation. The learning target was that the students were able to use the language in transactional and interpersonal interactions in any role. This statement was similar to the finding revealed by Prasetyaningrum (2018), that is the students utilize the language functions as creative thinkers, and problem-solvers, participating in effective teamwork and becoming strong negotiators. In line with Rahimpour et al. (2013), who suggest that cognitive and emotional processes are the two determining variables in the process of second language learning, the findings of this study clarified that students' positive learning perceptions had a strong correlation with learning achievement. The stronger the students' academic emotions during language learning, the higher their potential learning achievement.

Another aspect of the learning activity investigated in this study was academic emotion, which became an influential indicator of language comprehension and skill mastery. This statement is supported by Coutinho and Neuman (2008) who posit that academic emotion was the strongest predictor of learning performance, while metacognition was a weak predictor of performance. Academic emotion in self-directed distance learning is the individual's ability to control or balance emotional experiences, either increasing motivation or decreasing depression. In distance learning, students might feel depression, anxiety, or stress or they might feel motivated, excited, or bored with the teaching model applied by lecturers. The findings revealed that 76% of the students did not suffer any depression, anxiety, or stress during the application of CLTA in the distance learning environment. Only 11% of the students experienced mild depression, anxiety, or stress, and 13% experienced moderate depression, anxiety, or stress. Previous findings by Sahile et al. (2020) reveal a higher prevalence of depression and anxiety; however, the level of stress recorded is still higher during the COVID-19 pandemic.

This study found that the students had a positive perception of the CLTA teaching method. This can be seen through 36% of all students having a "high" learning intention through CLTA, with 55% of the students revealing "sufficient" learning intention and only 9% of students revealing "low" learning intention. All methods of CLTA have succeeded in increasing students' language competence and performance as well as in establishing the development of academic emotions, leading to a more positive academic emotion. Factors that influence the strengths and weaknesses of CLTA in directing students' academic emotions are discussed in the following.

Lecturers have been considered the most influential factor in the successful application of CLTA because, as directors and managers of the learning process, lecturers must control and manage the flow of the students' learning activities so the targeted objectives can be achieved. As lesson designers, lecturers are responsible for observing, and acting upon, students' attitude, knowledge, and performance, before (re)designing the application of teaching methods. The lecturers also undertake reflection and evaluation of the methods after use to measure how effective the CLTA was for improving students' learning outcomes. To achieve the learning objective through CLTA, students must be self-advisors, efficient thinkers, and problem-solvers. Students must be able to build self-efficacy and metacognition to accomplish language proficiency. In this role, students can be the ones determining their learning success.

For increased learning success, foreign language teaching methods should not only consider the cognitive and conative aspects of language learning but also academic emotion. The appropriateness of learning methods is consistently related to the objectives of language learning as well as to the characteristics of the students who are undertaking language learning. In this study, the application of CLTA is a suitable teaching method since the communication target can only be efficiently achieved by communicative approaches in well-managed online classroom settings that are considerate of the emotional wellbeing of the students.

However, it must be noted that the full impact of CBI, CLT, and TBLT will not be achieved unless certain conditions are met. Those teaching models must be appropriate for the context and clientele involved. The goals and objectives of the program, as well as the language content, needs, and interests of students, must be seriously taken into consideration. Based on the findings of the present study, three additional impacts of CLTA provide crucial benefits to the lecturers, students, and the study program. Lecturers can gain the ability to shape and open up students' mindsets with the understanding that language learning is a process of language habit formation. Additionally, students can develop academic emotions, build recognition of language use styles, and develop a conative sense of language performance. Finally, the CLTA study program can promote communicative-based teaching strategies that integrate these aspects of academic emotions and metacognition into a functional language learning context.

6. CONCLUSION

The findings of this study on the application of CLTA for increasing positive academic emotion and decreasing psychological pressure during self-directed distance learning in a university student context are concisely concluded. The first finding of the study indicated that university students in Denpasar have performed at a level of high achievement after the implementation of CLTA methods of CBI, CLT, and TBLT. In the first stage, the method of CBI accelerated the students' language content and encouraged students to participate in learning activities, in a manner that problem-solved using structural communication. Through CLT in the second stage, the lecturers optimally activated the students' language performance by using functional conversation and written tasks in any genre of discourse and social context. Through TBLT, the lecturers' use of role-play helped the students become effective thinkers and fluent communicators.

Furthermore, the second finding revealed that increasing academic emotions during the application of CLTA helped students implement high levels of learning intentions, self-encouragement, and motivation to obtain learning goals. By developing academic emotions, students developed resilience in the face of mental pressures from a distance learning environment during the pandemic. There was only a small percentage of participants who experienced mild or moderate depression, anxiety, or stress from both internal and external factors. From the statistical analysis, it was confirmed that the students' positive learning attitude was strongly and positively correlated with learning achievement; the stronger the students' academic emotion (learning intention, self-encouragement, and motivation) is, the higher learning achievement they accomplish.

There were many practical limitations to the undertaking of this study, including (but not limited to) restrictions on observing classes during the pandemic, a reduced number of participants, a reduced timeframe, and an inability to review a broader participant pool. In recognition of this, this study attempts to avoid generalization and coverage of broad discussion, instead of focusing solely on CLTA and academic emotions in self-directed distance learning environments.

Based on the results of this present study, it is suggested that lecturers adopt the findings and adapt the implementation of CLTA into their classes, considering both the specific language skills and education levels of their classes alongside a broader social context of the individual students that make up such classes. Further research into this area should include consideration of the teaching ethos and attitude of the teacher, as well as the students' critical thinking skills, with special attention paid to positive or negative classroom attitude, metacognition, and the formation of habits in language use. This study believes that CLTA is an effective teaching method for language instruction at a variety of levels of education because the fundamental concept of learning a language under CLTA is to communicate functionally.

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Millennial Students' Metalinguistic Knowledge on Headlines Using Grammaticality Judgment Test

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Abstract

Amid the proliferation of online news portals, there is a felt need for a re-investigation of the millennial students' metalinguistic knowledge (MK) on the technicality of the headlines. Couched within Relevance Theory, including the interlarding theories of Communicative Competence and Monitor Hypothesis, this study investigated 80 students' technical knowledge on selected 35 headlines vis-à-vis the students' academic disciplines and exposure to the headlines/news articles. The study employed a Grammaticality Judgment Test (GJT) by Schütze (1996) following Noam Chomsky's competence/performance distinction. The results showed the dearth of the students' knowledge on the technical rules of the headlines, which only fared around 70.66% accuracy. Likewise, the results showed that those who were never exposed to the headlines had a significantly lower mean score as compared to those with exposure to the headlines. Poor cognizance of the semantics-syntax of the headlines statistically cuts across eight academic disciplines and exposure to news articles. Overall, the students' understanding of the headlines seems to be shaped by their explicit knowledge and grammaticality judgment about the technicalities of the headlines. By and large, such results may be an indication of the students' experiences of semantic ambiguities of the headlines. We put forth the dire need for the re-introduction of 'Journalism' course across educational levels in a language classroom

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given today's rapid pervasiveness and breadth of digitalism. Students' lack of MK on the technicality of the headlines can impinge on their understanding of the semantics and the actual story-level depictions of the news.

Keywords: Grammaticality judgment, headlines, journalism, metalinguistic knowledge, relevance theory.

1. INTRODUCTION

The news headlines are a micro written register (Bucaria, 2004) because of their synoptic nature. They are a "summary and advertisement for a broader flow of the news contents" (Andrew, 2013, p. 455). They may have morphed into the newest journalistic styles. For instance, Blom and Hansen (2015, p. 87) investigated a variant of stylistic and narrative technique in headlines on a web, which is called forward-reference, with two forms such as discourse deixis and cataphora. Discourse deixis is a "reference to forthcoming (parts of the) discourse relative to the current location in the discourse" as in '<u>This</u> is the best news story you will ever read.' On the one hand, "cataphors point forward to a word or a phrase later in the sentence or text" (p. 87) as in the sentence 'When <u>he</u> arrived at the crime scene, the journalist interviewed the victims' wife.' Recently, Munalim (2019) notes on the 'Minute News' headlines of American and Philippine Englishes based on the reading time appended in the headlines. He argued that the reading time, which signposts the readers to the approximate time to finish reading, provides a new journalistic style in the headlines. Conboy (2010) also took notice that the headlines have more cases of punning and have become less informational.

However, amid these stylistic and journalistic variations and changes (cf. Jaki, 2014), there remain considerable technical rules of the headlines, which have remained in-tact in the test of time. Over the years, many scholars have noted that the headlines have maintained in terms of their stylistic, lexical, syntactic, narrative devices (Bucaria, 2004; Ifantidou, 2009) and sensationalist nature (Molek-Kozakowska, 2013) in order to attract readers. In this present study, selected rules in headlines writing are subject to ESL students' metalinguistic knowledge. To our knowledge, understanding millennials' metalinguistic knowledge on the headlines have not been well understood with the recent pervasiveness of social media. Likewise, we found that there is only one study on the headlines by Khodabandeh (2007), who worked on students' errors in the translation of the headlines. There are only two studies on the headlines published, but these papers are contrastive and discursive in nature (cf. Samar & Mahdavy, 2009).

Over 13 years since the last work by Khodabandeh (2007), the students' conscious knowledge on the technicality of the headlines may have been taken for granted. The need for a re-investigation may be providential, given today's pervasiveness and proliferation of social media (Christakis & Fowler, 2011; Clark et al., 2015). Likewise, to some, teaching the technicality of the headlines may be an easy job for ESL/ESP teachers. We argue that the easy nature of the teaching of the explicit technicalities of the headlines should never be treated as a disrepute in a second language classroom because these technicalities all have a direct effect on students' consumption of the news articles fed on social media. Most importantly, understanding the students' conscious metalinguistic knowledge on the technicality of the headlines offers pedagogical implications for the teaching of ESP, as the language skills are induced by real-life specific communicative activities and goals (cf. Benesch, 2001; Brown, 2016; Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Munalim, 2021; Paltridge & Starfield, 2012).

With these backdrops in mind, this study is an attempt to answer the following questions:

1. What is the level of students' knowledge on the technicality of the news headlines?
2. Does knowledge on headlines technicality differ according to students' academic disciplines?
3. Does knowledge on headlines technicality differ according to students' exposure to the news?

We hypothesize that the metalinguistic knowledge, which is coursed through Grammaticality Judgment Test (GJT) on the technicality of the headlines will differ significantly in terms of the students' academic disciplines and their exposure to the different news items. It remains axiomatic to claim that the students have different levels of language exposure based on the demands of their academic requirements even with the required language courses. We are assured of this when Dor (2003) argues that reading the relevance of the headlines is basically addressee-oriented. In like manner, exposure to the news both on social media and in traditional print newspapers has a direct effect on the students' ability to judge the grammaticality of the headlines as a text type (Jaki, 2014).

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Theoretical Framework

This present study is couched in Sperber and Wilson's (1986) Relevance Theory. Sperber and Wilson (1995, p. 46) maintain that "human beings are efficient information-processing devices" in any communicative events. They also highlight the concept of what-is-a-meaning in verbal communication demonstrated by an individual, first by inferring what is communicated and how communication is achieved, for example, in cases of distortions and misperceptions such as in metaphors and other figures of speech. For this present study, the headlines are also a type of a distorted syntactic and paradigmatic linguistic arrangement, which demands readers' conscious processing of the communicative purpose. Following Sperber and Wilson's (1986) Relevance Theory, Dor (2003, p. 699) supports that "human cognitive processes are geared to achieving the greatest possible cognitive effect for the smallest processing effort". Put simply, reading and comprehending the headlines completely intertwines with the tenets of the Relevance Theory assembled above. He describes (newspaper) headlines as relevance optimizers. Hence, even at its microscopic engagement, the readers are required with a specific amount of mental effort to deconstruct the fairly anomalous and ambiguous syntactic and paradigmatic resources of the headlines. Dor (2003) crisply asserts:

> Headlines are designed to *optimize the relevance* [original emphasis] of their stories for their readers: Headlines provide the readers with the optimal ration between contextual effect and processing effort, and direct readers to construct the optimal context for interpretation. Newspaper headlines are relevance optimizers: They are designed to optimize the relevance of their stories for their readers. (pp. 695-696).

In psychology, comprehending the semantics and syntax of the headlines may be associated with the constructs of the "pay attention" signal, which is delineated by Schmeichel and Baumeister (2010), as an "attention [which] must be controlled when the stimulus the person is attending to is a stimulus the person is not otherwise inclined to attend to" (p. 30). Within the same psychological remit, McGuire and Botvinick (2010, p. 103) rejoin that "information-processing tasks vary in their associated levels of cognitive demand. Highly demanding tasks require strong input from cognitive or executive control, input typically associated with a subjective sense of mental effort". Given the technical nature of the headlines, it is likely that the consumers of the headlines experience cognitive operations in their attempts to make sense of the headlines, which will affect their decision to read the whole news or not.

We also argue that Relevance Theory shares with the interlarding concepts of language learning theories such as Communicative Competence (Hymes, 1972) and Monitor Hypothesis (Krashen, 1981). Hymes (1972) introduced the term communicative competence—the concept of knowing a language. One of the competencies that he mentioned includes grammatical competence that involves knowing the language code: vocabulary, word formation and meaning, sentence formation, pronunciation and spelling. On the one hand, Krashen (1981) clarifies that the monitor is an error-detecting mechanism, which scans utterances and the individual's monitor edits the language inputs. The melding of these language theories leads to the use of GJT, which was employed in this present study.

Couched on a number of theories assembled above, the students' technical knowledge on the headlines is coursed through a GJT. Schütze (1996, 2016) traced back that GJT is attributed to Noam Chomsky's distinction between competence and performance. Schütze (2016) also uses the terms *grammaticality judgment* and *acceptability judgment* synonymously. This type of test, we argue, falls within the tenets of the conscious metalinguistic knowledge (MK) or knowledge about language (Alderson & Horák, 2010; Borg, 2001), which involves explicit and conscious understanding and monitor of the nature, meaning, and function of letters, words, vocabulary, syntax, and sentence (cf. Arndt et al., 2000; Arnó-Macià, 2009). Carter and Nunan (2011, p. 224) define metalinguistic knowledge as an "explicit, formal knowledge about language that can be verbalized, usually including metalinguistic terminology, such as present tense, indefinite article, etc." To Smith (2020), MK is all about conscious accessibility and conscious knowledge about a particular language, whose knowledge is used to think, analyze, and manipulate linguistic features in certain purposes. That is why Çandarlı (2018) reports that the L2 writers' metalinguistic understanding of lexical phrases may be a product of their prior learning experiences and conceptualizations of the lexical constructions.

It is important to note that the operationalization of MK has varied somewhat across studies, ranging from the learners' ability to correct, describe, explain L2 errors, explain grammatical rules, label parts of speech, and identify morphological knowledge, idioms, sentence structures, sentence parsing, and verb conjugations (Ellis, 2006; Munalim & Raymundo, 2014; Tsang, 2011; White & Ranta, 2002).

Grammaticality Judgment Test (GJT) sits well in testing students' technical knowledge of the headlines. GJT as the lexical item "judge," allows the readers of the headlines to make use of their explicit knowledge of the syntactic structures and rules of the headlines. Following the tenets of GJT, reading the headlines reflect what the learners know or do not know about the rules of the headline constructions. In the actual test of this current study, the students were given binary choices and had to decide the correct syntax that corresponded to the actual headlines. For this present study, the students' ability to judge the grammaticality of the headlines based on the given correct linguistic options is arguably akin to the operationalization of MK because this task requires the students' skills in looking at language as an object (White & Ranta, 2002). In Relevance Theory, the human mind always makes relevant judgments about new assumptions (Dor, 2003) and about worldviews. At heart, one's ability to look at the technical language of the headlines inevitably demands conscious declarative knowledge on the grammaticality and semantics of the headlines. What are headlines? What are their characteristics and pragmatic use? What are the common rules in headline writing?

2.2 Headlines: Characteristics and Pragmatic Use

This ensuing section enumerates the selected rules in headlines writing, which are seen to cause confusion among the readers. This confusion bears the thrust of this paper, as it attempts to re-investigate the millennial students' explicit knowledge on the micro register of the headlines. As a micro written register, the headlines are a "textual negotiator between the story and its readers, which are characterized as short, telegram-like summaries of the news items" (Dor, 2003, pp. 696-607). Iarovici and Amel (1989) argues that the headline is a special text and cannot be considered as autonomous because it is always contingent on another text. Likewise, a headline is either extracted out of the actual stories or purely written without reference to the news item itself (Dor, 2003) to entice the readers into the text of the news story (Evans, 2000).

However, the term 'headlines' is defined richly in literature, not in its direct definition, but rather heavily based upon its characteristics and nature. These characteristics are rather linguistic in nature, which have remained their special linguistic peculiarities (Bucaria, 2004). Likewise, the headlines as a written register have not totally morphed even with the advent of newer technology (cf. Hall, 2001). Their linguistic and technical rules are still observed both in traditional and online journalism. Hence, given the technicality of the headlines, readers and students alike need some metalinguistic knowledge in order to understand the semantics of the headlines. These technical rules, which are obviously observed in local and international journalistic spheres (cf. Cruz, 2010; Perfetti et al., 1987; Quinn & Lamble, 2008) include, but are not limited to:

- A comma is used in lieu of the conjunction 'and'
- Active verbs are better than the passive verbs
- All forms of verb be (both helping and copular) are omitted
- An infinitive 'to + verb' is used for future stories
- Articles such as *a, an,* and *the* omitted

- Positive heads, not the negatives ones, are preferable
- Present tense is used even for past stories

With all these characteristics assembled above, it is clear that the headlines serve a number of pragmatic purposes. For instance, Andrew (2013) maintains that because they are sensational headlines, they are enough to induce political engagement such as interests, discussion and debate. The more cases of engagement, the more economic costs, advantages and incentives (cf. Andrew, 2013; Iyengar et al., 2010; Richardson, 2007) these headlines exact on different media organizations. This assertion is not unlikely given that the different journalistic styles and strategies are observed in the name of "competition culture and journalistic culture" (Popescu & Toka, 2009, p. 4) for readership. Trimble and Sampert (2004) also hold that the crafting of the headlines is a long-standing journalistic practice, which according to Iarovici and Amel (1989) function as a plurality of speech acts such as urging, warning, and informing, even with the possibility of lexical and syntactic ambiguity (Bucaria, 2004). Overall, the headlines lack formal and normal linguistic paradigmatic resources, which can precipitate confusion in terms of their semantics and functions of grammatical classes, hence the crux of this present study.

3. METHODS

3.1 Research Design

This present study was an attempt to ascertain the students' level on the technicality of the news headlines. It also attempted to check if the students' technical knowledge on the headlines differs according to their academic disciplines and the degree of exposure to news articles. Hence, this study is quantitative in nature. It describes the trends including a systematic, actual, accurate and objective situation, problem, or phenomenon and at the same time it explores and understands a central phenomenon under investigation (Creswell, 2002; Garcia, 2003) using both descriptive and inferential statistics.

3.2 Respondents

As shown in Table 1, the respondents in this study were the 80 first year university students taking up eight different academic programs in a local university. They are students officially enrolled in the course of 'Purposive Communication' for the academic year 2019-2020 under one of these authors. These freshmen students had taken Journalism courses during their K-12 years in the Philippines. Thus, we presupposed that these students are cognizant of the technicality of the headlines. From a total of 90 plus students officially enrolled in three sections, only 80 students successfully responded to the survey on Google Forms due to the issues with connectivity during the COVID-19 pandemic. Nonetheless, a total of 80 students may be enough for this present re-investigation of the students' technical knowledge on the headlines.

Table 1. Distribution of respondents' academic disciplines.

Academic clusters	Frequency	Percentage
Medical Technology	25	31.25
Information Technology	15	18.75
Social Work	11	13.75
Fine Arts	9	11.25
HRM	7	8.75
Music Education	5	6.25
Administration	4	5.00
Fine Arts	4	5.00
Total	80	100.00

3.3 Materials and Instrument

This present study made use of the headlines as the "primary unit of analysis" (Andrew, 2013, p. 457), given their peculiarities (Bucaria, 2004). The use of the online news headlines (cf. Ward, 2002), not in traditional print media in this study, can be considered a fitting choice due to the fact that many news organizations in the Philippines have also doubled-copied their news items onto their Facebook pages. Nonetheless, with the perceived enduring technical constructions of the headlines, either sample headlines taken from both print and the online news portal, may not affect the purpose of this present study.

For a re-investigation of the students' technical knowledge on the headlines, 35 headlines in 2019 and 2020 were taken from ABS-CBN News, the biggest and most trusted news organization in the Philippines. As of 2020 May 25, its Facebook page had 18 million plus likers and 19 million plus followers. We agreed on the total number of 35 Philippine President Duterte-related articles for this study to lessen the students' higher cognitive, emotional and affective filter when answering the test during the COVID-19 pandemic. The choice of Duterte-related articles was also to make sure of the consistency of their engagement with the grammaticality judgment test.

As presented in Table 2, the headlines are only categorized based on the level of difficulty such as the use of 'to+ verb' for future time; the use of comma in lieu of 'and;' the absence of 'verb be'; and the absence of 'verb be' in a passive voice construction. The rest of the rules of the headlines writing such as the use of present action verbs as in 'Duterte accepts ABS-CBN apology' and other straightforward syntactic arrangements were intentionally excluded. Headlines of these sorts do not bear any semantic and syntactic ambiguities, as compared to the categories analyzed in this present study. In the questionnaire, the headlines types were distributed to different items, and options were varied to prevent the respondents from detecting the patterns of correct options. One student averred, "I started to doubt my answers because there were items that looked exactly the same as the other items but they had at least one different choice."

Table 2. Distribution of the types of headlines under study.

Headline type	Sample	Actual semantics/syntax (in bold)	No. of sentences
Future Time	Duterte to pursue fraud charges vs water distributors	Duterte **will** pursue fraud charges vs water distributors	10

Table 2 continued…

Use of comma in lieu of 'and'	Duterte, top gov't officials approval ratings improve in last quarter of 2019	Duterte **and** top gov't officials approval ratings improve in last quarter of 2019	10
Deletion of 'verb be' after a predicate adjective	Duterte 'not feeling well'	Duterte **is** 'not feeling well'	10
Deletion of 'verb be' in passive constructions	Duterte family tested for COVID-19	Duterte family was tested for COVID-19	5
		Total	35

As stated elsewhere in this paper, the students were given binary choices and had to judge and choose the correct syntax that corresponded to the actual presented headlines. As simply illustrated in Figure 1, the test takers were provided with the actual headline taken from a national news organization in the Philippines. The two binary options are syntactically correct but their semantics have to judge against the indicated actual headline. The intention is to test millennial students' metalinguistic knowledge on the headlines via Grammatically Judgment Test (cf. Schütze, 2016). In the sample item below, the correct answer is "Duterte is satisfied with Philvocs." As the pedantic journalistic rule dictates, all linking verbs like *is* and *are* have to be deleted when writing a headline. This act of deletion obviously can confuse the readers the actual semantics of the headlines; thus, Grammaticality Judgment Test sits well with the metalinguistic knowledge (cf. Munalim & Raymundo, 2014).

Figure 1. Sample test item.

While the headline types are rather limited to four types; the number of items of 35 is limited; and the respondents only reached 80 individuals, we argue that they would suffice for this present study. In fact, the headlines are read individually, and any cases of mis-comprehension can impinge on the students' interaction with the actual news. Khodabandeh (2007) in the study of students' errors in the headlines also had 30 test items. In short, the issue of the number of items used in this present study, and the number of the headline types under scrutiny may be secondary to the idea of the technical knowledge on the headlines being investigated. The number of respondents may not be a real methodological issue because reading the headlines is a solitary and personal engagement. We also maintain that the reading of the headlines is real-time and is not solely affected by the number of the headlines being consumed. Nonetheless, we encourage future researchers for a larger number of headlines, even beyond 35 items, without considering the presupposed mental and cognitive stress any test can do to any test takers; and including the need for a larger population of millennial readers of the headlines.

3.4 Data Collection

The university millennial students were asked to answer the metalinguistic GJT using the Google Forms tool. The students only had to choose one of two options, which best describes semantically the given headlines. We intentionally crafted the choices in different linguistic options to avoid the students from seeing the patterns of the right answers. Given the problems of connectivity during the COVID-19 pandemic, the students were given at least 1 week to answer the GJT. From 80 students, 60 students answered the test within 30 minutes. What this means is that they immediately attempted to answer the test, perhaps heavily relying on their prior knowledge. It should be noted that whether or not the students consulted some references before taking the test is far from settled in this present study.

3.5 Analytical Procedures

Results generated by the Google Forms tool were further analyzed in tandem with our manual analysis using an Excel file. Students' answers were clustered based on (a) the headline types such as future time; use of comma in lieu of 'and'; deletion of 'verb be' after a predicate adjective and main verb; and the deletion of 'verb be' in passive constructions; (b) the students' academic disciplines; and (c) the exposure to news on social media like Facebook. All of these domains were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. The significant difference between the four types of the headlines was determined using repeated measures ANOVA, post Hoc test using Bonferroni. The significant differences of the technical knowledge on the headlines based on academic disciplines and exposure were performed using one-way ANOVA and Tukey's test for post hoc test, all with the help of SPSS. The commissioned statistician noted that "since passive voice is less than 10 items, to be comparable with the other three headline types, the data to use is the average, instead of total scores. Since the possible answer is only 1 and 0, the expected results of the average are also from 0 to 1. For the academic disciplines and exposure, total score instead of average was used."

4. RESULTS

4.1 The Level of Students' Knowledge on the Technicality of the Headlines

The students' average score is only 24.73 out of 35, or equivalent to 70.66% accuracy. Using this percentage, it means that the students have only achieved a low level in terms of their technical knowledge on the headlines with regard to the four types of linguistic constructions of the headlines such as (a) future time, (b) deletion of 'verb be' after a predicate adjective or the main verb; (c) use of comma in lieu of 'and'; and (d) the deletion of 'verb be' in passive constructions.

Table 3. Performance of the different headline technicalities.

Headline type	**Sample headlines**	**Correct scores**	**Percentage**
Future Time	Duterte to pursue fraud charges vs water distributors	560	28.31
Deletion of 'verb be' after a predicate adjective or main verb	Duterte 'not feeling well'	551	27.86
Use of comma in lieu of 'and'	Duterte, top gov't officials approval ratings improve in last quarter of 2019	540	27.30
Deletion of 'verb be' in passive constructions	Duterte family tested for COVID-19	327	16.53
	Total	1,978	100.00

When the headlines were clustered based on the four types, results divulge that 'future' time tops the well mastered headline technicality type, followed by the deletion of 'verb be'; the use of comma in lieu of the conjunction 'and'; and the deletion of 'verb be' in passive constructions. However, even if the technicality of the headlines based on future time seems to be well mastered by the students, the accuracy of 28.31% is disconcerting given that these university students had taken Journalism courses during the K-12 years in the Philippines. The accuracy plummets below even perhaps with the acceptable accuracy of 50%. The following are samples of students' inability to understand the headlines:

Table 4. Actual headlines and incorrect grammaticality judgement.

Actual headlines	**Incorrect judgement**
Duterte for VFA termination, says spokesman	Duterte sides for VFA termination, says spokesman
Duterte 'open' to any complaint, Palace says on Rio exit	Duterte makes himself 'open' to any complaint, Palace says on Rio exit
Duterte, family unharmed in Mindanao quake	Duterte alongside his family unharmed in Mindanao quake
Bong Go says criticism, 'fake news' over donations meant to distract Duterte admin	Bong Go says criticism, as well as 'fake news' over donations meant to distract Duterte admin
Duterte 'under the weather', cancels interview with spox anew	Duterte gets 'under the weather', cancels interview with spox anew

Table 4 shows that the second column contains syntactic structures that are not the exact syntactic features of the original headlines. While the judgement may be correct, the other correct options in the judgement test were not chosen by the students. Their choices violated the technical rules and intention meaning of the headlines.

Table 5. Significant difference between the four types of headlines.

Types of headlines	**Mean**	**Standard deviation**	**p-value**	**Conclusion**
Future Time	0.70	0.18	0.001	At least one has significantly diff mean
Conjunction 'and'	0.68	0.21		
Verb Be	0.69	0.16		
Passive Voice	0.82	0.19		

Table 5 continued ...

Pairwise Comparison		Difference	p-value	Conclusion
Future Time	Conjunction ‘and’’	0.02	1.000	Not Significant
	Verb Be	0.01	1.000	Not Significant
	Passive Voice	-0.12	0.001	Significant
Conjunction ‘and’’	Verb Be	-0.01	1.000	Not Significant
	Passive Voice	-0.14	0.001	Significant
Verb Be	Passive Voice	-0.13	0.001	Significant

When the four types of the headlines technicalities were compared statistically, the results shown in Table 5 reflect that the resulting overall p-value of 0.001 denotes that at least one headline type has a significantly different mean score. Post hoc test reveals that the resulting mean score of passive voice is significantly higher by 0.12 as compared to ‘future time,’ by 0.14 as compared to conjunction ‘and’ and by 0.13 as compared to ‘verb be.’

Table 6. Top 5 well mastered headlines (N=80).

Item number	Type	Headline	Frequency	Percentage
3	Be verb	Duterte not feeling well	71	20.64
5	A comma in lieu of ‘and’	De Lima thanks US, Canada for support in sanctioning Duterte govt	69	20.06
9	Be verb	Duterte satisfied with Philvocs	69	20.06
12	Be verb	Duterte hesitant to expand South Korea travel ban	68	19.77
34	Passive	Duterte family tested for COVID-19	67	19.48

Table 6 reveals the top 5 most mastered types of the headlines. Among the four types of the headlines under investigation, the headlines with ‘be verb’ construction are well mastered compared to the use of a comma in lieu of the conjunction ‘and.’ However, if the overall percentage is considered, the accuracy is only mastered by at least 20.64% of the total 80 respondents.

Table 7. Top 5 least mastered headlines (N=80)

Item number	Headline type	Headline	Frequency	Percentage
24	Verb be	Duterte for VFA termination, says spokesman	25	17.01
21	Verb be	Duterte ‘open’ to any complaint, Palace says on Rio exit	25	17.01
7	‘and’	Duterte, family unharmed in Mindanao quake	27	18.37
17	‘and’	Bong Go says criticism, ‘fake news’ over donations meant to distract Duterte admin	33	22.45
18	Verb be	Duterte ‘under the weather’, cancels interview with spox anew	37	25.17

For the top 5 least mastered headlines, only the passive constructions are not part of the cohort. Table 7 shows that the ‘verb be’ constructions still dominate in the least mastered headlines. From these most misunderstood headlines, selected students (coded as S1, S2, S3 and so forth) were asked why such a struggle, and asked how they processed the grammatically judgment test. They averred:

"I was reading the headlines by adding to them some verbs and phrases to have a complete sentence and then decide what my answer will be." – S1
"I used my stock knowledge. I talked to myself if it [the headline] sounds right, and also I think some of the basis sentence patterns as well." – S2

4.2 Knowledge on the Headline Technicality in Terms of Students' Academic Disciplines

Table 8 shows the significant differences of the students' technical knowledge on the headlines based on their academic disciplines.

Table 8. The difference in knowledge of headlines in terms of academic disciplines.

Disciplines	N	Mean	Standard deviation	p-value	Conclusion
Administration	4	21.75	7.81	0.367	Not Significant
BSIT	15	24.67	4.30		
Fine Arts	13	25.85	4.14		
HRM	7	25.57	2.64		
Music	5	28.20	4.55		
MedTech	25	24.36	4.42		
Social Work	11	23.27	5.82		
Pairwise Comparison			**Difference**	**p-value**	**Conclusion**
Administration		BSIT	-2.92	0.917	Not Significant
		Fine Arts	-4.10	0.707	Not Significant
		HRM	-3.82	0.836	Not Significant
		Music	-6.45	0.369	Not Significant
		MedTech	-2.61	0.938	Not Significant
		Social Work	-1.52	0.997	Not Significant
BSIT		Fine Arts	-1.18	0.993	Not Significant
		HRM	-0.91	0.999	Not Significant
		Music	-3.53	0.749	Not Significant
		MedTech	0.31	1.000	Not Significant
		Social Work	1.39	0.987	Not Significant
Fine Arts		HRM	0.28	1.000	Not Significant
		Music	-2.35	0.958	Not Significant
		MedTech	1.49	0.963	Not Significant
		Social Work	2.57	0.816	Not Significant
HRM		Music	-2.63	0.957	Not Significant
		MedTech	1.21	0.996	Not Significant
		Social Work	2.30	0.944	Not Significant
Music		MedTech	3.84	0.614	Not Significant
		Social Work	4.93	0.431	Not Significant
MedTech		Social Work	1.09	0.995	Not Significant

Results in Table 8 show that different academic disciplines turn out to have no significantly different mean score in terms of total (p=.367), future time (p=.309), conjunction 'and' (p=.395), 'verb be' (p=.552) and the passive voice (p=.100). From the results, it is clear that none of the students from any academic disciplines such as Administration, Information Technology, Fine Arts, Hotel and Restaurant Management, Music, and Medical Technology were able to process and judge the grammaticality of the anomalous headlines even at the microscopic linguistic nature of the headlines.

4.3 Knowledge on the Headlines Technicality in Terms of Students' Exposure to News

Table 9 shows that the cohort of students who responded to the grammaticality test only 'sometimes' (56.25%) exposes themselves to the news articles on social media. At least, more than half of these students take notice of the technicalities of the headlines, as a pre-orienting device (Jaki, 2014), which can either invite them to click and peruse the actual story-level depictions of the headlines.

Table 9. The exposure to news on social media.

Exposure to news on social media	Frequency	Percentage
Sometimes	45	56.25
Always	16	20.00
Rare	13	16.25
Never	6	7.50
Total	80	100.00

Table 10 shows that the mean score in terms of total (p=.175), the different headline types such as future time (p=.175), conjunction 'and' (p=.193), 'verb be' (p=.095) and the passive voice (p=.147) turn out to be the same regardless of the students' exposure. However, combining all the scores, the results show that those who are never exposed have a significantly lower mean score by 6.73 as compared to 'rare' and by 5.48 as compared to 'sometimes'. In short, the cluster of students from eight different academic disciplines regardless of their exposure performed with a low technical knowledge on the headlines. This is noted when one student even shared that "I managed to understand some technicalities of the headlines because I have a background in being a news writer and an editorial writer in our campus newspaper during my high school days."

Table 10. The differences between technical knowledge on the headlines based on exposure.

Exposure	N	Mean	Standard deviation	p-value	Conclusion
Always	16	24.75	5.63	0.026	At least one has a significantly different mean
Never	6	19.50	4.72		
Rare	13	26.23	4.25		
Sometimes	45	24.98	4.06		
Pairwise Comparison			**Difference**	**p-value**	**Conclusion**
Always		Never	5.25	0.073	Not Significant
		Rare	-1.48	0.806	Not Significant
		Sometimes	-0.23	0.998	Not Significant
Never		Rare	-6.73	0.016	Significant
		Sometimes	-5.48	0.029	Significant
Rare		Sometimes	1.25	0.804	Not Significant

5. DISCUSSION

The results of the study show the dearth of the students' knowledge on the technical rules of the headlines, which only fared around 70.66% accuracy. Overall, the pattern is an indication that the students experienced a real challenge in applying their metalinguistic knowledge and grammaticality judgment between the correct choices of each of the four headlines types. Given that the mastery plummeted below 50% of the total respondents, it is still erudite to assert that the top one well mastered headline such as 'Duterte not feeling well' is considered disconcerting for the university students not to identify that the actual syntax of the headline is actually 'Duterte is not feeling well.' Yet at least, it is consolatory that the well mastered headlines are spread across four types under investigation in this present study.

The university students' dearth on the technical knowledge of the headlines may be an indication of their semantic confusions brought about by the syntactic ambiguities of the headlines. Because of these anomalies, it was expected that the students exhibited some trepidation and challenge in identifying the normal sentence structures of the English language. In fact, Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (2008, p. 13) mention that "identifying standard parts of speech are an enterprise fraught with difficulty".

For sure, the peculiarities of the headlines further precipitated this difficulty, especially when one grammatical form tends to act differently in an already dual category of the English language (cf. Colman, 2005; Endley, 2010; O'Dwyer, 2006). Likewise, in the students' attempt to make sense of the headlines, they had to choose between the two options using their explicit and conscious judgment on the grammaticality of the original headlines. They had to parse for syntactic and semantic cues (cf. Zyzik, 2009) before choosing the better choice. This decision is seen to be identical when reading the actual news headlines even outside the formal ESL instructions and even outside this grammaticality judgment test that the students took. Overall, the non-normative behaviour of the headlines like in "Duterte tested for COVID-19", including cases of ellipsis (Bucaria, 2004), and other syntactic truncations can result in a number of interpretations. For example, many students misinterpreted (answered letter B for item number 9):

9. Duterte satisfied with Philvocs
   a. Duterte is satisfied with Philvocs
   b. Duterte satisfied Philvocs

Put simply, the very low knowledge on the technicalities of the headlines cuts across six academic disciplines. In Relevance Theory, Sperber and Wilson (1995, p. 49) argue that in the communication process, "all human beings automatically aim at the most efficient information processing possible. An individual's particular cognitive goal at a given moment is always an instance of a more general goal: maximizing the relevance of the information processed". As demonstrated in the average score of 24.73 out of 35, or equivalent to 70.66% accuracy, results illuminate that all students from different academic disciplines had been challenged to "...consider the semantic shifts created by confusion between grammatical categories" (Bucaria, 2004, p. 281) of the headlines. Meanwhile, since those who have never been exposed to the headlines performed significantly lower than those with exposure, it means that exposure has significant effect on their technical knowledge. This remains an axiomatic claim.

Explicit in the results is the idea that the students of different disciplines have demonstrated a disconcerting level on the technical knowledge of the headlines. Yet, the results may be predictable in nature. Historically, Perfetti et al. (1987, p. 692) argue that the "headlines present interesting comprehension problems because they are syntactically impoverished and, consequently, often syntactically ambiguous". What the results convey is that the students' meagre knowledge on the technicality of the headlines may be forgivable. Munalim and Raymundo (2014) mention that even English teachers themselves demonstrated a low level of declarative metalinguistic knowledge even after many years of teaching the language courses. Because the students' poor technical knowledge on the headlines is recorded in this present study, this should not be used to downplay the perceived need for our students to be more cognizant of the technicality of the headlines. People as part of the free and democratic country naturally engage and consume news, even outside the four corners of the brick-and-mortar classrooms.

The students' technical knowledge on the headlines was investigated in terms of their academic disciplines and exposure to the headlines and news on social media. What seems clear from the results is that the millennial students may no longer all tune with the micro register of the headlines, even with the frequent exposure to the news items on social media. This level of technical knowledge can impinge on their appreciation of the news items, and can precipitate in the perception of branding the news outfits as misleading or biased, among others. Likewise, the students should be more cognizant of the technicality of the headlines with the idea in mind that many of them heavily rely on free data, which only allows them to see the texts without images, and even without reading the story-level depictions of the headlines. The headlines serve as a guide and context, thus can still offer the readers the effect and impression of the actual stories (Evans, 2000; Ward, 2002). However, the students should be advised not to solely rely on the headlines. Caulfield and Bubela (2004) caution that although headlines can provide a glimpse of first impression, they may be inaccurate or "hyped," thus deviating from story-level depictions. Moreover, the headlines sometimes lack informational value to the actual news contents, which others call 'misleading and click-bait' headlines.

With all the findings assembled above, the syntactic violations and anomalies of the headlines have challenged the students in two ways: comprehension and problem solving. This is what is historically underlined by Perfetti et al. (1987, p. 693), who believe that "comprehending newspaper headlines may be more a matter of problem solving than of reading". The results may mean that the students as parsers cannot process the possible contents of the actual stories of the news without enough metalinguistic knowledge of the technicalities of the headlines. This knowledge about language (KAL) demands rule-based operations of the headlines, which should be mastered outright because the "headlines have distinctive syntactic properties, which make them a grammatical oddity" (Fairclough, 1995, p. 21).

6. CONCLUSION

In capsule, the results of the study show the dearth of the students' knowledge on the technical rules of the headlines, which only fared around 70.66% accuracy. Likewise, results showed that those who are never exposed to the headlines had a significantly lower mean score as compared to those with exposure to the headlines. Poor cognizance of the semantics-syntax of the headlines statistically cuts across academic disciplines and exposure to news articles. Overall, the students' understanding of the headlines seems to be shaped by their explicit knowledge and grammaticality judgment about the technicalities of the headlines.

Pooling the results together, the dearth of the students' knowledge on the technicality of the headlines has reminded us of the challenging linguistic resources and infrastructures of the headlines. Consuming the headlines remains an activity, where the readers have to utilize their declarative knowledge of the technicalities of this micro written register. The headlines are acknowledged and understood to be an easy challenge, whose understanding is further enhanced with the help of intricate, conscious and declarative metalinguistic knowledge (MK) and judgment of the semantic and syntactic anomalies of the headlines. This assertion sits well with the concepts of MK: it is acknowledged and understood to be a cognitive problem-solving task that involves analytical reasoning and high control of rule-based processing (Roehr, 2000; White & Ranta, 2002); and with one of the tenets of Relevance Theory, which delineates that "humans may be capable of controlling more than one technique for performing inferences" (Sperber & Wilson, 1995, p. 67).

It is not impossible that the students' lower level of metalinguistic knowledge on the headlines was precipitated due to the absence of visual images, and other accompanying linguistic resources of the headlines. Future studies may re-test the students' grammaticality judgment of the headlines by incorporating other semiotic resources surrounding the headlines. Blom and Hansen (2015, p. 92) assure that the headlines "may be more or less dependent semantically on the content of the full article" and even on their other semiotic environments, which will further help them to deconstruct the syntactic and semantic ambiguities of the headlines. Likewise, the number of the students across eight academic disciplines were not uniform because the number was solely based on the number of students officially enrolled during the trimester. Future studies may try to homogenize the number for any comparative undertakings.

At the top of these concerns, there is a dire need for language and journalism teachers to re-introduce the principles and technicalities of the headlines in their classes across academic stages. The semantic meanings of the headlines are indispensable in the students' interaction with the actual news contents and even doing away with possible disconnect between the headlines and the actual news contents. Underlying this research is the understanding of normative expectation from social media users to be cognizant of the different written registers on social media – both macro and micro-linguistic features. In like manner, from the top-down sphere, such results contribute to teachers' and policymakers' decision concerning the revival of Journalism subjects, and or integration of news writing (and reading) in a language classroom across educational levels.

To close, only when we have constantly determined and improved the students' metalinguistic knowledge on the technicality of the headlines are we able to make these millennial students become much more empowered members of society. ESL/ESP/TESOL teachers should continue to aim to arm these students with formidable metalinguistic knowledge and the strong ability to discriminate and judge linguistic grammaticality and accuracy of the headlines in today's modern world, regardless of the academic disciplines that the students belong to, given the valuable communicative (Dor, 2003) and pragmatics functions of the headlines in a democratic society like ours.

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Critical Discourse Analysis of Cultural Representations in EFL National Commercial Textbooks

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Abstract

Mastering grammar and vocabulary in communication are seemingly insufficient for learners to communicate with different societies worldwide. For this rationale, cultures in ELT materials took a pivotal role in equipping learners with intercultural communicative competence (ICC). Hence, the researchers critically analyzed two national commercial textbooks commonly used in senior high schools for the tenth and eleventh grades in any area to examine the elements of cultures and their representations. The researchers addressed this gap by adopting critical discourse analysis (CDA) to get a profound interpretation of data. The textual data was categorized, coded, counted, and finalized by creating a description. The result revealed that these textbooks contained elements of cultures; product (63%, 44%), person (13%, 42%), practice (19 %, 8%), and perspective (5%, 6%) in different proportions. The result also points out that there is an unbalance among culture-related items with 59%, 51% in source cultures, 11% and 26% in target, and 17% and 8% in international, which means target and international cultures are less than source cultures. This research also found universal cultures relating to cultures free in these textbooks with 13% and 18%, respectively. The finding indicated that both textbooks have imbalanced cultures, which means that target and international cultures were under-represented. The researchers suggest that other Southeast Asian, African, and Russian cultures must be considered in the textbooks. Furthermore, this research

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expects the stakeholders to be more concerned with designing, concerning, and choosing suitable textbooks to equip learners with diverse cultures.

Keywords: Commercial textbooks, cultural representations, element of cultures, intercultural communicative competence.

1. INTRODUCTION

The ubiquitous English employed in globalization was widespread at the start of the twenty-first century. The language is often used worldwide in trade, culture, diplomacy, and education. The scholars indicated that 80% of English communication used in globalization is between speakers in non-English speaking countries (Cogo, 2012; Rahim & Daghigh, 2020). In addition, it has led to the growth of the foreign language teaching business (Dahmardeh & Kim, 2020). As a result, people believe that mastering English skills and knowledge will assist them in socializing worldwide.

However, mastering grammar and vocabulary might not be sufficient for learners because they also need intercultural skills and knowledge. To understand these, learners need to achieve foreign-language proficiency, communication competence, effective intercultural interaction, and sociocultural adaptation (Lee & Li, 2020). Therefore, the ELT materials in EFL textbooks should contain materials addressing these aspects. The materials should include product (food, place, sport), practice (tradition, daily life underpinned member of cultures), perspectives (beliefs underlying the societies), and person (well-known and fiction from a certain group). The materials presented in EFL textbooks have been criticized for failing to prepare students for intercultural communication adequately. This is due to a lack of various social issues, little promotion of cultural awareness, and an overemphasis on language forms (Hayati, 2009). Therefore, the culture infused in English language teaching (ELT) material also should reflect the reality of English as an international language. In addition to catering to learners' communication needs in several contexts, learners' needs in their own context should also be included.

Therefore, ELT material should be localized, targeted, and global to assist students in developing their own identities while enhancing their understanding of the identities of others and their intercultural competency (Cortazzi & Jin, 1999; Victor, 1999). ELT textbooks play a vital role due to their authority to strengthen teachers' identity (Nilsson & Horvat, 2018). Textbooks contain material and activities or tasks to guide teachers while conveying their lessons (Arslan, 2016) and organizing in-class and out-class activities (Setyono & Widodo, 2019). However, in reality, most ELT materials contain an imbalance of cultures. For instance, in China, source culture is dominantly used in ELT textbooks (Arslan, 2016; Xiang & Yenika-Agbaw, 2021). The gap between local and other cultures is generally caused by policies of the local context, political limitations on textbook publishers, or perspectives of textbook writers (Baleghizadeh & Sayesteh, 2020). Therefore, according to Alshenqeeti (2020), engaging all cultures from source, target, and international in the EFL textbooks is reasonable. Another literature also suggests that cultural information can be included in informative and descriptive texts, dialogues, writing tasks, lexical items, and visual and audio recordings (Adaskou et al., 1990). Thus, textbooks provide a hidden curriculum by including a set of cultural values (Cunningsworth, 1995).

Central to the present study is the difference in English language textbooks used in an EFL context. National commercial EFL textbooks were different from government-issued and international distributed counterparts. National commercial EFL textbooks are mainly written by non-native speakers of English and sold commercially without any reference from the government. On the other hand, government-issued textbooks, although also written by non-native speakers of English are mandated by the government. Meanwhile, international textbooks are written mainly by native speakers and adapted to the country in which the textbooks are distributed (Alaei & Parsazadeh, 2021).

Several scholars have revealed problematic correlations between ELT materials and embedded cultures (Setyono & Widodo, 2019). It means little evidence from prior research found balanced cultures in English textbooks. The main reason is that English textbooks are written and arranged for a particular purpose. The aim is to promote the target and international cultures (Arslan, 2016; Baleghizadeh & Sayesteh, 2020; Liu et al., 2022). Another aim is to promote the source culture (cultures of learners' countries (Setyono & Widodo, 2019). Thus, this research filled this gap by investigating the elements of culture proposed by Yuen (2011) (product, practice, perspective, and person) and the representation loads in national commercial textbooks as a local textbook for tenth and eleventh grades using a critical discourse analysis (CDA) to deepen our understanding of the issues in question. Yuen's (2011) framework was used because it considered the newest framework in field of culture elements. Furthermore, the information in the EFL textbook is fragmented and generalized. A textbook is deemed to be true by users. Textbook users may assume that information on specific ways of thinking applies to the society as a whole, resulting in stereotypes (Yuen, 2011). Such examples of information are important to provide in ELT materials. Thus, the framework is deemed to have met this research goal by detail examining all cultural elements in EFL textbooks.

Furthermore, this research is expected to provide theoretical, empirical, and practical contributions. Theoretically, the paper's broader conception of cultural representations is expected to provide a deep understanding for the other researchers. Moreover, these research findings are expected to provide further directions for empirical studies on cultural representations in national commercial EFL textbooks as local textbooks. Finally, this study will likely assist ELT practitioners and English educators worldwide to be more concerned and select appropriate ELT textbooks to equip students with diverse cultures to facilitate their intercultural communicative competence (ICC). Therefore, the research questions in this study are as follows:

- What cultural elements are represented in the national commercial English textbooks in Indonesia?
- How are the cultural elements in the national commercial English textbooks in Indonesia represented in source, target, and international cultures?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Culture in Language Learning and Teaching

Many scholars have echoed the definition of cultures. Culture encompasses concepts, points of view, insight, myth, and value underlying societies' behavior and pattern (Horibe, 2008). Other scholars also asserted this definition. Dahmardeh and

Kim (2020) believed that people's actions, thoughts, and emotions are determined by culture. Thus, culture is influenced their lives, societies, and histories. Culture is the uniqueness of a group that is usually appreciated through action and verbal. These characteristics distinguish one group from another.

Language and culture are a system that cannot be separated, especially in language learning and teaching. The existence of culture itself can be shown through language. Therefore, it is difficult not to engage culture in language learning and teaching (Hilliard, 2015). However, whether or not the culture should be included in ELT materials is still in question (Alshenqeeti, 2020; Xiang & Yenika-Agbaw, 2021). The current position of English as an international language means that learning English does not mean all about the target culture (British, USA, New Zealand), but the global culture needs to be emphasized (Alaei & Parsazadeh, 2021). According to Porto and Byram (2016) no culture is "better than another . . . no culture is superior or inferior, richer or poorer, bigger or smaller than any other" (p. 22). However, a lack of culture of student's countries included in an ELT material can worsen students' prejudices, making them feel inferior to the source culture (Dahmardeh & Kim, 2020). Even, learning the English language while studying its culture will foster a sense of love and respect for their own country. Learning about the target and international cultures is also pivotal to valuing others' identities and developing intercultural competence (Hilliard, 2015).

Knowledge of language grammar and vocabulary is no longer sufficient to communicate worldwide. Students need communicative competence, effective intercultural interaction, and sociocultural adaptation as a part of language learning. Thus, understanding culture is a must to achieve this. Thomas (1983) and Lee and Li (2020) claimed that if ELT material did not accurately reflect the society in various contexts, learners could be exposed to an inadequate language and encountered a cross-cultural pragmatic failure. Therefore, involving source, target, and international cultures in ELT materials will likely be pivotal to equipping learners' cultural diversity in different contexts.

2.2 English as Foreign Language and English Textbooks in Indonesia

English in Indonesia is a foreign language that was legalized after the proclamation of independence. As a result, English has become a compulsory subject in formal schools, especially in high schools. It began in the junior high school curriculum in 1953, 1962, 1968, 1975, 1984, and 1994, and in the senior high school curriculum in 1950, 1962, 1968, 1975, 1984, and 1994, with the simple purpose of offering students with English language proficiency in reading, listening, writing, and speaking.

However, in the 2018 revision of Curriculum 2013(MONEC), the role of English as a local content subject from the early level has been removed because it is not mandatory. Therefore, the introduction to English was less of a concern from an early age due to the assumption that grammar should not be taught too early. Another rationale is that nationalism justifies the abolishing of English instruction in elementary schools. Before learning foreign languages, elementary school students must first master their native language and culture. While in junior and senior high schools, English as a compulsory subject has been taught only four hours a week.

Thus, English textbooks play a pivotal role in equipping students with grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, function, and empathy in communication skills (writing, listening, speaking, and reading) to communicate globally (Cunningsworth, 1995). It is because textbooks are essential tools for interpreting the curriculum that material is deliberately arranged in a direction to follow a particular curriculum for which the textbooks are designed (O'Keffe, 2013). In addition, culture in the material is also crucial for students. Regarding English textbooks containing various language components, textbooks' role is to help teachers who do not have a secure identity as English teachers (Nilsson & Horvat, 2018). They also claimed another reason that textbooks are considered to have apparent authority as a tool that can be trusted and cannot be easily criticized and questioned.

2.3 Studies into Cultural Representations in Language Textbooks

Most previous studies revealed that English textbooks used in different contexts gain different cultural proportions in each textbook. Most indicated that local and localized textbooks were predominant in the target language (the culture of English-speaking countries). On the contrary, international cultures are only barely mentioned and poorly elucidated in ELT textbooks. To begin with, Rahim and Daghigh (2020) conducted a comparative study to analyze two different textbooks used in Malaysia and revealed that local textbooks were predominant in the source culture. Meanwhile, the international distributed textbook was dominant in target cultures. Even though the proportion seemed equal, the target still got more references.

Similarly, Lee and Li (2020) also conducted a comparative study on two textbooks in different contexts (Hongkong and China). Their finding reported that textbooks in China are dominant in English-speaking country cultures rather than the cultures of China. While in Hongkong textbooks, foreign cultures' representations are more significant than source cultures. Other scholars also found that the representations of target culture were still dominant in EFL/ESL textbooks in Turkey (Arslan, 2016; Baleghizadeh & Sayesteh, 2020).

Liu et al. (2022) also revealed that Anglo-American cultures dominated English textbooks used in universities. Thus, other international cultures were neglected. Hilliard's (2015) study also found that ELT textbooks got significant references and overemphasized Western cultures. Different cultures like Asia and Africa are categorized as minorities due to their under-representation in the textbooks.

Unlike other previous studies, Dahmardeh and Kim (2020) indicated that coursebooks used in formal Iran schools were favored in source cultures. The target, international, and universal cultures were heavily under-represented. Besides looking at the cultures that subscribe to any country, they also revealed that they do not belong to any country (universal) or refer to free cultures. Alaei and Parsazadeh (2021) conducted a mixed-method study to analyze three English textbooks that should fall into international, localized, and local. Moreover, interviews and questionnaires were given to teachers and students to gain profound findings. Teachers voiced those international textbooks should emphasize more on the source cultures. For local and localized textbooks, it was suggested to put critical representations of cultural elements such as practice and perspectives from different cultures.

3. METHODS

This research is hermeneutics epistemologically. In hermeneutics, the researcher needs to emphasize the meaning that exists. It means that the researcher does not obtain the meaning, but the meaning is 'participative'. Djamba (2002) and James and Busher (2009) believed that in hermeneutics, detailed reading of the texts, which can be conversations, written words, or pictures, is required for a profound understanding.

In cultural analysis studies, Weninger and Kiss (2015) secerned three main methods exerted in cultural representations in language textbooks; content analysis, critical discourse analysis (CDA), and semiotic analysis. Thus, the study adopted critical discourse analysis (CDA) to investigate the cultural representations in two national commercial textbooks used in Indonesian senior high schools. In the textual study, CDA gives an effective analytical tool to uncover social, cultural, and ideological structures (Roohani & Heidari, 2012). The textual data were first categorized, coded, and counted to have cultural representations tested, as proposed by Weninger and Kiss (2015). Then following the principle of language functional system (Urban, 1981), this research looked at the linguistic choices used in determining the critical elements of culture and the representations provided in textbooks.

The data sources are the national commercial textbooks 'Bahasa Inggris' authored by Intan Pariwara in 2020. The researchers used textbooks entitled 'Bahasa Inggris' for tenth-grade and 'Bahasa Inggris' for eleventh-grade of senior high school. The twelfth-grade textbook was not included because it was prepared for the final test. Hence, the materials embedded by cultures were minimal. The data focused on the text-based learning materials and activities due to the limitations of pictures embedded by cultures.

Furthermore, the coding procedures for identifying the elements of cultures and how they are represented in the textbooks were decided. Finally, the researchers devised a checklist appropriate for the current study's purpose based on Cortazzi and Jin (1999) and Yuen's (2011) frameworks. Tables 1 and Table 2 encompass classifications of the selected themes and instances from textbooks.

Table 1. Coding guidelines for elements of cultures (Yuen, 2011).

Elements	**Definitions**	**Examples**
Product	refers to materials that contain both tangible and intangible products of culture. Tangible products are things like books and paintings, while intangible products are like dances and oral tales.	Dances, Kecak dance from Bali Food, sambal matah and chicken betutu from Bali
Practice	consists of a specific society's behavioral patterns, such as daily life and dominant customs, use of personal space, forms of address, and rituals.	Indonesia's independence day, the contest of school gate design
Perspective	encompasses a society's underlying traditions, values, superstitions, inspirations, myths, and world views.	Americans believe students who live with pets at home are always respectful of living things.
Person	refers to well-known persons and fictional or obscure people of a particular group.	Ki Hajar Dewantara Leonardo Da Vinci

Table 2. Coding guidelines for cultural representations (Cortazzi & Jin, 1999).

Cultures	Definitions	Examples
Source	cultures of non-English-spoken countries. In this case, Indonesian learners who learn English as Foreign Language are categorized as source cultures.	Kecak dance from Bali, one of the cities in Indonesia
Target	cultures of English-spoken countries—for example, British, America, and New Zealand.	American believe students that live with a pet at home are always respectful toward living things.
International	cultures of other countries besides source and target—for instance, Africa, Russia, etc.	Leonardo Da Vinci as a well-known person from Italy

The data were initially classified using Yuen's (2011) cultural elements framework. The framework comprises four constructs: product, practice, perspective, and person. The analysis entailed categorizing the content of each textbook to achieve the aims of the four constructs. Learning materials (short stories), discussions, and tasks could convey cultural content.

Once the classifying was completed, the manifestations of each cultural content in these textbooks were determined. Each item related to cultures was then classified into the source, target, and international cultures using Cortazzi and Jin (1999) framework. Content that was not affiliated with any one culture was included.

4. RESULTS

4.1 The Cultural Contents in the Textbooks

Two recently published textbooks were considered and analyzed in this study. Based on the purpose of this study, the researchers analyzed the English textbooks on the element of culture and the representations. Analyzing cultural representations' content began by determining the text-based material embedded in cultures.

Table 3. Frequency of four elements of cultural representations in senior high school textbooks.

Books	Total material	Total cultural contents in textbooks	Total cultural contents analysis
Grade X	127	34	63
Grade XI	125	29	63
Total	252	63	126

Table 3 shows the frequency of four elements of cultural representations in X and XI grade textbooks for senior high school. Table 3 demonstrates the frequency of cultural contents that the researchers analyzed are 126. In general, the total material in both textbooks was 252, while the total cultural contents in the textbook were 63, and there were 126 cultural content analyses. Grade X book has 127 total materials, and grade XI has 125. Meanwhile, the total cultural contents in grade XI textbook have a lower frequency than those in grade X textbook, i.e. by 4 cultural contents. Despite this, the total cultural content analysis was the same between the grade X and XI textbooks, that is 63.

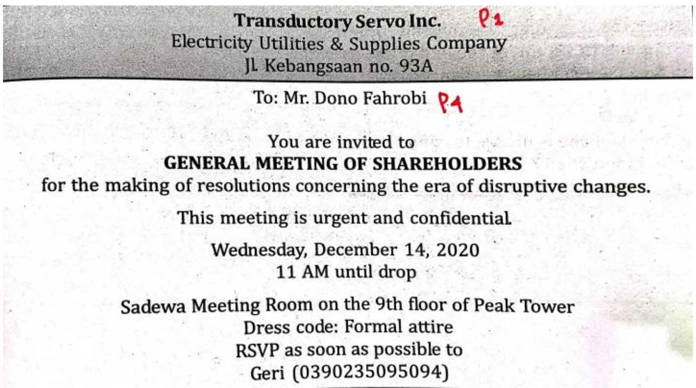
4.2 Cultural Elements

In this sub-section, the whole units in the textbooks were analyzed. As there were seven units in each textbook, the number of cultural contents to be coded under different categories was quite large. However, most data were easy to categorize except for soccer, basketball, and volleyball. Therefore, the researchers classified them into intangible products such as dances. In addition, themes such as day and event were tricky to categorize. Thus, the researchers categorized them into practice because they refer to society's behavioral patterns (Yuen, 2011).

Table 4. Frequency of culture elements in English textbooks for tenth and eleventh grades.

Books	**Products**	**P**	**Practices**	**P**	**Perspectives**	**P**	**Persons**	**P**
Grade X	Place Food Tangible Intangible Sports	63%	Day and events Daily life and the customs Greetings	19%	Belief and value Myth	5%	Name Well-known person	13%
Grade XI	Place Food Tangible Intangible Sports	44%	Day and events Daily life and the customs Greetings	8%	Belief and value Myth	6%	Name Well-known person	42%

Table 4 demonstrates the frequency of four elements of cultural representations in textbooks has the highest number in products with 63% and 44%, respectively. When analyzing culture in these textbooks, the most salient element focused on cultural content associated with places. For instance, the textbook for the eleventh grade (p. 41) seemed to offer a lot of formal invitations material that demonstrated addresses and places. Moreover, food, tangible, and intangible products showed very few references in both textbooks.


Transductory Servo Inc. P1
Electricity Utilities & Supplies Company
Jl. Kebangsaan no. 93A

To: Mr. Dono Fahrobi P4

You are invited to
GENERAL MEETING OF SHAREHOLDERS
for the making of resolutions concerning the era of disruptive changes.

This meeting is urgent and confidential.

Wednesday, December 14, 2020
11 AM until drop

Sadewa Meeting Room on the 9th floor of Peak Tower
Dress code: Formal attire
RSVP as soon as possible to
Geri (0390235095094)

Figure 1. Example of materials containing address and place as elements of product.

Person element was the second most frequently occurring element, with 13% in tenth grade and 42% in eleventh-grade textbooks. It is indicated that the person element in eleventh grade outweighed that in tenth grade. Chapter V (p. 72) in the tenth-grade textbook is an example of the content that fully met the objective. It fully met the person element in the well-known figures such as 'Ki Hajar Dewantara' and 'Mr. Hardwidjono'. The rest were just names commonly used by people in each country, such as 'Leonardo Da Vinci', a famous painter from Italy. Another example in the tenth-grade textbook (unit IV, p. 66) mentions Mawar from Indonesia and Jane, 'Adamson', and 'Anna Wilson' from America.

(1) Dialog 1

Adamson : Your profile picture is amazing. Is that you trying **jet blade**?
Jane : Yup! That's me. Andi invited me to try that sport.
…….

The third most frequently occurring element was practice, with 19% and 8% in the tenth and eleventh grades, respectively. Most of them provide days and events (fathers' day, teachers' day, independent day, New Year's Eve), greetings (*assalamu'alaikum*), and daily life and customs (snack time, dessert). Moreover, the eleventh grade did not have any day and event, while the tenth grade had only some references. Therefore, it indicated that the practice element more frequently appears salient in tenth-grade than in eleventh-grade textbooks. For example, practice element in the eleventh-grade textbook on pages 8-9 is provided in the following.

(2) **Learning materials**

…..
Would you care for …?

Examples:
-would you care for **dessert**, sir?
-would you care for an **afternoon snack**, ma'am?

Perspective was the least frequent cultural element with 5% and 6%. It seemed perspectives elements received less attention in both textbooks, with seven cases in total. For instance, in the eleventh-grade textbook (chapter IV, p. 70), in the reading text about giving a reason, the book shows that American people believe that having pets in their house offers many benefits. They assumed that pet could improve their mood and temperament (see the example in the source culture point).

4.3 The Representations of Cultural Elements in Source, Target, and International in the Textbooks

Table 5 provides the frequency of cultural representations content in the two textbooks. Source culture refers to cultural elements belonging to learners who learn English in their context, such as Indonesia. In contrast, target culture refers to cultural elements belonging to the cultures of a native speaker of the target language, in this case British and American cultures. International cultural elements refer to cultural elements belonging to cultures other than English-speaking communities in the target and source, such as Asian (except Indonesia), African, and European (except British).

Table 5. The frequency of cultural representations contents in the textbooks.

Books	Source cultures	Target cultures	International cultures	Universal cultures
Grade X	59%	11%	17%	13%
Grade XI	51%	26%	8%	18%

4.3.1 Source culture

Table 5 indicates that a significant portion of contents was devoted to cultural elements connected to Indonesian culture. It was discovered that the percentages of source cultural elements from the overall number of cultural elements in tenth and eleventh-grade textbooks were 59 percent and 51 percent, respectively. For instance, in the tenth-grade textbook (p. 72), there is an activity about 'Yogyakarta as a city that is rich in tourist destination' in the Indonesian context, which is a non-English-speaking country, as shown in the text that mentions 'Candrasengkala' - a Javanese ethnic prediction given in the year or is a symbol of the number of years, sometimes even describing the year's character. It is categorized as practice and perspectives because it belongs to the Indonesian behavioral patterns and underlying traditions. For instance, the tenth-grade textbook in activity 2, page 72 is presented in the following.

(3) **Activity 2**

Yogyakarta is very rich in tourist destinations, not only beaches but also historical buildings and museums. One of the famous museums that you must not miss is **Dewantara Kirti Griya Museum**. It is located **at jalan Tamansiswa** number 25, **Yogyakarta**. …

I tell you, **Dewantara Kirti Griya** was named by a **Javanese linguist Mr. Hadiwidjono**, meaning a house that contains the work of **candrasengkala** (**candra** means statement and **sengkala** means time or period) on May 2, 1970. …

Also, in Chapter IV about 'discover untouched place', there were significant proportions of product elements of Indonesian culture, especially in terms of places such as 'Sembalun village' (p. 57), 'Lagundri beach' (p. 59), 'Kerinci Seblat National Park' (p. 61), 'Tiu Kelep Waterfall' (p. 64), and 'Green Canyon in Kertayasa' (p. 67). Moreover, the tenth-grade textbook only mentions one artifact that refers to Indonesian cultures, such as the 'Ketinting boat' belonging to the Ciamis regency (p. 67).

The well-known person is also mentioned (p. 72) in the tenth-grade textbook, such as 'Mr. Hardwidjono', a Javanese Linguist, and 'Ki Hajar Dewantara' as a national education figure in Indonesia. There were 25 characters with typical Indonesian names. For example, the eleventh-grade textbook mentions the name of the person 'Mawar' (p. 25), commonly used by Indonesian women, meaning 'rose' in English. Dahmardeh and Kim (2020, p. 13) stated that "names could be considered as one of the most obvious criteria in deciding cultural categories." It became exciting to realize that these textbooks have huge reference names from the source culture.

4.3.2 Target culture

The target cultures in these textbooks seemed relatively non-equal, with 11% and 26%, respectively. Overall, the eleventh-grade textbook has more references to the target culture than the tenth-grade textbook. It is worth noting that the two textbooks' target cultural elements overlapped. The eleventh-grade textbook gave more attention to the target culture. The cultural elements were evenly distributed with product, practice, perspective, and person. The material that embedded culture in the textbook were commonly focused on the dialogues, reading passage, and learning material. The sentences are usually short, often without meaningful context. For instance, in learning materials-expression about offering items (eleventh-grade textbook, p. 9), "would you like me to get you a sandwich or steak?*"* that belongs to the product element in terms of food in target countries. Also, "would you care for dessert?", "would you care for an afternoon snack, ma'am?" that belongs to practices element commonly happens in societies in target countries. Also, names from target countries, such as Adamson, Jane, anna Wilson, John, Ronald, and Leo, often appeared in dialogues.

Nevertheless, the meaningful context found appears twice in perspective elements. Only one passage mentioned the perspective element about American people who found pets rather than children in American households. It is because American believed having pets were a great way to improve mood and temperament. Also, kids who grew up with pets at home raised their respect for living things (eleventh-grade textbook, p. 70). For example, in the eleventh-grade textbook, the following is presented in activity 12 on page 70 (due to space limitations, paragraphs # 3, 4, and 5 have been intentionally removed):

(4) **Activity 12**

> Do you want to keep a pet? Go on. There are several benefits. A recent study showed that there have been more **pets than children in American households**. …
> Whether you believe or not, pets are great way to improve your mood and temperament. It means that **keeping pets can reduce stress and anxiety levels**. …

In the tenth-grade textbook, the person element did not appear, and only a small proportion of elements of culture appeared in the textbook in target countries—for instance, product in terms of places such as England, Avebury in Britain, and Stonehenge. Interestingly, in this textbook a perspective element in terms of myth appeared, but none was found in the eleventh-grade textbook. There is a reading passage (p. 81) about stones circle in village green (Avebury). For the practice element, only days and events commonly celebrated by people in target countries (Birthday parties, Father's Day) were mentioned.

4.3.3 International culture

The two textbooks overlapped in international culture, i.e. 17% in the tenth-grade textbook and 8% in the eleventh-grade textbook. The significant differences were apparent, where the tenth-grade textbook was dominant in international cultures, but the Eleventh-grade textbook was dominant in target cultures. There were many places and towns mentioned in the textbooks. Concerning product, the tenth-grade textbook coverage is confined to Japan, China, Texas (USA), Arena in Pula, colosseum, Aquileia, Rome, and Itchan Kala (Khiva Uzbekistan). Moreover, Rome is often mentioned because the tenth-grade textbook contains three reading passages about Rome's ancient buildings. For example, activity 12, pages 78-79, is provided below.

(5) **Text 1.**
What comes into your mind when you heard **'Rome'**? Ancient buildings? You're right. **Rome** is very rich in old magnificent buildings. …
Herculaneum was the small **Roman town** which was obliterated by the fateful explosion of **Mount Vesuvius**. …

(6) **Text 2.**
The small town **Roman of Herculaneum** was the small **Roman town** which was obliterated by the fateful explosion of **Mount Vesuvius**. …
Herculaneum initially escaped the volcanic inferno that enveloped Pompeii, and it was not until much later in the eruption that mud and lava flows from Vesuvius swamped the town. …

While in the eleventh-grade textbook only mentioned two, i.e. Thailand and China. The cultural content in tenth-grade textbooks seemed more varied with international countries because it mentioned the practice of societies in Pula, often listening to and watching opera or dances in Arena (Pula). However, none of these are found in the eleventh-grade textbook. On the contrary, the person elements in these textbooks are mentioned, even though not many, such as miss Jannette from Texas (in Tenth-grade textbook, p. 10) and well-known people Leonardo da Vinci from Italia and Karel Capek from Czech (in Eleventh-grade textbook, p. 66).

4.3.4 Universal culture

Furthermore, in these textbooks, some items are not in the categories proposed by Cortazzi and Jin (1999), i.e. source, target, and international. The researcher also found several examples of culture in the book that did not refer to any culture. Table 3 indicates that these textbooks contain 13% and 18%, respectively. Several sports that do not belong to any culture are found in both textbooks, such as ice skating, rafting, wakeboarding, and jet blade. There is only one reference about practice in terms of day and event (New Year's Eve) in the tenth-grade book, but it is completely missing in the eleventh-grade book. For the perspectives, only two were found in the eleventh-grade book, and only one appeared in the tenth-grade textbook. The universal culture is concerned with the linguistic element of language without reference to any specific country or culture (Dahmardeh & Kim, 2020). Although the proportion in these textbooks is arguably tolerable and does not belong to any cultures, this information about other cultures might benefit language learners as they help them become familiar with the culture (Arslan, 2016).

5. DISCUSSION

One of the main findings is that these textbooks' cultural elements were imbalanced. The finding revealed that product and person were most saliently elucidated. This study is aligned with Yuen (2011) and Lee and Li (2020), who showed that food and sightseeing places in product elements are most salient because they are the most tangible cultural symbols when a tourist visits a country. On the other hand, practices, and perspectives elements received less attention in the textbooks. Practices and perspective elements are critical material because they contain thoughts, ways of working, and beliefs of members of cultures. Therefore, in line with Alaei and Parsazadeh (2021), local textbooks should embody more critical representations of the cultural elements. Furthermore, the materials in these textbooks are more dominant in dialogues than reading passages. Moreover, the characters used only short sentences in the dialogues and seemed few that contained specific meaning.

Both textbooks indicate the source, target, and other cultures, albeit to different degrees. These textbooks emphasized source culture as Indonesian students' cultures, but the other cultures seem under-represented. Only target culture in the eleventh-grade textbook indicated 26%, and the others are under 20%. Because target and international culture are under-represented in these textbooks, the results of this study supported past research in other contexts (Dahmardeh & Kim, 2020; Lee & Li, 2020; Rahim & Daghigh, 2020). The textbooks' quality of cultural content proved that it was designed to equip students' intercultural competence with Indonesian multicultural content. This finding is supported by Rahim and Daghigh's (2020) study in Malaysia, a multicultural country like Indonesia. Under-represented in target, international, and universal cultures seem to make sense. The reason was related to Nationalism. In the 2013 curriculum, compulsory English subjects were removed at the elementary school level. Furthermore, English is studied four hours per week for language majors at senior high school level. Students majoring in science and social studies only learn English two hours per week. It is aimed that learners can value the diversity of Indonesian culture itself. In other words, these textbooks are presented the country's multicultural scenery. Since the representations of culture in these textbooks are imbalanced, these textbooks fail to facilitate students' intercultural competence within different countries (Baleghizadeh & Sayesteh, 2020; Dahmardeh & Kim, 2020; Lee & Li, 2020; Setyono & Widodo, 2019). It is also asserted by Baleghizadeh and Sayesteh (2020) that the reason can be from policies of the local context, political limitations on textbook publishers, or perspectives of textbook writers. Source cultures are pivotal to be learned to value Indonesian culture and identity. Still, target and international culture are also essential to raise awareness of other cultures to help communicate in international society.

If the target is considered, international and universal cultures are limited in the textbooks, it is shown that the content only focused on European countries. However, international culture countries are not mentioned in the textbooks, such as the cultures in Africa, Russia, Germany, French, and Poland. Besides, other Asian countries have very few references. The finding also supports past research by Hilliard (2015), who found that Asia and Africa are less represented in ELT textbooks. Thus, both textbooks only mentioned Indonesia, Thailand, China, and Japan. Moreover, other countries like Southeast Asia (e.g., Vietnam, Brunei Darussalam, Malaysia, Manila, Singapore, Laos, and Myanmar) are left out.

Due to the importance of communicative skills in EFL learning, Indonesian learners should learn languages and cultures from different countries worldwide. Xiang and Yenika-Agbaw (2021) asserted that "various patterns of English communication in a global context should be included in EFL textbooks" (p. 11). Thus, the balance of cultures in EFL textbooks are pivotal for learners. There would be a sense of inclusiveness and belonging when they learn the material with balanced elements, which might trigger their motivation to learn. Hence, more varieties from English and non-English speaking countries should be taught explicitly, so Indonesian learners can communicate well with people from different backgrounds. The inclusion of ethnic minorities such as people with disabilities is also pivotal to providing new insight for learners and raising their respect toward minority groups.

Based on the research results, this research has two pedagogical implications. First, because of the space limitations of textbooks, the researchers insist that EFL teachers need to go beyond the text to help students understand the implied meaning. The text in the textbooks has suggested meanings of various cultures. The implied meaning in the text will make students appreciate cultural artifacts (Setyono & Widodo, 2019). Therefore, learning by reading many texts might benefit students. Second, teachers also need to creatively teach multicultural materials from English and non-English speaking countries by providing more critical reading passages and activities. For instance, in a chapter discovering the untouched place and historical buildings, EFL teachers can provide other descriptive texts about places from target and international countries by utilizing technology as an efficacious alternative for introducing cultures to students (Sugianto, 2022).

6. CONCLUSION

This study elucidated the elements of cultures and how they are represented in two ELT national commercial textbooks commonly used in Indonesian senior high schools. The finding revealed that the textbook contained imbalanced cultures, even though four elements of cultures (product, process, perspective, and person) were included. Specifically, the elements of practice and perspective were arguably limitedly represented. Furthermore, it is indicated that the textbooks only contain less meaningful materials. Therefore, it is suggested that the textbooks emphasize critical materials' representation.

The representations of culture elements in source, target, and international showed that source cultures were given enormous proportions. Source culture got overemphasized, with more than 50% in the textbooks. Because Indonesia is a multicultural country, these textbooks also provided Indonesian cultures. Although more multicultural topics were represented in the textbooks, cultural materials from many regions of the world, such as Africa, Russia, and Southeast Asia, were under-represented. Because English is an international language, ELT materials should not only focus on how culture is taught in ESL/EFL context.

Nevertheless, these days, the diversity of cultures from different contexts needs to be considered to "…see the differences between cultures and they may learn how to tolerate these differences" (Arslan, 2016, p. 224). In addition, it should also facilitate students' intercultural communicative competence (ICC) (Setyono & Widodo, 2019). This study, however, had several shortcomings. The first limitation of this study is that it only searched the element of cultures and the representations in textual-based data. It would be better to include the stakeholders, such as teachers and students, to get their perceptions of the cultural representations in EFL textbooks. Another limitation is that the analysis of cultures did not include visual images, and thus it also can be considered for future research because images and text are both media of cultures.

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Developing Local Culture-Based EFL Reading Materials for the 21st-Century Learning

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Abstract

The material specification is one aspect of teaching English at a vocational high school. Materials should be well-prepared to facilitate and promote students' comprehension of concepts. This study aimed to develop instructional reading materials for Palembang – Tourism-Destination that are valid, practical, and potentially effective for students enrolled in a Travel Agent Study Program at one vocational school in Palembang, South Sumatera Province, Indonesia. The product was developed to meet the students' needs. This research was a developmental study, with research phases including design, evaluation, and revision phases. Questionnaires, interviews, and reading comprehension tests were used to collect data. The data were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. A formative evaluation was conducted to determine the product's validity, practicality, and potential impact. Experts evaluated the content, media, and instructional design for validity. The results indicated that the established product was extremely valid, scored an average of 3.65 for all evaluated elements. Practicality was rated highly in one-to-one and small-group evaluations, with average scores of 3.55 and 3.35. The results of the field test showed that the established texts had a high potential for impact, as 79.16 percent of students earned the required passing grade. As a result, it is reasonable to assume that the established product can be used in the classroom as the product for reading.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Education in the twenty-first century places a premium on students' ability to thrive in the real world and assists them in developing their confidence in practicing such skills. With abundant information available, 21st-century skills emphasize comprehending, exchanging, and intelligently using this information, particularly in English. Almost all experts believe that globalization is a multifaceted process that occurs as a result of the spread of products from the expanding global economy, politics, technological advancements (particularly in media and communication technology), environmental change, and culture (Oktaviani & Mandasari, 2020; Volckmar-Eeg, 2021). Therefore, to face globalization and compete in getting a good career in the future, students, especially vocational students, must be able to improve their English language abilities. Azizah et al. (2021) describe the importance of English in vocational high schools as overstated. It could necessarily be set up to compete for vocational high school jobs in Indonesia and worldwide following graduation.

The most effective way in learning a foreign language is to immerse oneself in the target language's culture (Ahangaran, 2020; Jumanova & Makhmudov, 2020; Klimanova & Hellmich, 2021). Numerous academics in Indonesia and worldwide have been fascinated by the subject of the use and demonstration of the benefits of indigenous culture in teaching English, as demonstrated by Barfield and Uzarski (2009), Yousef et al. (2014), Estuarso et al. (2017), Yang (2017), Fu (2018), and Sopian et al. (2019) in their studies. The fundamental goal of learning processes is classroom student success. In a classroom setting, input sources ranging from participants (lectures and class speeches) to audio-visual devices and printed materials are used to expose students to foreign languages (Andriivna et al., 2020; Budiman, 2020; Krishnan et al., 2020; Limberg, 2016). Meanwhile, culture has a significant impact on learning in the classroom (Sowden, 2007). Therefore, language and culture are the fundamental factors in classroom language instruction approaches.

According to Curriculum 2013, the most recent high school curriculum in Indonesia, cultures should be included in vocational school students' English material. According to Bao (2016) and Mukundan et al. (2016), it is critical to take into consideration the students' backgrounds when teaching materials were developed. Educational materials and activities should incorporate elements of the students' native culture to address their background, emotions, experiences, and culture (Bao, 2016; McKay, 2003; Tomlinson, 2012). Culture should be utilized, as language and culture are inextricably linked (Alakrash et al., 2020; Byram & Flemming, 1998; Kim, 2020; Turan & Akcay, 2021). Because language and culture are closely related, culture must be learned alongside language education. Today's foreign language education places a premium on culture transmission (İşcan & Baskin, 2021). Curriculum 2013 also focuses on local culture in teaching English. Based on Government Regulation No 32 concerning the National Education Standard (SNP), the curriculum framework of the educational institution shall be grounded in local culture and the aspects of its potential. Those citizens, including students, who have the responsibility to preserve, consolidate, and promote Indonesian culture are governed by State Regulation No. 5 of 2017.

Furthermore, reading is a crucial skill for English learners. It fosters general skills development and offers access to vital work and school information (Komiyama, 2009). However, OECD (2018) results revealed that Indonesian students read less than those from other countries. Indonesia ranks 72 out of 77 countries in reading skills. This value has frequently stagnated in the last 10–15 years. Figures reveal that teenagers in Indonesia still have low literacy compared to those of other countries.

Currently, there are various books that teachers can use to teach English. As a result, teachers may be made undecided about which themes and appealing cultural characteristics to use in their classes (Braik, 2014). On the other side, the government suggests that teachers be responsible for preserving Indonesian culture concerning religious values and local wisdom through the national education system by using government published books. Moreover, teachers have a significant role in integrating culture or the characteristics of culture into education and learning. Many textbooks are published and used, but few native cultural values are introduced in the books. The quality of books on the market does not fully meet students' needs, stressing the task of supplying knowledge or facts alone (Wena, 2014). Many researchers are interested in developing reading materials (Azizah et al., 2021; Elviana et al., 2020; Inderawati et al., 2018; Mahardika, 2018; Nafiah, 2020; Sopian et al., 2019). Previous studies aimed at developing EFL teaching materials, particularly reading resources. The researchers carried out their studies with specific designs to suit their demands at distinct levels of students and for particular goals. These studies demonstrated that the products provided were useful, valid, and relevant to students. Previous studies also showed that reading materials that meet the needs of the students are available, but the utilization of the local culture of the pupils is limited. Therefore, a selection and development of teaching materials geared to fulfill students' needs should be encouraged to promote learning goals. One of the strategies is material development. According to Tomlinson (2016), the development material is carried out to provide the students with appropriate teaching resources.

The National Education Standards Board (or *Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan*) stated that vocational school curriculum is arranged to train students to get ready for work (BSNP, 2006). In other words, vocational high school places a premium on students' willingness to learn certain work skills, suggesting that students should learn English. The teachers should know the students' needs and which materials suit them when producing teaching materials (Inderawati et al., 2021; Octaviana et al., 2021; Rhahima et al., 2021; Tenridinanti et al., 2021). In addition, English must be taught to inspire students to learn based on their major or course of studies in the 21st century. The dearth of materials that fit students' needs and interests makes it difficult for teachers to support and enhance reading skills. Thus, suitable reading materials are needed according to the students' fields and interests. This is relevant to the idea of Hutchinson and Waters (1987), who believe that one language education technique is ESP, and it is based on the student's learning goal. Therefore, English is recommended for specific purposes to address the basic, specific, and relevant needs of students who fulfill important vocational or academic needs (Tsao, 2011).

For students of the Travel Agent Majors in Palembang vocational schools, incorporating students' local culture into English courses is helpful and important because it is essential that they can explain their own local culture, and it is hoped that students will develop cultural literacy and awareness of their own indigenous culture. Indonesian government regulations and educational curricula promote and codify indigenous cultures. However, English reading materials incorporating Palembang's indigenous culture is limited. Despite the availability of numerous English reading texts about Palembang's local culture in some books and on the internet, not all teaching materials are relevant for learners. The issue may arise if the materials do not correspond to the learners' English proficiency, do not meet curriculum requirements, are not contextualized in their study, or do not meet the needs of the learners. Nonetheless, students must read materials relevant to their fields of study and interests. Mukundan et al. (2016) asserted that the main point to successful reading is the precise preference and presentment of available materials. If the resources do not adequately address the needs of the learners, a slit must be bridged—one of the means involved in the materials development.

The writers highlighted several topics in this study through informal interviews. The students were given broad reading texts, some of which were connected to the common knowledge in the travel agents field. However, no recount text reading material represented Palembang's local culture, especially about tourism destinations. What they got were several reading texts that represented different cultures from the local culture of the students. Therefore, learners and educators will require some supplementary resources of English reading on the local culture of Palembang. Because of the requirements, there was a clear gap. As a result, the present study intended to design the learning material to bridge the gap between the scarcity of English reading resources about recount text reading material and the needs of students by utilizing the Palembang tourism destinations. The purpose of this study was to create recount text reading materials for travel agent major in vocational high schools which were valid, practical, and potentially effective. Therefore, the research questions were set as follows:

1) Was the developed recount text to the students of travel agent majors at vocational school valid?
2) Was the developed recount texts practical?
3) Did the developed recount texts have the potential effect on the students of travel agent majors at a vocational school in Palembang?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Material Development

Material development refers to work done by a teacher, writer, or other individuals to provide appropriate learning materials. Material development includes all procedures used by practitioners to create or use language acquisition resources, such as material assessment, adaptation, design, manufacturing, exploitation, and research (Arafah et al., 2021; Pikhart & Klimová, 2020; Volckmar-Eeg, 2021). Ideally, these processes should be considered and interact with material development (Mukundan et al., 2016; Tomlinson, 2012). Examples of sources or inputs classified as material development are textbook development, textbook writing, reading text, testing of technology-based materials, and many others. Although many commercial textbooks or materials on the internet can be used in teaching, it is crucial to recognize that not all available materials are relevant for students. Therefore, learning materials are one of the most important goals that must be considered during the teaching and learning process. According to Tomlinson (2011), materials can function in various ways, including informational, instructive, experiential learning, selection, and experimentation. Thus, educators can provide students with appropriate teaching materials that meet the student's needs and outlooks by developing materials (Tomlinson, 2016).

Concerning this, several previous studies have concentrated on material development. For example, Elviana et al. (2020) focused on Palembang local culture descriptive texts-based interactive multimedia development for teaching. Likewise, Herawati et al. (2020) developed the Islamic instructional descriptive reading material for the seventh grader, while Azizah et al. (2021) developed the reading materials of descriptive texts in English classes by the utilization of local culture. The finding of those studies revealed that (1) some local cultures used to produce the reading material, and (2) the development of reading material had high validity, practicality, and effectivity. It may then be stated that the development process should integrate local culture to produce high-quality reading materials. Meanwhile, Karademir et al. (2019) developed materials by converting offline materials to online counterparts.

2.2 The 21st Century Learning

The challenge facing educators today is to prepare students to learn, live and thrive in the dynamic, cluttered, and chaotic information environment of the 21st-century learning world. Knowing how to learn from various sources of information is at the heart of what it means to be educated today. Students need to think, learn, create, search, evaluate, and use the information for thinking, learning, and creating. In addition, students need to see the connection between what they learn in school and the outside world that motivates and inspires them to do their best (Cai et al., 2021; Joraboyev, 2021; Williams & Williams, 2011).

Learning how to contribute today is the best strategy for a complex and changing future. All students have gained learning experience as they prepare for their future. Success does not appear to be the same as it once was. Successful people now expect a solid career and diverse skills to supplement their income. As teachers, we are responsible for encouraging students to pursue their dreams by educating them and providing them with the necessary knowledge and skills. Furthermore, learners perform best when their work is meaningful and impactful on the world.

2.3 Palembang's Local Culture

Indonesia is an archipelago consisting of 34 provinces with various cultural wealth. Local culture is the local values for cultivating the people in a naturally formed region and obtained from time to time through learning. Local culture may be in the form of art, tradition, thought, or customary law. This cultural wealth can be a valuable option for the country to introduce Indonesia to the outside world, one of which is Palembang's local culture. The existence of culture in the tourist area will give more value to the tourists who visit the place. We can also conclude that tourism and culture are information exchange activities and cultural symbols.

Culture will never be separated from tourism because culture has something to do with tourism. After all, it enhances destination attractiveness. Tourism aims to introduce and use the natural beauty and culture of the region. The more aspects of culture we explore, the more tourists will travel to Palembang. Tourism and culture have mutually beneficial relations (symbiotic mutualism). They lead to various benefits, namely increasing income, creating jobs, promoting national and international culture, and, indirectly, sustaining the culture in the area.

Tourism development has a positive and important impact on local culture. One of the impacts is that local culture can help teach English to non-native English speaker students (Florentino, 2014). Furthermore, the Ministry of Education and Culture in Regulation No 79 of the Year 2014 states that the inclusion of local content in the process of educational learning is intended to make students understand and love their regional natural, social, cultural, and spiritual environments and to conserve and develop their region's excellence and knowledge, which are helpful for themselves and their environment to promote the nation. Therefore, each academic unit or school should reflect the local culture and the surrounding community's features.

2.4 Recount Text

The recount text is one of the texts covered by the Indonesian high school curriculum, focusing on English language development in the senior high schools and vocational schools. A recount text contains references to previous events or experiences (Kosasih & Kurniawan, 2018). Furthermore, Knapp and Watkins (2005) defined recount text as a text that describes a series of events that have been experienced sequentially. Therefore, there would be a goal and purpose for recounting text events from the past.

According to Sitorus and Sipayung (2018), there are two types of recount text; personal recount and fictional recount. A personal recount text informs the reader of the personal experience of the author. The latter can be seen in a fictional account. It is a type of recount text that serves as a vehicle for presenting an imaginative story (Mediska & Adnan, 2019). Most reading genres taught to learners, particularly in vocational high schools, are descriptive texts (Azizah et al., 2021). The recount text is rarely used as essential reading material by teachers. This occurs because the types of recount text in the vocational high school books tell a lot about historical stories rather than students' experiences with local culture. The instructional reading materials developed for this study focused on recounting past experiences related to the students' local culture, particularly tourist destinations. In a study by Alakrash et al. (2020), the local resources were integrated into modules designed for students and educators. The students were given some texts that was influenced by the culture. The results showed that students' skills were highly improved. Based on the findings, it was recommended to develop language learning materials for EFL students using a local culture-based curriculum as the medium.

3. METHODS

3.1 The Method of the Study

The design research method was used to create recount text reading material about Palembang's popular tourist destinations. As defined by Akker (1999), this study was a type of developmental research. Developmental research is a subset of applied research focusing on designing a product for a particular purpose. Additionally, Akker (1999) defines development research in three major stages: analysis, design, evaluation, and revision. During the analysis stage, a needs analysis was carried out to gather the information necessary to develop the products, in this case reading materials. Additionally, during the analysis phase, several analyses were conducted, including instructional analysis, needs analysis of the students, and the analysis of reading levels. The recount text reading materials about the tourist destinations of Palembang were created and designed during the design stage, considering the results of the analysis performed during the analysis stage. The text was modified to meet the study's requirements, and the study's outcome was the materials developed in response to the needs analysis. The materials were expected to meet the students' needs and interests. The author employed Tessmer's (1993) formative evaluation to enhance product quality during the assessment phase of this study.

3.2 The Subject of the Study

The research was carried out at a vocational high school vocational in Palembang. The subjects of this study were learners enrolled in the Travel Agent Study Program, as indicated in Table 1.

Table 1. Subjects of the study.

No.	Stages of formative	The number of learners	Description of the learners
1	One-to-one-Evaluation	3	Each category had one learner, i.e., low, medium, and high English proficiency.
2	Small Group	9	Three learners were assigned to each category: low, medium, and high English proficiency.
3	Field Test	24	All learners in the class
Total		36 learners	

3.3 The Procedure of the Study

In this study, the researchers created recount text reading materials based on Akker's (1999) recommendations, which included three phases: analyzing, designing, and evaluating and revising. This study used three analyses: an instructional analysis, an analysis of student needs (based on the English educator's and learners' perceptions), and an analysis of students' reading levels. The school curriculum was used in the instructional analysis. The content curriculum of travel and travel agent study programs, syllabus, and English textbooks were used in teaching and learning. For the curriculum and syllabus, the objectives of learning English and subject content, levels of study, and content that must be studied were analyzed. It is also essential to analyze the textbook content regarding the topics discussed and reading materials to determine the content related to the culture provided in the textbooks.

3.31 Analysis phase

During the phase of analysis, the instructional problems and objectives, the learning environment, and the learners' prior knowledge and skills were elaborated. In addition, the instructional challenge, the characteristics of students, what the students planned to study, and how they achieved the goals of instructional and learning objectives were all identified during the analysis phase.

3.3.2 Design phase

The product prototype was designed through a paper-based design. The activities were: (1) the core competencies, basic competencies, indicators, and learning objectives were determined and written; (2) materials of recount text were written; (3) a reading comprehension test was constructed. Recount reading materials about tourist destinations of Palembang were developed based on the reading levels of students. The readability of the recount reading materials was calculated with Flesch-Kincaid. The calculation was done with web-based readability tools.

3.3.3 Evaluation and revision phase

The authors used Tessmer's (1993) formative evaluation strategy during this phase. The formative evaluation process included five stages: self-assessment, expert review, one-to-one evaluation, small group evaluation, and field test. The writers examined the content, structure, and media quality output during the self-evaluation stage. Following that, the components of the product's validity, which were content, construct, and media, were reviewed by an expert.

3.4 Data Collection

Questionnaires and a reading comprehension test were employed for data collection of the study. First, the questionnaires were examined by a senior instructor and two university professionals in this field. Next, in determining the validity and practicality, analyzing the student responses to the final product was conducted. Finally, a reading comprehension test was administered to establish the potential effect of the developed learning material.

3.5 Data Analysis

The data were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. The questionnaire and reading comprehension test data were quantitatively analyzed by the researchers. The qualitative method was used to comprehend and characterize the information gleaned from the interviews. During one-to-one and small-group evaluations, data was collected using a questionnaire based on expert reviews and student responses. The data were then enumerated and classified according to specific criteria to stipulate the validity and practicality of the product. During one-to-one and small group evaluations, the data obtained from the comments and ideas given by English teachers and students were examined to provide more information about the product practicality. Simultaneously, the reading comprehension test results were used to determine the product's potential effect. For example, if 79.16 percent of students earned the required passing grade of 60, the product might affect the students.

4. RESULTS

This section presents the findings at each research design stage, from analysis to assessment and revision.

4.1 Analysis Phase

Three analyses were performed to elicit knowledge about the tenth-graders: instructional, the level of reading and needs analysis. The following sections summarize the findings of each analysis.

4.1.1 Instructional analysis

The purpose of an instructional review was to determine the indicators and objectives of English learning for tenth-grade students in their second semester. The study focused on the Indonesian Curriculum 2013 used at the school. The reading materials produced were extracted from the core and basic competencies as stated in the curriculum—the recount text learning materials aligned with the basic competence 3.7 and 4.7.

4.1.2 Need analysis

A student need analysis was carried out to gather information about their reading material requirements, and the students' needs were obtained from the English teacher's point of view. The target situation analysis (TSA), deficiency analysis, present situation analysis (PSA), and strategy analysis were all part of the needs analysis. The student's perception was reflected in the percentage of responses to every question on the questionnaire. A questionnaire of 25 questions was distributed to 36 tenth-grade students. The following points was highlighted based on the findings of the students' needs analysis:

- English was viewed as an important subject for the advancement of the students' field, subject matter, and profession.
- English proficiency was determined to be at the beginner level for the students.
- The students encountered some challenges in developing their reading comprehension skills.
- The required writing assignments comprised recounted texts.
- The most frequently occurring question types were multiple-choice and essay.
- It was critical to integrate English reading materials with subject-matter materials.
- English teachers supplemented their students' materials with texts from specific sources.
- Students' knowledge of Palembang culture was superficial.

- There was a dearth of English-language resources on Palembang culture.
- Palembang local culture was incorporated into students' reading materials to increase their knowledge of the culture, advance their study program skills, encourage cultural awareness, and improve their skills in reading proficiency, particularly text comprehension.
- The students require indigenous cultural tourism destinations in Palembang for their future in their working place.

4.1.3 Students' reading level analysis

The study was conducted to ascertain students' reading levels as the readability levels of the recount text corresponded to students' reading levels. The following are the results of the test.

Table 2. The distribution of students' reading level analysis.

Text level	**Reading level category**					
	Independent (correct number=7-8)		**Instructional (correct number = 5-6)**		**Frustration (correct number= ≤4)**	
	NOS*	%	NOS*	%	NOS*	%
L1	11	30.56%	8	22.22%	17	47.22%
L 2	9	25.00%	11	30.56%	16	44.44%
L 3	9	25.00%	15	41.67%	12	33.33%
L 4	4	11.11%	18	50 %	22	61.11 %
L 5	0	0%	12	2.78%	24	66.66%
L 6	0	0%	2	5.56%	34	99.44%
L 7	0	0%	0	0%	36	100%
L 8	0	0%	0	0%	36	100%

*NOS = Number of Students
* L = Level

As seen from the distribution of reading levels above, students were already at the instructional stage (50 percent) at level 4. Due to the students' instructional category distribution at level 4, it could be assumed that their reading level was level 4. The IRI test result showed that the student's reading level was 4. Since most students were classified as instructional level 4, the reading text levels were 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6.

4.2 Design Phase

This study aimed to create a collection of recount text reading materials about Palembang's tourist destinations. The authors created and adapted the stories and the images which were found on the internet. Due to the implementation the Curriculum 2013, some information regarding tourist destinations has been written in the form of recount texts and used it in English classes. Most of them were texts translated into English from Bahasa Indonesia. These recount texts were reviewed by validators for compatibility after being translated, adapted, and developed. By using a Flesh Kincaid online tool, it was possible to check the readability levels of the texts.

4.3 Evaluation and Revision

Certain changes were required during one of the evaluation phases, and the product needed to be updated before proceeding to the subsequent evaluation phase. Tessmer's (1993) formative evaluation process was used in this phase, which covered self-evaluation, one-to-one evaluation, small group evaluation, and field test. The evaluation phase was conducted to elicit feedback from experts and students to improve quality and to ascertain the validity (via expert analysis), practicability (via one-to-one and small group evaluations), and potential effects of the texts (in field trial phase).

4.3.1 Self-evaluation

In this phase, the developed Palembang-tourist-destination recount text reading materials were evaluated. From the self-evaluation phase, it was easy to find the ungrammatical sentences, misspellings, and redundant words and revise them.

4.3.2 Expert review

Three validators checked the appropriateness of the texts in terms of content, construct, and media. It was intended to obtain expert feedback or suggestions on the developed texts to enhance its quality. Then, to determine the validity level of the texts, the average score from each validation sheet (validation sheet of content, construct, and media) was calculated, and the validity categorization interpreted the results. The results of the validity levels of the text are described in Table 3.

Table 3. The results of validity levels of the product.

No.	Aspects	Average score	Interpretation
1	English (content)	3.92	Very high validity
2	Instructional design (construct)	3.03	High validity
3	Media	4.00	High validity
	Total average score	3.65	Very high validity

The average score was used to determine the text overall validity. According to the results, the average score was 3.65, indicating a very high level of validity. As a result, the developed recount text reading materials for Palembang-tourist-destinations were both valid.

4.3.3 One-to-one evaluation

This procedure involved three students using and studying the established Palembang-tourist-destinations recount text reading materials. One student was with a high level of English proficiency, the second with a medium level of English proficiency, and the third with a low level of English proficiency.

The acquired scores were obtained and evaluated in the practicality category. The average score from three students on the total 15 items of the questionnaire was 3.55, indicating a high degree of practicality. Therefore, it can be concluded that the established Palembang-tourist-destinations recount text reading materials were useful and realistic. Table 3 shows the results of practicality in one-to-one evaluation.

Table 3. Results of practicality in one-to-one evaluation.

Aspects	Average score	Remarks
The appropriateness between material and students' needs	3.44	Very high practicality
Content presentation	3.40	Very high practicality
Exercise and evaluation aspects	3.58	Very high practicality
The attractiveness of the content	3.78	Very high practicality
Total average score	3.55	Very high practicality

4.3.4. Small group evaluation

The developed texts were distributed to nine tenth-grade students from one vocational school in Palembang, with three students having low English proficiency, three with medium English proficiency, and three with high English proficiency. Students who had engaged in one-to-one evaluations were no longer allowed to engage in small group evaluations.

The average score from nine students on the total 15 items of the questionnaire was 3.35, indicating a very high degree of practicality. Therefore, the established recount text reading materials about the Palembang-tourist-destinations were realistic and very practical. Furthermore, the total average practicality of one-to-one assessment and small group evaluation was 3.45, indicating a very high degree of practicality. Therefore, the established recount text reading materials about Palembang-tourist-destinations were practical and classified as having a high practical standard. The results of the practicality test in small group evaluation were listed in Table 4.

Table 4. The result of practicality in small group evaluation.

Aspects	Average score	Remarks
The appropriateness between material and students' needs	3.30	Very high practicality
Content presentation	3.29	Very high practicality
Exercise and evaluation aspects	3.50	Very high practicality
The attractiveness of the content	3.30	Very high practicality
Total average score	3.35	Very high practicality

4.3.5 Field trial

The field trial was intended to assess the potential effect of the developed texts. Therefore, students who participated in one-to-one and small group evaluations were excluded from the field trial. The researchers used multiple-choice questions to assess the product's potential effects on the students. Furthermore, recount texts about Palembang tourist destinations were offered to stipulate the potential effect of the developed texts on the students' passing grades.

This stage gave information about whether the developed texts could be implemented and had a potential effect or not. It was conducted in four meetings. The first until the third meetings focused on teaching the developed texts. A reading comprehension exam was given during the fourth meeting to measure the possible effect. Figure 1 depicts the results of the students' reading comprehension test performance.

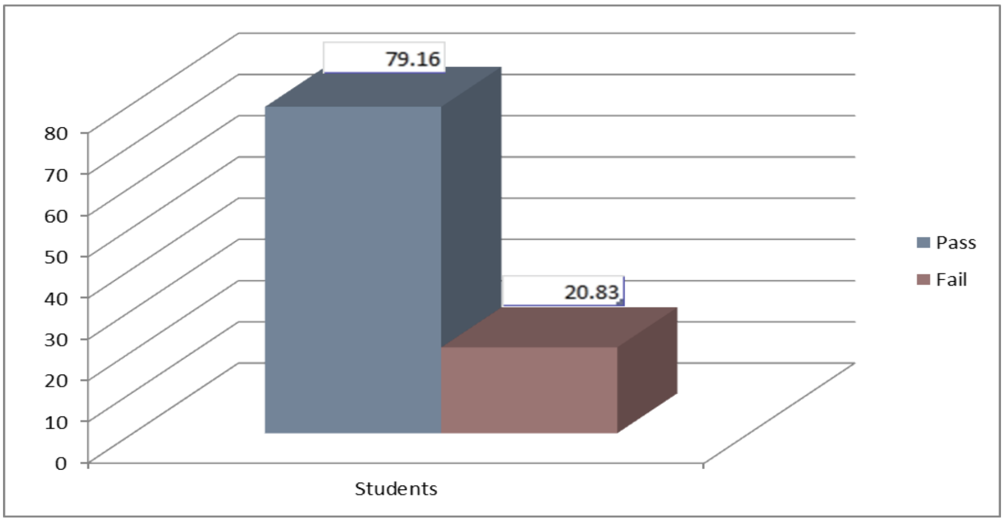

Figure 1. Students' achievement in reading comprehension test.

The reading comprehension test results show that 19 of the 24 students who took the field test attained the demanded passing grade of 60. As 79.16 percent passed, it can be concluded that the texts had a fair, effective level.

5. DISCUSSION

5.1 Analysis Phase

The final product was a collection of reading materials about tourist destinations in Palembang for the tenth-grade students majoring in travel agents. The prototype used Akker's (1999) model for analysis, design, assessment, and revision. During the research phase, three types of analyses were performed to collect information on the tenth-grade students: instructional analysis, student needs analysis, and student reading level analysis. The indicators and learning objectives of the instructional review required students to respond to recount texts about Palembang-tourist-destinations actively. The students would comprehend and appreciate local tourist destinations through the recount texts. As a result, the students might meet the learning objective of capturing and reflecting on the values of the recount texts. The teacher developed reading materials introducing local tourist destinations, particularly those in Palembang. Additionally, incorporating the students' native culture into the reading texts to meet their program-specific needs would provide some benefits. According to Sopian et al. (2019), Elviana et al. (2020), Nafiah (2020), and Azizah et al. (2021), providing culturally relevant resources could both encourage and improve students' reading comprehension. According to their findings, most students passed the reading comprehension test.

Teachers encountered obstacles while developing the materials, including a lack of references, a lack of skills in developing materials, difficulties in conceptualizing and writing the content, a lack of expertise in the students' field, confusion about which media to use, and time limitation (Gula, 2022; Metboki, 2018; Syamsinar & Jabu, 2015). Factors such as student participation, curriculum and context, resources and facilities, confidence and competence, digital right compliance, and time must be considered when designing materials (Howard & Major, 2004). Teachers must develop their confidence and expertise while managing their time effectively. They should make an effort and develop materials following Regulation No. 14 of the Republic of Indonesian Ministry of National Education (Ministry of Education and Culture of the Republic of Indonesia, 2005). The capacity to generate resources is one of the needed teaching competencies. Most reading passages in the course books were irrelevant for the student's reading skills. Therefore, it was necessary to evaluate the readability of the reading texts developed to guarantee that they met the students' reading levels. Readability is the degree to which a text relates to its intended and actual readers (Wray & Janan, 2013). Culture is an unnoticed tool in English teaching methods that facilitates and accelerates English learning. Additionally, it broadens students' horizons through exposure to new practices, traditions, cultures, and languages. Teachers can achieve excellent results regarding their way of life if they address cultural factors while teaching (Jumanova & Makhmudov, 2020).

5.2 Design Phase

There were various steps in the design process of the final texts, i.e. generating indicators and objectives, acquiring information about Palembang's indigenous culture, summarizing, and writing descriptive reading materials, assessing reading levels, and developing the test of reading comprehension. In addition, the following operations were also included in the procedure:
1) Providing a detailed explanation for the developed texts.
2) Preparing the presentation materials.
3) Creating the cover for the generated texts.

The principles of good instructional design should be followed while creating reading resources. The resources for English language training should be real, relevant, and valuable to the students, as well as engaging, aesthetically pleasing, and motivating students to create their skills in learning (Howard & Major, 2004; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Mukundan et al., 2016; Richards, 2001; Tomlinson, 2012).

5.3 Evaluation and Revision

Following the completion of the design process, the product was evaluated and commented on self-evaluation. It was a one-of-a-kind formative evaluation method. At this point, the generated text language, structure, content, and presentation were inspected and updated for apparent problems. Three experts assessed the developed text content, instructional design, and media validity. The topics selected were all age-appropriate and at the students' readability level. The information on the chosen topics was real, proper, and beneficial to the students, particularly those pursuing a career as a travel agent. According to the students' comments, the generated texts were evaluated in one-to-one and small group settings and found to be useful, attractive, and applicable. The students also provided input on the final output. At a Palembang vocational high school, the generated texts were field-tested on its intended audience of the tour and travel major to see if it had a potential effect, was implementable, and was approved by the students. The developed texts were confirmed practical and usable based on the students' response following the field test. These texts were believed to have a potential effect based on the reading comprehension results. These findings appeared to be in line with the previous studies conducted by Inderawati et al. (2018), Mahardika (2018), Sopian et al. (2019), Elviana et al. (2020), Nafiah (2020), and Azizah et al. (2021).

Based on the results of development research that local culture and reading materials make a significant contribution to students' reading skills in the 21st century learning through the development of teaching materials that are valid, practical, and useful. The implications of developing reading materials based on local culture are as follows. First, students taught reading based on local culture mean that they participate in preserving culture and customs. Second, vocational school students can also experience learning English that is relevant to their major. The last implication is that students learn English by reading recount texts about local tourist destinations in Palembang.

6. CONCLUSION

English reading materials for students majoring Travel Agent should meet the requirements of their course of study. One strategy is to include students' native culture elements in the reading materials. Incorporating indigenous culture into EFL is to teach students how to communicate in English about their own culture and beliefs effectively. Additionally, it is believed that incorporating local culture into readings helps students improve their reading skills. Based on the findings in the evaluation and revision phases, the established texts were deemed accurate, realistic, and potentially effective even though limitations were found during the research, the technique of data submission was virtually conducted. Additionally, this established product met the reading level of students and aided their content review. This leads to the conclusion that this study's established recount text reading materials, which incorporate Palembang's local culture, can be applied to Vocational High School Travel Agent Majoring students.

Since the focus of the study was only on recount text reading material development, there must be some other topics the future researchers can conduct, such as developing descriptive and procedure text concerning Palembang tourism destinations or developing listening, writing, and speaking skills by using tourism destinations, not only from Palembang but also from other cities in Indonesia or other nations in the world.

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A Linguistic Study of English Double Negation and its Realization in Arabic

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Abstract

The studies on multiple negation have been conducted intensively in linguistics, but very few studies have focused on multiple negation in Modern Standard Arabic (MSA). Although multiple negation appears in informal varieties, researchers find it an important topic for research. First, as linguists, we believe that all kinds of language varieties are worth studying. Second, the complexity of the structure of multiple negation raises queries about the difficulties that Arab students will encounter when they attempt to translate them from English to MSA. Our study focuses on double negation (DN) because, unlike other types of multiple negation, it yields a positive interpretation. This paper begins with a review of studies on multiple negation in English, MSA, and other languages, using a framework of generative grammar and the minimalist program. We then report on our empirical study of 60 randomly selected Arab students of English who were asked to translate 20 sentences containing multiple negation into MSA. To determine whether the intensity of their exposure to English would impact their understanding of these negative English structures, the students studying at levels two and four were selected. The students' responses were quantitatively analysed. The results showed that MSA exhibits both DN and negative concord constructions. Moreover, the

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syntactic analyses of DN provided by Watanabe (2004) and Giannakidou (2000) concord with DN in MSA with some considerations. Additionally, all the sampled students had difficulty translating these types of sentences, indicating that intensity of exposure did not cause differences in performance.

Keywords: Arabic, English, double negation, negative concord, negative particles.

1. INTRODUCTION

Negation is a very interesting structure that has been intensively studied by researchers, possibly due to its numerous uses, applications, and, most importantly, different syntactic representations (see among others, Alhilali, 2020). The structure of negation can be classified as single negation, negative concord (NC), and double negation (DN). NC represents the existence of more than one negative element or multiple negation; however, single negation and NC are semantically similar because both result in a negative reading of sentences. Like NC, DN represents the co-occurrence of more than one negative marker in the same sentence, and yet DN yields a positive interpretation.

Zeijlstra (2004) claims that languages are classified in universal grammar into either NC or DN, and that these types do not coexist. However, the literature has shown this to be incorrect. In English, three types of negation are exhibited, namely single negation, NC, and DN. The following illustrations from Blanchette (2015) represent examples of English single negation, NC, and DN, respectively:

(1) The student is not sick.

(2) John did not paint the house with no brush.

(3) Speaker A: I didn’t know I wasn’t supposed to tell him.
Speaker B: You wasn’t WASN’T supposed to tell him.
‘It is not (necessarily) the case that you were not supposed to tell him.’

The study of DN has been neglected because it is mostly used in informal situations in English, and only in a limited way in formal situations. The importance of DN also lies in the fact that it deals with a significant area in English grammar which may cause confusion when translating sentences containing DN.

As in English, MSA also exhibits these three types of negation. Alsamara’i (2000) discussed negation in the fourth part of his book entitled *Ma’ani Alnahw* (the meanings of syntax) under the subtitle *Nafi a Nafi* (negation of negation). He explains that constructions such as the following represent DN in MSA:

(4a). ما ما محمد قائم
ma ma Mohammed qa?em
Neg Neg Mohammed awake
‘Mohammed is not not awake’

Example 4a is an answer to the interrogative sentence

(4b) ما محمد قائم؟

ma Mohammed qa?em
Neg Mohammed Awake
Isn't Mohammed awake?

The following is an example of NC in MSA:

(5) لم يذاكر الطالب بتاتا
*(Lam) yu-ðaker al-ţalebu batatan
Neg.past 3sm-study the-student N-word
The student did not study at all

Example (5) displays multiple negation in which two negative elements are used: the negative particle *Lam*, and the N-word *batatan*.

Regardless of this complexity, no study on DN in Arabic has been conducted. Thus, we suggest that this paper is the first attempt to study the DN construction in MSA, with the intention of checking whether our analysis aligns with the literature on multiple negation in general, and DN in particular. Moreover, our study also focuses on the difficulty that Iraqi Arab students of English may encounter when translating sentences with multiple negation, and the implications of these predicted difficulties.

The framework adopted in this study is Chomsky's generative grammar, with the generative syntax model and the minimalism program being used for the syntactic analysis (Chomsky, 1995). The quantitative method was used to analyse the students' translations of negative constructions from English to MSA. Accordingly, the research questions are:

1. Are there any accounts in the literature on the nature of DN in MSA?
2. Do these accounts on DN align with the nature of DN construction in MSA?
3. Can Iraqi-Arab students of English as a foreign language translate DN sentences correctly from English into MSA?
4. Does the intensity of exposure to English help these Iraqi-Arab students produce accurate translations of DN sentences from English into MSA?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Double Negation

It is clear that NC and DN are both present in English and MSA, but most of the studies in the literature highlight NC constructions and their relation to polarity items. Blanchette (2015) classified DN into two types: pragmatic double negation, and long-distance double negation. Pragmatic double negation, or 'metalinguistics' according to Horn (1989), is a structure in which one of the negatives in the statement repudiates a former statement. It has the feature of anaphoric negation. Long distance double negation, on the other hand, contains two negative elements placed so far apart from each other that an NC interpretation is impossible. The following examples from Blanchette (2015, p. 17) illustrate pragmatic DN and long distance DN, respectively:

(6) Denial context: You ate no breakfast this morning.
DN: I didn't eat no breakfast this morning. I had eggs.

(7) John didn’t paint [the house with no windows].

In example (7), the two negatives cannot assume a negative concord relation as they are split by a phrase margin, and the sentence can only mean that John painted a house with windows.

In explaining the phenomenon of NC, Giannakidou (2000) proposed that negative concord items cannot be approved through an indicative clause boundary. This characteristic can help to distinguish between NC and DN interpretations, as proposed by Ladusaw (1992). In DN constructions, the negative elements should be counted because they will cancel each other to produce a positive interpretation. In such cases, it is assumed that instances of sentences with DN include more than one negative clause within the sentence. This proposal aligns with DN construction in MSA as will be shown later under section (2.3). The following study by Haegeman (1995) , however, shows that the distinction proposed by Giannakidou (2000) cannot be generalised.

Haegeman (1995, p. 131) proposes that ‘NC is achieved [in West Flemish] in specific configurations; if the configurational requirements are not met, a DN reading is obtained’. She claims that, for the negative constituents to yield NC reading with *nie* in West Flemish, they must scramble, and all move leftward out of VP. We can summarize the configurational constraints as follows: the negation marker *en* is optionally present; if several negative constituents co-occur, they must occur to the left of *nie* to enter into an NC relation with *nie*. If one of these negative constituents occurs to the right of *nie*, then we will get a DN reading. The following examples from Haegeman (1995, p. 132) illustrate NC and DN readings, respectively:

(8) de Valère van niemand nie ketent (en)-was.
That Valère of no one not contented en-was
‘that Valère was not pleased with anyone’

(9) da Valère nie ketent van niemand (en) -was
That Valère not contented of no one en -was
‘that Valère was not pleased with no one’

Example (9) can be interpreted as ‘…that he was pleased with someone’ because, according to Haegeman, the configurational requirements are not met. The negative concord element *niemand* does not need to move leftward out of the VP. However, Watanabe (2004) argues that negative concord items are inherently negative, i.e., they can never be neutral. Therefore, he argues, they should undergo the process of feature checking. In support of this, Watanabe argues against the other arguments available on multiple negation. In his classification of constructions with multiple negation, Watanabe refers to den Besten (1986), who claims that negative concord covers at least two subcases, i.e., negative doubling and negative spread. Negative doubling refers to cases in which a sentential negative element co-occurs with a negative concord element. Negative spread, on the other hand, refers to sentences that involve two or more negative concords. The following are examples of negative concord and negative spread, respectively, taken from West Flemish (Watanabe, 2004, pp. 559–560):

(10a) da Valère niemand nie (en)-Kent
that Valère nobody not NEG-know
‘…that Valère doesn’t know anybody’

(10b) dat-ter entwine an niemand niets gezeid eet
that-there somebody to nobody nothing said has
'… that somebody didn't tell anyone anything'

The following Example (10c) is an example of double negation. It differs from 10a in word order.

(10c) da Valère nie niemand (en)-kent
that Valère not nobody NEG-know
'…that Valère does not know nobody'

Although Watanabe's (2004) discussion of NC and multiple negation is consistent with Haegeman (1995) and Haegeman and Zanuttini (1996) in many aspects, questions remain which highlight problems in their arguments. The argument here is that if we compare 10a and 10c, *niemand* in 10c is negative and results in DN, but how to avoid this reading in 10a in which we get an NC reading?

Previous studies (Horn & Kato, 2000; Kato, 1985; Sohn, 1995) show that the important Japanese examples shown below are negative polarity items and not negative concord elements. They are compared with their English counterparts.

(11a) John-wa nani-mo tabe-nak-atta
John-Top what-Mo eat-NEG-PAST
'John did not eat anything'

(11b) *John-wa nani-mo tabe-ta
John-Top what-Mo eat-PAST

Based on their assumption, example 11b is held to be ungrammatical because the negative polarity item *nani-mo* occurs alone in the sentence without a negation element to license its occurrence. According to analysis, this is strong proof that *nani-mo* and similar elements are not negative and are instead polarity items; hence, the final outcome is an NC sentence. This is an attempt to explain why the Japanese never contain DN.

Another analysis is provided by Giannakidou (2000), who calls negative concord elements emphatic when they are stressed and used in elliptical answers, as an example (12):

(12) Q: Ti idhes?
What saw-2SG
'What did you see?
A: TI POTA[1]
Nothing

She argues that it is unnecessary to state that emphatics are inherently negative because the ignored part contains the negation marker that licenses and this argument is supported by Déprez (1999, p. 408, 2000, p. 270). Giannakidou (2000) gives the following illustration:

(13) TI POTA [dhen idha]
Nothing NEG saw-1SG

[1] Capitalization indicates that the word is stressed to show that it is used for emphatic.

Watanabe (2004), however, suggests that the idea that NC words are inherently negative provides a straightforward explanation for their use in elliptical answers to convey negation. Watanabe explains that *nani-mo* is inherently negative, unlike polarity items which are licensed by a negative marker. The neg-features of polarity items are uninterpretable and need to be raised to a position where these features are checked.

Watanabe (2004) thus applies to Japanese the four diagnostic tests proposed by Vallduví (1994) to distinguish between concord and polarity to show that *nani-mo* is a negative concord and not a polarity item. These tests include: (1) negative concord items must appear in negative contexts, (2) they can appear above negation in the preverbal subject position, (3) they can co-occur with expressions like almost, and (4) they can be used as an elliptical answer. To these four, Giannakidou (2000) added a fifth test; that cannot be licensed across an indicative clause. Test four is most related to our study: NC elements can be used as an elliptical answer in MSA. He also shows that Giannakidou's analysis is weak because she argues that the affirmative open proposition *idhes*, saw-2SG, is the antecedent of the negative open proposition *dhen idha*, not saw-1SG.

However, assuming that Giannakidou's argument is weak and that negative concord words are inherently negative, this analysis still has to account for instances in Japanese and similar languages in which NC elements co-occur with negative words and yield negative concord interpretations and not double negation (cf. Hazem & Kanaan, 2020).

Watanabe (2004) argues that all NC elements should be inherently negative and that NC constructions should be explained and understood through the theory of feature checking. Therefore, he adjusted Haegeman and Zanuttini's (1991) Neg-Criterion in terms of feature checking[2]. Haegeman and Zanuttini (1996) and Watanabe (2004) all agree that concord elements are inherently negative. However, unlike Watanabe, they have the following proposal: in West Flemish, Neg-head alone cannot support sentential negation. It cannot occur alone, and also the NegP can be null, or it can be realized by the clitic *en*. In their opinion, this indicates that Neg-head is not inherently negative. It has uninterpretable features which need checking with concord elements and hence yield negative interpretation. The following is an illustration of an ill-formed sentence followed by the grammatical one:

(14a) *… da Valère dienen boek en-eet
that Valère that book NEG-has
'…that Valère doesn't have that book'

(14b) … da Valère dienen boek nie en-eet
that Valère that book not NEG-has
'…that Valère doesn't have that book'

However, Watanabe (2004) argues that this goes against Chomsky's (2000) agree and move approach, in which the goal must be active for Agree to occur. He postulates that this problem can be accounted for if we assume that Neg-head in

[2] Neg-criterion reads as follows (Haegeman, 1995, p. 106):
A NEG-operator must be in a Spec-head configuration with an X˚[NEG];
An X˚[NEG] must be in a Spec-head configuration with a NEG-operator.

Japanese and similar languages have an EPP and thus need the Spec to be filled; in this context, it is filled with a negative concord element. Watanabe argues that both negative concord elements and the head of NegP both carry interpretable features, and this accounts for elliptical answers and simple sentential negative sentences. In addition, this solves the problem of needing both the concord and head to be interpretable in languages that prohibit DN.

Watanabe (2004) claims that to block double negation in languages like Japanese, concord elements are expected to be indicated by the morphophonological realization of the features that drive Agree. He argues that some uninterpretable features must be thrown into force Agree between the Neg head and the concord item. He claims that if the final interpretation of the sentence with multiple negation is DN then this indicates that negative concord elements appear without an uninterpretable focus feature. He adds that if this proposed uninterpretable focus feature has an overt realization then DN reading is not possible. However, if the language does not display focus morphology, the presence of an uninterpretable focus feature becomes optional and hence we get either reading; DN or NC. For example, in Japanese, as illustrated in example (11a) above, the negative concord word *nani-mo*, what-Mo, displays a focus morphology which is *Mo* in this example. This results in blocking any occurrence of DN constructions in Japanese. In contrast, West Flemish does not display any overt focus morphology, and thus it is assumed by Watanabe that DN reading occurs when no focus morphology is attached to negative concord elements. On the other hand, if an uninterpretable focus feature is attached to concord items, then this results in a final NC construction in which the focus element moves for feature checking and yields a negative reading. This proposal is compatible with the structure of DN in MSA with some modifications as illustrated later in this article.

2.2 Negation and DN in MSA

MSA consists of five main negative particles. The five negative markers in Standard Arabic (*laa*, *lam*, *lan*, *laysa*, *and maa*) can be inflected for tense and agreement. While *lam* and *lan* are inflected for tense, *laysa* inflects for agreement and is only compatible with the present tense, and *laa* inflects for neither tense nor agreement. *Maa*, like *laa*, inflects for neither tense nor agreement, but as well as negating verbs, it can also negate NP (see among others, Kamil & Haem, 2019).

DN construction in MSA is rarely introduced or discussed in grammar books. Alsamara’i (2000), among others, discussed this construction in the fourth part of his book entitled *Maʕaani Alnaħw* (The Meanings of Syntax), under the subtitle *Nafi a Nafi* (Negation of Negation). He explained that constructions such as the following represent DN in MSA:

(15a) ما ما محمد قائم.
maa maa Muħammad-un qaaʔim-un
Neg. Neg. Muhammad- NOM awake- NOM
‘Mohammed is not not awake’

The above example is an answer to the following question as shown earlier:

(15b) maa Muħammad-un qaaʔim-un
Neg. Muhammad- NOM a wake- NOM
‘Isn’t Mohammed awake’

The following is another illustration of DN in MSA:

(16) لا اريد ان لا اذهب
laa ʔuriid-u ʔan la ʔaðhab
Neg. want. 1st sing. to Neg. go
'I do not want not to go'

Alsamara'i (2000, p. 229) added that DN in Arabic is expressed both explicitly, as illustrated in Example 18, and implicitly through the 'negation of the meaning', as illustrated in the following sentences from his book:

(17) ما منعك ان لا تعتذر
maa manʕak ʔan la taʕtaðir
what prevented -2sp from Neg 3sm (present) apologize
'What prevented you from not to apologize?'

Alsamara'i (2000) explains that the two negatives produce a positive sentence, and the person did apologize. He adds that if the sentence were negative and the person had not apologized, the sentence would have been constructed as follows:

(18) ما منعك ان تعتذر
maa manʕak ʔan taʕtaðir
what prevented -2sp from apologize
'What prevented you from apologizing?'

Thus, in example 17, the two negatives, the semantically negative verb, *manʕk* with the negative particle *la*, negate each other, resulting in a positive interpretation. To conclude, it is clear from the above discussion that DN is a universal structure and does occur in MSA.

2.3 Multiple Negation in English and MSA

Comparing DN in both English and MSA, we noticed the following. First, pragmatic negation exists in both languages, the following are examples from English and MSA respectively:

(19) I didn't know I wasn't supposed to take the money.
You wasn't wasn't supposed to take the money.
(from Blanchette, 2015)

(20) Ma ma nam Mohammed
Neg Neg slept Mohammed
(It is)Not (that) Mohammed didn't sleep

Second, long distance negation as defined by Blanchette (2015) exists in both English and MSA. However, we noticed that English illustrates sentential double negation in two forms. In the first form, the sentence is complex, and the two clauses of the sentence include one negative marker each and the final interpretation of the sentence is positive. The second form is a simple negative sentence which includes two negative markers yielding a final positive interpretation, too. Interestingly, all the sentential double negative sentences presented by the Arab grammarians exemplify long distance DN of the first form. The researchers did not find a single illustration for sentential double negation in MSA in which the two negative markers co-occur in the same clause. The following are illustrations of long-distance negation from MSA and English respectively:

(21) La ʔu-ridu-ha ʔn La ta-ʔti
Neg 1S-want-her that Neg 3rds.f-comes
I don’t want that she does not come./ I don’t want her not to come.

(22) John didn’t paint [the house with no windows].

The following, however, is an example from English illustrating the co-occurrence of negative elements in the same clause and yielding a positive reading.

(23) She ain’t got no class.

In Example (21), we have two clauses and both of them include the negative marker *La*. The second clause includes the complementizer *ʔn*, followed by the negative particle *La*.

In example (22), the negative elements are separated by boundaries and as claimed by Giannakidou (2000) make it impossible for them to enter into concord relation; the final interpretation is positive. Sentence number (23) though simple includes two negative elements and yields a positive interpretation.

A point to highlight in DN in MSA is that the negative marker *La* is always used in the second clause. However, in the first clause, negation is indicated either by one of the negative markers used in MSA or by a semantically negative verb. The following is an illustration.

(24) لن استطيع ان لا أقول
Lan ʔ-astaţeç ʔn La ʔ-qul
Neg.future 1sts-can that Neg 1sts-say
I will not be able not to say.

(25) لم استطيع ان لا أقول
Lam.past ʔ-astaţeç ʔn La ʔ-qul
Neg.past 1sts-can that Neg 1sts-say
I could not not say.

(26) ليس باستطاعتي ان لا أقول
Laysa bi.istaţaça.ti ʔn La ʔ-qul
Neg in-1sts.ability.my that Neg 1sts-say
It is not in my ability not to say.

(27) ما استطعت ان لا أقول
ma ʔastaţaç.tu ʔn La ʔ-qul
Neg.past 1sts-can. that Neg 1sts-say
I could not not say.

However, substituting the negative particle *La* used in the second clause with one of the other types of negative markers in MSA yielded ill-formed sentences. The following is an illustration:

(28) لا اريدها ان لم/لن/ليس/ما تعتذر
La ʔu-ridu-ha an (* Lam/Lan/Laysa/Ma) ta-ʕtaðir
Neg 1sts-want-her that (*Neg) 3rdf-apologize

As native speakers of MSA, we attempted to create a DN sentence in which a negative concord is used to check if the result would be an incorrect sentence. The following is an illustration:

(29) لم يوافق ان لا يُحضِر(و لا) شيء للحفلة
Lam yu-wafiq ʔn La yu-hder wa-la ʃaiʔ l-il-hafla
Neg 3rdsm-agree to Neg 3rdsm-bring and-Neg thing to-the-party
He did not agree not to bring nothing/something to the party.

It is interesting to note that the sentence is correct and that it yields a positive reading.

Following Watanabe (2004), therefore, we have two assumptions. We assume that the negative elements participating in sentences with DN in MSA; negative particles, and negative concord words, are all inherently negative. We also assume that there is an uninterpretable focus feature attached optionally to the negative concord markers which explain the positive final reading of DN constructions in MSA. It is worth mentioning that the occurrence of negative concord elements in sentences with DN in MSA is optional as shown in (29). This distinguishes MSA from languages like West Flemish and Japanese.

However, NC constructions show a different characteristic from the description presented in the literature. Negative concord elements are never used in the construction of NC; NC structure always includes a negative particle and an N-word, as illustrated earlier in (5). Besides, Example (5) shows that the omission of the negative marker *lam* will render the sentence ungrammatical in sentences in which N-words are used. In this case, Watanabe's (2004) assumption that NC structures are distinguished from DN construction by the presence or absence of an optional uninterpretable focus feature needs to be reconsidered in MSA. The assumption is applicable to other languages, and it helps in explaining how the positive reading is arrived at in constructions with multiple negation in MSA, but it cannot be used to distinguish NC constructions from DN constructions because, in NC constructions, negative particles do not co-occur with negative concord elements as in DN constructions.

3. METHODS

This study tested students' awareness of the structure and meaning of DN in the English language through their ability to translate accurately into their first language.

3.1 Participants

The researchers selected sixty Iraqi-Arab students in the English Department, College of Education, University of Al-Hamdaniya. Half of the students were selected randomly from study level two, and the other half were selected randomly from level four.

3.2 Instrument

The students were given an evaluation test which consisted of 20 English sentences randomly collected from several grammar books and websites. All the students were asked to translate the sentences into MSA. The sentences covered three types of negation, with fifteen representing double negation, and the remaining five divided between two sentences for negative concord and three for single negation (Appendix A). The sentences were arranged as follows. Sentences three, seven, and thirteen with single negation were distributed among the sentences on double negation to check the students' ability to translate sentences with single negation. Instances of simple sentential negation were also important for bringing the two structures, simple negation, and multiple negation, into contrast to help the students notice the differences between them. Sentences nineteen and twenty were samples of negative concord. Although this type of negation is rarely used in English, the aim of including this was to check if the use of more than two negative elements in a sentence would make the students produce a different translation and interpretation if they did not know the rules on negative concord and double negation.

Various types of negative elements were used in the sentences representing double negation. In some, the negative element 'not' occurs first attached to an auxiliary verb and the second negative element is 'no', which occurs independently before nouns or adjectives, such as:

(30a) She ain't got no class.

In the second type, the first negative element is also 'not' attached to an auxiliary verb and the second negative element is a negative concord:

(30b) I don't have nothing.

In the third type, the first negative element is a negative concord and the second is 'not' attached to an auxiliary verb:

(30c) Nobody can't cheat me.

In the fourth type, the first negative element is a negative concord and the second another negative concord:

(30d) No one will love nothing when it gets cold.

In the fifth type, the first negative element is the negative polarity item 'never' and the second a negative indefinite pronoun:

(30e) Never none shall be mistress of it.

The last type contains the first negative element 'not' attached to an auxiliary verb, with the second a negative prefix, i.e., in/un:

(30f) The price of the car isn't insignificant.

3.3 Data Collection

The sample was collected randomly from study levels two and level four. We assumed that level two students should have had less exposure to the grammar of English compared to level four students, which would be reflected in the performance of the students (cf. Salman & Hazem, 2022; Salman et al., 2022). The participants were informed that we needed them to translate the sentences into Arabic because we were doing research work. The test was demonstrated and collected on the same day for both levels. The students were expected to take the test seriously because the researcher who distributed the test was a staff member.

3.4 Data Analysis

The quantitative method was used to analyse the data. The number of correct and incorrect translations was counted first, and this is illustrated in Appendices B & C. Then the incorrect translations were classified into their types with the intention to check which of the structures included in the test were difficult to understand and why. The respondents of this study were coded as S1 for student number one, S2 for student number two, S3 for student number three, and so forth.

4. RESULTS

4.1 Results for Level Two Students

We analysed DN in MSA to see how far MSA concords with the analyses provided in the literature. It is worth repeating that very few references on DN in MSA were found, and those which include multiple negation present a plain descriptive discussion without reference to any framework.

Table 1 includes a summary of the number and percentage of incorrect translations produced by the level two and level four students. The results are presented in the same table to facilitate their comparison.

Table 1. Percentage of incorrect translations.

Level Two students							
Double negation	Incorrect translations %	Negative concord	Incorrect translations %	Single negation	Incorrect translations %	Untranslated sentences	Twice translated sentences: correct and incorrect
354 of 450	79%	16 of 60	27%	2 of 90	2%	47+7+4	2+1+03
Level Four students							
353 of 450	78%	24 of 60	40%	3 of 90	3%	30 +4+1	1+0+0

[3] The first number refers to double negation constructions, the second to negative concord, and the third to single negation.

Generally, the level two students translated most of the DN sentences incorrectly, 354 of 450 were incorrect (79%). However, the students correctly translated 88 of 90 of the single negation sentences (98%), and there were 36 correct attempts of 60 for the negative concord sentences (60%). Significantly, not all the correct translations of sentences with double negation contained translations of the meaning. Thirty-one (66%) out of forty-seven correct translations were literal, the following sentence for example:

(31) No one will love nothing when it gets cold.
was translated by S24 as:
la aħad sawfa yarɣab bi-la ʃaiʔ ʕindama yabrud
Neg one will like for-Neg thing when 3rd p.s.mas. gets cold
'No one will like nothing when it gets cold'

The following is another illustration of the translation:

(32) Nobody can't cheat me.
was translated by S1 as:
la aħad la yastˁa tˁi:ʕ xida:ʕi
Neg body Neg 3rd p.s.mas- can cheat-1st P.s
'Nobody can't cheat me'

We noticed that in all of the incorrectly translated sentences containing multiple negation the students applied one of the following processes: dropping the negative element 'nothing'; replacing the negative element 'nothing' with *ʃaiʔ*, (a) thing/something, or *ʔei*, any; replacing the second negative with *ʔei*, any, dropping the negative element 'no' or 'not'; or, dropping both the negative elements 'nothing' and 'no' or 'not' for words with a semantically negative meaning, such as 'without'.

Table 2 illustrates the above processes using the six different types of negative sentences listed in the methodology section as models. The participants are selected randomly from the list of the level two students participating in the study:

Table 2. Illustration of the processes applied in the incorrect translation of the negative sentences used in the study.

Sentence number as ordered in the evaluation test	Negative sentences in English	Student's no.	Incorrect translations (their equivalents in English)	The process applied
2	She ain't got no class.	S1	She doesn't have a class.	Dropping of the second negative 'no'
		S6	She doesn't have a class.	Dropping of the second negative 'no'
		S14	She doesn't have any class.	Replacing 'no' with 'any'
		S29	She doesn't have any class.	Replacing 'no' with 'any'
8	I don't have nothing.	S2	I don't have a thing.	Replacing 'nothing' with the 'thing'
		S7	I don't have anything.	Replacing 'nothing' with 'anything'
		S17	I don't have anything.	Replacing 'nothing' with 'anything'

Table 2 continued ...

		S26	I don't have a thing.	Replacing 'nothing' with 'thing'
11	Nobody can't cheat me	S12	Nobody can cheat me.	Dropping of the second negative 'not'
		S13	Nobody can beat me.	Dropping of the second negative 'not'
		S20	Nobody can beat me.	Dropping of the second negative 'not'
6	No one will love nothing when it gets cold.	S4	Nobody loves when it is cold.	Dropping of 'nothing'
		S8	Nobody likes the thing when it is cold.	Replacing 'nothing' with 'thing'
		S11	Nobody will like it when it is cold.	Replacing 'nothing' with the pronoun 'it'
9	Never none shall be mistress of it.	S30	Not possible to be mistress to me.	Dropping of 'never'
		S24	Don't be obsessed by him.	Dropping of 'never'
		S10	Nobody must cling to things.	Dropping of 'never'
16	The price of the car isn't insignificant.	S28	The price of the car is not important.	Replacing 'insignificant' with 'important'
		S25	The price of the car is not important.	Replacing 'insignificant' with 'important'
		S19	The price of the car is not costly.	Replacing 'insignificant' with 'costly'
		S13	The price of the car is not costly.	Replacing 'insignificant' with 'costly'

4.2 Results for Level Four Students

Moving to the level four data, these results were more or less the same as for level two; the level four students translated 353 sentences with double negation incorrectly (78%). The number of correct translations of double negation was 66 (15%), and the remaining 30 were left untranslated (7%). The remaining sentence was translated twice by the same student, both correctly and incorrectly. Checking the correct translations, 24 of the 66 correct translations were literal (36%). The following exemplifies the literal translations and translations of the understood meaning, respectively. S11's translation of sentence 11 in Table 2 is explained in (33).

(33) Nobody can't cheat me

The sentence is translated as:

la aħad la yastˁa tˁi:ʕ xida:ʕi
Neg body Neg 3rd p.s.mas-can cheat.1st p.s.
'Nobody can't cheat me'

S15's translation of sentence 8 in Table 2 is presented in (34).

(34) I don't have nothing.

The sentence was translated as:

Ladei kulu ʃaeiʔ
have-1st p.s every thing
'I have everything'

Considering the last two sentences which instantiate negative concord, it was not expected that the level four students would make 32 correct attempts of 60; sentence 19 was translated 12 times correctly, and sentence 20 was translated 20 times correctly. The remaining attempts were either wrong or left untranslated.

It is also interesting to note that among the incorrect attempts to translate NC sentences was the attempt of some students to preserve two negative elements and drop the third one. For example, S5 literally translated sentence 19:

(35) Nobody ain't doin' nothing' wrong.

as

La yugad aħad La yuxtˤeʔ
Neg there is someone Neg does wrong
There is no one (who) does not do (something) wrong.

This also exists in the data of the level two students. S1 translated sentence 19:

(36) Nobody ain't doin' nothing' wrong.

as

La aħad la yuxtiʔ
Neg body Neg 3rd.s.mas-do wrong
'Nobody does not err' (meaning 'everybody errs')

Interestingly, the incorrect translations with multiple negation produced by the level four students revealed the same processes applied by the level two students.

Table 3 illustrates the processes using the six different types of negative sentences listed in the methodology section as models. The participants were selected randomly from the list of the level two students who participated in the study.

Table 3. Illustration of the processes applied in the incorrect translation of the negative sentences used in the study

Sentence number as ordered in the evaluation test	Negative sentences in English	Student's no.	Incorrect translations (their equivalents in English)	The process applied
2	She ain't got no class.	S1	She will stay without a class.	Replacing 'ain't got' with 'stay without', and dropping of 'no'
		S6	She doesn't go to the class.	Dropping of 'no'
		S16	She doesn't have a class.	Dropping of 'no'
		S27	She didn't get the class.	Dropping of 'no'
8	I don't have nothing.	S5	I don't have anything.	Replacing 'nothing' with 'anything'
		S8	I don't have a thing.	Replacing 'nothing' with 'thing'
		S18	I don't have a thing.	Replacing 'nothing' with 'thing'

Table 3 continued ...

		S11	I don't have a lot.	Replacing 'nothing' with 'a lot' / Dropping of 'nothing'
11	Nobody can't cheat me	S17	Nobody is able to cheat me.	Dropping of 'not'
		S20	Nobody is able to cheat me.	Dropping of 'not'
		S30	Nobody is able to cheat me.	Dropping of 'not'
6	No one will love nothing when it gets cold.	S18	Nobody will love a thing when it gets cold.	Dropping of 'nothing'
		S28	Nobody will like something when it becomes cold.	Replacing 'nothing' with 'something'
		S4	Nobody likes something when it is cold.	Replacing 'nothing' with 'something'
9	Never none shall be mistress of it.	S24	Nobody will be able to master it.	Dropping of 'never'
		S12	Nobody is able to do it.	Dropping of 'never'
		S10	Nobody adores that.	Dropping of 'never'
16	The price of the car isn't insignificant.	S5	The price of the car is not a lot.	Replacing 'insignificant' with 'a lot'
		S8	The price of the car is not important.	Replacing 'insignificant' with 'important'
		S12	The (price of the) car is, somehow, low in price.	Dropping of 'not'
		S16	The price of the car is nominal.	Dropping of 'not'

5. DISCUSSION

The results presented in the above section showed that DN can be a problematic area of English Grammar for EFL learners and translators. This may be due to three facts. First, DN is a neglected area in both English and MSA grammar, teachers and students may regard it as a structure which emphasises the negative meaning of the sentence. Second, the second negative marker emphasizes the first negative marker or the structure of multiple negation in MSA is not like the structure of multiple negation in English and some other languages.

We assume that most of the incorrect translations of sentences manifesting DN resulted from the students' attempts to produce a single negation though the positive final reading in some of the sentences was clear. Sentence number 11 is a strong proof of this assumption because the positive interpretation can be easily understood. This might be attributed to the differences in the structure of DN in MSA and English as the latter allows the co-occurrence of the two negative elements in the same clause whereas MSA as shown in section 2.3 does not allow such a construction. This characteristic in the structure of DN in MSA aligns with Giannakidou (2000) whose proposal that negative concord items cannot be approved through an indicative clause boundary implies that negative items in DN can only be approved across clause boundaries.

An interesting point to note is that in most of the cases in which a negative element is dropped or replaced, most of the students tended to drop or replace the second negative element in the structure. However, this was not the case when the students translated sentence number 9 in Table 2 and Table 3. The students in both levels dropped the first negative element 'never'. This finding is interesting because 'never' is considered an N-word in MSA which functions as a negative polarity item and not a negative particle.

Another interesting point is that the students never attempted to translate DN constructions in English as NC constructions though, as shown in section 2.3, NC in MSA allows the co-occurrence of negative elements within the same clause. They translated them as single negation. This might be accounted for if we consider Alanazi's (2013) proposal. Alanazi (2013) claims that N-words in MSA are slightly different from their counterparts in strict NC languages because they function as negative polarity items and not as negative concords. Besides, in their attempts to translate NC constructions, some of the students interestingly dropped or replaced one of the three negative elements constituting the NC sentences. In many of these cases, the students dropped the negative concord item 'nothing' or replaced it with the polarity element 'thing'. We assume that the students did so because NC constructions in MSA do not constitute a negative concord element. We assume that the replacement of the negative concord 'nothing' with the positive polarity 'thing' support Watanabe's (2004) assumption that these elements are inherently negative.

A point to highlight concerns the students' correct attempts at translating sentences with negative concord. We initially assumed that most of the students would fail to translate these sentences because the structure is informal and includes three negative elements. This could make the processing of the meaning more difficult. However, sentence 20 was correctly translated by the level two students 26 times, and 20 times by the level four students.

Unlike our expectations, the intensity of exposure did not have any positive impact on the students' performance. Most students in level two and level four translated most of the sentences with double negation incorrectly, with respectively 79% and 78% of the sentences being incorrectly translated. This is also manifested in the students' attempts at translating NC sentences; level four students produced 24 out of 60 incorrect translations, but level two participants produced 16 out of 60 incorrect translations.

What is more interesting is that all the students could have translated the sentences with double negation literally to obtain a structure closer to English if they found the structure new and difficult to understand; however, as the findings showed, 70 out of 113 correct translations were literal. Both levels of students translated some of these sentences according to their understanding of the semantic aspect of the sentence because we assume, they found the literal translation uncommon and weak.

Another point to note is the high scores in the number of correct translations of sentences 16 and 18. As shown, these sentences were the only ones with the structure 'not + aux --- un/in + adjective'. Although this result could have led to the claim that the second negative element, which occurs as a prefix attached to an adjective, was easier for the students to process, on checking the translations it appears that sentence 16, which was translated correctly 38 times, was translated 22 times literally. We assume that literal translation usually indicates that students are unsure of the meaning because they do not know the double negation rule, and thus they resort to an easier method of translation and that is the literal translation.

6. CONCLUSION

Generally, we conclude that DN in MSA is distinct from DN constructions presented in the literature. Moreover, the distinction between DN and NC construction in MSA is simple and straightforward because the latter never constitutes a negative concord element in its structure.

Based on the findings of the empirical study, the following conclusions can be drawn. Clearly, most of the participants did not know how to use DN, and a significant majority lacked the theoretical background on DN structures as used in English. Moreover, the large number of errors in choosing the right equivalent in MSA revealed that the students were influenced by the structure of the single negation itself. It is also pertinent to note that DN usually occurs in informal language styles, with which the students are unfamiliar as they are used to the more formal language structures in academia. The language structures in formal styles are usually straightforward, without double negation, making the content easier to understand. Perhaps the most important finding is the presence of DN in MSA in both formal and informal situations. However, this area of grammar is neglected in formal teaching, and therefore it may be concluded that although many students recognize the difference between single negation and DN in sentences, they cannot produce their exact equivalent in MSA.

Having said this, the study still has limitations. First, therefore, it is proposed that other studies include larger student samples for data collection. Second, the current study evaluated only data based on certain types of DN, so extending this to other types of DN would be beneficial. Third, noting the presence of DN in English and MSA, it is recommended that teachers of grammar draw their students' attention to this structure. This will help eliminate the problems that students have in understanding, using, and applying DN. Finally, this study has implications for further studies on the use of DN in formal language styles as found in journalism and political essays.

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APPENDIX A

Evaluation Test

Dear students of the Department of English, we have a research paper and we need to know your knowledge of a particular rule. Please translate the following English sentences into Arabic.

1. Ahmed won’t load nothing on the truck.
2. She ain’t got no class.
3. They will not be joining us for dinner tonight.
4. Ali doesn’t have no more time to practice the violin.
5. The driver couldn’t find no place to land.
6. No one will love nothing when it gets cold.
7. I had not returned to university.
8. I don’t have nothing.
9. Never none shall be mistress of it.
10. No one won’t pay to the college.
11. Nobody can’t cheat me.
12. They wouldn’t watch no games at the stadium.
13. The clouds were not blocking the sun’s rays.
14. No students couldn’t drive by the end.
15. The pilot can’t find no place to land.
16. The price of the car isn’t insignificant.
17. I won’t look for nobody when you closed my way.
18. It isn’t unnecessary to tell the truth all the time.
19. Nobody ain’t doin’ nothing’ wrong.
20. I don’t never have no problems.

APPENDIX B

	Level two students						
	Students’ responses						
	Number of sentences	**X**	**√**		**-**	**X √**	**Total no. of students**
Negative sentences	1	27			3		30
	2	24			6		30
	3		29		1		30
	4	30					30
	5	30					30
	6	25	3		2		30
	7		30				30
	8	27	1	1		1	30
	9	21		1	8		30
	10	23	6	1			30
	11	25	4	1			30
	12	27			3		30
	13	2	25		3		30
	14	13	4		13		30
	15	28			2		30
	16	8	11	8	3		30
	17	25			5		30
	18	21	2	4	2	1	30
	19	15	10		5		30
	20	1	26		2	1	30

APPENDIX C

	Level four students						
	Students' responses						
	Number of sentences	**X**	**√**		**-**	**X √**	**Total no. of students**
Negative sentences	1	27		2	1		30
	2	26		3	1		30
	3			30			30
	4	27		3			30
	5	26		1	3		30
	6	28	1		1		30
	7	1		29			30
	8	22		7		1	30
	9	16		1	13		30
	10	26	3	1			30
	11	26	2	1	1		30
	12	27		1	2		30
	13	2		27	1		30
	14	20	5	2	3		30
	15	26	2	1	1		30
	16	10	11	8	1		30
	17	27		1	2		30
	18	19	3	7	1		30
	19	15		12	3		30
	20	10		20			30

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Positive Politeness Strategies during Online Learning: A Cyberpragmatic Study

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Abstract

Language politeness and character education are crucial in the era of education disruption, particularly in terms of learning communication. Problems with language politeness happen when communication is mediated by electronic media, such as WhatsApp in particular, because it allows undergraduates to be more open in conveying their intentions, including to the lecturers regarding the learning goals. This study aims to describe the forms of language politeness during online learning in higher education. The study used a descriptive qualitative approach. The data of this study were utterances consisting of language politeness, and the data sources were undergraduates' utterances to their lecturer. The data collection techniques were documenting, reading, and note-taking. The data were analyzed through referential identity, extra lingual interactive model, and politeness strategies proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987) and Maricic (2000). Cyberpragmatic perspective perceives the positive politeness strategies with the help of external context, in this case, the virtual learning context, to find out whether there were positive politeness strategies in the utterances. The findings indicate that positive politeness strategies during online learning using cyberpragmatic approach are represented in six forms: paying attention, using identity markers, looking for agreement, avoiding conflict, creating humor, and showing an optimistic attitude. This study recommends that positive politeness strategies can be used as a pillar of developing and strengthening character education in learning, especially in universities.

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1. INTRODUCTION

The recent problems related to language politeness should be considered by undergraduates, teachers, lecturers, and societies because language politeness is successfully managed in a concrete context when undergraduates politely communicate with their lecturers. Studies in language politeness in the academic discourse between undergraduates and their lecturers should be encouraged. This is based on findings by Suntoro (2018) related to the presence of language impoliteness between undergraduates and their lecturer through WhatsApp text messages. The language impoliteness which occurred covers violation of wisdom, generosity, respect, modesty, congeniality, and sympathy principle. The skill in using language, the ability to understand context, and the intimacy are the factors causing the impoliteness.

Language politeness during online learning is crucial to achieving learning goals. Language politeness during online learning has got much attention from many researchers. Savić (2018) studied lecturers' perceptions on the impoliteness and politeness of undergraduates in the context of online learning. Other studies related to language politeness in online learning include politeness effects in math learning (Mikheeva et al., 2019), positive politeness in the academic course (Kusmanto et al., 2020), academic communication strategy through email (Balman et al., 2020), politeness in online learning (Basri et al., 2021) and directive politeness in online learning (Alfiansyah et al., 2021). Previous studies have resulted in interesting findings related to online learning language politeness. However, the perspective used in those studies was a pragmatic approach. Meanwhile, communication act analysis during online learning can be solid with cyberpragmatic approach because virtual communication analysis is different from communication analysis in general. Cyberpragmatic approach can give more comprehensive and relevant results for data involving online interaction because it considers virtual media used in communication.

On the other hand, understanding an utterance mediated by virtual media considers virtual context. The context involved in analyzing politeness acts during online learning differs from that in a pragmatics study because the context shift is considered by cyberpragmatic approach. Hence, the study aims to describe the forms of language politeness during online learning in higher education, and the cyberpragmatic approach will likely take aspects of language politeness mediated by virtual media into account. The research question to be answered in this research is: "What are the forms of the undergraduates' positive politeness during higher education online learning?"

The findings are beneficial to nurturing undergraduates' awareness and skills in communicating politely with their lecturers. Furthermore, the result of this research contributes to the development of pragmatics study, particularly cyberpragmatics, which has not been widely developed in linguistics and pragmatics study in Indonesia.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Cyberpragmatics

Communication act analysis performed virtually is different from the pragmatic analysis in a face-to-face context. Communication act analysis is virtually carried out by analyzing the context in more detail (Locher, 2013). The intended context is external, i.e. the virtual context (Rahardi, 2020). Context becomes a key in understanding an utterance that includes politeness or impoliteness category. In addition, a cyber speech study is referred to the cyberpragmatic study which the primary interest is in producing and interpreting information over the internet (Yus, 2011). Furthermore, cyberpragmatics is a study of internet-mediated communication (Yus, 2016). In short, cyberpragmatics is a study of language that pays attention to the internet-mediated context.

Furthermore, there are some fundamental implications of cyberpragmatic study:

(1) internet is a media used to achieve a communication goal,
(2) language messages can be interpreted through the internet,
(3) interpretation of internet-mediated communication requires contextual information for the message to be accepted, and
(4) different cyber media influence the quality of user's access to contextual information, the amount of information obtained, interpretation, the cognitive effect inherited, and the mental effort involved in obtaining those effects.

Speech analysis conducted through the internet aims to understand the intentions expressed by the speakers. In other words, the main aim of cyberpragmatic analysis is to determine the extent to which the quality of these cyber media affects relevant stimuli, how the quality which influences cognitive effect assessment is perhaps inherited, and how the mental effort is requested in return (Yus, 2011). In our study, utterances were analyzed in higher education online learning to know the quality of politeness utterances.

2.2 Cyberpragmatic Context

The context of a pragmatics study in the cyber era has undergone many changes. The changes happen because of communication situations that occur in virtual media. Situational context can be categorized into four details: (1) participant or speech participant, (2) participant's or speech participant's action, (3) another relevant speech situation, and (4) speech act effects (Halliday, 1975; Rahardi, 2016). The situational context that Halliday means is a context in face-to-face communication. Thus, a speaker's expression implicates the speech quality. It is different from the situational context in virtual communication in that the context, beyond the language, does not immediately represent communication quality.

Furthermore, Leech (2014) develops a theory on the context of the situation, the context of utterance or speech situation. According to Leech (2014), the context of the utterance situation can be categorized into five: (1) speaker and speech partner, (2) speech context, (3) speech objective, (4) speech as utterance act, and (5) utterance as verbal act product. Therefore, the situational context in the cyber era has been changed, which is dominated by one's goal of communicating through virtual media.

In addition, the context in the virtual era has shifted. Rahardi (2019) states that the context in the cyber era has undergone shifts, where the contexts included in the cyberpragmatic approach are social, societal, cultural, and situational contexts. In other words, Yus (2011) states that communication context covers cross-cultural differences, individual relationships with society, communication-specific contexts, social power, social distance, and coercion rating.

2.3 Language Politeness of Cyberpragmatics

Politeness utterance needs to be applied in every communication act, be it conventional or virtual communication. According to Yus (2011), politeness utterance is an obligation in both face-to-face and virtual communication act. However, some rules in conventional politeness do not become a convention in virtual communication.

Brown and Levinson (1987) and Maricic (2000) divide politeness into five strategies, i.e. direct, indirect, positive, negative, and silent strategies. Leech (2014) categorizes politeness into some principles, which include wisdom, mercy, acceptance, humility, compatibility, and sympathy; meanwhile, Pranowo (2012) divides politeness into humility, adjustment, face-saving, willingness to sacrifice, and reflection principle.

Based on the various forms of politeness which has been described, politeness utterance theories in online learning relevant to cyberpragmatics approach are Brown and Levinson's politeness model. Those various contexts should be adapted because not all politeness models proposed by Brown and Levinson are relevant to the study of language politeness in the cyber era.

Language politeness act in a cyber communication context has undergone some shifts. Not all politeness utterance models stated by Brown and Levinson are relevant to the study of virtually-mediated politeness utterance. At least two strategies can be applied in the study of politeness utterances in the cyber era, i.e. positive and negative politeness strategies. Positive politeness strategies in a virtual communication context cover: (1) considering speech partner's presence, (2) using an identity marker, (3) looking for agreement, (4) avoiding conflict, (5) communicating exaggeratedly, (6) involving humor, and (7) behaving positively. Meanwhile, negative politeness in a virtual communication context can be realized through: (1) fostering freedom of act, (2) minimizing threats, and (3) minimizing introduction (Maricic, 2000). Those politeness strategies depend on the virtual external context in online communication. Based on those language politeness strategies, positive politeness strategies are more relevant to be analyzed since the context deals with face-saving acts in communication. Moreover, the context of this study is related to the communication between the undergraduates and the lecturer, then there is a tendency for the undergraduates to save the lecturer's face.

3. METHODS

3.1 The Study

The study approach was descriptive qualitative (Banegas, 2020; Moodie, 2020). The qualitative approach in this study was used to describe language politeness forms during online learning. The data were utterances consisting of language politeness, and the data sources were utterances spoken by undergraduates to the lecturer. The data were collected from one of the Islamic higher education institutions in Surakarta. Javanese culture became the cultural background as the focus of the learning communication context because the undergraduates lived in Java. The number of undergraduates as the research subject was 121 students. WhatsApp was chosen because it was used as the main media to communicate during online learning, and thus the data of language politeness were easily collected. In collecting the data, all WhatsApp chats during the online learning were exported. The study on online learning language politeness is vital as the shift from offline to online learning tends to decrease communication skills, especially in terms of language impoliteness. Besides, Suntoro (2018) found out that language impoliteness happened between undergraduates and their lecturer through WhatsApp. Therefore, this study is the antithesis of the previous study.

3.2 Data Collection

The data were collected through documenting, reading, and note-taking techniques. The documents which were analyzed were communication acts through WhatsApp. The communication acts in WhatsApp were further extracted to form a document containing undergraduates' speech during the learning process. Furthermore, the documented communication acts were read to identify their politeness. Furthermore, polite and impolite data recordings were identified. The recording technique was done by recording the language data containing language guidance on the data card that had been prepared. Impolite language data was also done on data cards which had been prepared.

3.3 Data Analysis

The data were analyzed by using referential identity (Sudaryanto, 2015), an extra lingual interactive model (Sudaryanto, 2015), and politeness strategies (Brown and Levinson, 1987). The referential identity method was used to analyze the language used by undergraduates in the virtual communication, consisting of speech with polite or impolite meaning. The pragmatics method in this study was used to strengthen the analysis of the context of the language chosen by the undergraduates, both polite and impolite languages. The analysis of language acts in social media with a cyberpragmatic approach was performed by considering two aspects, namely the language use and context in communication, to determine whether a speech is considered polite or impolite.

4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The findings show that there are six positive politeness strategies during online learning based on cyberpragmatic perspective. The six language politeness strategies show differences with internet-mediated positive politeness strategies proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987), Maricic (2000), and Yus (2011). They are:

(1) paying attention to the speech partner,

(2) using identity markers,
(3) looking for agreements to avoid arguments,
(4) avoiding communication conflicts,
(5) involving humor to break the ice, and
(6) showing positive attitude in completing the task and the learning.

Meanwhile, the strategy that was not found in this study was exaggerating the speech. The six strategies are further discussed in the next sub-sections.

4.1 Paying Attention

Paying attention to speech partners in virtual communication during the online learning group is one of the language politeness forms. Attention is shown by the speech partner by greeting informally. Both formal and informal greetings are communication politeness markers (Prayitno et al., 2019). The following data show how attention was shown to the speech partner.

Data	Utterance	Context	Intention
1	*Assalamualaikum wr.wb.* *Selamat datang di kelas 7B, Pak* 🙏. *Mohon bimbingannya untuk satu semester kedepan* 🙏 (H, 25-8-2021) [Peace be upon you. Welcome to class 7B, Sir. Please supervise us for the semester ahead]	The lecturer was added to the course WhatsApp group by the chairman of the class.	Paying attention

The excerpt in (1) linguistically shows language politeness through the greeting in the expression "Peace be upon you", which in communication indicates a polite utterance (Prayitno et al., 2019). On the other hand, the undergraduate also friendly welcomed the lecturer to the group through the utterance "Welcome to class 7B, sir." Welcoming a speech partner in that situation is considered polite (Lee & Lee, 2022). It is a strategy used by the speaker to build communication with the speech partner (Flores-Salgado & Castineira-Benitez, 2018). Besides, the speaker also used a polite expression such as "Please supervise us in the semester ahead." It is essential to consider a linguistic expression when the undergraduate asks for help from the lecturer (Balman et al., 2020). The use of the linguistic term in the data shows politeness. Fedriani (2019) refers to the use of words 'sorry' and 'please' as signs of politeness. However, using the word 'sorry' in a specific context, such as insinuation, is considered impolite (Sumarti et al., 2020).

Paying attention in a virtually-mediated communication act in the cyberpragmatic perspective embodies language politeness. In an online learning context, the expressions of greetings and thanks are used to show language politeness in cyberpragmatic perspective (Yus, 2011). Thanking is considered as an expression that shows language politeness used by undergraduates to the lecturer (Lee & Lee, 2022). It shows that undergraduates adhered to the cultural aspect of virtual communication, as Javanese culture is attached to speaking manners (Mirmanto et al., 2021; Widiarti & Pulungan, 2020).

Paying attention in a virtually-mediated communication act in a cyberpragmatic perspective is the representation of language politeness. It is shown by the greeting expressed by undergraduates to the lecturer in the online learning context. In the beginning of the semester, the undergraduate contacted the lecturer and added him/her to the new online learning group in WhatsApp. At first, the undergraduate greeted, asked for supervision and thanked the lecturer. The communication performed by the undergraduate in a cyberpragmatic context shows the undergraduate's politeness to the lecturer.

4.2 Using Identity Marker

An identity marker in communication is a form of language politeness. This identity marker shows the speaker's self-image to reflect the speaker's culture (Ulfa et al., 2018). Therefore, an identity marker is used as a politeness marker in speaking. The following is an example of an utterance in which a self-identity marker is included.

Data	Utterance	Context	Intention
2	*Semangat Mbak Q* (L, 28-05-2021) [Keep it up, Ms Q]	The lecturer motivated an undergraduate to complete a task. The undergraduate was older than the lecturer.	Motivating by using an identity marker.

Excerpt in (2) is an utterance that shows language politeness by using an identity marker. The identity marker in that utterance is seen from the use of 'Q', which shows the intimacy between the speaker and the speech partner to express politeness. This is in line with what was found by Kim et al. (2021), i.e. showing communication politeness strategy by the use of an identity marker to show respect and intimacy. The identity marker 'Q' was intended to refer to the undergraduate's name.

Using an identity marker in virtual group communication shows intimacy and minimizes social distance (Yus, 2011). The lecturer can express it by calling the speech partner's profession. The realization of identity used in this study is referring the name, which shows the speaker's intimacy. It was strengthened by the utterance context which is the relationship between the undergraduate and the lecturer in the same undergraduate program.

The use of identity marker 'Q' becomes the convention for the undergraduate who was already acquainted with the lecturer so that it can be concluded that the presence of an identity marker is the representation of positive politeness in communication (Onn et al., 2018). Moreover, an identity marker emphasizes intimacy and agreement (Maros & Rosli, 2017). Without intimacy and agreement, conflict can potentially happen. In the case of a new undergraduate who is not acquainted with the lecturer, calling the lecturer's initial is surely considered impolite. Hence, the utterance, as shown in excerpt (2), is polite as it shows the effort of the speaker to make up solidarity with the speech partner.

4.3 Looking for Agreement

Looking for agreement and avoiding disagreement are language politeness forms. Following Jia and Yang (2021), the speaker should always compliment to achieve agreement and avoid disagreement. The following is an excerpt that shows an agreement.

Data	Utterance	Context	Intention
3	*Wah, bagus sekali Prof, puisinya.* (E, 19-10-2021) [Wow, the poem is so beautiful, Prof.]	The lecturer posted a self-written poem in the virtual group.	Looking for an agreement with the speech partner.

The excerpt in (3) is an utterance that presents language politeness in the form of a speech partner's agreement. It can be seen from the utterance that the speaker showed an agreement to the speech partner by saying that the poem that the speech partner sent was beautiful. This was done to avoid disagreement to the lecturer's poem. This is in line with Yus (2011), stating that the politeness strategy can be implemented by minimalizing disagreement towards the speech partner.

What the undergraduate uttered during the online learning shows language politeness. The representation of politeness is the agreement with the speech partner by uttering "Wow, the poem is beautiful, Prof". It happened when the lecturer sent a self-written poem to the undergraduates. Through the compliment that the undergraduate uttered, agreement as one of the politeness strategies was achieved. Therefore, for the communication to run well and the learning goal to be achieved during online learning, agreement with the speech partner should be achieved.

4.4 Avoiding Conflict

Avoiding conflict is the right choice to achieve the goal of communication. The speakers in their utterances should avoid disputes because it is close to impolite communication (Kurniasih et al., 2019). The following is the sample data that shows politeness in preventing conflict.

Data	Utterance	Context	Intention
4	*Nama saya kok ganti lagi buu. Kemarin istiqomah lho buu.* (LH, 10-10-2021) [Why do you change my name again, maam? Yesterday, you called me Istiqomah, maam.] *Oh Iya, Latifah.* (L, 10-10-2021] [I see, Latifah.]	The lecturer said the undergraduate's name incorrectly during online learning.	Avoiding disputes

The excerpt in (4) is an utterance that shows how the speaker avoided conflict. It is evident from the undergraduate's utterance, which says "Why do you change my name again, maam? Yesterday, you called me Istiqomah, maam". That utterance shows that the speaker tried to avoid conflict with the speech partner. The utterance "Why do you change my name again, maam?" is considered polite because the speaker did not directly blame the lecturer. In other words, the speaker avoided conflict as a politeness strategy. This positively impacted the learning process conducted online because the undergraduate saved the lecturer's face.

The context of the utterance is when the lecturer incorrectly called the undergraduate's name twice. However, the undergraduate showed politeness instead of disappointment to the lecturer. This means that the undergraduate applied politeness strategy by avoiding conflict. This is in line with the findings of the research conducted by Kurniasih et al. (2019), showing that Indonesian tend to avoid conflict in social media by applying politeness strategies. In the context of online learning, language politeness indicates a positive image of the undergraduates so that a better relationship with the lecturer is achieved. Thus, online learning communication that prioritizes politeness to avoid conflict helps both undergraduates and their lecturer achieve the expected learning goal.

4.5 Creating Humor

Humor involved in communication is one of the language politeness strategies that please the speech partner. Delighting the speech partner is helpful in achieving communication goals. Polite humor is not humor that is checking, but humor that tempts speech partners to laugh (Murphy, 2021). The following is an example of an excerpt that shows good manners in learning through creating humor.

Data	Utterance	Context	Intention
5	*Pak A ngunjuk lan dhahar rumiyin njih... kejenge fokus.* (Q, 17-10-2021) [Mr. A is about to eat and drink first. To be attentive.] *Oh ya dah waktunya makasih. Tapi, ga ada yang menemani* 😅😅😅😅 (A, 17-10-2021) [I see, it is the right time, thank you. But there is no companion.] 😅😅😅😅 (L, 17-10-2021)	The lecturer started the online class. However, one of the undergraduates did not realize that the class had started.	Creating humor.

The example shown in (5) is a form of language politeness performed by creating humor - the focus expressed by the undergraduate who is Mr. A's wife states "Mr. A is about to eat and drink first. To be attentive." Furthermore, Mr. A replied "Oh yes, it is the right time, thank you. But there is no companion 😅😅😅😅". Polite communication was achieved by creating humor. This is further reinforced by the context of the communication when the online lecture was conducted. The lecturer also appreciated the humor by sending laughing emoticons because the communication took place between the undergraduates who were husband and wife. Emoticons have relevance to the speech (Yus, 2019).

Creating humor during online learning can break the ice so that the speech partner is delighted. In addition, the humor is positive because it does not physically mock the speech partner. This is in line with Murphy (2021) stating that humor can be a language strategy that makes speech partners laugh. However, humor can also be negatively perceived if it is intended as a joke that insults speech partners (Terkourafi & Bezuidenhout,, 2021). In this case, the humor was not intended to offend the speech partners, so the humor involved can be categorized as a language politeness strategy.
Generally, humor can be used to save one's face. Humor is also required to make the speech partner happy (Kusmanto et al., 2019). In the context of online learning, humor

boosts intimacy between the undergraduates and the lecturer so that the quality of learning is improved, and an awkward situation can be avoided. Therefore, the learning is more engaging.

4.6 Showing Optimistic Attitude

Language politeness during online learning makes speech partners cooperative, confident, and motivated. Motivation during online learning is a key for a learner to complete the study. The following is an example of a speech that shows an optimistic response to the speech partner.

Data	**Utterance**	**Context**	**Intention**
6	*Bismillah semangat untuk kita semua teman teman.* (A, 28-10-2021) [In the name of Allah, keep it up for all of us, friends]	The lecturer knows that there is an article published in a journal.	Showing an optimistic attitude.

The excerpt in (6) is the representation of language politeness strategy produced by showing an optimistic attitude. The evidence is shown by the utterance "Bismillah, keep it up for all of us, friends". The expression is polite because it shows an optimistic attitude that influences speech partners to be confident and passionate in pursuing their studies. Optimistic expression in studying online is essential, which is in line with Kusmanto et al. (2020), i.e. language politeness provides a motivation to speech partners during online learning. Expressions that indicate an optimistic attitude will have a positive influence, both on the speaker and the speech partner.

Showing an optimistic attitude motivates the undergraduates and the lecturer during the learning process. Motivating the speech partners shows that communication is successful. The optimistic attitude as the representation of communication politeness shows an excellent communication (Hendrastuti, 2017). Therefore, both the undergraduate and lecturer optimistic attitude is crucially required in an internet-mediated online learning as it improves the quality of the learning process.

5. CONCLUSION

Based on the problems discussed in the introduction, positive politeness strategies during online learning were analyzed from cyberpragmatic perspective. Cyberpragmatic perspective perceives the positive politeness strategies with the help of external context, in this case, the virtual learning context, to find out whether there were positive politeness strategies in the utterances. The analysis results show that undergraduates applied six positive politeness strategies in an online class, listed in order as follows: (1) paying attention to the speech partner, (2) using an identity marker to show solidarity, (3) looking for an agreement to avoid a disagreement, (4) avoiding a conflict, (5) creating humor to break the ice, and (6) showing an optimistic attitude in completing tasks and studies.

Nonetheless, the data in this study are limited to an online learning context in higher education. In another more comprehensive study, the limitation can be anticipated, so that positive politeness strategies are widely found. The positive politeness strategies found in the process of online learning communication can be a communication alternative for undergraduates and lecturers.

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Nasal Verbalization of the Kanayatn Dayak Language

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Abstract

This research aims to study the feature of nasals in the Kanayatn Dayak language, spoken in West Kalimantan, Indonesia, and whether they are replacive or additive to particular initial phonemes of the root. The data were collected by recording and interviewing five informants of 45-55 years old native speakers of Kanayatn Dayak. Through the descriptive linguistics approach to describe the linguistic features of the nasals, this study revealed that the feature could be both replacive and additive, depending on the initial phoneme of the root word the nasals enter. These replacive and additive nasal verbalization processes function as class-maintaining and class-changing based on the root class to the nasals attached. As a replacive, the nasal verbalization process replaces the first phoneme of the root with nasals /m-/, /n-/, /ŋ-/, and nasal /ɲ-/. As additive verbalization, it is added to first phoneme of the root by employing allomorph /ma-/ and alternant /m-/, allomorph /am-/, allomorph /an-/ and alternant /n-/, and nasal /ŋ-/ and allomorph /ŋa-/. The replacive nasal verbalization makes the first phoneme of root covert. It is replaced with the replacive nasals. Then, the additive verbalization process maintains the first phoneme of the root staying overt. As a result, these additive nasals also create double homorganic-nasal oral consonants at the first phoneme of the verbs. The verbalization process involving additive allomorph only maintains the first phoneme of the root staying overt. In complex word formation, nasal verbalization creates active transitive and intransitive verbs.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Dayak is one of the ethnic groups in Kalimantan, Indonesia, while the Kanayatn is the subgroup of the Dayak ethnic. In West Kalimantan, Indonesia, the Kanayatn Dayak people, and language are spoken in 4 districts of 12 districts and two municipalities, namely Landak, Bengkayang, Mempawah, and Kubu Raya. Although the year of the source is not provided, it is informed that 280,000 speakers speak the language in West Kalimantan province (Ethnologue, 2022). While numerous people speak the language but its written system, morphologically or syntactically, is, in fact, not easy to find, whether in print or online. This might have happened because the people, mainly the Kalimantan Kanayatn Dayak as the language speakers, are not aware of the linguistic features of the language that convey different meanings. The unawareness affects the lack of studies and publications on this language. Therefore, this research is essential and helpful in contributing to the Kanayatn Dayak language system, especially on spoken word formation, a subbranch of morphology, as the focus of this study.

Currently, Kanayatn Dayak has not been identified as Bahasa Dayak Ahe anymore because the word Ahe roughly refers to or is translated as *Apa* 'what'. The language is gradually and academically recognized as Bahasa Dayak Kanayatn (Kanayatn Dayak language). The language and the people are sometimes called Kandayan or Kanayatn. Since the people speaking this language call themselves Kanayatn, the terminology used for this study purpose is Kanayatn. The meaning of 'Kanayatn' varies, but epistemologically, it signifies people who reside by the rugged land or upper stream land (Lansau et al., 1981). The word or terminology Kandayan is of *Ka* refers to preposition 'to' or the phrasal verb 'go to,' *Daya*, means uphill, upper stream, forest, and an *N* in word *Dayan* is a suffix that signifies people or citizen, thus making it *Kadayan*. The nasal phoneme /n/ in *Kan* is a dialect or alternant produced by non-speakers in naming these people and their language. Moreover, the suffixation of /-n/ in the word Dayan may be the influence of the arrival of European missionaries to Kalimantan or Borneo in the late 1800s. In brief, the *Kadayan* undergoes the changes becoming *Kandayan*, then *Kanayatn*, as the people of this indigenous call and identify themselves.

As many writers and linguists have classified it, the languages in Kalimantan or Borneo are the family member of the Austronesian language group (Asmah, 2013). So, the Kanayatn Dayak language is then one of the members of this language group. This language is unique for its double or triple consonant of a word's last syllable sound or form. The instance is found in the phonological sound /mulakŋ/ or in the orthographical form /mulakng/ 'to return'. The speakers of the Kanayatn Dayak are mostly farmers surviving their lives from tapping rubber and traditional shifting cultivation. A few are from oil palm, cocoa, and pepper plantation in Kalimantan. The position of the Kanayatn Dayak people and language is situated on the map of West Kalimantan Province, as shown in Figure.

Figure 1. Map of West Kalimantan Province, Indonesia (source: https://wikipedia/commons/4/49/Prov._Kalimantan_Barat.jpg)

This paper aims to describe the Kanayatn Dayak language morphology, involving word formation and morphological processes. The formation consists of free and bound morphemes, and the process is affixation. The free morpheme is a root with its lexical category, and the bound morpheme is a prefix. The root is verb, noun, adjective, and adverb, while the prefix is nasalization with its realizations. The realizations are consonant nasal phonemes. It is nasal verbalization involving nasal phonemes as a constituent of verb and adjective structure. The nasals verbalize verbs, nouns, adjectives, and adverbs by replacing or adding an initial phoneme to the root. Verbalization is a word formation process whereby verbs are derived from bases belonging to other syntactic categories (Batiukova, 2021). So, this study discusses the nasal phoneme that functions as an affix, that is, a prefix. In terms of morphology, this nasal phoneme is a bound morpheme.

This study contributes to the detailed description of the Kanayatn Dayak language morphology. The details cover the nasal phoneme, that is, prefix, the function and meaning, and the initial phoneme of the root the nasal phoneme influences. So, this study may be a postulate for researchers to rewrite or refine the description of the language, especially the morphology. The question raised for this study is: What is the feature of nasals of the Kanayatn Dayak language in nasal verbalization? The importance of addressing this question is to describe the features of the Kanayatn Dayak nasals, whether they are replacive or additive to particular initial phonemes of the root in the verbal formation process of the language. The results can be an essential exemplification of the nasal verbalization of this language.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Since language is a social phenomenon (Nakonechna, 2021; Yurchenko, 2021), speakers just simply speak the language or produce utterances without recognizing the morphological laws or phonemes that convey different meanings. The speakers of the language are not conscious of the syntactic and morphological laws of their language;

of the phonemes that they employ to convey different meanings, of the phonological oppositions which reduce each phoneme to a bundle of distinctive features, and of the grammar of the phonemics of their language.

Concerning that unconsciousness, this study tries to investigate and confirm the morphological laws of the Kanayatn Dayak language. It is an investigation of the distinctive feature of a phoneme or the grammar of verbalization formation involving nasal phonemes of the language. The investigation is aimed to describe affixation that covers the nasalization process, one process to derive active verbs and adjectives. The verb and adjective it derives are transitive and adverbial, conveying different meanings. It elaborates the phonology and morphology as a relation in complex word formation and process.

The following sub-section discusses the phonology and morphology of the Kanayatn Dayak Language. The sources are previous studies on phonology and morphology of the language and other related literature. Phonology deals with phonetics and phonemics. The former is sound and symbol of phoneme (Christianti, 2015), and the latter is discrimination of distinctive phoneme to distinguish meaning in word syllable or word or phoneme contrast to discriminate meaning (Yudes et al., 2016).

2.1 The Phonology of the Kanayatn Dayak Language

The phonology of the Kanayatn Dayak language for this study is described phonetically and phonemically. The phonemes are consonants and vowels, and vowel combinations as well. Moreover, phonology concerns deliberated for this part are syllables and words. The words consist of syllables, and the structure of syllables is onset, nucleus, and coda. Onset is the first consonant or set of consonants of a syllable or word, whereas the nucleus is a vowel or group of vowels after the onset (Kracht, 2008, p. 55). Lastly, the coda is the second consonant or group of consonants after the nucleus or group of the nucleus (Kracht, 2008, p. 55).

2.1.1 Plosives

The plosives of the language are /p/ and /ꝑ/ for /pm/ sound, /b/, /t/ and /ħ/ for /tn/ sound, /d/, /k/, and /g/. The phonemes /p/ and /ꝑ/, /t/ and /ħ/, and /k/ are voiceless consonants, while the phonemes /b/, /d/, and /g/ are voiced consonants. Regarding their position in syllables or words, these consonant phonemes are structurally onsets, and codas, except consonants /b/, /d/, and /g/ are only onsets and consonants /ꝑ/ and /ħ/ that are only codas. The instances of these onsets and codas consonants in word syllable or word, as had been exemplified by Jeremia and Marsel (2018) and Sulastri (2020), which are /pulakŋ/ 'return', /bahata/ 'supply', /talino/ 'human', /alaꝑ/ 'morning', /daŋo/ 'hut', /kabaħ/ 'group', /busak/ 'cranky' and /galiʔ/ 'afraid'.

2.1.2 Affricates and fricatives

The affricates consonants of the language are /c/ and /j/, and the fricative is /s/. The consonant /c/ is voiceless, while the consonant /j/ is voiced. Moreover, the fricative /s/ is voiceless. In terms of a syllable or word structure, these affricatives and fricative consonants are only onsets. Additionally, Jeremia and Marsel (2018) and

Meriana et al. (2019) recorded examples of syllables or words with the onsets employing these affricates and fricative consonants such as /cεgaʔ/ ‘beautiful’, /jubata/ ‘lord’, /jilat/ ‘lick’ and /sεtεʔ/ ‘one’.

2.1.3 Nasals

The nasals of the Kanayatn Dayak language consist of consonants /m/, /n/, /ŋ/, and /ɲ/. In the syllable or word syllable composition, the nasals /m/, /n/, and /ŋ/ can be onsets and codas, but the nasal /ɲ/ is only the onset. The examples, as had been collected by Jeremia and Marsel (2018) and Sulastri (2020), are consecutively /majuh/ ‘eat’, /damam/ ‘fever’, /nae/ ‘later’, /dian/ ‘here’, /ŋantiʔ/ ‘wait’, /ŋεak/ ‘cry’, /timawakŋ/ ‘orchard’, and /ɲocok/ ‘drink’. Besides functioning as phonemes that distinguish meaning, the nasals behave as prefix allomorphs when they meet the first phoneme of root words as in /pajuh/ ‘to eat’, /kantiʔ/ ‘to wait’, and /kεak/ ‘to cry’.

2.1.4 Vowels and vowels combinations

The vowels of the Kanayatn Dayak language comprises /a/, /ε/, /i/, /o/ and /u/. In the syllable or word syllable composition, these vowels are the nucleus. The glossary of the language in which the vowels are all initials are /ampus/ ‘go’, /εnεk/ ‘small’, /incakŋ/ ‘bring’, /orakŋ/ ‘prawn’, and /urakŋ/ ‘people’ (Jeremia & Marsel, 2018, p. 154). Furthermore, the vowel combinations are all those five vowels. The examples of the vowels combinations applied in the glossary of the language are /ai/ as in /tait/ ‘hook’, /au/ as in /binaul/ ‘eagle’, /aε/ as in /gaεʔ/ ‘prank’, /iu/ as in /liut/ ‘keep spinning’, /εa/ as in /tεaʔ/ ‘plenty’, /oa/ as in /boak/ ‘owl’, and /oε/ as in /loεʔ/ ‘tender’. Additionally, based on the instances supplied by Jeremia and Marsel (2018, pp. 154-155), it is concluded that the language does not have native glossaries to refer to as diphthong /ai/, /au/, /oi/ usages, except the /ai/ in loan words /kaloi/ ‘gourami’ and /misai/ ‘mustache’.

2.2 The Morphology of the Kanayatn Dayak Language

The complex word formation or complex word constituent of the Kanayatn Dayak language involves free and bound morphemes. The free morpheme is a morpheme that can stand alone and constitute words by themselves, i.e., verbs, nouns, adjectives, and adverbs (Daulay & Niswa, 2021). The free morpheme is also termed root or base. The bound morphemes, as the element attached to the root or base, are affixes comprising prefixes, infixes, suffixes, and circumfixes. Hence, they cannot stand alone but are always part of words attached to some other morphemes (Daulay & Niswa, 2021).

The complex word formation as the topic of this study is affixation; it occurs when a morpheme is attached to a root (Lieber, 2009). Another word formation process of the language is reduplication, a morphological process of forming new words where the entire or parts of free morphemes are copied and attached to the base by adding or changing a few syllables (Lieber, 2009). The affixes of the Kanayatn Dayak language in terms of form, function and meaning are prefixes /ba-/, /di-/, /ka-/, /ma-/, /pa-/, /sa-/, and /ta-/. The suffixes are /-atn/, /-ɲa/, /-iʔ/, and /-atn/, and the circumfixes are /ba-atn/, /ka- atn/, /pa-atn/, and /sa-ɲa/. The affix also includes the affix combinations of

/ma-.-atn/, /ma-.-i'/, /ba-.-atn/, /ba-.-atn/, /di-.-atn/, /di-.- i'/, /di-.-pa-/, /di-.-pa-atn/, /di-.-pa-i'/, /m-.-pa-atn/, and /ta-.-atn/ (Astonis et al., 2018). Unfortunately, this study does not provide examples of complex word formation using the affixes. However, in terms of function, it is noticeable that the prefix /ba-/, for instance, is used to form transitive verbs, adverbials, adjectives, and numerals (Astonis et al., 2018, pp. 5-6). The prefix /ba-/ also has three allomorphs, namely /ba-/, /bar-/ and /baŋ-/.

Moreover, the prefix /di-/ is also mentioned to have allomorphs, those are /di-/, /dim-/, /din-/, /diŋ-/, /diŋa-/ and /diɲ-/ (Astonis et al., 2018, pp. 4-5). The examples of the allomorphs presented imply that the element of the allomorphs is mostly the prefix with nasals. In terms of the affix morpheme, the morpheme in this context, as constructive criticism, is not /di-/. It is /diN-/, and the allomorphs are /di-/, /dim-/, /din-/, /diŋ-/, /diŋa-/ and /diɲ-/. The N in /di-/ is the nasalization consisting of nasal phoneme /m-/, /n-/, /ŋ-/, and /ɲ-/. The appearance of the nasals is frequent. The morpheme or affix morpheme determination is based on the frequency of its appearance in words (Omar, 2014).

Kanayatn Dayak language also employs reduplication for its complex word formation. The reduplication is total and partial (Alexsander et al., 2020; Noveliar et al., 2019). Total reduplication is the formation of free and free morphemes, while partial reduplication is the formation of free and bound morphemes or reversely bound and free morphemes. In the study conducted by Alexsander et al. (2020), the prefix that is nasal or with nasal element is /ŋ-/ as in /ŋagoʔ/ 'seek,' and /paN-/ as in /paŋalok/ 'liar' (Alexsander et al., 2020, p. 42). The former is the nasal prefix that functions to form a transitive verb, and the latter is the one that is used to form a noun. As an addition, the prefix /ŋ-/ in /ŋagoʔ/ is replacive because it replaces plosive /g/ in /gagoʔ/ 'to seek', and the consonant /g/ is covert. The prefix or allomorph /paŋ-/ in /paŋalok/, on the contrary, is additive since it is added to /alok/ 'lie'. Its prefixation does not change the initial vowel phoneme /a/ in /alok/, and the phoneme /a/ is overt.

Moreover, the prefix morpheme can be nasalization and its nasal allomorphs. An example of this prefix morpheme in the Kanayatn Dayak language complex words are /ŋɛak/ 'cry', which is derived from /kɛak/ 'to cry', and /ɲocok/ 'drink', which is generated from /cocok/ 'to drink' (Sulastri, 2020, p. 156); then /nɛlɛʔ/ 'see', /ɲium/ 'smell' and /ŋusap/ 'fondle', those are formed respectively from /tɛlɛʔ/ 'to see', /cium/ 'to smell' and /usap/ 'to fondle' (Meriana et al., 2019, pp. 6-7). Another similar case of nasal prefixation is also found in Dayak Kenyah Bakung language complex words /ŋelupek/ 'forget' and /ɲapaŋ/ 'to shoot', that is, in respect, prefixed from /lupek/ 'to forget' and /sapan/ 'rifle' (Yan et al., 2019, p. 86).

2.3 Replacive Nasals, and Additive Nasals and Allomorphs

The previous study on the Bidayuh-Somu language found that the nasals are prefix-bound morphemes and are affixed to the root to form verbal that is transitive and adjective. Therefore, the initial phoneme of the root is nasalized. In terms of the morphological process, the nasalization is the morpheme, and the nasals are the allomorphs. The nasals are replacive and additive, and the initial phoneme of the root the nasals influence is covert and overt (Bunau, 2019).

The Kanayatn Dayak language has nasals and allomorphs that are replacive and additive. In nasal verbalization or nasalization process, there is a nasal phoneme that both functions as replacive and additive (Asmah, 2013). It means the nasal is replacive and additive to the first phoneme of the root. Regarding replacive and additive nasals, Bunau and Yusof (2018) furthermore specified:

> Nasalization is a process of prefixing nasal phonemes or nasal sounds to the initial phoneme of the free morpheme. Its prefixation is both replacive and additive. It means that the replacive prefixation is a process of replacing the first phoneme of a free morpheme using a nasal phoneme. Meanwhile, additive prefixation is a process of adding a nasal phoneme to the first phoneme of the free morpheme (Bunau & Yusof, 2018, p. 205).

Furthermore, the nasal phonemes of the Kanayatn Dayak language represented by the nasalization morpheme are bilabial /m/, alveolar /n/, velar /ŋ/, and palatal /ɲ/. In the discussion later, these nasal phonemes are also called nasal allomorphs. Meanwhile, the consonant phonemes of the language in which the nasal is replacive or additive are plosive, affricate, and fricative. The plosives are consonants /p/, /b/, /t/, /d/, /k, and /g/. Additionally, the affricates are consonants /c/ and /j/, while the fricative is consonant /s/. When it is replacive, the initial phoneme of the root of the language is covert, replaced with nasals phonemes. Then, the initial phoneme of the root is overt if the nasals are additive. Since the allomorph of the nasalization of this language is phonologically conditioned, the nasal verbalization process creates double homorganic nasal-oral consonants at the initial phoneme of the complex verbal word. The creation applies when the nasals are additive.

3. METHODS

This study applied descriptive linguistics as its method. Descriptive is a method used to describe the characteristics of an attribute of a particular phenomenon studied (Creswell, 2012). It describes linguistic features of the Kanayatn Dayak language in terms of replacive and additive nasal phonemes when it meets the first phoneme of the root words. The method is used to describe the feature that is replacive and additive and the characteristic of the covert and overt features. Moreover, this descriptive linguistics method is aimed to gather data on how the interface between nasal phoneme and first phoneme of root creates double homorganic nasal-oral consonant as a consequence of the additive nasal verbalization. Besides, descriptive linguistics is also a helpful method to identify the functions of the nasal that is class-changing and class-maintaining. The linguistic features that are additive and replacive and the characteristic of the covert and overt features are identified from verbs formulated by the element of nasals and roots.

The data for this study is spoken words in sentences or utterances of the Kanayatn Dayak language containing nasal phonemes that are replacive and additives. The data for this study were collected by recording and interviewing five native men aged between 45 and 55 from the Kanayatn Dayak during a cultural gathering activity in the longhouse. The recording and interviewing were recorded using a Sony recorder with direct consent from the informants. The interviews were in-depth, that is, on the issue and examples of words containing nasal forms or morphemes. The results of the interviews recorded were transcribed phonemically.

The data analysis technique is word form or word form variety analysis (Carstairs-McCarthy, 2016). The complex words of the Kanayatn Dayak language are derived from the nasalization process involving nasalization morpheme and nasal phonemes as allomorphs. The morpheme is {N-} or Nasalization, meanwhile the allomorph is the nasal phonemes /m/, /n/, /ŋ/, and /ɲ/. It is the selection of nasal verbalization of complex words in which the root is verb, noun, adjective, and adverb. In terms of morphological process and complex word formation, the Item and Process, or IP model, and Item and Arrangement, or IA model (Matthews, 2014) were also applied to this study. The IP deals with complex or nasalized verbalization and prefixation, while the IA refers to complex words and nasals or allomorphs that are replacive and additive.

The total data used for this study is 36 verbs containing nasals and eight sentences to contextualize the verbs containing the nasals. The results of this study are presented in sequence by categorizing replacive and additive. The replacive categorization is the nasal verbalization process that assigns replacive nasal phonemes to the root, while the additive one involves additive nasal phonemes to the root. By exemplification, the verbs derived from the process of nasal verbalization are applied in the syntactic model to provide appropriate context. The informants put the example of the verbs with nasals in the sentence as guided during the interviews. The words in the sentences are understood and glossed by following Leipzig's glossing rules (Croft, 2003; Lehmann, 1982; Leipzig Glossing Rules; 2015). The syntactic model is the Kanayatn Dayak language's sentences or utterances.

4. RESULTS

Data of this study is divided into replacive and additive nasal phonemes. In the nasal verbalization process of the Kanayatn Dayak language, the replacive phonemes are /m-/, /n-/, /ŋ-/, and /ɲ-/. Moreover, the additive phonemes and allomorphs applied for this nasal verbalization process are allomorph /ma-/ and alternant /m-/, allomorph /am-/, allomorph /an-/ and alternant /n-/, nasal /ŋ-/, and allomorph /ŋa-/.

4.1 The Replacive Nasal Phonemes

The rule of the first phoneme of root and replacive nasal phonemes assigned to form verbs resulting from data analysis is listed in Table 1.

Table 1. Rule of replacive nasal phonemes of the Kanayatn Dayak language.

Consonant	Root initial phonemes	Replacive nasal phonemes
Plosive	/p/, /b/ /t/, /d/ /k/, /g/	/m/ /n/ /ŋ/
Affricate	/c/, /j/	/ɲ/
Fricative	/s/	/ɲ/

Table 1 explicitly shows that the nasal /m-/ is replacive to plosive consonants /p/ and /b/ while nasal /n-/ is replacive to plosive consonants /t/ and /d/. Moreover, the nasal /ŋ-/ is replacive to plosive consonant /k/ and /g/. Lastly, nasal /ɲ-/ is replacive to affricate consonants /c/ and /j/, and the fricative consonant /s/.

4.1.1 Nasal /m-/

This nasal /m-/ is class-maintaining and class-changing in terms of function. It is prefixed to roots that are verbs and adjectives, starting with the plosive consonants /p/ and /b/. The nasalized replacive /m-/ examples are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Nasalized replacive /m-/.

No.	Roots	Gloss	Nasalized verbalization	Gloss
1.	/pampar/	'flourish'	/mampar/	'to flourish'
2.	/patak/	'to tell'	/matak/	'tell'
3.	/barɛʔ/	'to give'	/marɛʔ/	'give'
4.	/bera/	'angry'	/mera/	'to get angry'
5.	/patɛk/	'trigger'	/matɛk/	'to trigger'

Since the nasal /m-/ is replacive, the first phoneme of the root is covert. It is changed with the nasal /m/. Examples in numbers 1-3 in Table 2 are class-maintaining, and number 4 is class-changing. Then, example number 5 is class-maintaining and class-changing since the root is verb and noun. Moreover, the usage example and gloss of the word resulting from the nasal verbalization is in the following syntactic model of the Kanayatn Dayak language.

(1) <mototn ayukŋ nian memang ayaʔ padiŋa pula dah mampar buahŋa>
rice field-friend-this-really-wide-paddy-the-then-has-flourished-grain-the
'This friend's rice field is vast; the paddy is now flourishing grains'.

The process of nasal verbalization using phoneme /m-/ in the examples provided and one usage example in the sentence above derives a transitive verb and signifies the meaning 'to do'. Moreover, the meaning of nasals verbalizations is unchanged when the nasals enter the roots, that is, verbs. They are proof that linguistically the form of the language signifies meaning since morphology deals with form and meaning.

4.1.2 Nasal /n-/

This nasal /n-/ is affixed to the root initiated with plosive consonants /t/ and /d/. Since the nasal /n-/ is replacive, the first phoneme of the root is covert. Nasal /n-/ is present with the verb and noun roots; therefore, it is class-maintaining, as exposed in examples numbers 1-4 (Table 3). Nevertheless, the nasal /n-/ is also class-changing, as shown in example 4, since the root is both verb and noun. Table 3 presents examples of this nasal /n-/verbalization process.

Table 3. Nasalized replacive /n-/.

No.	Roots	Gloss	Nasalized verbalization	Gloss
1.	/tɛlɛʔ/	'to see'	/nɛlɛʔ/	'see'
2.	/daŋar/	'to hear'	/naŋar/	'hear'
3.	/tosok/	'to hide'	/nosok/	'hide'
4.	/tɛgɛt/	'hate'	/nɛgɛt/	'to hate'

The data of the following syntactic model of the language shows that the replacive nasal /n-/ is assigned to form the verbal word from the verb root. The syntactic model and the gloss are as follows.

(2) <arɛʔ ia ku nɛlɛʔ kao tumarɛʔ ku nɛlɛʔ kao ampɛatn ku nɛlɛʔ kao agiʔ kao nian ada kamae mae>
day-after-I-see-you-yesterday-I-see-you-now-I-see-you-again-you-that-present-every-where
'I saw you in the last two days and yesterday. I am seeing you again now. You have been here and there spying on me'.

The replacement of the first phoneme of root employing the nasal /n-/ as indicated in the example of the sentence above signifies the meaning 'to do'. The signification infers that the meaning of the replacive nasal /n-/ that is class-maintaining remains unchanged from its root, that is, verbs. The verb this nasal derives is transitive.

4.1.3 Nasal /ŋ-/

The collected data confirm that this nasal /ŋ-/ can be attached to a root that is the verb (see examples numbers 1-4 in Table 4) and noun (please see example number 5), and therefore, the nasal is both class-maintaining and class-changing. Based on the word structure, this nasal /ŋ-/ is present with roots starting with plosive consonants /k/ and /g/. After verbalization, the initial phoneme is covert, replaced with the nasal /ŋ-/. The examples are laid out in Table 4.

Table 4. Nasalized replacive /ŋ-/.

No.	Roots	Gloss	Nasalized verbalization	Gloss
1.	/kokok/	'to survey'	/ŋokok/	'survey'
2.	/kosɛʔ/	'to peel'	/ŋosɛʔ/	'peel'
3.	/gagar/	'to shake'	/ŋagar/	'shake'
4.	/gagoʔ/	'to look for'	/ŋagoʔ/	'look for'
5.	/karakɛk/	'betel leaf'	/ŋarakɛk/	'to chew betel leaf'

The form of /ŋ-/ that is replacive nasal approves that its function is both class-maintaining and class-changing. In the sentence of this studied language, the application of complex words resulting from the nasal verbalization proses is shown in the following extract.

(3) <ampɛatn urakŋ kaʔ kampokŋ agiʔ ŋokok tanah mototn>
currently-people-in-village-now-survey-land-cultivation
'The farmers in the village are now doing a land survey for their cultivation site'.

The data in (3) shows that the meaning of the form /ŋ-/ signifies 'to do'. In this case, the nasal is class-maintaining; therefore, the meaning is unchanged from its root form. The nasal also creates a transitive verb. In addition, the signification of the form is proven by the above syntactic model of the language's morphology.

4.1.4 Nasal /ɲ-/

In the verbalization process, this nasal /ɲ-/ is prefixed to the root that is a verb (as in examples numbers 1-3), noun (as in example number 4), and adjective (as in example number 5) (see Table 5). This nasal /ɲ/ is class-maintaining as in examples 1-3 and class-changing as indicated in examples 4-5. Furthermore, it is found that this replacive nasal is attached to the root, beginning with affricate consonants /c/ and /j/ and the fricative consonant /s/. During the verbalization process, the first consonant of the root is covert and replaced using the nasal /ɲ/, as shown in the examples in Table 5.

Table 5. Nasalized replacive /ɲ-/.

No.	Roots	Gloss	Nasalized verbalization	Gloss
1.	/cocok/	‘to drink’	/ɲocok/	‘drink’
2.	/jamɛn/	‘to treat’	/ɲamɛn/	‘treat’
3.	/saruʔ/	‘to call’	/ɲaruʔ/	‘call’
4.	/samah/	‘fish catcher’	/ɲamah/	‘to catch fish’
5.	/supɛʔ/	‘shy’	/ɲupɛʔ/	‘to be shy’

The analysis of the data gathered, as seen above, affirms that the nasal /ɲ-/ is the form of the language. It is functioned to maintain word class, that is, verbs. It also functions to change the word classes, nouns, and adjectives. (4) is the context instance of the verbal word in the syntactic model of the Kanayatn Dayak language.

(4) <musipm kariŋk tautn arɛʔ batol repo ɲamah ikatn kaʔ suŋe mampawah>
season-dry-year-last-really-happy-catch-fish-in-river-mempawah
‘It was fun to catch fish in the river Mempawah last dry season’.

The sentence in (4) illustrates that the verb it creates is transitive, and the meaning ‘to do’ is the signification that the nasal /ŋ-/ implies. The form distinguishes meaning or signification from the list of nasalized verbalizations and the sentence displayed in (4).

The discussion of the nasals to verbalize words in (4) confirms that they are replacive. The examples sorted from the data collection indicate that the replacive verbalization with nasals /m-/, /n-/, /ŋ-/, and /ɲ-/ are both class-maintaining and class-changing. It is also shown that the replacive nasals of the Kanayatn Dayak language prevail more with verbs than nouns or adjectives. In other words, it is more class-maintaining than class-changing. Moreover, it is found that these replacive nasals are prefixed more to roots and begin with voiced consonants, that are plosives /b/, /d/ and /g/, and affricates /c/ and /j/ compared to unvoiced or voiceless consonants.

4.2 The Additive Nasal Phonemes and Allomorphs

The data of the Kanayatn Dayak collected shows that the nasals /m/, /n/, and /ŋ/, besides replacive, are also additive to the first phoneme of the roots. The results of the analysis imply that the allomorph /ma-/ and alternant nasal /m-/, and allomorph /am-/, allomorph /an-/ and alternant nasal /n-/, nasal /ŋ-/, and allomorph /ŋa-/ occur as additive elements at the beginning of the roots. It is found that the additive nasal phoneme and allomorph are additive to root beginning with all consonants and vowels. Moreover, the allomorph /ŋa-/ is additive to the root initiated with all vowel phonemes. This allomorph /ŋa-/ is applied to a root that is mostly a monosyllabic loan word. Besides that, affixing additive nasals phonemes and allomorphs /m-/ and /n-/ to root results in double homorganic nasal-oral consonants such as /ml/, /mp/, /mb/, /nt/ and /mr/ at the beginning of the complex or derived words. Finally, affixing nasal /ŋ-/ and allomorph /ŋa-/ to the root maintains the first phoneme overt.

4.2.1 Allomorph /ma-/ and alternant /m-/, and allomorph /am-/

It is discovered that additive allomorph /ma-/ and alternant /m-/ and allomorph /am-/ enter root that is the verb (as seen in examples numbers 1-2 in Table 6), noun (as seen in examples numbers 3 and 6), adjective (as seen in example number 4), and adverb (as seen in example number 5). Therefore, the allomorphs and the nasal alternants are class-maintaining, as found in examples 1-2, and class-changing, as found in examples 3-6. Moreover, the alternant does not change the meaning of the derived words. The examples of the additive nasal verbalization process indicate that the first phonemes /l/, /p/, /b/, and /r/ is overt, and create double homorganic nasal-oral consonants /ml/, /mp/, /mb/ and /mr/ to the first phoneme of the verbs. The examples are presented in Table 6.

Table 6. Nasalized additive allomorph /ma-/ and /am-/, and alternant /m-/.

No.	Roots	Gloss	Nasalized verbalization	Gloss
1.	/lahɛr/	'to give birth'	/malahɛr/; /mlahɛr/	'give birth' 'give birth'
2.	/balak/	'to circumcise'	/mabalak/; /mbalak/	'circumcise' 'circumcise'
3.	/bini/	'female'	/mabini/; /mbini/	'to marry' 'to marry'
4.	/rajatn/	'greedy'	/marajatn/; /mrajatn/	'to eat up' 'to eat up'
5.	/pɛatn/	'currently'	/ampɛatn/; /mpɛatn/	'current' 'current'
6.	/pagi/	'morning'	/ampagi/; /mpagi/	'tomorrow morning' 'tomorrow morning'

The process of verbalization using the additive nasal /m-/, as listed in Table 6, derives transitive verbs and adjectives. The signification of 'to do' and the derived verb applied is shown in the following sentence of the language.

(5) <wɛʔ ambɛka naun dah bamanantu pi tumalapm ia malahɛr anakɲa agiʔ>
mother-girl-there-yet-son in law-but-last night-she-give birth-her baby-again
'That girl's mother already has a son-in-law, but she gave birth to a baby again last night'.

The above verbal word-formation employing /ma-/ and alternant /m-/ and allomorph /am-/ and the syntactic model selected from the utterance data expresses that additive nasals or allomorphs verbalization applies to the Kanayatn Dayak language.

4.2.2 Allomorph /an-/ and alternant /n-/

The data collection of nasal verbalization indicates that the additive allomorph /an-/ and its alternant /n-/ are affixed to verbs and adjectives. The alternant /n-/prefix does not change the word's meaning. It is evident that the allomorph and its nasal alternant are class-maintaining, as displayed in examples numbers 1-2 in Table 7, and class-changing, as seen in example number 3. Moreover, it is found that this allomorph and its alternant enter the root, starting with a plosive consonant /t/. The examples are in Table.

Table 7. Nasalized additive allomorph /an-/ and alternant /n-/.

No.	Roots	Gloss	Nasalized verbalization	Gloss
1.	/tugoʔ/	‘to ponder’	/antugoʔ/; /ntugoʔ/	‘ponder’ ‘ponder’
2.	/tiʔatn/	‘to wait’	/antiʔatn/; /ntiʔatn/	‘wait’ ‘wait’
3.	/tuha/	‘elder’	/antuha/; /ntuha/	‘to call elder’ ‘to call elder’

The examples in Table 7 approve that allomorph /an-/ and alternant /n-/ enter the root or free morpheme that is verb and adjective. Thus, the nasalization of the additive allomorph and its alternant is to maintain and change the word class. The following is an instance of the usage of nasalized verbalization in the syntactic model of the morphology of the Kanayatn Dayak language.

(6) <indona antugoʔ kaʔ muha pintu mikiriʔ buukɲa naŋ dimotokŋ ponok>
indona-ponder-in-front-door-think-her hair-that-cut-short
‘Indona is now pondering on the veranda, thinking of her haircut that is too short’.

To conclude, the meaning of this additive language feature indicates the signification ‘to do’ as exemplified in (6). Moreover, the verb it derives is an active verb, which is an intransitive verb. The intransitive verb this allomorph derives is an additional verb type besides the transitive ones.

4.2.3 Nasal /ŋ-/

In the process of verbalization, this additive nasal /ŋ-/ is found to enter roots beginning with vowel phonemes and glides. Based on the data analysis, this additive nasal /ŋ-/ is applied to verbs and nouns. Therefore, it is class-maintaining as exposed in examples 1-3 in Table 8 and class-changing as fostered in examples 4-5. Besides, this additive nasal /ŋ-/ results in double-consonants at the beginning of the derived word. In other words, this additive nasal /ŋ-/ maintains the presence of the first phonemes of the root staying overt. Table 8 shows examples of the process of additive verbalization of nasal /ŋ-/ to the root of the language.

Table 8. Nasalized additive nasal /ŋ-/.

No.	Roots	Gloss	Nasalized verbalization	Gloss
1.	/ajok/	‘to pinch’	/ŋajok/	‘pinch’
2.	/gunak/	‘to awake’	/ŋgunak/	‘awake’
3.	/olɛk/	‘to hurl’	/ŋolɛk/	‘hurl’
4.	/ajɛk/	‘prank’	/ŋajɛk/	‘to prank’

The examples in Table 8 signify that the nasal /ŋ-/ maintains the first phoneme of the roots overt after the process of verbalization. Moreover, the example of a transitive verb and its usage in the sentence of the Kanayatn Dayak language is as follows.

(7) <alap-alap wɛʔɲa dah ŋgunak anakɲa gali talambat ampus kaʔ sakolah>
early morning-his mother-has-awake-her son-afraid-late-come-to-school
‘His mother awakes him early in the morning for not coming late to school’.

The additive nasal /ŋ-/ in Table 8 is verbal word-formation from verbs and nouns. It is illustrated as confirmation of the form of the language. To add more, the syntactic model of the morphology of the language implies the meaning ‘to do’.

4.2.4 Allomorph /ŋa-/

The data of the nasal verbalization process shows that the additive allomorph /ŋa-/ is class-changing, as exemplified in examples numbers 1-3 in Table 9, and class-maintaining as presented in example number 4 since it is affixed to nouns and verbs. The noun root is monosyllabic, and loan words are taken from Indonesian. Nevertheless, this study also supplies one example of an exclusion that is originally native, as seen in number 4. Moreover, it is found that this allomorph /ŋa-/ is affixed to the root that starts with affricate /c/, lateral, and retroflects consonants. This additive allomorph maintains the first phoneme of the root staying overt after its prefixation process, as shown in Table 9.

Table 9. Nasalized additive allomorph /ŋa-/.

No.	Roots	Gloss	Nasalized verbalization	Gloss
1.	/cap/	‘stamp’	/ŋacap/	‘to stamp’
2.	/lap/	‘mob’	/ŋalap/	‘to mob’
3.	/rem/	‘brake’	/ŋarem/	‘to brake’
4.	/lɛlɛt/	‘to bind’	/ŋalɛlɛt/	‘bind’

The verbalization process of additive allomorph /ŋa-/, in which the examples are provided in Table 9, maintains the presence of the initial phoneme of the word to be overt. Furthermore, an example of a verbal word is used in the following syntactic model of the morphology of the Kanayatn Dayak language.

(8) <timanggong ŋacap kaputusatn adat kaʔ rumah radakŋ>
custom chief-stamp-decision-customary-in-long house
‘The custom chief stamped the decision on customary law penalty in the longhouse’.

Based on the data analysis and examples collected, it is confirmed that the additive allomorph /ŋa-/enters the mostly monosyllabic root. In addition, the nasals verbalization process assigning the allomorph /ŋa-/ indicates the meaning ‘to do,’ as demonstrated in (8).

5. DISCUSSION

The study of nasal verbalization in the Kanayatn Dayak language is the phonological study of nasal phonemes and morphologically allomorph of nasalization. This verbalization involves nasal phoneme, a phonetic phenomenon that changes the sound (Igartua, 2015) and discriminates meaning. Morphologically, the nasals are prefixes and allomorphs of nasalization morpheme. They are phonological conditioned allomorph or phonological conditioning environments (Rolle, 2021). The phonological condition allomorphs or nasals as prefix of the language are /m-/, /n-/, /ŋ-/ and /ɲ-/. Moreover, the implication of this study is to contribute to additional linguistic description of the language in terms of nasals as morphemes in word formation. Therefore, it is an update on the existing literature on the morphology of Kanayatn Dayak.

In relation to previous works, this study is in line with what Al-Hamadi and Salman (2011) reported, that is, the morphophonemic interface. The nasal prefix and allomorph are replacive (Santos, 2013), and nasalization is the parameter and additive feature (Maddieson, 2005). The study of this verbalization of the Kanayatn Dayak language confirms that the nasals are prefixes and allomorphs, both replacive and additive. Unlike the study by Maltseva (2018), in which the vowel is dropped and restored to contrast, the vowel in this Kanayatn Dayak language is replacive or exchanged and additively maintained when they meet nasals.

Based on the result of the study and its analysis, it is fixed that the nasal verbalization of the Kanayatn Dayak language employs nasal phonemes as prefixes or allomorphs. This circumstance is appropriate to the notion that the form of morpheme is sound or phoneme sound and syllable (Manova et al., 2020). Moreover, since the allomorph is a variant of a morpheme (Denistia & Baayen, 2019), thus the prefix morpheme in the nasal verbalization of the language is nasalization and its nasal allomorphs.

By referring to the existing studies and publications related to this work, the implication of this study on the Kanayatn Dayak language is the necessity to rewrite its morphology. The morphology deals with morphemes and their allomorphs and alternants. Therefore, the prefix /di-/ and its variation (Astonis et al., 2018) should be the morpheme {diN-}, with the allomorph or affix consisting of prefixes /di-/, /dim-/, /din-/, /diŋ-/, /diŋa-/ and /diɲ-/. Since allomorph is morpheme in real use (Mel'cuk, 2016), then consequently, the /dim-/, /din-/, /diŋ-/, /diŋa-/ and /diɲ-/ are not variation of the prefix /di-/. They are all prefixes like the /di-/ itself. In addition, the frequency of word formation using the element of nasals determines {diN-} is a morpheme. By having a correct conception of the morpheme and allomorph, the researchers, students, or speakers' successors of this language can, for example, conduct a study on noun word-formation that applies the nasals.

6. CONCLUSION

Based on the analysis and description, this study has listed and described that the feature of nasals of the Kanayatn Dayak language is replacive and additive. The feature can be both replacive and additive depending on the initial phoneme of the root the nasals enter. These replacive and additive nasal verbalization processes function as class-maintaining and class-changing based on the root class to the nasals attached. As a replacive, the nasal verbalization process replaces the first phoneme of the root with nasals /m-/, /n-/, /ŋ-/, and nasal /ɲ-/. As additive verbalization, it is added to the first phoneme of the root by employing allomorph /ma-/ and alternant /m-/, allomorph /am-/, allomorph /an-/ and alternant /n-/, and nasal /ŋ-/ and allomorph /ŋa-/.

Moreover, the replacive nasal verbalization makes the first phoneme of root covert. It is replaced with the replacive nasals. Then, the additive verbalization process maintains the first phoneme of the root staying overt. As a result, these additive nasals also create double homorganic-nasal oral consonants at the first phoneme of the verbs. The verbalization process involving additive allomorph only maintains the first phoneme of the root staying overt. In complex word formation, nasal verbalization creates active transitive and intransitive verbs. The signification of these replacive and additive nasals is 'to do'.

The limitation of this study goes into three breakdowns. First, the insufficient academic and scientific sources, so only a few were selected as references. Second, the inaccurate examples provided in the article's publication were chosen as references; therefore, it was puzzling to confront the data collected with examples in the article published. Third, this study does not picture the grammatical description of the language as a whole, for its scope is only a subsection of morphology. Hence, it is suggested that more studies on the language are encouraged to have sharper linguistic descriptions, especially the morphology. Finally, the exemplification and description of this study may hopefully contribute to the implication for other indigenous studies focusing on the language morphology and typology across Indonesian archipelagos.

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The Power of Language: The Persuasiveness Used in Selected Philippines' and Thailand's Tourism Brochures

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Abstract

Linguistic features of tourism brochures can describe the distinctive ways of expressing persuasiveness in advertising which have a significant impact on teaching English as a foreign or second language. This study determined how linguistic features and functions characterize the advertising stance of the Philippines' and Thailand's tourism brochures. It sought to explore the fundamental contributions of linguistic forms and structures in these tourism brochures to facilitate persuasiveness. A collection of tourism brochures were randomly acquired online and coded for qualitative and quantitative analyses. However, only the verbal expressions were analyzed, disregarding other components of the brochures such as semiotics. The results show that the Philippines' and Thailand's brochures used rhyme in their lines minimally. Most of their lines were simple narratives and descriptive statements. There were instances of neologism but no anagrammatical structure. Structural parallelism in both brochures is evident. Thailand's brochures used minor sentences more often than the Philippines' brochures. Both showed a degree of informal styles. These informal styles suggested an easy-going social relationship between the audience and the advertisers. Based on the single verbs used, the Philippines' tourism brochures capitalized on what

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the senses can experience and the enjoyment and satisfaction derived from such while Thailand's tourism advertising brochures focused more on movement, both spatial and temporal. In terms of memorability, Thailand's samples have very limited use of alliteration and metrical rhythm, while the Philippines' samples were poetic and were fond of using alliteration.

Keywords: Advertising brochures, discourse analysis, linguistic forms, the Philippines, persuasiveness, Thailand.

1. INTRODUCTION

Language is constructed specifically for an intended purpose. As a familiar notion, language use refers to the process of communicating the meaning of language. Hence, it is important not only to think about what is to be said but how it should be said. Indeed, the primary objective of communication is a mutual relationship between the coder and the decoder; that is sharing a common meaning within the process. Generally, it is thought that in conveying meaning, certain types of structure should be followed. According to Cook (1993), one of the main goals of language acquisition is communicative competence. She further explains that communicative competence involves knowing what to say to whom under what circumstances, and how to say it. Hence, for communication to prosper, the medium, the context, and the structure should be intertwined to arrive at the desired goal of achieving a shared meaning. Making a statement may be a paradigmatic use of language, but there are all sorts of other ways to use words.

In some instances, however, context and purpose may somehow defy the usual structure-meaning correspondence, and use other alternatives to effectively convey meaning. In a discourse, for example, the meaning depends on the functions to identify different terms to formulate appropriate language use. Various studies explored the meaning and use of discourse such as those of van Dijk (1997), Cameron (2001), Woods (2006), and Dayag (2008). Traditionally, discourse is defined as a continuum stretch of language in a specific language context observed socially and culturally such as in advertisement. Language researchers studied the specificity of the structures of the written discourse of advertising. Brown and Yule (1983), as cited in Cook (2001), state that discourse is a social act and therefore is considered a system of thoughts composed of ideas, attitudes, and courses of action. A discourse is regulated by social institutions through codes, conventions, and habits of language which produce culturally located meanings. This is an inherent characteristic of the language in advertising.

Taillard (2000) underscores that human communication has two primary goals. That is, to be understood and to be trusted. She further stated that in persuasive communication, both of these are fulfilled; pragmatics for the first goal and how it is carried out, while social psychology focuses on the second goal. Generally, advertising is one field that follows the same framework of persuasive communication. Advertisements exert effort to produce meanings that are understandable and believable to the target audience called consumers to make them do something in favor of the patronized goods or services.

Many studies have discussed the indispensability of specific linguistic features that contribute to the persuasive character of advertisements for products and services. However, the study by Rakić and Chambers (2011) showed that tourism brochures are deemed suitable for the investigation of tourism promotion in the changing political and cultural circumstances. According to them, the need to nurture a national identity and to create a distinct internationally attractive image followed the political change. Indeed, after the lockdowns brought by the pandemic, the need for a globally booming industry facilitates the promotion of a country as a thriving destination. These presuppose the conventions of tourism brochures to be persuasive. Unlike commercial slogans, tourism slogans are institutionalized and very cultural in nature. They do not just need to use conventional linguistics structure known and somewhat accepted throughout the global communities for understanding but also take into consideration the cultural distinction of each country which the slogan primarily represents. The universality and culture are rhetorically combined in one structure. This distinctiveness and generality in one blend of structure seemed to be worth researching on.

In general, both international and local research about advertisement focus on how the message and information in tourism brochures shape the viewer's deciding mind. Many of these studies focus on technical strategies and visual design discourse (Bhatia, 1992). However, very limited studies focus on what linguistic considerations facilitate the persuasive stance of the advertisement, hence, this study. It determined how linguistic features and functions characterize the advertising stance of the Philippines and Thailand, and how this characterization determines the effectiveness of the tourism brochure in persuading the potential audience.

Hence, this research paper aimed at exploring the different linguistic features of the language of advertising that describe persuasiveness in tourism brochures of the Philippines and Thailand. Specifically, the study tried to identify the linguistic features used by the Philippines' and Thailand's brochures in achieving a persuasive stance in terms of (1) attention value, (2) readability and memorability, and (3) selling power.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Advertising and the Linguistic Theory

Language is viewed as one kind of higher-order semiotic system – a complex and adaptive system for making meaning (Patpong, 2008; Santos, 2019). Hence, language is explored ecologically and culturally, and it is always investigated in relation to its environment. Language, therefore, is investigated through naturally occurring texts functioning in their context.

Linguistic Theory emphasizes that structures are used to analyze observable discourse such as in advertisements. This theory shows the nature of specific communication like that of tourism brochures as a form of advertisements. Here, the advertisement would usually offer a clear presentation and structure or the information it needs to communicate. This is why the advertisement and the advertiser are likely to use linguistic features to achieve the intention of the discourse. Dubovičienė and Skorupa (2014) reiterate that every language is a system with sufficient resources for communicating its speakers' intentions, desires, and beliefs, no matter how complex and unusual they may be. With these, Linguistic Theory is also concerned with perception and production. This is where the advertisement is anchored on.

One form of human communication in this modern times is advertising. Advertising uses language distinctively. Vasiloaia (2009) defines advertising as a means of drawing attention to something or notifying and informing somebody or something. With this, advertising uses specific language features to serve its purpose. Indeed, the language of advertising has to remain recognizable to a wide range of audiences to meet the basic considerations. Though the language features of advertising are technical, it is also expected to be creative to cater to cultural differences and geographical boundaries. Consequently, although language should adhere to inevitable variations and deviations from the norm of structure, language features should find their way toward global understanding and commitment (Anudin, 2019). So aside from being persuasive, advertising language should also promote identification across cultural differences (Taillard, 2000).

All countries of the world consider tourism as an edge to economic thrust. These countries somehow depend on advertising for promotion. One way to do this most economically, both financially and linguistically, is to use tourism slogans and taglines. According to Vasiloaia (2009), language contributes to the descriptive and narrative character of the country. Such language items include the use of figures of speech and other stylistic devices such as puns, metaphors, neologisms, alliteration, assonance, and rhyme. Such use of linguistics items can lead to the major function of advertising, persuasion; and its secondary which is to catch attention.

Leech (1966) identified four major functions of a successful advertisement, each has consequences on language use. First is attention value which can be achieved by somehow deviating from the conventions such as neologism, anagrammatical, puns, grammatical solecism, rhymes, and semantic deviations. Next is readability through simple and familiar vocabulary. The third is memorability which usually uses repetitions to enhance high recall in advertising. Memorability is frequently done linguistically through alliteration, metrical rhythm, rhyme, grammatical parallelism as well as semantic and syntactic parallelism and lexical repetition. Semantic repetition such as the repeated use of different words from the same word phrase is also considered a lexical repetition. Last is the selling power. Advertisement indirectly expresses guidance to take action favorable to the object/subject of the advertisement. The commonly used linguistic features are imperatives and positiveness. Positive structures use adjectives, especially those of comparative and superlative degrees. Finally, to establish the appellative character of the advertisement, frequent use of the pronoun 'you' is observed. The pseudo-personal appeal of the pronoun 'you' is because although the 'you' actually refers to an audience of many millions of people, each of them is still inclined to believe they are personally being addressed (Vasiloaia, 2009).

2.2 The Language of Advertising in Tourism Brochures

The term advertising is from the Latin verb *advertive* which means to direct one's attention to the availability, qualities, commodities, or services. Vestergaard and Schroder (1985) as cited in Viskari (2008) classified advertising into commercial and non-commercial types. Non-commercial advertising includes communication from all kinds of associations, societies, and government agencies. Other forms of advertising that concern goodwill, trade, and consumer and industrial are classified to be commercial. National advertising is a unique sub-genre of advertising. To a certain extent, it is characterized both as commercial and non-commercial because of its linguistic character. Advertising somehow requires the specialized function of a language which is to present its intended meaning. This is called a proposition or statement. People do not only produce utterances containing grammatical structures and words; they perform actions through those utterances (Santos, 2021).

Advertisements usually are persuasive. They tend to promote goods and services. To do this they have to use persuasion to make the audience be in the buying stance or at least believe their purpose and the proposition. Persuasion is the process of inducing a voluntary change in someone's attitudes, beliefs, and behavior through the transmission of a statement (Mazid, 2014). The means for transmitting a persuasive message is language. Tourism brochures of different countries provide a well-developed example of this use. This is the way of advertising to express a degree of courtesy while trying to persuade. Generally, tourism brochures play an important role in forming the image of a county as a destination (Govers et al., 2007). Similarly, the study of Andereck (2005) suggests that brochures significantly increase respondents' interest in visiting a country. There is a considerable degree of persuasiveness put into every tourism brochure as an advertisement media.

Exploring the variables of persuasion in advertisement media is a significant research work (Tonio et al., 2019). There are several local studies of the discourse of advertising with a linguistic focus including that of Gocheco (2009), Dayag (2008), and Fernandez (2013). Other studies examine the generic structures and linguistic properties of ads in the Philippines' magazines from the Corpus of Asian Magazine Advertising: The Philippine Database, wherein the corpus consists of seventy-four ads for consumer nondurables such as medicines, vitamins, and food supplements, and cosmetic/beauty/personal hygiene products. It includes an analysis of speech acts performed by utterances in the ads and felicity conditions involved in the utterances. Gocheco's (2009) study is on the discourse analysis of mediated political advertisement campaigns. Using 60 political campaign ads shown on television for a national senatorial race, her study shows that pronouns are linguistic features that may render uniqueness in a particular type of discourse that is generally persuasive in nature through the analysis of the frequency and usage of personal pronouns in the televised campaign ads. Moreover, she investigates the interplay of language, persuasion, and culture, as reflected in the usage of pronouns in political campaign advertisements on television. Finally, her observation of the linguistic features in a mediated type of discourse reveals the speakers' strategies in their attempts at persuasion.

Moreover, Fernandez (2013) evaluates the nutritional quality of products advertised on television (TV) during children's viewing time in Spain, applying the UK nutrient profile model (UKNPM) using recorded 80 hours of TV broadcasts during children's viewing time in May and June 2008. He identifies all advertisements for foods and beverages and eventually nutritional information was obtained from the product labels or websites and food composition tables. Each product was classified as healthy (e.g. gazpacho, a vegetable juice) or less healthy (e.g. potato crisp snacks) according to the UKNPM criteria. Geis' (1982) findings conclude that indeed advertisements usually use persuasive languages and claims that are made indirectly while the message is made implicitly to make it more persuasive. Using written advertisements, he statistically coded the persuasive languages common to the corpus.

These include modifiers, pronouns, simple verbs, and compound words. According to Cook (2001), specific language features permit some information to be conveyed through conversational implicatures and interactive frames. This means linguistic features are frequently used to accomplish multiple goals. Indeed, linguistic items are verbal strategies for product presentation.

Also, Zhou (2008) believes that five major variables are important in measuring the effectiveness of brochures in destination marketing. These are readership, on-site consultation of the brochure, influence on decision-making, and instances of prior experience of the destination. For linguistic form, in particular, readability focuses on textual variables.

Specifically, one of the language of advertising in tourism brochures' most important aims is to become appealing and memorable. The manner a language is employed in the world of advertising for tourism is relatively distinct. Advertising, as a realm, depicts a vital function of languages. Convincing people and helping them remember the products or the services offered through a language is the very purpose of advertising. It is for this reason that advertising and language are inseparable because the former is greatly essential to the latter.

With the collection of corpus and the theories cited above, the conceptual framework of the present study is grounded on the inspiration that linguistic items are essential in the characterization of tourism brochures of different countries as a sub-genre of advertising. Using the perspectives of Taillard (2000), Patpong (2008), Viskari (2008), Zhou (2008), and Vasiloaia (2009), the present study tried to examine the interplay of linguistic items as requisites of a good advertisement. Because there is a limited study on the comparison of two countries, it is further intended to characterize the two countries not only in their advertising language but as well the language culture embedded in them.

3. METHODS

A quantitative descriptive design of the research was utilized in this study to meet the aims of exploring the different linguistic features of the language of advertising that describe persuasiveness in tourism brochures of the Philippines and Thailand. It analyzed thirty tourism brochures, 15 from the Philippines and 15 from Thailand. The corpus was randomly gathered from the Internet sources posted from July 17, 2020, to May 12, 2021. The data consisted of the English-language tourist brochures posted online by the country's tourism sites. The verbal components of the brochures such as slogans, taglines, and statements were coded to capture the relevant linguistic features for analysis. The analyses on taglines, slogans, and statements were done to describe each set of tourism brochures in terms of the linguistic features used to impress persuasiveness. This is a technique that is applied to non-statistical material and it allows the analysis of qualitative data through quantitative means (Zhou, 2008). Only the slogans, taglines, and statements were considered, leaving out the rest of the semiotics.

Leech's (1966) framework of language of advertising was the basis of analysis for the linguistic features of attention value, readability and memorability, and selling power. To do this, the researchers statistically coded the persuasive language features such as keywords common to the corpus. Number count, mean, and percentages were utilized to assess instances of occurrence of the target linguistic features and prevailing content words, such as the imperatives personal pronoun or deictics, monosyllabic verbs, modifiers as well as those of anagrammaticals, neologisms, and rhyme. Impressions on these structures were done focusing on generic structures and linguistic features in advertising. Implications of the linguistic features of advertisements shed light on the aim of determining the differences in the slogans and taglines in the tourism brochures as attributed to the languages and cultures of the countries.

4. RESULTS

Generally, this present paper looked into the linguistic features of the language of advertising. Viskari (2008) mentions advertising can be classified by looking at the linguistic items which are typical in it. Accordingly, Viskari's (2008) general observations for tourism advertising are characterized by attention value, readability, and memorability, and selling power. These characteristics are believed to be a major consideration in expressing effectively the objectives of tourism brochures.

4.1 Attention Value

Table 1 shows the linguistic features that were used to establish attention value in the tourism brochures of the two countries. Following Viskari's (2008) categorization, linguistic features use for attention value in tourism brochures include anagrammatical, neologism, grammatical solecism, and rhyme.

Table 1. Linguistic features for attention value of the language of advertising.

Attention value	**Philippines**		**Thailand**	
	f	**%**	**f**	**%**
Anagrammatical	0	0	0	0
Neologism	2	13.33	1	20.00
Grammatical solecism	3	30.00	1	20.00
Rhyme	5	50.00	5	33.33

n= 10 (Philippines), 7 (Thailand)

The results show that both sample brochures for the two countries commonly used rhyme in their lines for attention value, 50% for the Philippines and 60% for Thailand. Significantly, the Philippines' sample brochures used grammatical solecism, Thailand's brochures as well, 30% and 20% respectively. While Thailand equally recorded instances of use for neologism and grammatical solecism at 20%, for the Philippines' sample brochures, the least employed was neologism at 13.33%. Lastly, sample brochures for both countries did not record the use of anagrammatical.

Figure 1 is a sample entry in a Philippines brochure with an instance of neologism. The Philippines sample used the expression 'esplanage'. 'Esplanage' is a blended word from esplanade which means vast land or water, and the word voyage means to travel. Meanwhile, Figure 2 shows one statement considered a linguistic deviation from Thailand's tourism brochure which used the word 'Thainess', in the line 'Experience Thainess'. This is a deviation in spelling and was a coined word that expresses the characteristics inherent to Thai only.

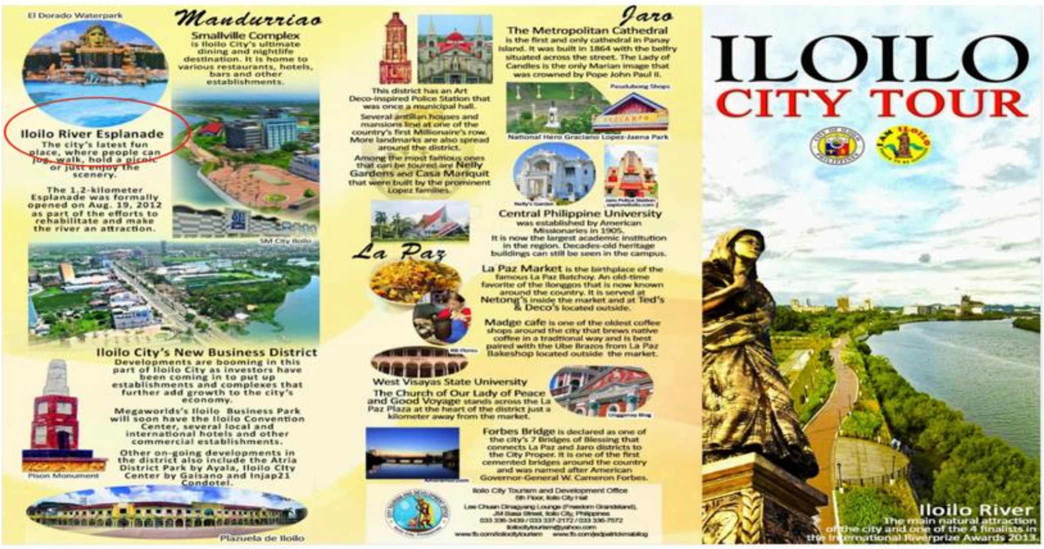


Figure 1. Sample of neologism in the Philippines' brochure.

Figure 2. Sample of neologism in Thailand's brochure.

From the total 15 samples for each country, the results also show that the Philippines' samples have more instances of linguistic features for attention value. Ten samples (66.67%) displayed these structures, while only five (33.33%) samples were recorded for its counterpart.

4.2 Readability and Memorability

The results in Table 2 show that among the linguistic features for readability and memorability, all the Philippines' tourism brochure samples employed the use of deictics and monosyllabic verbs (100%). They were followed by a repetition of words at 86%. Close to the occurrence was the use of parallelism at 80%. The least employed linguistic feature for the Philippines' samples was the use of single and direct statements.

Table 2. Linguistic features in the Philippines' and Thailand's tourism brochures.

Linguistic features	Philippines		Thailand	
	f	%	*f*	%
Repetition of words	13	86.67	9	60.00
Use of single and direct statements	8	53.33	10	66.67
Use of deictics	15	100	8	53.33
Use of parallelism	12	80.00	8	53.33
Use of monosyllabic verbs	15	100	15	100

n= 15 (Philippines), 15 (Thailand)

For Thailand's samples, all samples (100%) use monosyllabic verbs similar to the Philippines' samples. Then, two of the linguistic features recorded almost similar instances, the repetition of words and the use of single and direct statements, 60% and 66.67%, respectively. Also following were the equal use of deictics and parallelism (53.33%) on the sample lines to assure readability and memorability. These two were the least features that were used in the samples for Thailand's brochures.

Figure 3 shows how Thailand's tourism brochure repeats the word 'Best' in single and direct statements to ensure readability and memorability. The repetition of the word 'Best' also made the statements parallel. These linguistic features were used by the brochure simultaneously to make the material readable and easy to memorize.

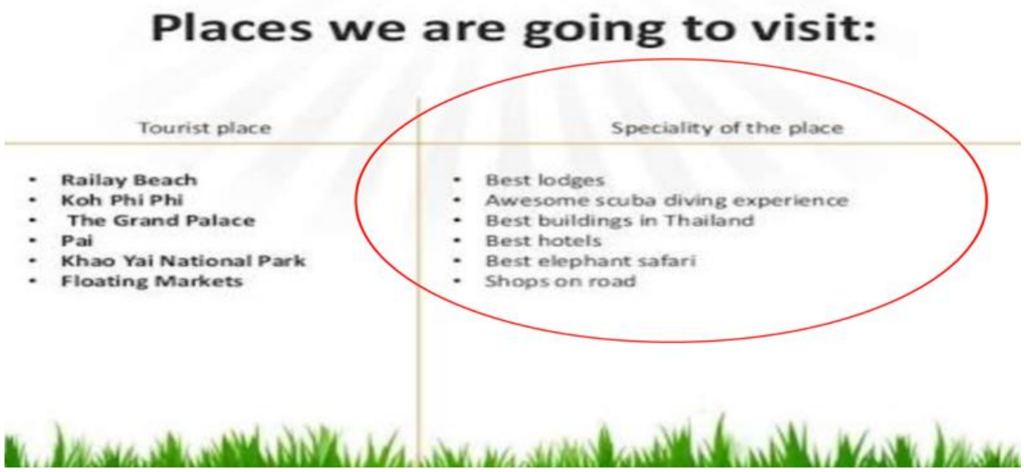


Figure 3. Sample entry of Thailand's brochure for readability and memorability.

Table 3. Monosyllabic verbs in the Philippines' and Thailand's tourism brochures.

Monosyllabic verbs	Philippines		Thailand	
	f	%	f	%
look	31	15.19	16	8.89
see	31	15.19	13	7.22
let	24	11.76	34	18.89
watch	21	10.29	14	7.78
feel	19	9.31	7	3.89
ear	17	8.33	13	7.22
taste	16	7.84	6	3.33
visit	15	7.35	31	17.22
go	14	6.86	23	12.78
join	14	6.86	23	12.78
dive	2	0.98	0	0

n = 204 (Philippines), 180 (Thailand)

Table 3 illustrates common monosyllabic verbs and the frequency of their occurrence in the brochures understudy to ensure readability and memorability. The Philippines 'samples recorded a total of 204 occurrences as against 180 of Thailand's samples of the monosyllabic verbs common to both. Among the verbs used for both the Philippines and Thailand, the Philippines used 'look' and 'see' the most (31%), followed by 'let' and 'watch' at 24% and 21%, respectively. Also evident among the commonly used verbs are 'feel' and 'hear' at 19% and 17%, respectively. Few instances of the use of 'taste', 'visit' 16% and 15%, respectively, 'go', and 'join', both at 14%, were recorded. The least employed verb for the Philippines' samples was 'dive' (0.98%).

On the other hand, Thailand's samples' most frequently used monosyllabic verbs are 'let' and visit', 18.89% and 17.22%, respectively. They were followed by 'go and 'join' (12%). Few occurrences were deduced from the use of 'look' (8.89%), 'watch' (7.78%), 'see', and 'hear' (7.22%). The least employed monosyllabic verbs were 'feel' and 'taste', at 7.78% and 7.22%, respectively.

4.3 Selling Power

For the third characteristic of the tourism brochure, selling power used linguistic features such as imperatives, modifiers, and pronouns. Data in Table 4 show that the Philippines' samples employed all of the linguistic features for selling power. Pronouns were the most employed features as all of the tourism brochures used pronouns in their slogans and taglines. This is followed by imperatives (86.67%) which also recorded a high occurrence. A little half of the total samples used modifiers which were the least feature used in the Philippines' tourism brochures are the modifiers (53.33).

Table 4. Linguistic features used for selling power.

No.	Linguistic features	Philippines		Thailand	
		f	%	f	%
1	Imperatives	13	86.67	9	60.00
2	Modifiers	8	53.33	10	66.67
3	Pronouns	15	100	8	53.33

n = 15 (Philippines), 15 (Thailand)

As shown in Figure 4, the tagline of the biggest font size on the cover page of a Philippines tourism brochure used an imperative. The statement 'Visit us' is an expression of both an indirect request and a command. This imperative statement characterized the persuasiveness of the brochure. Also, the use of pronouns 'us' and 'you (yourself)' are prominently used on the page. The use of imperative in this brochure aimed to boost the selling power of the tourism industry of the country.

For Thailand's samples, the results show that the most frequently used linguistic feature was the modifiers (66.67%). A little lower were the imperatives at 60%. The least frequency was recorded by the pronouns at 55.33%. Figure 5 shows how Thailand's tourism brochure was carefully but frequently included in the English translation words that vividly described the advertised places for tourism. Single and direct modifiers were used in the statements such as 'Thailand's island-superstar', 'spectacular scenery', 'stunning tropical sunsets', 'warm blue sea', and 'towering limestone cliffs'. The modifiers used were intensified and to a superlative degree such as 'an unbeatable combination of perfectly soft white palm-lined beaches, superb hospitality and great value accommodation, and world champion-standard forests'.

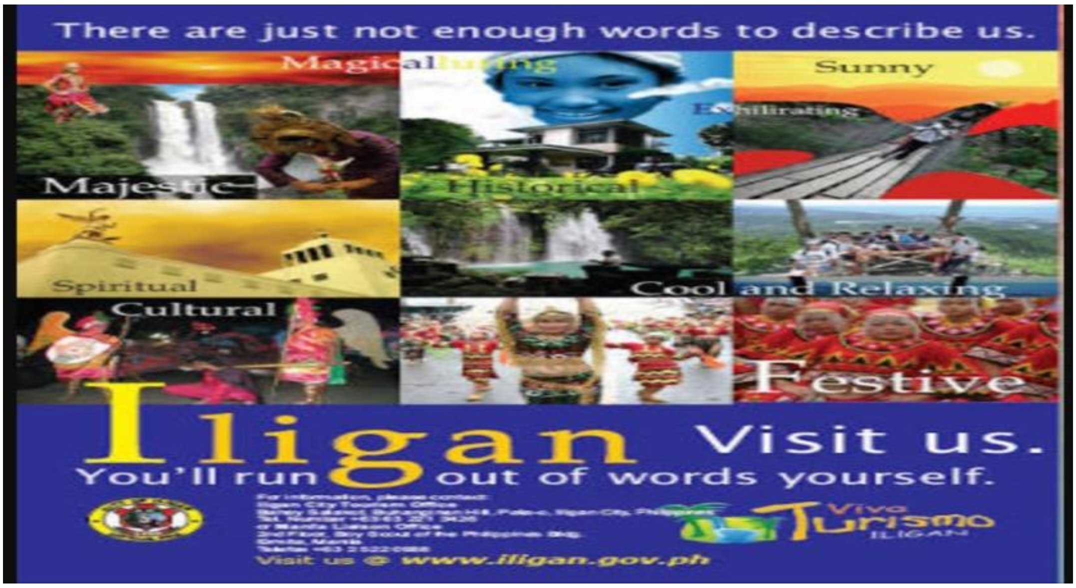
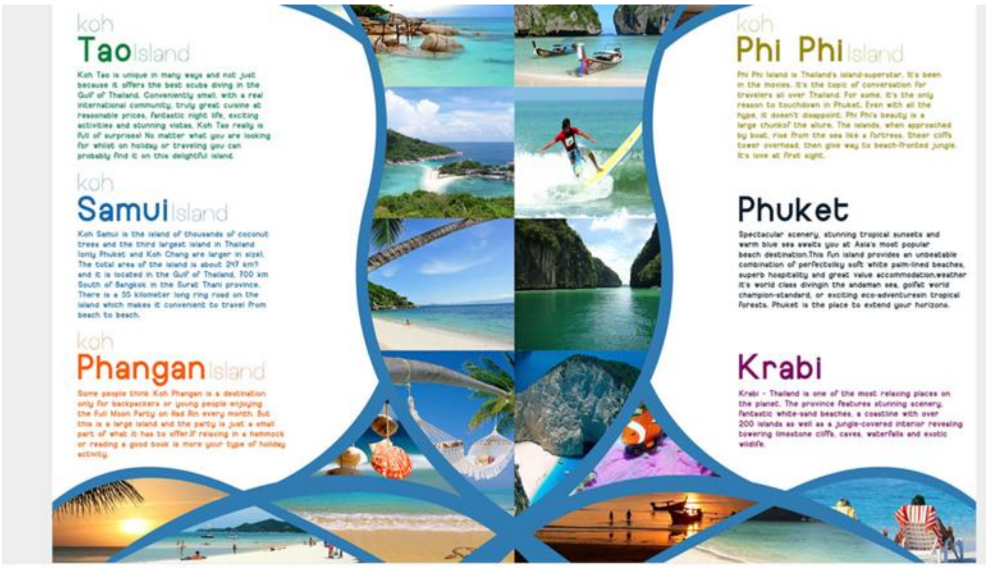


Figure 4. Sample of a Philippines brochure with features for selling power.



Behance
Thailand Travel Brochure. on Behance

Figure 5. Sample of Thailand's brochure with frequent use of modifiers.

5. DISCUSSION

Language has a powerful influence over people and their behavior (Johannessen et al., 2010). A person is said to have power over someone else if they can influence their actions (Yusuf et al., 2019). The choice of language to convey a specific message to influence people is vitally important. This is consistent with the specificity of language use and the functions of advertisement. According to Şimon and Dejica-Cartis (2015), expressions used to attract attention, communicate instantly, arouse desires, and create need, anticipation, and excitement are the language of advertising. Generally, the language of advertising is characterized but not limited to persuasion. It employs emotive language, personal words, catchy phrases, and glamorized or euphemistic language among others.

5.1 Attention Value

Generally, tourism brochures need to attract attention and arouse curiosity. In linguistics, this is achieved using rhyme or by breaking language conventions (Vasiloiaia, 2009). Warranted by stylistics, some examples of deviations from the conventions include neologism, anagrammatical, and solecism.

Among the schemes for attention value, both countries employed rhyme in their taglines. However, among the 30 brochures studied, there were only eight brochures that registered the use of rhyme in their slogans, taglines, and statements, five from the Philippines and three from Thailand. In most of their discourse, lines were simple narrative and descriptive statements. For linguistic deviation, one of the fifteen samples from Thailand used the word 'Thainess', in the line 'Experience Thainess'. This is a deviation in spelling or is a coined word that expresses the characteristics inherent to Thai only. It is also seen as an expression of the generalized positive attributes of the country which may also be established worldwide. The expression is cultural in nature for Thai expressions are more noun-adjectives. Though it seems an awkward word based on standard English, this is an indication of the Thai's effort to creatively use their own English. The superficial structure of Thai English is also indicated to a certain extent with the use of over-generalization. This is a common tendency of Asian varieties of English (MacWhinney, 1996). Here, the suffix 'ness' is overgeneralized to attain the character of 'ness' denoting a quality. The 'ness' attached to the word 'Thai' expressed positive regard which is a characteristic of good advertising. For the Philippines' samples, there was an instance of neologism, 'esplanage'. 'Esplanage' is a blended word from esplanade which means vast land or water, and the word voyage means to travel. The Philippines is an archipelago; hence it has a lot of bodies of water surrounding the land. Esplanage is therefore used economically and linguistically to travel different types of bodies of water.

Another example of getting attention is on the front page of a Philippines brochure, 'The center of the center of marine shore fish biodiversity'. The structure makes use of unnecessary repetition or redundancy, hence, an example of linguistic deviation. However, according to Olatunji (2011), creative repetition of the most important aspects of communications, or redundancy, is a strategy employed in the field of advertising to ensure that messages are understood and acted upon by the audience or prospects. Looking at it closely, it serves as a means to emphasize the uniqueness and emphasis of the geographical and ecological importance of the advertised place, as if, it is the nucleus of an atom that is indispensable to the existence of the object. These instances of neologism and deviations aim at emphasizing the distinct character of the place and the adventures.

Next is solecism which is commonly known as a grammatical mistake in speech or writing. However, solecism in linguistics serves as a stylistic device to speak the truth incorrectly. An example is the Thai's 'This can be a lifetime experience of experience, mine, yours, theirs'. Such a line may not warrant acceptance of standard syntax. However, the line is an uncomputed ellipsis to generalize and establish the relationship between the advertisers and the audience. The advertisement expresses the reader's solicited involvement in the 'lifetime experience' of travel.

Finally, both sets of brochures did not register any anagrammatical or intentional misspelling of words. This may probably be due to the great responsibility of the user to use a language with a degree of acceptability. It may be deduced that these advertising materials only consider somehow simple and popular deviations from the conventions. Misspelled words, both in the Philippines' and Thailand's language cultures, see these as serious problems related to meaning. Nevertheless, the Philippines and Thailand use English as a second or foreign language respectively, and their tourism promotions are careful enough to conform to the standards of the language. Also, the brochures are not only for local consumption but an international commodity addressed to both speakers and non-speakers of English.

5.2 Readability and Memorability

After the attention value, which aims at attracting the interest of an audience, the next one is that the attraction and interest be maintained. This attribute is considered the readability of the material (Viskari, 2008). Curiosity should be attended to through simple but comprehensible discourse of information about the place and the experience being advertised. In advertising, the Philippines' and Thailand's brochures' quick response for the sustenance of interest was often realized through simple and familiar vocabulary which was mostly colloquial. This was shown in the practice of using common language associated with specific cultural contexts. It involved the repetition of keywords in informal sentence patterns to increase readability. Aside from style and familiar vocabulary, both advertisements suggested consistency in the use of single and direct statements to ensure memory recall of the advertisement is maintained.

Also, some examples of structures in both brochures displayed parallelism. According to MacWhinney (1996), using parallel units in the advertisements enhances the readability of the text. The Philippines' structures though simple and direct made use of complete sentence parts. Thai structures, on the other hand, made use of minor sentences (fragments) which resulted in omission, especially of pronouns and completers as meaning was assumed to be clear even without them. However, Thai words and phrases were with long and short tones, with high and low tones in pronunciation. Also, Thailand's brochures' use of minor sentences was attributed to the significant difference between the Thai alphabets from that of English. The strokes of Thai writing are more economical than the English alphabet. Another means to establish directness with less repetition is the employment of deictics. Terms like 'this', 'that', 'those', 'it', 'here', and 'there' were common among the brochures understudy.

Another aspect of readability in both materials was shown in the degree of informal styles expressed in the directness of the statements. Those informal styles suggest an easy-going social relationship between the audience and the advertisers (Rosengren & Campbell, 2021). This is expressed in the use of direct address to the reader mostly with the use of the pronoun 'you'. As such many of the slogans and taglines of the brochures started with verbs, they were mostly imperatives in form through the use of monosyllabic verbs. This in turn contributed to the simplicity and directness of the advertisement language. Monosyllabic verbs made the advertised information easily understood and remembered; hence, they serve the basic aim of advertisement which is to facilitate the persuasive stance of the subgenre of advertising.

Based on Table 3, there is a difference in the selection and frequency of the commonly used monosyllabic verbs in advertising in the two countries. For the Philippines, the most evident verbs are 'let', 'see', 'look', 'watch', and the 'different sense' verbs. The Philippines' tourism brochures somehow capitalize on what the senses can experience and the enjoyment and satisfaction derived from such. This is believed to be stabling the interest of the audience. For the Philippines' tourism brochures, what the senses can perceive was an important aspect of persuasion. For the Thai materials, on the other hand, verbs that were commonly used were 'visit', 'see', 'go', 'explore' and 'join'. These monosyllabic verbs are under a similar generic meaning, 'to move from one place to another'. Thailand's tourism advertising focused more on movement, both spatial and temporal. Unlike the Philippines' brochures, the persuasive character of the advertisement is not just sensual experience, but also more of the decision to act towards the totality of the experience.

In terms of memorability, Vasiloiaia (2009) says that advertising looks at the language items such as alliteration, metrical rhythm, rhyme, grammatical, semantic, and syntactic repetition. Closely associated with readability, memorability enhances familiarity through linguistic items such as rhyme and parallelism. In addition, alliteration as a rhetorical device maintains the memory of the information and message. Alliteration is a clever memory device for both the Philippines and Thailand as advertisers have been milking it in their brochures.

Thailand's counterparts, however, have very limited use of alliteration and metrical rhythm. According to Khanittanan (2013), alliteration and repetition, if they would occur in a Thai passage, are deemed inappropriate. For the Thais, alliteration is used orally in a direct and simple structure. The Philippines' brochures, on one hand, are poetic and they are somehow fond of using alliteration. For Filipinos, this is making the discourse playful, gay, and blissful (Anudin, 2019). Moreover, metrical rhymes were more evident in Thailand's brochures than in those of their Philippines counterparts. Indeed, from a linguistic point of view, repetitive structures facilitate memorability. But in the case of the Philippines and Thailand, the use of repetition in alliteration was subjective to language culture.

5.3 Selling Power

5.3.1 Imperatives

According to Vasiloaia (2009), prompting people to take the right kind of action can be best achieved by clear and direct instructions. Imperatives are ideal for these. Some linguistic items contribute to the selling power of advertisements such as the use of imperatives, the use of modifiers, and the pronoun 'you'.

Myers (1994) says that imperatives are one of the most typical sentence types in advertising. This is because it is believed and practiced that imperatives convey a message that something should be acted upon and someone should do it. Frequency of imperatives in the discourse establishes the advertising stance of persuasion

(Vasiloaia, 2009). The use of imperatives also creates a personal effect, a sense of one person talking to another. Further, Myers (1994) agrees that imperatives are the forms seen as an intimate interactive way to communicate with an audience and they are a conscious effort to engage the audience in an action rather than simply conveying the information.

As gleaned from the data, both the Philippines' and Thailand's tourism brochures included usual instances of imperatives, especially in their advertising taglines, slogans, and statements. Imperatives for both brochures go hand in hand with the use of positiveness, as important traits of effective advertising. The advertisers showed confidence in the goods and/or the services they offer. Using imperatives, the audience is persuaded by the confidence and the assurance of the benefits they can get from the product and services expressed by the imperatives. In attempting to persuade an audience, the speaker may reduce impositions and other forms of impoliteness to gain the interest, support, or response of the audience (Dietrich, 2018). Hence, imperatives evoke reassuring messages to the audience, thus helping in the persuasiveness of the material.

5.3.2 Modifiers

Another linguistic form used for selling power is modifiers. Modifiers especially adjectives stir consciousness and interest through vivid descriptions (Santos, 2019). Having a clearer picture because of the vibrant descriptions provided by the modifiers, the readers tend to sustain interest and then encouragement. According to Leech (1966), as cited in Cameron (2001), advertising language is marked by a wealth of adjective vocabulary. The Philippines and Thailand employed positive adjectives as shown in the advertising lines below.

Philippines:

> "They may be separated by political differences but the 7,107 islands of the Philippines are united by the hospitality of its people. Getting in could be easy, but once you're in the Philippines, getting out is more difficult. You simply do not want to leave".

> "Baguio City probably has the most clustered popular visitor attractions in a relatively small area compared to other tourist destinations".

> "Take the 'cosmic journey' through a pine forest that details the story of the universe in fourteen station trek. Well-known art exhibits are also held regularly at the gallery for not only for the artists but those art enthusiast craving for limited indigenous work of art".

Thailand:

> "North of the royal residences and linked by a connecting gateway lies the Royal Monastery of the Emerald of Buddha, one of the most venerated sites in Thailand".

> "The smiles of the Thai people never seem to fade away. Generally respectful and moderate, these qualities prevail in the Thai community".

Interestingly, an observation in the use of modifiers was recorded in Thailand's sample travel brochures. The advertisers made use of adjectives as nouns. This in a way, the concreteness of the description is emphasizing rather its conversion as literal nouns. These structures were in Thailand's brochures.

"Find your fabulous".
"Celebrate your extra ordinary".
"Spread the happy".

Rather than seeing it as a deviation from the usual form and use of the language, as the Thai language is characterized to be segmented like that of the English structures given above, the structures are indications of creative manipulation of Thai English for advertising purposes.

Though the Philippines' tourism brochures used descriptive words, they seldom or never used the above structures of concern of grammar acceptability. The two cultures somehow are different in their own Englishes in this respect.

5.3.3 Pronouns

Cook (2001) as cited in Viskari (2008) says that what distinguishes the language of advertising from other genres is its use of pronouns. Between the Philippines' and Thailand's brochures, the Philippines' samples have evident instances of the use of the pronoun 'you'.

"You'll run out of words yourself".
"You simply don't want to leave".

This employment of the pronoun 'you' by Filipinos can be attributed to the culture of being personal (Anudin, 2019). The Philippines' advertising believes that to persuade people, one should address the readers personally, directly, and individually.

However, Thailand's brochures have very limited sentences in the second person or the use of the pronoun 'you'. This can be attributed to the nature of the Thai language, especially Thai pronouns. According to Brown (1997), there are huge numbers of ways to say 'I' and 'you' in Thai. Moreover, he cited that there is also a great range of pronouns that they used sparingly and often omitted. The use of 'you' in the Thai language, therefore, is not of conventional use. This explains why they usually use imperatives but not sentences employing the pronoun 'you'.

For instance, the *bpai nai* (literally 'go where') is the only instance where 'you' should be used; *bpai nai* is to say, where are you going?' The omission is done as a culturally practiced expression especially if it is understood. In addition, the personal pronoun 'you' (*Kun* in Thai) is paired with other personal pronouns. However, in everyday and personal communication, the *Kun* ('you') is rarely used.

6. CONCLUSION

Language use is indeed unique to every situation, function as well as culture (Berowa & Agbayani, 2019). Each genre is distinct compared to others, much so with the subgenre. Tourism as a sub-genre of advertising requires attention as it not only serves its purpose in promoting the country, and its places and culture but also it has been a revenue source for a country. The Philippines and Thailand are geographically related and thereby somehow share characteristics in terms of political, economic, social, and tourism. They differ though in terms of the English language character. The

Philippines consider English as a second language and exposure to its terms is really at hand. Thailand on the other hand has rigid educational training in terms of forms and conventions of English but outside the classroom, their exposure and practice of the language may not be as rigid.

Given the notion that both countries have to use the universal language, English in their tourism advertisement, this present study deduced that there are similarities in the use of linguistic items of persuasiveness in advertising. However, it is also evident that the differences in the language used between the two countries were culturally related.

The Philippines' and Thailand's tourism brochures in general adhered to the common characteristics of effective advertisement such as having attention value, readability, memorability, and selling power. These were commonly ascribed to the linguistic features in the taglines, slogans, and statements in the brochures. For the attention value, both countries' brochures have minimal use of the linguistic features of attention value such as rhyme, grammatical solecism, and neologism. Also, both did not employ anagrammatical structures. Thai expressions in their brochures which are related to attention value also included a deviation from the usual use of adjectives. Instances in Thailand's brochures showed adjectives used as nouns. Another deviation, in the brochures, was the unnecessary repetitions. However, this was used to emphasize the uniqueness of the geographical site and the ecological importance of the place.

The Philippines' and Thailand's brochures ensured readability through simple and familiar vocabulary. This is shown in their practice of using informal language associated with specific cultural contexts. It involved the repetition of keywords in informal sentence patterns. Aside from style and familiar vocabulary, both advertisements suggested consistency in the use of single and direct statements to ensure memory recall and also the readability of the advertisement. Another means to establish directness with less repetition was the employment of deictics in both brochures. Also, readability in both materials was shown on a degree of informal styles expressed in the directness of the statements. Those informal styles suggested an easy-going social relationship between the audience and the advertisers. This was expressed in the use of direct address to the reader mostly with the use of the pronoun 'you'. Most of the statements in the brochures were imperatives. Moreover, monosyllabic verbs made the advertisements easily understood and remembered. The Philippines' tourism brochures used verbs related to experience and the enjoyment and satisfaction derived from such. For the Philippines' tourism brochures, what the senses can perceive is an important aspect of persuasion. For Thailand, on the other hand, verbs that are related to movement and location both spatial and temporal were employed. Unlike the Philippines' brochures, the persuasive character of Thailand's advertisement is not just sensual experience, but also more of the decision to act towards the totality of the experience. Though the Philippines' texts used complete sentences and Thailand's used minor sentences, parallel units in both advertisements enhanced the readability of their own texts. Related to readability, the Philippines' and Thailand's brochures enhanced the familiarity of their subjects through linguistic items such as rhyme, parallelism as well as alliteration.

Lastly, the Philippines' and Thailand's brochures used imperatives to enhance the selling power of their advertisement. As noted, imperatives are believed to express a personal effect and establish intimate interactive proximity between advertisers and the audience by engaging the audience and not merely informing them.

Hence with the realizations brought about by the results, it is recommended that the pedagogical aspect of teaching utterances in context should be considered. The purpose of the utterances is facilities and expressed in specific linguistic features. Advertisement as a genre can be used to facilitate understanding of semantics and pragmatics. Also, the function of a language is practical and cultural realization.

However, as there were a limited number of samples acquired from online sites, it is recommended that future studies along this line should include printed copies of tourism brochures provided by the government and also those available in the market as there might be more verbal statements to consider.

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An Analysis of Moves and First-Person References in Indonesian Hotel Responses to Online Positive Reviews

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Abstract

Technology advancements have allowed customers to post their reviews on online platforms. In the hotel industry, responding to positive and negative reviews is imperative because it helps hotels maintain their relationship with past customers and establish a positive online persona. This paper examined the generic structure of Indonesian hotel responses to positive reviews (RPRs) through move-step and first-person reference analysis. For this purpose, we compiled a corpus of 87 authentic hotel responses to positive reviews written by past customers on TripAdvisor. The results revealed that the generic structure of this genre consists of five major moves (opening, thanking or appreciating, acknowledging a message, ending, and closing) and a minor move (positive small talk). Unique to these findings is the positive small talk, which includes explicit hopes for customers' satisfaction and the use of phrases such as 'your second home' and 'one big family' when referring to the hotels. Regarding the first-person reference, hotel representatives tended to use the plural pronoun 'we,' reflecting a cooperative identity. The exclusive 'we' serves various communicative functions in the hotel RPRs. However, it is mainly typical of three major moves and steps: thanking or appreciating the positive reviews and the stay, stating the hotels' commitment and standard, and soliciting a return visit. These findings can be of use as an alternative

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model to which practitioners in the hotel industry, including students of business English and ESP courses, may refer when aiming to produce texts within this genre.

Keywords: First-person references, move analysis, responses to positive reviews (RPRs).

1. INTRODUCTION

Technology advancements have created online spaces where hotel customers can write reviews for the kind of services they experience during their stay. It has been a common practice among customers to read these user-generated reviews on travel websites, such as TripAdvisor, before making a purchase or a booking decision. This is because they consider such reviews to be the best way to find unbiased information (Marzá, 2013). Customers also pay attention to the ways hotels respond to these positive and negative reviews because the quality of the hotel's response reflects the hotels' professionalism (Thumvichit, 2016) and ensures prospective customers that their service is worth purchasing. Moreover, hotel responses imply the extent to which the hotels are serious and committed to handling customers' concerns. Through these responses, prospective customers may dispel their doubts and be convinced to proceed to bookings.

For the hotel industry to rely on online reputation to increase brand image, responding appropriately to customers' reviews is crucial in "managing reputation, word-of-mouth sales, and, ultimately, their survival" (Li et al., 2020, p. 1). In addition, appropriate responses to online reviews are powerful means to maintain relationships with customers and encourage their (re)purchase behavior (Li et al., 2020; Ye et al., 2009). Given the urgency of handling customers' online reviews, hotels are strongly advised to not only maintain their presence but also seriously consider online reviews and be active in travel websites focusing on reviewing hotel services (El-Said, 2020; Ye et al., 2009). Hotels have attempted to respond actively to their customers' comments (Zhang et al., 2020). This attempt can be seen on TripAdvisor, one of the largest and most popular travel websites, where hotel representatives are allowed to write direct responses to their customers' reviews. TripAdvisor is one of the most widely known and visited websites for travel-related content, such as travel advice, hotel reviews, and photos. An interesting feature of TripAdvisor is its interactive approach, allowing hotel representatives to respond to customers' reviews (Marzá, 2013).

Considering the importance of responding to customers' online reviews, hotels' responses to customers' reviews have received considerable attention from researchers, particularly those focusing on hospitality business and marketing (e.g., El-Said, 2020; Li et al., 2020; Ye et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2020) and linguistics (e.g., Napolitano, 2018; Panseeta & Todd, 2014; Taw et. al., 2021; Thumvichit, 2016; Thumvichit & Gampper, 2019). Due to the significant influence of negative reviews on sales (Napolitano, 2018; Thumvichit & Gampper, 2019) and hotels' online reputation, considerable research has concentrated on analyzing hotels' responses to negative reviews (henceforth RNRs) (e.g., Ishak, 2022; Panseeta & Todd, 2014; Thumvichit & Gampper, 2019; van Herck et al., 2021; Zhang & Vásquez, 2014). As opposed to that, there has been less attention paid to observing hotels' responses to positive reviews (henceforth RPRs), as evidenced by the remarkably smaller number of publications tackling this issue (e.g., Cenni & Goethals, 2021; Thumvichit, 2016). To our understanding, this gap in the literature is mainly caused by two factors. First, online positive reviews carry appreciation and endorsements; hence, there are fewer 'threats' than negative reviews. Second, positive reviews are considered not harmful to hotels' brand image. Instead, they highlight the hotels' facilities and services, hence, boosting the hotels' reputation. For these reasons, the literature has relatively overlooked hotels' responses to positive reviews.

We, however, argue that how hotels respond to positive reviews needs further analysis and that the generic structure of RPRs is worth investigating. Hotels are expected to respond to positive and negative reviews simultaneously. Customers' feedback, appreciation, and praise embedded in their positive reviews cannot be ignored and should be appropriately acknowledged by the hotels. In the hospitality business, where customers' satisfaction is of utmost importance, replying to positive reviews is imperative to secure customers' satisfaction (Thumvichit, 2016). Moreover, responding to customers' feedback may help hotels create a good image for their business as it indicates an "attention to customers' satisfaction and quality of the hotel's services" (p. 2). It is also critical for hotels to maintain a good relationship with their past customers by frequently responding to both positive and negative reviews (El-Said, 2020) since both types of reviews may influence customers' attitudes (Zhao et al., 2015). Motivated by these reasons, the present paper attempted to fill in the gap in the literature by answering the following questions:

1. What are the typical moves and steps of hotel responses to positive reviews?
2. What are first-person references typical to the major moves?

As previously mentioned, the primary objective of this paper was to examine the generic structure of hotel RPRs through move-step and first-person reference analysis. The findings from the analysis could reveal the moves and steps that characterize this genre of digital hotel-customer interactions. The frequencies of first-person references typical to major moves were also examined as they might reveal how hotel representatives build professional identities and customer relationships (van Herck et al., 2021). Altogether, this information can be used as a reference manual for practitioners in the hotel industry who wish to construct responses to customer positive reviews. Derived from texts produced by professionals in authentic settings, the generic structure and linguistic features of RPRs, as found in this paper, were expected to serve as authentic and valuable materials for second language learners studying business English. Such authentic materials are highly relevant in teaching business English "as the real business world is always dynamic and never limited to what has been presented in the textbooks" (Panseeta & Todd, 2014, p. 9).

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Move Analysis of Responses to Positive Reviews

Genre is generally defined as a class of communicative events that share some set of communicative purposes recognized by the practicing members of the discourse community where the genre occurs (Swales, 1990). Thus, genre analysis is "the study of situated linguistic behavior" (Bathia, 2002, p. 4) to investigate "how members of specific discourse communities construct, interpret and use these genres to achieve their community goals" (p. 6). This study holds that hotel RPRs belong to a business genre realized in online settings (travel websites) that mediate two-way interactions between corporates, in this context, hotels, and their customers. Thus, to analyze this particular genre, the discursive features of hotel RPRs in digital communication are the main concern.

Move analysis is an approach to genre analysis grounded in Swales' genre theory, which focuses on communicative purposes called moves, and rhetorical strategies called steps (Cotos, 2018). Swales (2004) defined a move as a "discoursal or rhetorical unit that performs a coherent communicative function in a written or spoken discourse" (p. 228). Moves have lower-level parts, called 'steps', which have communicative purposes for the move to which they belong (Swales, 1990).

According to Bathia (1991, p. 155), one of the main objectives in analyzing moves and steps is "to characterize typical or conventional textual features of any genre-specific text in an attempt to identify pedagogically utilizable ones form-function correlations". This aim highlights the contribution of genre analysis to classroom instructions. Teachers of business English, for instance, may design or develop materials from an existing generic structure of a particular text, elicited from analyzing the moves and steps of a particular text. This was exemplified in Bathia's (1991) monumental study, where he designed ESP teaching materials for business communication courses. Another important thing is that such genre-based materials should serve as conventional models that students can learn and creatively adapt to achieve communicative goals as desired by the members of the genre (Panseeta & Todd, 2014).

Every genre has a typical move structure and a communicative purpose (Bathia, 1993; Swales, 1990), and hotels' responses to positive and negative reviews on online platforms have their own organizational patterns and communicative purposes. As previously mentioned, since negative reviews are somewhat considered more influential to hotels' reputations, the move structure of hotel RNRs has been discussed by many authors in the literature. Hotel RPRs, on the other hand, have rarely been studied directly. Thumvichit (2016), Cenni and Goethals (2021), and Taw et al. (2021) are among the most recent studies that focus on analyzing the move taxonomy of hotel RPRs.

Thumvichit (2016) examined how twenty RPRs written by top-ranked hotels in Thailand are generally structured. The results elicited 151 communicative units that can be categorized into five moves: salutation, thanking, acknowledging, ending, and closing. These moves, along with 12 steps, are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Generic structure of RPRs (source: Thumvichit, 2016).

Moves	**Steps**
Move 1: Salutation	-
Move 2: Thanking	Step 2a: Choosing the hotel Step 2b: Sharing experience
Move 3: Acknowledging a message	Step 3a: Expressing gratitude Step 3b: Restating complements Step 3c: Declaring mission accomplished Step 3d: Passing on to associated staff

Table 1 continued…

Move 4: Ending	Step 4a: Giving a second thank Step 4b: Expecting a return visit Step 4c: Offering a direct contact
Move 5: Closing	Step 5a: Signing-off Step 5b: The author's full name Step 5c: Position

Thumvichit (2016) further explained that each move has a distinct purpose, and they represent the functional structure of hotel RPRs. The 'Salutation' move includes such phrases as "Dear …" that begin hotel RPRs. The 'Thanking' move consists of two steps: choosing the hotel and sharing the experience, which follows the first move. The 'Acknowledging messages' move shows hotels' interest and attention to their customers' reviews. Through this move, hotels may express their gratitude to their customers, re-state customers' compliments, remind customers about the hotels' mission, and ensure that their messages have been passed to other relevant staff. The 'Ending' is the move where hotels conclude their responses by thanking customers for the second time and showing an expectation for a return visit. Few hotels also close (i.e., 'Closing' move) the responses by stating their direct contact information. Lastly, hotel RPRs are closed with signoff, signature, and job title. While this move appears in all data, the steps have different frequencies of occurrence across the data.

Cenni and Goethals (2021) analyzed hotel RPRs in English, Dutch, and Italian posted on TripAdvisor. Their study explored the move structure of the responses and the potential face-work strategies. With respect to the move analysis, the study identified three major moves: thanking the reviewer, highlighting positive aspects of the hotel, and soliciting future visits, and five minor moves: sharing feedback with the team, acknowledging criticism, inviting direct contact, positive small talk, and commercial offers. Additionally, they argued that in responding to positive reviews, hotels might choose to portray their positive face by, for example, using emoticons or showing modesty while evading a compliment. However, hotels generally avoid this strategy and prefer to enhance their professional face by adopting a more formal interaction. This emphasizes their awareness to adopt appropriate communicative and face-related strategies. The move distribution of hotels' RPRs identified in their study is shown in Table 2.

Taw et al. (2021) studied hotel responses to positive and negative customer reviews. It compared 3- to 5-star hotels in tourist destinations in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia, in terms of the move structures in the opening and closing of their responses to online reviews. Following Spencer-Oatey's (2008) Rapport Management Model and Bathia's (1991) genre analysis model, the study examined how hotels managed rapport virtually while responding to both positive and negative reviews on TripAdvisor. The study's results revealed that 5-star hotel responses preferred having both salutation and greeting in the opening. For closing, 4- to 5-star hotels tended to use a more formal writing style than 3-star hotels. This emphasis on formality was likely due to the hotels' intention to achieve effective business communication.

Table 2. Move distribution of hotels' RPRs (source: Cenni & Goethals, 2021).

Start	Major	THANKING/APPRECIATING
	Minor	Sharing feedback with staff

Table 2 continued…

Middle	Major	HIGHLIGHTING POSITIVE FEATURES
	Sub-moves	Mentioned by the reviewer – general Mentioned by the reviewer – specific Hotel-own perspective – general Hotel own perspective – specific
	Aggregates	Mentioned by the reviewer Hotel own perspective General Specific
End	Minor	Apology/ Consider criticism
	Major	SOLICITING FUTURE VISIT
	Minor	Offer direct contact Positive small talk Commercial offers

2.2 First-Person References in Responses to Customer Reviews

In the study of hotels' RNRs, Zhang and Vásquez (2014) examined the move structure and the use of first-person pronouns. The study found that the first-person plural is four times more frequent than its singular counterpart. They argued that the higher frequency of 'we' instances indicates that the authors of hotels' RNRs refer to themselves as a corporate collective, which portrays a collective identity rather than an individual. The only exception to this trend is found in 'Apologizing' and 'Soliciting Response' moves, where the use of a first-person singular is more dominant. In other genres, such as academic writing, using 'I' is correlated with an attempt to offer a low profile (Azar & Hashim, 2022). In this case, using 'I' in apologizing may function to show the sincerity of hotel representatives in their claims. Meanwhile, using 'I' in 'Soliciting Response' might be related to the authors' purpose of showing responsibility. Ho (2017) confirmed that the use of personal pronouns 'I' and 'my' in hotel RNRs emphasizes the accountability and responsibility of hotels' representatives for customers' dissatisfaction, which can enhance the rapport between hotels and customers.

Singular and plural first-person pronouns used in customer-firm interactions are also the main focus of Packard et al. (2018). The study analyzes the implications of using 'I' and 'we' references in over 1.200 email interactions between firms and customers. The study found that greater use of the 'I' pronoun in a customer-firm interaction increases customers' satisfaction and purchase intentions, whereas the use of the 'we' pronoun shows no significant effect on customers' purchases.

Another recent study of first-person references in customer-firm online communication was conducted by van Herck et al. (2021). They compared the communicative styles between English and German email responses to customers' complaints through a rhetorical move and first-person analysis. The findings of their study revealed that there are six major moves and 20 sub-moves in total. 'Greeting', 'Gratitude', 'Apology', 'Explanation', 'Conclusion', 'Sign-off', and 'Signature' are "considered the genre's core elements" (p. 230). Generally, the emails in both languages use more 'we' than 'I' references; however, this tendency varies by sub-moves. For example, there are more 'I' than 'we' references in 'Apology' and 'Empathy' in the English data.

3. METHODS

3.1 Corpus Design

Genre analysis often uses a range of research methods; one of the prominent ones is corpus studies (Bathia, 2002). The strength of corpus studies lies in the ability "to reveal patterns of form and use in particular genres and areas of language that are unsuspected by the researcher and difficult to perceive in other ways" (p. 13). Following that, this study takes a corpus-based approach in analyzing the moves and steps and first-person references of hotel RPRs.

The present study examined the generic structure of RPRs written by 4- and 5-star hotels located in Malang, East Java, Indonesia. The city is known for its tourism potential, such as natural and cultural attractions (Hapsari et al., 2020). This study specifically looks into the hotels categorized as the top ten hotels in Malang. Responses by top hotels are worth investigating because their "representativeness are expected to be professional and prudent" (Panseeta & Todd, 2014, p. 3) and "should be able to represent 'business professionalism'" (p. 5). Therefore, the results obtained from this study can be an alternative model for practitioners and academics, particularly learners of business English, who aim to produce texts within the same genre.

The data for this study were collected from TripAdvisor, as it is one of the largest travel communities (Miguéns et al., 2008) and the most popular websites for travel accommodation (Panseeta & Todd, 2014). There are 311 hotels located in Malang and listed on TripAdvisor. The website has a feature that sorts the hotels based on four categories: 'traveler ranked', 'best value', 'price' (low to high), and 'distance to city center'. The 'Traveler ranked' option lists TripAdvisor's highest-rated hotels based on travelers' reviews. We sorted the hotels by this first category as it was the most relevant category to the purpose of the study. Hence, the study examined the RPRs written by the hotels that rank 1st to 10th, which all belong to either 4- or 5-star hotels.

To elicit data from TripAdvisor, we followed the following procedure. First, we visited each hotel's homepage and checked the review section. TripAdvisor categorized customers' reviews into excellent, very good, average, poor, and terrible. To ensure the positivity of the reviews, we selected the 'excellent' and 'very good' categories. Through initial scans of hotel responses to the positive reviews, we noticed identical RPRs. The identical responses were excluded, whereas the specific and personalized RPRs were all included in the corpus.

We decided on the following criteria for compiling the corpus (see Table 3). The hotels' responses we collected must be dated primarily in 2021 and 2020 and, to a lesser degree, in 2017, 2018, and 2019. They were compiled to the corpus if (a) they were written in English, (b) they belonged to the 'excellent' and 'very good' category, (c) they were neither identical nor template responses, and (d) the responses' date was not older than 2017. These steps resulted in 87 RPRs. The names of the hotels, hotel representatives, and customers were anonymized to ensure their privacy.

The corpus comprises 87 hotel RPRs, with 48 responses categorized as excellent and 39 as very good. There are 7,275 words in total (3,929 words in excellent responses; 3,346 words in very good responses). The shortest hotel RPR contains 22 words, and the longest one has 186 words. The most frequent phrases in the corpus include 'thank you', 'we are', and hotel names.

Table 3. Corpus data.

Hotel	Rank	Excellent (number of responses)	Very good (number of responses)
A	1	4	5
B	8	5	5
C	10	5	5
D	3	5	-
E	6	5	4
F	5	5	5
G	9	5	5
H	4	4	-
I	7	5	5
J	2	6	5
Total		48	39

3.2 Models of Analysis

This study primarily followed Swales' model of move-step analysis. The coding scheme was primarily based on the generic structures of hotels' RPRs, as found in previous studies (Cenni & Goethals, 2021; Thumvichit, 2016). Thus, the data were manually coded by elaborating on the two previous studies focusing on identifying the move taxonomy of hotels' responses to positive reviews.

To identify the moves and steps of hotel RPRs, first, we read through each hotel's responses in the corpus several times while manually coding every move and step in the hotel's responses. The moves were coded based on the communicative functions that they served. Then, a university lecturer who has taught English for Business for more than five years was requested to check the coded data. Some discrepancies in the coded moves and steps were then elucidated through discussions.

The instrument used to help us analyze the coded data was AntConc 2.0.4 (Anthony, 2021). The software can search for certain moves and steps that need further investigation. To do this, we input the names of moves and steps in the search bar of the KWIC (Key Word in Context) feature. AntConc 2.0.4 was also used for the first-person reference analysis. It could calculate the frequency of the personal pronoun 'I' and 'we' along with their variations. It is important to note that most instances of 'we'-references in the data were exclusive (i.e., the reader was excluded). Upon searching for the pronoun frequencies, concordance analysis was done to understand the context where the pronouns occurred so that their usage could be further analyzed. Table 4 shows the pronouns investigated in this study.

Table 4. The pronominal forms examined in this study.

English Pronouns	Personal	Possessive	Reflexive
1st person singular	I, me	my, mine	myself
1st person plural	we, us	our, ours	ourselves

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of the present study are presented in two sub-sections: (1) the moves and steps of the RPRs, and (2) the use of first-person references in the RPRs.

4.1 Results from Move-Step Analysis of RPRs Written by Hotels in Malang

The first research question deals with the typical moves and steps of hotel RPRs as displayed on the TripAdvisor homepage of ten hotels in Malang. In general, the generic structure of the hotel RPR genre consists of five major and one minor move. The major moves include 'opening', 'thanking or appreciating', 'acknowledging a message', 'ending', and 'closing'. The minor move, appearing in a significantly lower frequency than the other moves, is a 'positive small talk' that consists of two steps: expressing 'hopes' and 'delights'. This taxonomy is presented in Table 5.

Table 5. Move-step structure of RPRs written by hotels in Malang.

Moves and Steps			**Data set (N=87)**
1	Opening Salutation Greetings	Major	130 87 43
2	Thanking/Appreciating For the stay For the positive review	Major	131 37 94
3	Positive small talk Hope Others	Minor	25 19 6
4	Acknowledging message Restating review Stating hotel commitment/ standard Passing on to associated staff	Major	121 68 40 13
5	Ending Considering a criticism Giving a second thank Soliciting return visit Offering a direct contact	Major	142 33 29 74 6
6	Closing Sign off Full name Affiliation Position	Major	207 87 42 39 39

4.1.1 Major moves

Five major moves and one minor move were identified in the hotels' RPRs under this study. The first major move is 'opening', which consists of two steps: 'salutation' (N=87) and 'greetings' (N=43). 'Salutation', indicated by phrases beginning with 'Dear …', appears at the beginning of all 87 hotel responses and has two main forms. The first is a specific salutation, where hotel representatives address the customers by their names or usernames. The second is a general salutation, where customers are addressed as 'guest' or 'valuable guest'. Viewed from the terms of address used in 'salutation', the authors of hotel RPRs tend to use English and Indonesian terms of address or without terms of address. (1) displays some examples of this move.

(1) Dear Mr. Fani, (Hotel I)
Dear *Bapak* (Mr.) Adhi, (Hotel D)
Dear Valuable Guest, (Hotel A)

In the hotels' RPRs, 'greetings' usually follow the 'salutation'. This step appears 43 times and is usually in the form shown in (2).

(2) Greetings from the [hotel name], (Hotel G)
Warmest greeting from [hotel name], (Hotel H)
Cheers from [hotel name], (Hotel D)

The second move is 'thanking or appreciating'. This move consists of two steps: ' thanking' or 'appreciating' the guests for 'their stay' (N=37) and 'their positive reviews' (N=94). This move is generally realized in an explicit thanking expression, which mostly begins with a 'thank you for…' phrase, as shown in the following examples.

(3) Thank you for your kind review. (Hotel J)
Thank you for choosing us during your stay in Malang (Hotel C)

This move is also realized in an expression of gratitude, where the authors of hotel RPRs implicitly thank the guests by showing their appreciation for their stay and positive feedback. Such appreciation can be seen in (4).

(4) Your kind words towards the service we offer are very much appreciated. (Hotel G)
We very much appreciate your comments regarding your stay at [hotel name]. (Hotel C)

The third major move is 'acknowledging a message', which contains 'a restatement of reviews '(N=68), 'a statement of hotel commitment or standard' (N=40), and 'passing on to associated staff' (N=13). In' restatement of reviews', hotel representatives recapitulate the positive features of the hotels as mentioned by the customers. In this step, they also highlight some other features that are still related to the ones mentioned by the customers. This particular step can be seen in (5).

(5) We're glad you enjoyed your stay at [hotel name]. (Hotel E)
We were delightful to hear you enjoyed your stay here. (Hotel F)
Truly an honor to be called an oasis in Malang. (Hotel G)
We are very happy when we know that you and your family was satisfied during stayed at our resort and enjoyed romantic dinner with us. (Hotel H)

In the first and second responses written by hotels E and F in (5), the restatements are general as they do not specifically restate any positive features provided by the customers. In comparison, the last two examples are more specific as there is a mention of the positive features, i.e., being called an oasis (hotel G) and being praised for the dinner. 'Restatement of reviews' also includes utterances that contain some highlights of one of the hotel's best-selling features. (6) illustrates the examples.

(6) We are located in the main street of Malang, which is about 4 km to the city center and 7 km to Malang airport. (Hotel B)
… strategic location is our added value to pampering our guest who stay with us. (Hotel I)

The second step in 'acknowledging a message move is a statement of the hotels' commitment or standard,' which functions to mention what has been prioritized by the hotels and to claim that a positive feature of the hotels is a result of their strong commitment to the standards of operation. This step appears in some instances, as shown in (7).

(7) … dedicated to always serve guests with finest service up to their satisfaction. (Hotel A)
Guest satisfaction is top priority from us. (Hotel C)
… it is also our priority to maintain all our asset at the best condition. (Hotel D)

The third step in the ‘acknowledging a message’ move is ‘passing on to the associated staff’, which is used to confirm that customers’ compliments given to a particular staff member have been delivered. (8) displays some examples.

(8) Your complimentary will be forwarded to Mr. Ruli Executive Housekeeper for his excellent service. (Hotel I)
Muna (the Guest Relation that led your bike tour) and the rest of our staff will definitely be happy to read what you wrote. (Hotel J)

The fourth major move is ‘ending’, which contains four steps, namely, ‘considering criticism’ (N=33), ‘giving a second thank’ (N=26), ‘soliciting a return visit’ (N=74), and ‘offering a direct contact’ (N=6). ‘Considering criticism’ is apparent whenever the positive reviews from guests include minor negative feedback towards the hotels. This step may include apologies and reports of the hotels’ actions. ‘Considering criticism’ can be seen in (9).

(9) However, we do apologize for the elevator which is not met your expectation. (Hotel A)
However, we sincerely apologize we forgot to refill toilet tissue in the bathroom, we shared with respective team about your recent experience to prevent the issue. (Hotel C)

‘Giving a second thank’, as the name suggests, is where hotel representatives express their gratitude to the customers for the second time. Different from the second major move, ‘thanking or appreciating’, ‘giving a second thank’ appears at the end of the responses and is indicated mainly by phrases such as ‘again’ or ‘once again’. (10) presents some examples.

(10) Thank you once again for your feedback. (Hotel D)
Thank you once again for taking your time to share your experience with us, (Hotel G)
Thank you once again for your kind feedback. (Hotel J)

‘Soliciting a return visit ‘is the most frequent step in the ‘ending’ move, and it is mostly stated explicitly in statements beginning with ‘We hope to’ and ‘We look forward to’ as shown in (11).

(11) We are looking forward to welcome you again for your next visit in our property. (Hotel D)
We hope you could stay again in here another time. (Hotel E)

‘Offering direct contact’ appears less frequently compared to the other steps in the ‘ending’ move. The function of this step is to provide customers with a direct way to communicate with the hotels. (12) shows some examples of this step.

(12) … please do not hesitate to contact me at XX@hotelB.com for further assistance. (Hotel B)
Please let me know if I can assist you further. (Hotel C)

The fifth major move is ‘closing’, which appears in all hotels’ RPRs in the corpus. It comprises four steps: ‘ sign-off’, ‘full name’, ‘affiliation’, and ‘position’, where ‘sign-off’ is the most frequent step in the hotels’ RPRs (N=87). ‘Sign-off’ includes phrases such as ‘Yours truly’ and ‘Warm regards’, similar to other business letters. This step is usually followed by the ‘full name’ (N=42) of the hotels’ representatives in charge of writing the responses. However, it can also be followed by ‘affiliation’ (N=39), such as ‘management’, ‘team of [hotel name]’, and ‘[hotel name] family’. Lastly, ‘closing’ is ended by ‘position’ (N=39), which informs the job title, hence the responsibility, of the hotels’ representatives, such as ‘general manager’ and ‘front office manager’.

4.1.2 Minor moves

In addition to the previously mentioned five major moves, there is ‘positive small talk’, categorized as a minor move because of its significantly lower frequency than the other major moves. ‘Positive small talk’ usually appears after ‘thanking or appreciating’. There are two steps in this minor move: expression of ‘hopes’ and ‘others’. Expressing hopes is typical in two out of ten hotels. It serves as small talk, highlighting the hotels’ expectations for the guests to enjoy their service.

(13) <u>We hope</u> your family was satisfied with our villa, food, ambience, and also our surrounding areas. (Hotel H)
<u>We really hope</u> our sincere service could meet your expectation. (Hotel I)

The other step in this move is labeled as ‘others’ as it includes several utterances other than ‘hopes’ which may function as words of affirmation to build customer rapport. All instances of this step are shown in (14).

(14) <u>We are very happy</u> to have your great experience during your stay with us. (Hotel I)
<u>A pleasant moment</u> when we are welcoming you on your <u>second home</u> [name of hotel]. (Hotel H)
We could see as well that <u>you were our big family</u>. (Hotel J)
We are happy to <u>welcome you as our big family</u> of [name of hotel]. (Hotel I)
It has been <u>an honor</u> to be at your service. (Hotel A)
It was <u>a great honor</u> to greet you as our valuable guest. (Hotel I)

4.2 Results from Analysis of the First-person References Used in RPRs Written by Hotels in Malang

The second research question concerns the most frequent first-person references used in the hotels’ RPRs. The corpus-assisted analysis results confirm that the first-person plural is remarkably more frequently used than the singular one. Table 6 presents the overall frequency of ‘I’ and ‘we’ references and their variations in the hotels’ RPRs.

Table 6 shows that the first-person singular pronoun (‘I’, ‘me’) is rarely used in the hotels’ RPRs. It occurs ten times (1.37 per 1,000 words) in the data set. Concordance analysis of ‘I’ and ‘me’ revealed the instances where these pronouns occur, which are listed in Table 7.

Table 6. Frequency of first-person references in the hotel's RPRs.

Pronouns	**Absolute frequency**	**Normalized frequency (per 1,000 words)**
First-person singular:	10	1.37
I	7	0.96
me	3	0.41
mine	-	-
my	-	-
myself	-	-
First-person plural:	516	70.92
we	268	36.83
us	82	11.27
our	166	22.8
ours	-	-
ourselves	-	-

Table 7. The instances of 'I' and 'me' in the hotels' RPRs.

I	will share your comments with our team …	Hotel C
	am sure that this feedback will serve as a …	Hotel C
	sincerely appreciate your recent stay …	Hotel F
	can assist you further …	Hotel C
	am very happy that your last experience …	Hotel C
	do hope to welcome you back …	Hotel C
	am thrilled to read that the whole team have …	Hotel F
me	Please let *me* know if …	Hotel C
	… and please do let *me* know once you plan to …	Hotel C
	… and please do not hesitate to contact *me* at	Hotel B

As shown in Table 7, the use of 'I' and 'me' is limited to their frequency and range. 'I' and 'me' appear in three out of ten hotels. From these instances, it can be seen that this pronoun reference is used for several communicative purposes, such as passing on the positive review to relevant staff, appreciating the stay, and soliciting a return visit.

On the other hand, the first-person plural pronoun is strikingly more dominant in the hotels' RPRs. Overall, this pronoun appears 516 times, or 70.92 per 1.000 words, across all data sets, where 'we', 'our', and 'us' are the most frequent pronouns in the hotel RPRs. The pronoun 'we' occurs 268 times (36.83 per thousand words) and has various communicative functions. To classify the functions of the pronoun 'we', concordance analysis was done, eliciting the context where the 'we'-reference appears in the major moves of the hotels' RPRs. The concordance analysis result revealed that three major moves are most typical: 'thanking/appreciating the review' and 'stay', 'stating hotel commitment or standard', and 'soliciting return visit'. Table 8 shows the most frequent instances of 'we' references and the major moves they are most familiar with.

Table 8. Most frequent instances of 'we' references.

We	are (F=74; Range=56)	glad, pleased, happy, delighted to learn/hear/read (Hotel A, B, C, D, F, G, H, I, J)	Thanking/Appreciating the positive review
		looking forward/ waiting for your next visit (Hotel B, C, D, F, G, H, J)	Soliciting return visit

Table 8 continued…

	hope (F=23; Range=22)	to see/welcome you again/back you could stay again you will choose to stay with us your next visit will be pleasant (Hotel C, G, J, E, F, B, G)	Soliciting return visit
	will (F=23; Range=19)	give you the best … always keep maintaining … do our best to … apply in our facility (Hotel E, I, J)	Stating hotel commitment/ standard
	would (F=11; Range=10)	like to thank (Hotel C, G, I)	Thanking/ Appreciating the stay

5. DISCUSSION

It is important to acknowledge the possibility that some steps could appear due to each hotel representative's writing style or the hotel's policies (Thumvichit, 2016). However, the analysis revealed several moves and steps most frequently used among them. First of all, similar to the findings in Thumvichit (2016), Cenni and Goethal (2021), and Taw et al. (2021), the hotels' RPRs under the present study consist of several moves that characterize this genre. The analysis of the responses written by the top hotels in Malang reveals that the generic structure of this genre has five major and one minor move. The five major moves are 'opening', 'thanking or appreciating', 'acknowledging a message', 'ending', and 'closing', quite similar to those identified in Thumvichit (2016). As found in other hotels' RPRs (e.g., Taw et al., 2021; Thumvichit, 2016), the opening of Malang hotels' RPRs generally starts with a 'salutation' and 'greeting'. The common practice to begin a response by making a salutation and greeting the customers, according to Taw et al. (2021), is to show formality and gain effective business communication. The opening of Malang hotel RPRs are characterized by the use of both English and Indonesian terms of address. While some hotel representatives choose to use 'Mr.', 'Ms.', and 'Mrs.', some authors of hotel RPRs prefer to keep the Indonesian term of address 'Bapak' and 'Ibu' as a way to maintain politeness.

Second, 'thanking or appreciating' follows the opening and functions to express hotels' gratitude for their customers' stay and the positive reviews they shared on TripAdvisor. This move is also present in Thumvichit's (2016) and is among the major moves in Cenni and Goethal's (2021) studies of hotels' RPRs. Even in hotels' RNRs, 'thanking' and 'appreciating' is never absent (e.g., Ishak, 2022; Panseeta & Todd, 2014; Thumvichit & Gampper, 2019; Zhang & Vásquez, 2014), which emphasizes its indispensable role in establishing a good hotel image and building rapport with past customers. Hotels' attempts to build rapport with past customers can also be seen through 'positive small talk', where they hope customers enjoy their stay and hotel services and express their happiness for having them stay at their property. The attempt to strengthen the hotel-customer relationship is probably most apparent through how they refer to the hotels as 'your second home' and the customers as their 'one big family'.

'Acknowledging message' is the third major move in Malang hotels' RPRs, where the hotels' representatives address the main points of customers' reviews. In this move, the hotels restate what their customers find them positive. There are instances where the restatement is general, in which the hotels do not repeat all the great features in the positive reviews. In other instances, the hotels specifically mention every positive feature that the customers have highlighted in their reviews. The latter can be seen as the hotels' strategy to make the replies sound more personalized, and it helps them highlight their strengths. Besides restating customers' positive reviews, hotels also embed some of their best services, such as having a strategic location, which is not mentioned in the reviews. This function can be considered a promotional strategy, which, according to Li et al. (2020), tends to be perceived as "self-serving and disingenuous" by the customers. Promotional information in an RPR creates self-interest and seller-oriented sentiments, which invalidate the benefits of showing gratitude and expressing apology and decrease repurchase intention. In addition, this move also includes hotels' short mention of their standard and commitment. While interpersonal and transactional references to standards and improvement function as a marketing tool and highlight a company's strengths (van Herck et al., 2021). By explicitly mentioning standards and commitment, the hotels emphasize that the positive reviews resulted from committed work and living up to a high standard of operation. They indirectly inform future customers that such positive service is not only provided once and that quality service is also guaranteed in their future stay.

The 'ending' move appears as the conclusion of hotels' RPRs. This move consists of four different steps, each with its distinctive functions. The first step is 'consider criticism', which is absent in Thumvichit (2016) but apparent in Cenni and Goethal (2021). As described in the methodology, the positivity of the customers' reviews of the hotels under study is ensured by selecting the 'excellent' and 'very good' reviews. Our initial reading of the data confirms that these positive reviews, in some cases, also contain customers' feedback. The feedback is mostly from constructive comments for hotels to improve some of their services. Compared to compliments on the positive features, such negative feedback is less influential on the hotel's positive face. Despite that, hotels' representatives pay attention to the feedback and address it through this step. Through 'consider criticism', hotels do not only apologize but also report what actions had been taken to improve the situation. This step is followed by 'giving a second thank' and 'soliciting a return visit'. According to van Herck et al. (2021), such apology and gratitude serve an interpersonal, addressee-oriented purpose. Altogether, steps such as '(re)thanking', 'highlighting positive features', and 'soliciting future visits' portray a positive face (Cenni & Goethal, 2021), and 'consider criticism' helps hotels appear humble and that they take the customers' reviews, either positive or negative, seriously.

Lastly, 'closing' is prevalent in the hotels' RPRs (e.g., Cenni & Goethal, 2021; Taw et al., 2021; Thumvichit, 2016) as well as RNRs (e.g., Panseeta & Todd, 2014; Thumvichit & Gampper, 2019), which may indicate that customer-hotel communication taking place in online platform follows formal business writing convention. The move comprises steps such as 'sign-off', 'full name', 'affiliation', and 'position'. 'Sign-off' appears in all hotels' RPRs, while 'full name', 'affiliation', and 'position' appear in about half of the hotel RPRs. Regarding the mention of 'affiliation', Zhang and Vásquez (2014) argued that it might indicate that in this genre, a collective, corporate identity is more preferred than an individual one. This collective corporate identity is also seen in the high frequency of 'we' references used in the hotels' RPRs. It is most prevalent in moves, such as 'thanking/appreciating', 'stating hotel commitment or standard', and 'soliciting a return visit'. The higher frequency of 'we' compared to 'I' in hotel RPRs may suggest that hotel representatives responsible for customer reviews prefer to carry an organizational rather than personal identity (van Herck et al., 2021).

6. CONCLUSION

The main purpose of this study was to examine the generic structure of RPRs written by top-ranked hotels located in Malang, Indonesia, through the analysis of moves and first-person references. The results showed that the generic structure of the hotel RPRs consists of six moves: 'opening', 'thanking or appreciating', 'positive small talk', 'acknowledging a message', 'ending', and 'closing', which, in general, is similar to the findings from previous studies on RPRs (Cenni & Goethal, 2021; Taw et al., 2021; Thumvichit, 2016). The moves comprise seventeen steps in total, each with different communicative purposes, but altogether help hotels create a positive image, promote their services, and build rapport with their customers. One minor move is 'positive small talk' which contains hopes for customers, and phrases such as 'your second home' refer to the hotels. In addition, the RPRs are characterized by the use of both English and Indonesian terms of address in salutation and the expressions of hopes and words of affirmation as positive small talks. The hotels' RPRs tend to use 'we' to emphasize a corporate instead of personal identity. This collective identity is most apparent in 'thanking or appreciating', 'stating hotel commitment or standard', and 'soliciting a return visit'.

The findings from this study may serve as an alternative reference for Indonesian practitioners working in the hotel industry responsible for handling customers' online positive reviews. In the classroom setting, the generic structure identified from the Indonesian hotels' RPRs can be used as supplementary material for preparing students to familiarize themselves with the conventions prevalent in customer-hotel digital interactions.

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The Integration of Acehnese Words in *Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia*

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Abstract

This study aimed to investigate the integration of Acehnese words in Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia (KBBI, or Indonesia Dictionary). The contribution of Acehnese words enriches Indonesian vocabulary as the national language. This study followed the descriptive-analytical research method using observational and note-taking techniques. The data source was the online version of KBBI, available on the following web page: https://kbbi.kemdikbud.go.id/. The data comprised the Acehnese vocabulary registered on KBBI and became part of the country's national language. The data analysis used Miles et al.'s (2014) models, consisting of condensation data, display data, and conclusion drawing/verification. The results showed that 134 Acehnese words are integrated into Indonesian. The contribution of the Acehnese language to Indonesian was relatively small compared to the contribution of other local languages. Of 134 Acehnese words, they comprise nouns (70.90%), verbs (21.64%), adjectives (6.72%), and adverbs (0.75%). It was also revealed that the Acehnese words that had been integrated successfully into Indonesian came from 24 areas of use. Based on these findings, it can be concluded

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that the Acehnese language has enriched the Indonesian vocabulary, and this integration is integral to interlanguage word borrowing. The present study's findings contribute to the national language digitalization policy, particularly the digitalization of the Indonesian language dictionary, especially to achieve the quality level of the national language dictionary.

Keywords: Acehnese, Indonesian, integration, *Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia* (KBBI), vocabulary.

1. INTRODUCTION

Indonesia has more than 700 local languages, or *bahasa daerah* (Kaplan & Baldauf, 2003; Musgrave, 2014; Zentz, 2017). These languages are spread in various provinces to remote sub-districts within the territory of Indonesia. In fact, there could be more than one local language in one sub-district (Tono, 2014). These local languages are a non-physical intellectual wealth owned by Indonesia.

The vast number of regional language' vocabularies can be used as a resource to enrich the Indonesian vocabulary (Amalia, 2014). Adopting words from local languages is a reasonable effort to develop the Indonesian language (Moeimam & Hoogervorst, 2020). Based on the latest data from the *Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia* (KBBI) or 'Indonesia Dictionary', many words from local languages were adopted and integrated into Indonesian (Budiwiyanto, 2009; Departemen Pendidikan Nasional, 2021). From the available data, it was discovered that the Javanese language made the most significant contribution to the Indonesian language (30.54%), followed by Minangkabau (25.59%), Sundanese (6.14%), Madurese (6.09%), Balinese (4.21%), Acehnese (3.08%), and Banjarese (2.75%). Finally, the last contribution is generally occupied by languages in eastern Indonesia, especially the Papua region (Budiwiyanto, 2022).

The data above shows that the Acehnese language is the sixth-biggest contributor of vocabulary to the Indonesian dictionary. In other words, the Acehnese language is important in providing loanwords in the Indonesian dictionary. With 3.5 million speakers (Lewis, 2009; Yusuf et al., 2022), Acehnese plays a major role in vocabulary borrowing in the KBBI, which is the dictionary of the official Indonesian language. This data also shows that the number of speakers correlates with the number of local language words loaned into Indonesian. The greater the number of speakers of a language, the greater the tendency of the words to be adopted into Indonesian (Widianto, 2018).

Besides the Acehnese language, many other local languages have been developed in Aceh, including Gayo, Alas, Tamiang, Aneuk Jamee, Singkil, Kluet, Devayan, Sigulai, and Haloban (Wildan, 2010). These local languages need revitalization, so their presence as the mother tongues is even stronger (Caffery et al., 2016; Muliawati & Yusnida, 2022). Of these local languages in Aceh, only Acehnese, Gayo, and Alas have been recorded as contributors to the Indonesian vocabulary by 3.08%, 1.24%, and 0,83%, respectively (Budiwiyanto, 2009).

In a language, the presence of loanwords from foreign languages is a common phenomenon. A language exists and develops if it accepts the process of expanding its vocabulary influenced by other languages (Sundari, 2019). One example is borrowing

Malay words from Arabic, reaching 3.000 words (Sahid et al., 2018). It takes place because there is a relationship between Arabic and the religion of Islam, which is embraced by the majority of Malay speakers. Based on this phenomenon, Sahid et al. (2018) have produced an encyclopedia with 200 words for the process of learning Arabic for Malay speakers. The explanation of each loanword in this encyclopedia is arranged systematically with a complete description of the origin of the word and the changes that occur from the original language and is accompanied by example sentences, complete with the origin of the word (Sahid et al., 2018).

In the case of Indonesian, the KBBI is the official reference of the language nationally. The loanwords in this main dictionary show how many words from local languages have been officially adopted and recognized as Indonesian. Since its launch in 2016, the KBBI has been updated eight times, carried out every April and October (Departemen Pendidikan Nasional, 2021). KBBI updates are carried out by showing borrowed words from various local languages, including foreign languages. An overview of the development of the latest update of the number of entries in KBBI from 2015 to 2021 is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Number of entries in *Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia* (KBBI).

No.	Year	Number of entries
1.	until 2015	90.000
2.	2016	108.000
3.	2017	110.000
4.	2018	109.213
5.	2019	112.000
6.	2020	112.579
7.	2021	127.036

The data in Table 1 indicate that the KBBI continues to grow. This development is seen in the increasing number of additional words borrowed from regional and foreign languages. The 5th edition of KBBI has reached 127.036 entries. It is due to efforts to enrich the Indonesian vocabulary through borrowing from other languages. However, compared to English, the KBBI still lags. The study results of Samsuddin's work showed that the Oxford English Dictionary contains more than 250,000 words, excluding technical, scientific, and slang terms (Samsudin, 2016).

The present study's findings can contribute to the national language digitalization policy, particularly the digitalization of the Indonesian language dictionary, especially to achieve the quality level of the national language dictionary. Experts have long paid attention to this. For example, Francopoulo and Huang (2014) studied the Lexical Markup Framework (LMF) as the basis of the ISO standard to look at Machine-Readable Dictionaries (MRD) and Natural Language Processing (NLP). Francopoulo and Huang (2014) noted that the formal specification was officially published in 2008 under ISO 24613:2008. As a result of five years of study, an ISO document was created which contains many aspects, such as a formal specification in the form of a Unified Modeling Language accompanied by choice of word description examples in European languages, including several Asian languages, such as Chinese, Japanese, Indian, Thai, and Malay. The model has also been applied to several languages in Africa. There are no known reports of any specific and comprehensive application of similar things in Indonesia (Johnson, 2009).

Gardani (2020) has a good idea regarding language borrowing. The idea concerns the morphological and structural inventory of a language. He found that language contact can be met by increasing formal similarity (MAT borrowing), structural congruence (PAT borrowing), or a combination of both (MAT & PAT borrowing). To understand whether and how this type of borrowing corresponds to certain grammatical features and grammar modules, Gardani (2020) proposed a MAT and PAT borrowing typology that distinguishes between functional and realized levels and covers all areas of grammar that can be affected by borrowing. He exemplified selected borrowing subtypes with several cross-language cases focusing on morphology and morphosyntax.

Based on the arguments above, the main objective of this study is to identify the integration of the Acehnese language in the KBBI. Such integration refers to the contribution of Acehnese vocabulary to Indonesian vocabulary. The importance of studying the contribution of the Acehnese language to Indonesian is also based on the reason that Indonesian is one of the languages used at the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) level, so the study of the contribution of local languages to Indonesian can be considered as a study of the contribution of local languages to the ASEAN languages (Chung, 2000; Saputra, 2014). In addition, this research can strengthen the theory of language integration, language reference, and language borrowing that apply to all languages worldwide (Otero, 2020). In particular, this study presents the contribution of Acehnese vocabulary to Indonesian vocabulary as depicted in the KBBI. Therefore, the study is limited to two aspects: word class and field vocabulary.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Acehnese Vocabulary and *Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia*

The term ‘vocabulary’ refers to all the words in a language (Chaer, 2007). In summary, Malay is the primary source of Indonesian vocabulary, which is supplemented by local language sources such as Javanese, Sundanese, Balinese, Minangkabau, Acehnese, and others, as well as borrowings from Sanskrit, Persian, Tamil, Arabic, Dutch, Portuguese, Latin, and English, and Chinese (Chaer, 2007). All Indonesian language words listed in Indonesian dictionaries, notably the Indonesian Great Dictionary, are considered part of the Indonesian lexicon (KBBI).

In supplementing the national language, local languages play a role in providing loanwords. The loanwords are adopted in the KBBI, which are then recognized as the official or national language. The borrowing of local language vocabulary into Indonesian must meet the criteria of (1) unique, (2) euphonic, (3) in line with Indonesian language rules, (4) not having a negative connotation, and (5) high frequency of use (Firmansyah, 2021).

In the case of the Acehnese language, the adoption of the Acehnese words in the KBBI is also influenced by the privileges possessed by the Aceh Province, as stated in Legislation Number 11 the Year 2006 as a state document (Sanusi et al., 2018). In addition, the Acehnese language has the uniqueness of its elements that establish the construction of coordinating phrases, in which conjunctions always connect (Rizqi, 2017). Numerical phrases from numeral and noun constituents always use classifiers.

The structure of noun phrases from noun and noun constituents is permanent. It means that the position of the modifier is always behind the core constituents. Verb phrases, adjective phrases, numerals, and pronoun phrases have impermanent structures. The meaning is that the constituents that become modifiers can be in front of or behind the core constituents. Furthermore, prepositional phrases have a permanent structure (Taib et al., 2022). Therefore, the Acehnese language can be integrated into Indonesian as the official language of Indonesia.

The integration of the Acehnese language, one of the local languages in Indonesia, has enriched the development of Indonesian vocabulary. In addition, integrating the Acehnese language into the national language is also part of the guidance and development of the Acehnese language itself. In international language politics, it is stated that efforts to maintain local languages are vital activities. As with global biodiversity, the world's language diversity is under threat. Nearly half of the approximately 7.000 documented languages are considered endangered (Bronham et al., 2022). Relevant institutions are asked to conduct studies on local languages so that these local languages are maintained from extinction (Kaplan & Baldauf, 2003; Phillipson, 2018).

2.2 Vocabulary and Word Classes in Dictionary

As a reference book arranged alphabetically, a dictionary contains indexes, entries, subentries, and translations (Kwary & Jalaluddin, 2014). It is the pinnacle of recognizing the integration of a language or a word. Language learners use dictionaries to find out meanings, synonyms, and antonyms. In its development, linguists work closely with programmers to develop electronic dictionaries (Moeljadi et al., 2017; Schäfer, 2021). In essence, the printed and electronic versions of the dictionary remain the same, but the electronic model tends to be more practical because it does not take long to find the words looked for (Rodríguez, 2018).

Dictionary usually includes spelling, syllables, accents, capitalization, pronunciation, word classes, etymology, definitions, and synonyms (Bergenholtz & Agerbo, 2018; Washio, 2004). The word classes as the dictionary contents are usually marked by *v.* for verbs, *n* for nouns, *adj.* for adjectives, *adv.* for adverbs, *prep.* for prepositions, and *conj.* for conjunctions. Word classes are classifications of words, also called part of speech, usually based on the meaning category or function category, the distribution of words in a structure, or syntactic category.

It must be admitted that many local language speakers correlate with the number of words integrated into Indonesian (Arka, 2011). The greater the number of speakers, the greater the tendency of the words to be adopted (Budiwiyanto, 2022). However, other factors influence the number of the regional language's words adopted into Indonesian, especially into the KBBI, as expressed by Sudaryanto (2017):

- the frequent use of the words by journalists in the mass media
- the frequent use of the words by writers or authors in their publishing
- the frequent use of the words by public figures
- the availability of new concepts in the words that do not exist in Indonesian.

Therefore, local languages contribute to the enrichment of the Indonesian vocabulary, but this situation is not supported by complete references (Budiwiyanto, 2022). Sudaryanto (2017) conducted an inventory of words from local languages in Java that were integrated into Indonesian. This study found that loanwords had enriched Indonesian vocabulary from languages in Java, namely Javanese (1.109), Sundanese (223), Madurese (221), Jakarta-Malay dialect (428), and Using dialect (46). The inventory is realized in the form of a local language vocabulary list book in Indonesian as language conservation means for the speakers of those languages (Sudaryanto, 2017). A previous study by Budiwiyanto (2009) looked at the contribution of Malay languages to Indonesian, namely Jakarta Malay (454), Jambi Malay (44), Medan Malay (26), Riau Malay (25), Malaysian Malay (14), Kalimantan Malay (11), and Manado Malay (8). Meanwhile, Pamungkas (2017) explicitly explores and takes an inventory of the contribution of Sundanese vocabulary to the enrichment of Indonesian. The results of this study indicate that many Sundanese words have the opportunity to be adopted into the Indonesian vocabulary, especially words that have concepts or ideas that do not exist in Indonesian. There are still many cultural concepts in the Sundanese vocabulary that have not yet been adopted as Indonesian. The concept does not represent efficiency because it is still a phrase or explanation (Pamungkas, 2017).

Efforts to integrate local languages into the national language can take several forms: audial integration, visual integration, direct translation integration, and concept translation integration (Firmansyah, 2021). Language integration is the systematic use of other language elements as if they were part of a language without the user realizing it. Language integration is unavoidable in local and global communities because the interaction of language speakers takes place in various dimensions of space and time (European Council, 2012).

2.3 The Fields of Vocabulary Use

The fields of vocabulary use are scientific, including religion, culture, art, journalism, medicine, forestry, sports, tourism, crime, and politics (Perini, 2021). Precisely, experts classify vocabularies in the KBBI into twenty-four areas of use, namely traditional ceremonies, buildings, flora, fauna, titles, ranks, positions, occupations, relatives, diseases, games, furniture, tools, weapons, arts, food, fashion, transportation, unit of measurement, time, colors, and activities (Budiwiyanto, 2022).

Every word standardized in the dictionary is considered an integration of words into the national language. The dynamic nature of language requires speed and accuracy so that new words can be standardized immediately (Nurjanah et al., 2019). For example, in the 4th edition of KBBI, initially, there was no entry for the word *hoaks* ‘hoax’, but due to its active use in everyday life, it began to appear in the 5th edition of KBBI (Nuthihar, 2018). Likewise, the word *vokasi* ‘vocation’ was not included initially in the 5th edition of KBBI. Later, along with the formation of the directorate general at the Ministry of Education and Culture, the word *vokasi* ‘vocation’ began to be standardized (Nuthihar, 2018).

3. METHODS

3.1 Source of Data

This research is a descriptive-analytical study (Kortmann, 2020; Mahsun, 2005). The source of data was the online version of *Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia* (KBBI) on the web page https://kbbi.kemdikbud.go.id/. The data were the vocabulary of the Acehnese language that had been registered on KBBI and become part of the country's language.

3.2 Data Collection and Analysis

The data were collected from October 2021 to March 2022 through observational and note-taking techniques. The data collection was carried out in four stages: (1) accessing the online version of KBBI, (2) recording Acehnese vocabulary from the choice of vocabulary list menu manually, and (3) classifying the vocabulary based on the word classes of Budiwiyanto (2009); and (4) classifying the vocabulary based on its use in society.

4. RESULTS

This study found that in the case of the integration of Acehnese into Indonesian, a number of new words have been recorded. This study specifically observed the integration of Acehnese vocabulary into Indonesian throughout 2021. The findings showed that 134 Acehnese words had been successfully integrated into Indonesian.

This study also found that the Acehnese words integrated into Indonesian are the common words in speech and some typical regional terms, including polysemes. The following shows the study results and discussion divided into two topics, namely (1) word class and (2) field of use.

4.1 Word Class

The Acehnese words integrated into the KBBI are classified based on the word class category, as shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Classification of Acehnese words based on word class.

No.	Word class	Code	Acehnese words in the KBBI	Total words in the KBBI
1.	Noun	n	95	45.271
2.	Verb	v	29	19.608
3.	Adjective	a	9	7.873
4.	Adverb	adv	1	534

Last accessed at https://kbbi.kemdikbud.go.id/ on 1 October 2021.

In the online KBBI, each category is labeled with /n Ach/ for nouns, /v Ach/ for verbs, /a Ach/ for adjectives, and /adv Ach/ for adverbs.

4.1.1 Nouns

Table 2 shows that the noun class is the most significant word class category integrated from Acehnese into Indonesian. The figure reaches 70.90%. A high contribution of nouns in the KBBI is due to their frequent use in daily life, and there are no other equivalents for the words. It is in line with the number of Indonesian words in KBBI, which is dominated by nouns. In addition, the KBBI is intended for people of various ages; thus, it should contain more than 60.000 words. In addition, the KBBI contains many nouns, with a total of 45.271 words. Table 3 displays the 35 (out of 95) examples of Acehnese nouns included in the KBBI.

Table 3. Acehnese nouns in the KBBI.

No.	Word	Meaning
1.	*abek*	a small pond usually overgrown with wild plants
2.	*adang*	a black stain stuck to a cauldron or a pot
3.	*alen*	a small raft of bamboo or areca palm midrib to put offerings that float on the river
4.	*alue*	a dead-end creek from a river or swamp
5.	*areng*	a net to catch deer and others
6.	*biek*	paternal relatives in the Acehnese marriage system
7.	*boh leping*	a coconut that has been dug into by a squirrel
8.	*bong*	a family graveyard
9.	*calok*	a relatively deep hole in the rice field; a small marsh; a small forest in a field
10.	*capah*	a large, round and flat plate made of wood
11.	*carak*	a drain made of areca palm midrib or bamboo
12.	*caruk*	the space between the bow and stern walls of a boat
13.	*gampong*	Acehnese traditional settlements
14.	*jab*	the neck of a trap, consisting of a bamboo funnel woven across and open to the mouth of the trap, tightly closed at the end
15.	*jalen*	bamboo or wooden floors that are strung together in a boat to transport something (fish, bananas, or soil)
16.	*jendrang*	rice stalks in rice fields that are still long after the stem is cut
17.	*karong*	maternal relatives in the Acehnese marriage system
18.	*kemamah*	sundried tuna
19.	*kom*	a chicken egg that will not hatch even though it has been incubated longer than usual
20.	*kri*	an agricultural tool used to clear weeds around the plant, its shape resembles a sickle with a tip resembling a hoe
21.	*kukuet*	buffalo skin that is boiled and dried
22.	*male*	address term for a childless woman
23.	*mawaih*	a system of sharing the profits from rice fields or livestock
24.	*nuga*	a small wooden hammer for hitting wooden pegs
25.	*patarakna*	small, low, and cushioned stools, placed on the left and the right sides of a king's throne
26.	*pecicap*	a traditional ceremony to introduce babies to various types of food by tasting them
27.	*peusijuek*	the tradition of sowing plain flour, usually done when there is a special event (marriage, pilgrimage, etc.)
28.	*radat*	a leader or giver of rhythm in reading the *shalawat* (i.e., Islamic complimentary Arabic phrase, which contains the salutation upon the Prophet Muhammad)
29.	*rangkang*	a small pillared hut in a field, a place for unmarried men, a residence for religious students
30.	*suak*	a stream of water that becomes a marsh and is separated by land from the sea when the water recedes
31.	*suro*	a small fish trap made of sticks for catching fish (cork fish)
32.	*timphan*	an Acehnese delicacy served on Eid al-Fitr and Eid al-Adha, in the form of cake wrapped in banana leaves
33.	*tungo*	a piece of wood that has been or is being burned partially or which is no longer burning; firewood
34.	*tunten*	the lowest hand of a bunch of bananas
35.	*uram*	the bottom and thickest part (e.g., logs, branches)

Last accessed at https://kbbi.kemdikbud.go.id/ on 1 October 2021.

4.1.2 Verbs

The verb class category is the second largest at 21.64%. The number of verbs tends to be lower than the nouns because the frequency of use is also minimal. Verbs from Acehnese, which are adopted into Indonesian, serve as predicates. It is unlikely that more verbs from Acehnese will be adopted into Indonesian because the morphology of the Acehnese language is unique and relatively different from that of Indonesian. This certainly does not meet the requirements in the form of being in harmony with the rules of the Indonesian language. In KBBI, the number of verbs is 19.608. All Acehnese verbs that have entered Indonesian are shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Acehnese verbs in the KBBI.

No.	Word	Meaning
1.	*agai*	to think of oneself as better than others
2.	*apon*	to expect something in vain; too long for something that would not come, to regret something that was expected
3.	*bengka*	to loosen, to enlarge a girl's earlobe
4.	*cato*	to sew in a checkerboard pattern (about mattress)
5..	*cob*	to move one's body up and down (when walking fast)
6.	*gampet*	to clamp something between one's thighs
7.	*jujoh*	to condense, sweat, excrete liquid (e.g., rotting fruit), drip (for liquids)
8.	*merenyok*	to lift and drop down hard and pull or shake (about rice sacks so that the contents are pushed together)
9.	*meretok*	to do something slowly and with struggle because one's body is weak or just recovering from an illness
10.	*pemure*	to start an activity to be followed by others
11.	*pilik*	to hold something with one's fingertips while showing its state (about cloth)
12.	*pingkom*	to press something between one's thumbnails
13.	*pipot*	to break something piece by piece or bit by bit
14.	*rabok*	to go towards an unsteady, changing direction
15.	*ramin*	to slaughter an animal for a feast outdoors in nature
16.	*rande*	to lift something together and push it slowly
17.	*raweet*	to comb one's hair with fingers
18.	*remet*	to move slowly up and down and around (about the fishing line)
19.	*ribang*	to tie tightly
20.	*rudui*	to fall down
21.	*sayong*	to add fresh water to seawater that has been reduced while being processed into salt
22.	*seba*	to pound rice (still rough) for the first time
23.	*serok*	to weave in a pattern with silver or gold thread
24.	*simprak*	to sit astride (e.g., on a horse)
25.	*siwet*	to arrange, or a twist of yarn to be spun on a loom
26.	*talum*	to put something in one's mouth in large quantities
27.	*tebet*	to remove or clean kapok seed pods
28.	*timpeng*	to take long steps to go up or down
29.	*upa*	(1) to rub with hands (e.g., one's body or head when bathing) (2) to rub between hands (e.g., medicinal leaves)

Last accessed at https://kbbi.kemdikbud.go.id/ on 1 October 2021.

4.1.3 Adjectives

The integrated Acehnese adjective class category enriches Indonesian as a small group at only 6.72%. One of the reasons for the limited number of Acehnese adjectives adapted into Indonesian is that they are used less frequently. The nine adjectives adopted can be categorized as unique and cannot be found in other local languages in Indonesia or foreign languages. The uniqueness of adjectives in Acehnese can be seen in their meaning and morphological processes. Meanwhile, in the KBBI, the total number of adjectives is 7.873. All Acehnese adjectives that have entered Indonesian are shown in Table 5.

Table 5. Acehnese adjectives in the KBBI.

No.	Word	Meaning
1.	*ai*	the feeling of yearning or missing someone
2.	*beti*	(1) the state of a rope in a very fastened twist (2) the state of a rope with broken strands
3.	*bilaih*	sore eyes from smoke
4.	*galawala*	inappropriate; impolite
5.	*rencam*	full of wounds
6.	*rentah*	overripe (about rice)
7.	*rise*	evil with lousy behavior, living in disorder, moving everywhere
8.	*ruek*	very dry (about fruits such as areca nut, corn)
9.	*sebon*	has no spirit; no appetite, and is feeble

Last accessed at https://kbbi.kemdikbud.go.id/ on 1 October 2021.

Table 5 shows that only a few adjectives are integrated into the KBBI. More active efforts are needed from the Acehnese people to propose more adjectives to be integrated into the KBBI despite the existing data being currently deemed sufficient.

4.1.4 Adverbs

The adverb class category is even smaller. Only 0.75% or one word *lagoko* means 'the same time on the next day for an appointment' (see Table 6). It is proportional to the number of adverbs in the KBBI, which is only 534.

Table 6. Acehnese adverbs in the KBBI.

No.	Word	Meaning
1.	*lagoko*	the same time on the next day for an appointment

Last accessed at https://kbbi.kemdikbud.go.id/ on 1 October 2021.

4.2 Fields of Use

The 134 Acehnese words in the KBBI can be classified into 24 types of fields based on their usage. They are: (1) activities/characteristics/state, (2) tools, (3) nature/state, (4) flora, (5) food, (6) fauna, (7) titles/terms of address, (8) clothing, (9) art, (10) building, (11) society group, (12) kinship, (13) game/activity, (14) furniture, (15) weapon, (16) jewelry, (17) time, (18) paranormal, (19) profession, (20) illness, (21) economy, (22) medicine, (23) body, and (24) others. The words based on the fields of use are displayed in Table 7.

Table 7. Classification of Acehnese words.

No	Fields	N	Words				
1.	activities/ characteristics/ state	38	*agai*	*ai*	*apon*	*upa*	*bengka*
			beti	*bideng*	*bilaih*	*bimaran*	*blang*
			cob	*galawala*	*gampet*	*merenyok*	*meretok*

Table 7 continued…

			pecicap	*pemure*	*peusijuek*	*pilik*	*pingkom*
			pipot	*rabok*	*rande*	*raweet*	*remet*
			rencam	*ribang*	*rise*	*rudui*	*sayong*
			seba	*sebon*	*simprak*	*siwet*	*talum*
			tebet	*timpeng*	*upa*		
2	tools	24	*agok*	*alang*	*alen*	*areng*	*ilang*
			indai	*banien*	*belibeh*	*beregu*	*capah*
			carak	*ceracak*	*jab*	*jalen*	*jereka*
			kri	*mata kakab*	*nuga*	*penuman*	*penyeket*
			puncek	*seleng*	*senong*	*suro*	
3	nature/state	18	*abek*	*adang*	*alue*	*uram*	*belimbeng*
			bong	*burok*	*calok*	*diye*	*hobo*
			jako	*jujoh*	*matang*	*rentah*	*ruek*
			semong	*suak*	*uram*		
4	flora	6	*alangan*	*boh leping*	*jendrang*	*jong*	*selugot*
			tunten				
5	food	6	*bubur kanji rumbi*	*enti*	*kemamah*	*kukuet*	*patisah*
			timphan				
6	fauna	5	*ayam biring*	*ikan kawan*	*jalak*	*kom*	*seulumat*
7	titles/terms of address	5	*ampon*	*lam muri*	*male*	*serempe*	*teuku*
8	clothing	4	*acêkarom*	*ija lunggi*	*pace*	*pengelet*	
9	art	4	*cato*	*hadi*	*radat*	*serok*	
10	building	3	*menasah*	*pupaleh*	*rangkang*		
11	society group	3	*bunian*	*gampong*	*hendi*		
12	kinship	3	*biek*	*karong*	*koy*		
13	game/activity	2	*barah*	*ramin*			
14	furniture	1	*pataraknа*				
15	weapon	2	*bahri*	*rencong*			
16	jewelry	1	*biram*	*pasong*			
17	time	1	*lagoko*				
18	paranormal	1	*aderang*				
19	profession	1	*bujangga*				
20	illness	1	*mambang kuning*				
21	economy	1	*mawaih*				
22	medicine	1	*rabon*				
23	body	1	*agie*				
24	others	2	*caruk*	*tungo*			
Total		134					

Last accessed at https://kbbi.kemdikbud.go.id/ on 1 October 2021.

5. DISCUSSION

Efforts to integrate local languages into the national language cannot be separated from language politics (Phillipson, 2018). The national language must update and upgrade its vocabulary to enrich it. In addition, regional people also feel proud if there are words from their local languages that are adopted as part of the national language. Therefore, integrating Acehnese words into KBBI is an effort to advance the Acehnese language itself and promote the development of Indonesian as the official and national language simultaneously (Taslim, 2013; Yusuf et al., 2016).

This is seen as one of the positive attitudes toward language (Albury, 2021; Sanusi et al., 2018). This positive attitude refers to a sense of pride, trust, and loyalty to the language. These three elements of a positive language attitude lead the speaking community to efforts to maintain, develop, and foster their language, including integrating local languages into the national language (Mar-Molinero & Stevenson, 2006).

The integration of Acehnese into Indonesian can be seen in the contribution of Acehnese vocabulary to the KBBI (Kaplan & Baldauf, 2003; Kwary & Jalaluddin, 2014). Based on the results, the proportion of Acehnese words that belong to the noun class is 70.90%. It is in line with the number of Indonesian words in KBBI, which is dominated by nouns. There are classes of nouns in the form of kitchen objects, agricultural objects, objects in the market, and objects in the fields of art and culture. The second order is the verb class (21.64%). Verbs that have been integrated into the Indonesian language include agriculture and plantations, Acehnese traditions or customs, and sports activities. In the following order is the adjective word class, contributing 6.72%. This class of words is seen in the field of everyday human traits such as sore eyes, disrespect, courage, and others. The new adverb word class is integrated by 0.75%. This word class is still very minimally absorbed into the KBBI.

The Acehnese language needs to continue to integrate its vocabulary into Indonesian so that the Acehnese vocabulary is more sustainable. It is also necessary to integrate archaic vocabulary from Acehnese into Indonesian. This can be seen as the national language's policy of maintaining archaic vocabulary (Moeimam & Hoogervorst, 2020).

National language politics is an issue experienced by almost all nations and countries worldwide. An example of the case can be seen in the United States. Combs and Nicholas (2012) reported Arizona’s language policies on school districts serving Native American students. Meanwhile, Heimburger (2012) related the issue of language policy to military conflicts, especially concerning the diversity of the first language or mother tongue of soldiers with the main language in military units, all of which (for example) are needed for intelligence and propaganda purposes. Finally, a report closely related to research is Warhol (2012), which stated that the United States regulated federal language policies through the Native American Languages Act (NALA) in the early 1990s. NALA established a federal role in preserving and protecting Native American languages. The program put the local and national context and importance of the grassroots Native American language movement of the 1980s. NALA changed power relations and created language policies to support language education practices and goals.

The Ministry of Education and Culture has launched a vocabulary enrichment application to enrich the Indonesian vocabulary. The application uses an online system. This program is provided by the Language Development and Development Agency, Ministry of Education and Culture, to involve the broader community in suggesting new words from local languages in Indonesian. Suggestions for the words will be included in the KBBI to recognize that certain local languages have been integrated into Indonesian. The process of integrating vocabulary through this application is also developing in European countries (Phillipson, 2018).

In the end, the study on the contribution of the local language (Acehnese) to the development of the national language (Indonesian) can be used as a reference for policies for various languages in the world. At least 70 local languages from all over Indonesia have contributed to advancing and developing the Indonesian language. Acehnese, as one of Indonesia's local languages, also contributes new words to the development of the Indonesian language. Of course, this leads to a positive direction, both for Indonesian and for Acehnese itself.

6. CONCLUSION

This study specifically observed the integration of Acehnese vocabulary into Indonesian throughout 2021. The data findings showed that 134 Acehnese vocabulary words had been successfully integrated into Indonesian. This study's results showed that Acehnese's contribution to Indonesian is still relatively small compared to the contribution of some other local languages. It is still limited to the noun class (70.90%), verb (21.64%), adjective (6.72%), and adverb (0.75%). Therefore, it can be concluded that nouns are the most dominant among word classes. It is in line with the number of Indonesian words in KBBI, which is dominated by nouns. There are classes of nouns in the form of kitchen objects, agricultural objects, objects in the market, and objects in the fields of art and culture. However, the Acehnese language has contributed to many aspects of life, such as the fields of activities/characteristics/conditions, tools, nature/condition, flora, etc. At least there are 24 fields of use or areas of Acehnese words that have been successfully integrated into Indonesian.

Ultimately, this study strengthens the theory of language integration, language politics, and language policing in Indonesia. This research can be a reference for linguistic researchers worldwide, especially in integrating, coaching, and developing local languages as benefactors of the national language.

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A Semantic Analysis of the Fishery Vocabulary of the Hulu Dialect of Banjarese

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Abstract

This study aimed to examine the fishery vocabulary in the Hulu dialect of Banjarese (upper river dialect) at the Central and North Hulu Sungai Regencies, Kalimantan, Indonesia. Data collection techniques were carried out by observation, interviews, and recording with 23 native speakers of the Banjarese language. They were permanent residents in the study locations, male and female residents aged 25-70, and they knew about their traditional fishing activities. Semantic analysis was used in scrutinizing the data. The initial vocabulary data from the informants was first identified and described. Each lexeme of the fishery vocabulary in the Hulu dialect of Banjarese was analyzed based on its lexical meaning, grammatical meaning, and semantic function. The words were then explained, paraphrased, and further categorized based on their types of meaning and function. The results showed that the fishery vocabulary of the Hulu dialect of Banjarese has 30 lexical meanings, comprising 28 nouns and two verbs. They are categorized into five types: (1) fishing gear, traps, and net, (2) fish containers, (3) fishing bait, (4) fish species, and (5) fishing activities. The fishery vocabulary in the Hulu dialect of Banjarese depicts the cultural wealth of these people. These lexemes can be maintained if the people continue to preserve the use of environment-friendly fishing gear that depicts their environmental and local wisdom.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Banjarese is used in Central, East, and South Kalimantan (Kawi, 2002, p. 7; Kawi, 2011, p. 2). This language is spoken in four provinces, including South, Central, East, and North Kalimantan, though it is also found in Tembilahan (Riau) and Sabak Bernam (Malaysia) (Kawi, 2002, p. 7). Banjarese is a Malay dialect with a substantial lexical influence from Javanese and East and West Barito's local languages (Adelaar, 2021, p. 82). Precisely, it consists of three dialects, including the Kuala (downriver), Hulu (upper river), and Bukit (Kawi, 2002, p. 170).

The community speaks Banjarese Hulu (upper river dialect) in Central and North Hulu Sungai Regencies. The fishery vocabulary is endangered in both regencies because they infrequently use the traditional bamboo fishing tools, replacing them with wire, netting or nets, and nylon. The reduced use of traditional bamboo fishing tools has influenced the extinction of the vocabulary in the community. This is based on the Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis or linguistic relativity, which states a strong connection between a speaker's language, culture, and mind. In the process of language, it is proved that a person's conditions and culture significantly influence the language used in daily communication. According to this hypothesis, the cultural patterns of a society can construct clauses to provide variations in information. Therefore, this study attempted to identify and classify the fishery vocabulary to avoid extinction. The Central and North Hulu Sungai Regencies have residential areas around the river. This study focused on the residential housing on both sides of the road built on wet soil, where the locals traditionally catch and rear fish, keep their fishing gear, and cultivate them around their residences.

Previous studies did not examine fishery vocabulary in these regencies (Prasetyo, 2006, 2008; Rais et al., 2018; Rafiek, 2021). North Hulu Sungai Regency consists of *hampang, pengilar, lukah, luntak, rengge,* and nylon wire fishing gears that the community use to catch river fish, including *biawan,* snakehead, *kapar, karandang, saluang, betok, sepat, baung,* and *lais* (Prasetyo, 2006). Furthermore, Prasetyo (2008) found six fishing gears, including *hampang, pengilar, lukah, luntak, rengge,* and wire. Several fish species were found in the Panggang Lake fisheries reserve, such as snakehead, *toman, sepat,* and *tambakan* (Prasetyo, 2008). Some younger generations do not know the fishing gear and fish species. Rais et al. (2018) found 11 types of fishing gear grouped into four, namely hook and line (buoy fishing line and *rawai baung*), pot trap (*lukah baung, jabak baung, tampirai,* and *tamba seluang* (*kabam*), barrier trap (*hampang padang, selambau kasa,* and *selambau sungai*), and gill net (*lalangit* and *rengge*). Rafiek (2021) states several fishery-related vocabularies, including *buluh, keli,* and *ikan kembung* (pufferfish). Furthermore, *buluh* is the bamboo material for fishing tackle or rods, while *keli* is a fish's name. *Ikan kembung* or pufferfish grows into such a ball when rubbed. Some younger generations do not know or have heard this fishery vocabulary. Therefore, this study intends to document the traditional fish vocabulary of the present and future generations. The fishery vocabulary is an invaluable cultural treasure and history, specifically the cultural development of the community living and interacting with rivers, lakes, and other wetlands.

The difference between this study and the studies by Prasetyo (2006, 2008) and Rais et al. (2018) is that they merely examined the use of traditional fishing gear and its catch. The research locations of Prasetyo (2006, 2008) and Rais et al. (2018) were only in the Sambujur river and Danau Panggang District; meanwhile, this study investigated the words still used in two regencies. Rafiek's (2021) research was also different from this study because the study only examined the names of three vocabularies of Banjarese related to fisheries in general. While this study specifically examined the vocabulary of fisheries in Hulu Sungai Tengah and Hulu Sungai Utara regencies which are the location of the speakers of the Hulu dialect of Banjarese. Based on the differences from the above studies, the following research question is formulated:

- What are the categories of fishery vocabulary of the Hulu dialect of Banjarese based on the types of meaning and function?

In analysis, the categories of the fishery vocabulary are based on the lexical meaning, grammatical meaning, and semantic function of each word (i.e., data) obtained from the informants of this present study.

1.1 Meaning in Semantics

Lexeme is a complex representation that connects meaning (singular) with a collection of word forms (connects meanings with a series of grammatical words, which are then associated with the corresponding form of the word) (Spencer, 2017). The term lexeme was introduced by Lyons (1977) as a minimal unit that can take part in a reference or predicate. All lexemes of a language are lexicons of language (Kreidler, 2002). Lexeme, lexical units, and lexical items are interchangeable terms. They are all defined as "items which function as a single unit of meaning, regardless of the number of words they contain" (Barcroft et al., 2011, p. 573).

1.1.1 Lexical meaning

Lexical semantics deals with aspects inherent in the meaning of words and semantic relationships between words, as well as how the meaning of words is related to syntactic structures (Stringer, 2019). Lexical semantics is the study of the meaning of words (Riemer, 2010, p. 21). Lexical meaning refers to the sense (or meaning) of a word (or lexeme) as it appears in the dictionary. It is also known as semantic meaning, denotative meaning, and central meaning (Nordquist, 2019). Lexical meaning is based on the actual word (the actual meaning) and has a fixed nature, which means it is not related to the context of the sentence. This meaning can be found in dictionaries, due to its fixed and original nature, without any special meaning or interpretation. So, a lexical meaning is a meaning obtained from a root word/base. Lexical meaning is the actual meaning of a word, and that meaning has been contained in a dictionary.

1.1.2 Grammatical Meaning

Grammatical meaning is the meaning of the content (Feist, 2022). It shows the listener how to construct the meaning of speech from its parts (Feist, 2022). It consists of a procedure that composes the content of an utterance. Based on Feist (2022), it can be concluded that grammatical meaning is the meaning contained in spoken grammar.

Grammatical meanings are conveyed by word order and other grammatical signals in a sentence. Grammatical meaning is also called structural meaning (Nordquist, 2020). It exists due to grammatical activity in the form of duplication, modification, affixation, or transformation of word forms. Grammatical meanings are obtained from words that have received affixation and words that undergo morphophonemic and dredging processes. Grammatical meaning is the basic meaning of a word that turns into a new meaning. The new meaning is present because of the grammaticalization process (repetition, repetition of words, compounding of words) that occurs in the word so that the word changes meaning and its form.

1.1.3 Semantic function

The semantic function is also called the semantic relationship or role, which is filled by the sentence's constituents in the semantic frame. Semantic functions are also given input sentences, target words, and frames. Meanwhile, the system labels constituents with abstract semantic roles, such as Agent or Patient or domain, and specific semantic roles, such as Speaker, Message, and Topic (Gildea & Jurafsky, 2002). Based on Gildea and Jurafsky (2002), it can be seen that the semantic function consists of an Agent or Patient or a domain of specific semantic roles such as Speaker, Message, and Topic.

Semantic roles can be defined at a meaningful level; for example, the verb send and receive will share semantic functions (Gildea & Jurafsky, 2002). Therefore, the semantic function can be known from the function of the verb, which has a semantic role. The role of semantics expresses the role that the arguments of the predicate are taken in an event (Jurafsky & Martin, 2020). The term semantic role shows all sets of roles, both small and large (Jurafsky & Martin, 2020).

2. METHODS

2.1 Research Approach

This study employed a qualitative approach. The qualitative approach is oriented toward analyzing concrete cases in their temporal and local specificities, starting from the expression and activities of people in their local contexts (Flick, 2009). This view of the qualitative approach is appropriate to examine the fishery vocabulary in the Hulu dialect of Banjarese because it is locally specific, spoken, and carried out by residents or informants in a local context.

2.2 Research Participants and Location

Twenty-three informants were chosen purposively. Those participating in the study met the following criteria: (1) indigenous Banjar tribe community with knowledge of the fishery vocabulary and terms, (2) permanent residents in the study locations, (3) male and female residents aged 25-70, (4) having good articulator or speech apparatus (i.e., teeth in good condition), (5) being able to speak clearly, (6) understanding the meaning and function of fishery vocabulary and terms in their areas, and (7) knowledge on fishing rods, traps, and bait sellers.

Based on the criteria above, the informants chosen included Nln, Lmh, and Apn living in Danau Caramin Village from Central Amuntai Sub-district, Rkh in Halat Village, Sdn and Up in Tapus Dalam Village, Sungai Pandan Sub-district, and Slh in Pinang Habang Village. The fish trap sellers used as informants consisted of Mra in the Amuntai market, HU, HS, and Abn in the Amuntai handicraft market. The fishing bait sellers included Rwt and MR in the Amuntai market and Mar in Teluk Masjid Village. Moreover, NN was a fish seller at the Amuntai market and Zdn in Binjai Pirua and Kasarangan Villages. Jrn and Rsk were from Pinang Habang and Pasar Senen Amuntai villages. Lastly, Srp, Ysr, and HS were from Amuntai, Arb in Baru, and Msr in Danau Panggang sub-district. They are fishermen at the research sites and know the vocabulary of fisheries in the Hulu dialect of Banjarese.

2.3 Data Collection

Data were collected through observation, interview, and recording techniques (Flick, 2009). Flick (2009) mentioned that verbal data collection could be done with interviews, observations, and visual data in videos. This is reinforced by Mason (2002) and Creswell (2014). Mason (2002) stated that qualitative data collection techniques could be carried out by interviews, observations, and visual methods. Similarly, Creswell (2014) stated that qualitative data collection techniques could be carried out by observation, interviews, and audiovisual materials. The observation technique was carried out by observing fishery vocabulary in the Hulu dialect of Banjarese in their speech and fishery tools in their work as fishermen. Interview techniques were conducted by interviewing and recording the informants and their utterances with a mobile phone at the research sites. Furthermore, the interviews asked whether they knew and used the fishery vocabulary in their daily lives and whether the young speakers knew and recognized the fishery vocabulary.

The data collected through interviews and live video recordings in the field included the cite areas of Danau Caramin Village (North Hulu Sungai Regency), Halat (border of Central and North Hulu Sungai regencies), Sungai Buluh (Central Hulu Sungai Regency), Tapus Dalam (River Pandan Sub-district, North Hulu Sungai District), Amuntai market and handicraft market, Pinang Habang (Central Amuntai Sub-district, North Hulu Sungai Regency), Teluk Masjid (Sungai Pandan Alabio Sub-district, North Hulu Sungai Regency), and Binjai Pirua and Kasarangan Villages, North Labuan Amas Sub-district, Central Hulu Sungai Regency.

The 23 informants were asked whether they understood or were familiar with traditional fishery vocabulary. Those who answered ‘yes’ then continued with inquiries on the traditional fishery vocabulary. Those who agreed were further asked whether the fishery vocabulary had any objects or fishing gear. The researchers took photos and videos during the interviews.

2.4 Data Analysis

The results of the interviews from the videos were viewed and reviewed again for transcription. After the data was transcribed, the meaning was further checked in accordance with the Banjarese-Indonesia dictionary. The data analysis used the process adopted from a qualitative research model by Busetto et al. (2020). This data analysis process began by stating the research questions, research design, data collection, data analysis, and a research report (Busetto et al., 2020). If the gained data were insufficient, the researcher might recollect the data to be further analyzed.

Data analysis of this study uses semantic analysis (Riemer, 2010). It is the process of drawing meaning from text. The vocabulary data from the informants were identified and described. Each lexeme of the fishery vocabulary in the Hulu dialect of Banjarese was analyzed based on its lexical meaning, grammatical meaning, and semantic function. Then, the words were explained, paraphrased, and further categorized based on their types of meaning and function.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Based on the analysis of types of meaning and function, the fishery vocabulary of the Hulu dialect of Banjarese has 30 lexical meanings, comprising 28 nouns and two verbs. They are categorized into five types: (1) fishing gear, traps, and net, (2) fish containers, (3) fishing bait, (4) fish species, and (5) fishing activities. They are explained in the following subsections.

3.1 Types of Fishing Gears, Traps, and Net Vocabulary in Hulu Dialect of Banjarese

3.1.1 Tamburu or tampirai or kapalaan lexeme

Tamburu or *tampirai* or *kapalaan* lexeme is a fish device made of bamboo in the shape of a heart or wire in the shape of a box. *Tamburu* or *tampirai* or *kapalaan* is made of bamboo, has a larger size, and is higher than *kabam* (further explained in 3.1.11). *Tamburu* or *kapalaan* is more often used by speakers of the Hulu dialect of Banjarese than *tampirai*. *Tampirai* is called *sengirai* in Malay. In this case, there is a difference in the first and second syllables between *tampirai* in the Hulu dialect of Banjarese and *sengirai* in Malay. *Tamp* on *tampirai* becomes *seng* on *sengirai* in Malay. *Tampirai* has similar forms and similarities in meaning with *sengirai* in South Sumatra and *sempirai* in Riau. Especially with *sempirai* in Riau, *tampirai* differs only in using the initial consonant /t/ and the vowel /a/, which is the initial consonant /s/, and the vowel /e/ in *sempirai*.

Lmh and Nln stated that residents use *tamburu* to catch *sepat* and *sepat siam* fish. The observations in Danau Caramin Village showed that the commonly used *tamburu* is made of wire with a side of bamboo blades. *Tamburu* is called *tampirai* in the Banjarmasin city and Banjar regency. According to Rkh in Halat Village, it is also called *tamburu sapat*.

Figure 1. *Tamburu* in Danau Caramin Village, North Hulu Sungai Regency.

Abn from Alabio stated that *tamburu* or *kapalaan*, made of bamboo, is sold at the Amuntai handicraft market every Thursday morning. Mra, a fish trap trader at the Amuntai market, calls it a *tamburu* and sells bamboo drums higher than typical drums. Even if it is sold in the market, based on observations in the field, the *tamburu* made of bamboo is no longer used by the community at the research site. *The Tamburu* that is still widely used is the one made of wire.

Figure 2. *Tamburu* or *tampirai* or *kapalaan* at the Amuntai handicraft market.

Tamburu, *tampirai*, or *kapalaan* are fish traps made of rattan, bamboo blades, or pendant wire. Furthermore, the box-shaped fishing gear is also made of wood, with the middle part as the entrance to trap fish. *Manampirai* involves installing *tampirai* to catch or trap fish. It is a traditional fishing tackle made of bamboo blades or pendant wire, with a heart shape or amor when viewed from above. It has a narrow gap at the front as a fish entrance and is a permanent trap.

The observations showed that *tamburu, tampirai*, or *kapalaan* made of pendant wire, is box-shaped, while the rattan or bamboo is heart-shaped. Furthermore, most residents use *tamburu, tampirai*, or *kapalaan* made of wire instead of bamboo blades because bamboo raw materials are difficult to obtain, and the makers today are limited only to a few.

3.1.2 Lukah walut lexeme

Lukah walut lexeme is an eel trap made of bamboo. The naming of *lukah walut* is based on its function in trapping eels. *Lukah walut* is called *bubu belut* in Malay. So, it is not the same naming between *lukah walut* in the Hulu dialect of Banjarese and *bubu belut* in Malay. *Lukah walut* is used to catch eels, and according to Lmh, Nln, and Apn in Danau Caramin Village, it is made of wire and bamboo blades. Apn stated that it involves covering the top with a plastic bottle and the bottom with a trap, preventing the fish from escaping. Fishing using this gear is called *malukah*.

Figure 3. *Lukah walut* made of bamboo blades in Danau Caramin Village, North Hulu Sungai Regency.

3.1.3 Lalangit lexeme

Lalangit lexeme is a fish trap made of bamboo and nylon nets that are made and used horizontally or stretched. The naming of the *lalangit* is based on the color of nylon, which used to be white, like the color of the clouds (i.e., *langit*) in the sky. *Lalangit* is made of transparent and smooth nylon polyethylene with a 1.5-2 inches mesh sized 1 m x 0.8 m. This fishing gear especially catches *betok,* by placing it at an angle near the water surface (Azizi & Wahyudi, 2001). According to Lmh, Nln, and Apn in Danau Caramin Village, *Lalangit* is used to catch *papuyu* (*betok*), *sepat*, and *sepat siam* fish. It is made of bamboo blades with thread or nylon stretched out and rocked with bait. Fishing using the *lalangit* is called *malalangit*.

Figure 4. *Lalangit* in Danau Caramin Village, North Hulu Sungai Regency.

3.1.4 Lapak lexeme

Lapak lexeme is a *haruan* fishing rod made of short bamboo sticks, nylon, and hooks. The naming of *lapak* is based on the style of fishing while sitting on the ground. *Lapak* is a fishing nylon gear with a handle made of small bamboo rods baited by frogs (*anak lalak*, *kurat*, *bancet*, or tiny frogs) to catch snakehead fish. According to Lmh, Nln, and Apn, this *malapak* is mainly conducted by the boys in Danau Caramin, Halat, and Sungai Buluh Villages, because the bamboo rods are short and easy to carry at 5-10 *lapak* at once. This fishing activity using *lapak* is called *malapak*.

Figure 5. *Lapak* in Danau Caramin Village, North Hulu Sungai Regency.

3.1.5 Lukah lexeme

Lukah lexeme is a fish trap device made of bamboo slats woven in a way shaped like a missile or a torpedo. It is commonly made in Halat and Pinang Habang Villages. *Lukah* is also given a *handut* (*injap*) in the middle so the fish cannot escape after being trapped. *Lukah* is called *bubu* in Malay. So, it is not the same naming between *lukah* in the Hulu dialect of Banjarese and *bubu* in Malay. According to Rkh in Halat Village, *lukah* traps *haruan*, *papuyu*, tilapia, *sepat*, and *sepat siam* fish and is widely used by Central and North Hulu Sungai Regency residents. Meanwhile, Slh from Pinang Habang Village, Central Amuntai Sub-district, *lukah* traps *haruan*, *sapat siam*, *papuyu*, and *biawan* fish in their area.

Figure 6. *Lukah* in Halat Village.

3.1.6 Sarakap or Jambih lexeme

Sarakap lexeme in Hulu dialect of Banjarese is called *sekap* or *serkap* in Malay. In this case, there are differences in the mention or naming of the initial syllables between the two languages. The first and second syllables of *sara* pada *sarakap* in the Hulu dialect of Banjarese turn into one syllable *se* on *sekap* or *ser* on *serkap* in Malay. *Sarakap* is a fish trap stuck into the water touching the ground, preventing the fish from escaping, and the fishermen catch it by hand through the top of the open *sarakap*. This gear is made of bamboo and rattan, with a sharp tip of the bottom bamboo blade that firmly embeds into the ground. *Sarakap* catches large fish in the rice fields, such as *sepat*, *papuyu* (*betok*), and *haruan* (snakehead).

Up in Tapus Dalam Village, he explained that *sarakap* is rarely used because of the deep water in the swamp behind his house, which reaches an adult's neck. This gear is used in shallow water where the fish is seen from the surface. According to

Abn at Alabio, in Amuntai, it is also known as *Jambih*, a tool that ambushes fish (Suryadikara et al., 1984).

Figure 7. *Sarakap* sold at Amuntai Market.

3.1.7 Hampang lexeme

The reflection of etimon Proto Austronesian=PAN in Banjarese for *hampang* (empang) is **ampaŋ* (Kawi et al., 1993, p. 16). *Hampang* or *empang* reflects etymon Proto Austronesian in Banjarese, namely **ampaŋ* (Kawi et al., 1993, p. 71). *Hampang* lexeme is a fishing device plugged into the bottom of the water to direct the fish into the trap. It is made from woven bamboo blades such as a *lampit* (bamboo mat). According to HU from Alabio, it is also called *tampirai* with soft bamboo materials. The observations showed that the residents rarely use *hampang* to direct fish to *tamburu* or *kapalaan* in Central and North Hulu Sungai Regencies.

Figure 8. *Hampang*.

3.1.8 Jabak baung lexeme

Jabak baung lexeme is a gear that traps *baung* fish made of fresh green bamboo. HU from Alabio, who trades at the Amuntai handicraft market every Thursday, stated that *jabak* means trap (Suryadikara et al., 1984). *Jabak baung* in the Pasar Sabtu village, Sungai Tabukan District, Hulu Sungai Utara Regency, is called *ringkap baung* or *kurihing*. The naming of jabak baung is based on its function as a tool to trap *baung* fish. *Jabak* in Hulu dialect of Banjarese means trapping in Indonesian, while *baung* is *baung* fish (Mystus Nemurus).

Figure 9. *Jabak baung.*

3.1.9 Pangilar lexeme

The pangilar lexeme is called *kemilar* in Malay. In this case, there is a difference between the naming of *pangilar* in the Hulu dialect of Banjarese and *kemilar* in Malay. The *pangilar* in the Hulu dialect of Banjarese differs from the first and second syllables of the *kemilar* in Malay. The first and second syllables of *pangi* on *pangilar* become *kemi* on *kemilar* in Malay. *Pangilar* is a rattan gear for trapping tilapia, catfish, and other fish. According to HU, the word *pangilar* comes from the basic word *kilar*, which means to glance, while *pangilar* means the person who is glancing. *Pangilar*, in this context, means a fishing device made when the fishermen can glance at each other while fishing. *Pangilar* is the name of fishing gear (Hapip, 2008).

Figure 10. *Pangilar.*

3.1.10 Pangilar for biawan and sepat siam lexeme

Pangilar for *biawan* and *sepat siam* lexeme is a special gear for trapping *biawan* and *siam* fish. The designation of *pangilar* for *biawan* and *sepat siam* is based on its function of trapping *biawan* and *siamese sepats*. *Pangilar* for *biawan* and *sepat siam* is called *kemilar sepat* in Malay. According to HU, *pangilar biawan* and *sepat siam* are rarely seen or used by the residents but are still sold in the market.

Figure 11. *Pangilar* for *biawan* and *sapat siam* fish.

3.1.11 Kabam lexeme

Kabam lexeme is a fish trap tool for trapping *saluang* (Aminah, 2015), shrimp, and *siamese sepat* fish. HU and Abn informed that it is heart-shaped such as the bamboo of *tamburu*, *tampirai*, or *kapalaan*, with an open top and is small in size. Furthermore, Abn explained that it traps shrimp and *sepat siam*, similar to *saluang* fishing gear (Hapip, 2008). The field observations showed that the current *kabam* is made from wire instead of bamboo blades because bamboo is difficult to obtain and due to its limited number of traditional makers.

Figure 12. *Kabam.*

3.1.12 Sarapang or Sirapang lexeme

Sarapang or *sirapang* lexeme is called *serampang* in Malay. This suggests that *sarapang* or *sirapang* undergoes the absorption of the consonant /m/ on the second syllable and the change in the sound of the vocal /e/ to /a/ in the first syllable. *Sarapang* or *sirapang* is a fishing gear that has the form of a four-eyed spear. The naming is based on more than one spearhead used to spear fish.

Sarapang or *sirapang* can be used as fishing gear by attaching it to a long tipless bamboo as a handle. After it is attached to the long tipless bamboo, it is used to spear the fish. The fish that had been speared will immediately stick into the sharp corner of the eye of *sarapang* or *sirapang*. *Sarapang* or *sirapang* has a four-eyed spear which consists of a three-eyed spear outside and a sharp one-eyed one in the center. The function of the four spear eyes is to ensure that the fish that is speared will be directly firmly speared and cannot break free anymore. It can be used to spear any kind of fish. Furthermore, fishing with *sarapang* or *sirapang* is called *manyarapang* or *manyirapang*.

Figure 13. *Sarapang* or *sirapang.*

3.1.13 Haup, haupan, humbing, hahaup, susuduk, or sususuk lexeme

Haup, haupan, humbing, hahaup, susuduk, or *sususuk lexeme* is a fishing net formed as a large *tangguk* (basket) and attached to bent bamboo rods. It catches various types of fish in rivers, including big fish such as *baung*, catfish, flatfish (*belida*), and *jelawat*. Furthermore, it is widely used in Pasar Senen Amuntai Village.

Figure 14. *Haup, haupan, humbing, hahaup, susuduk,* or *sususuk.*

3.1.14 Kalang lexeme

Kalang lexeme is a fish trapping device installed by blocking the river's edge so that *jelawat* and flatfish (*belida*) from upstream to the estuary will be trapped. It looks like a *lukah*, but it is larger. According to HS in Amuntai, *kalang* is a larger version of *lukah*. HS uses a long bamboo stick to pull the tie and lift *kalang* to the surface, lowering the gear back to the river when no fish is caught.

Figure 15. *Kalang.*

3.1.15 Rimpa lexeme

Rimpa lexeme is a fish trap net placed at the bottom of the river based on the pond or river size. It is spread out in the riverbed and used to catch much fish when the *Rimpa* is lifted. It is left for a certain period and lifted to see and take the trapped fish. It is used by the residents in Pulau Tambak Village, South Amuntai Sub-district, and North Hulu Sungai Regency.

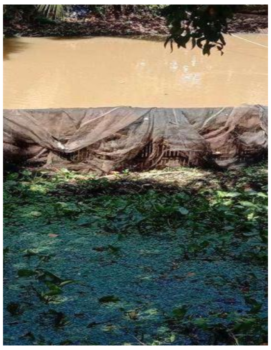

Figure 16. *Rimpa.*

3.1.16 Tamba lexeme

Tamba lexeme is a large prawn trap used in Baru Village, Danau Panggang Sub-district, North Hulu Sungai Regency. It is tied to a bamboo or wooden stick and put on the riverbed. Before it is put on the riverbed, small coconut slices are put in it as bait. It is left for a certain period and then lifted to get the catch. When large prawns are trapped, they are taken immediately, whereas the bait is replaced or placed back into the riverbed when there is no catch.

Figure 17. *Tamba.*

3.2 Types of Fish Containers Vocabulary in Hulu Dialect of Banjarese

3.2.1 Ladung lexeme

Ladung lexeme is made of thin bamboo blades woven into a basket that holds the trapped fish. It has an open top to insert or easily place fish and is sold at the Amuntai market. However, it is rarely used by Central and North Hulu Sungai Regencies residents.

Figure 18. *Ladung* sold at Amuntai market.

3.2.2 Bungkalang lexeme

Bungkalang is a *bakul* (from wood-bottomed bamboo square/round, the top is round with a rattan frame or bamboo) (Hapip, 2008). According to Abn from Alabio, *bungkalang* lexeme is a fish basket, also called *ladung* in Nagara. According to Mra, a bamboo fishing gear trader at the Amuntai market, it is a fish box cage made of bamboo slats. *Bungkalang* in Karatungan village, Limpasu District, Hulu Sungai Tengah Regency is called *dungkring*.

Figure 19. *Bungkalang.*

3.3 Types of Fishing Bait Vocabulary in Hulu Dialect of Banjarese

3.3.1 Anak wanyi lexeme

According to Rwt, a fish bait seller at the Amuntai market, *anak wanyi* lexeme is a bait for *papuyu* fish. It is sold with their nests which had been cut into small pieces. Furthermore, *wanyi* in Banjarese means 'bee' in Indonesian. The honeybee in PMP=Proto Malayo Polynesia is **wañi* (Zorc, 1994, p. 554). *Wanyi* in Proto-Malayo-Polynesian (PMP) and Proto-Western Malayo-Polynesian (PWMP) are **wani* 'honey', and in ProtoAustronesian (PAn), it is **waNu*. 'bee' (Blust, 2002, p. 123). Honeybee in the Polynesian Proto Malayo is **wani* 'honeybee sp.' (Blust, 2001, p. 37). Mar, a fishing bait seller in Teluk Masjid Village, Sungai Pandan Sub-district, Alabio confirmed this bait as honey bees.

Figure 20. *Anak wanyi* used as bait for *papuyu* fish.

3.3.2 Karangga or anak kakarangga lexeme

Karangga, anak karangga, or *anak kakarangga* lexeme comes from the Javanese *kuna*, i.e. *kararangga*. *Kararangga* is a kind of red large tree ants (Zoetmulder & Robson, 2006), has a rather large body and red. *Anak karangga* are white-and-white *karangga* saplings. It is called *kroto* or ant *rangrang* in Javanese. According to Rwt, a fishing bait seller at the Amuntai market, insects (ants or clams) are used as a bait (Hapip, 2008; Suryadikara et al., 1984) for *papuyu* (*betok*) fish.

Figure 21. *Karangga* or insects sold at the Amuntai market

3.3.3 Ulat bumbung lexeme

Hulat or caterpillar comes from the Javanese language, namely *wulat* (Zoetmulder & Robson, 2006). The *bumbung l*exeme is tubes (bamboo), perian, vessels, and reeds (Poerwadarminta, 2007). This word comes from the Javanese language, *bungbung* (Zoetmulder & Robson, 2006). *Bungbung* is a roof or bamboo tube used as a container for water, sap, and so on. The *bumbung* is a piece of bamboo shavings (Mangunsuwito, 2009, p. 313). Caterpillars or *hulats* in reflections on Proto Austronesian etymon in Banjarese is **ulad* (Kawi et al., 1993, p. 26). *Bumbung* in the Hesperonesian Proto (Western Austronesian)=PHN **buŋ+buŋ* is a perforated bamboo stick (Zorc, 1994, p. 574). *Ulat bumbung* is bamboo caterpillars or larvae in bamboo stems sold in small bamboo strips covered with paper or banana leaves. The bamboo pieces with caterpillars are removed by pounding them on a board or ground. According to Rwt, *ulat bumbung* is used to fish snakehead or *haruan*. Furthermore, it is sold by MR at the Amuntai market.

Figure 22. *Ulat bumbung* when removed from bamboo.

3.3.4 Kararawai or kakarawai lexeme

Karawai lexeme is a kind of bee (which makes a nest out of the ground in houses) (Hapip, 2008). *Kerawai* is a wasp stingers whose nests are made from the ground (Departemen Pendidikan Nasional, 2008, p. 677). *Kararawai* is larvae and beehives used as bait. Some residents mentioned it as a wasp larva used as fishing bait for *papuyu* (*betok*) and *haruan* (snakehead) fish. In the Central Hulu Sungai Regency, the bee and wasp larvae bait are *iruan* and *kararawai*, respectively. The residents seek and find *kararawai* in the midrib of the palm trees. According to Mar, a fishing bait seller in Teluk Masjid Village, Sungai Pandan Sub-district, Alabio, North Hulu Sungai Regency, it is called *Anak kakarawai* or *kakarawai* in this area.

Figure 23. *Kararawai* or *Anak Kakarawai*

3.3.5 Tabuan lexeme

Tabuan lexeme in Tae' language (WMP) is a type of wasp that makes its nest in dry wood in Proto Malayo Polynesia=PMP **tabuqan*. *Tabuan* is a *penyangat* (bees or stingers) (Hapip, 2008; Stokhof & Almanar, 1986). In Proto-Western Malayo-Polynesian (PWMP), it is **tabuqan* 'wasp sp.' (wasps, stingers, wasps) (Blust, 2002, p. 123). The reflection of Proto-Austronesian etymon=PAN for bees is *tabuan* (Kawi et al., 1993, p. 17). Droning creature (bee) has a reflection of Proto Austronesian etymon in Banjarese, namely **tabuh/an*, and reflection in Banjarese, namely *tabuan* (bee) (Kawi et al., 1993, p. 38). Hornet (bee) reflects Proto Austronesian ethone in Banjarese, namely **tabuan* (Kawi et al., 1993). According to Mar, *tabuan* includes bigger bees and nests than *kakarawai* and is used as bait for *haruan* or snakehead fish.

Figure 24. *Tabuan.*

3.3.6 Kalut gatah lexeme

According to Mar, *kalut gatah* lexeme is a fishing bait for *papuyu* or *betook* fish, with insects or *anak kakarangga* mixed with rubber latex, a little cooking oil, and lime juice. It can be stored in the refrigerator to last longer. It can be used as fishing bait because it can be made smaller and mixed with *anak kakarangga* to attract fish.

Figure 25. *Kalut gatah* sold in Teluk Masjid Village, Sungai Pandan Sub-district, Alabio, North Hulu Sungai Regency.

3.4 Types of Fish Species Vocabulary in Hulu Dialect of Banjarese

3.4.1 Iwak tauman or tuman lexeme

Iwak tauman or *tuman* lexeme is a fish with a larger body size, different colors, and patterns than the *haruan* (snakehead fish). *Iwak tauman* or *tuman* is called *Channa micropeltes*, giant snakehead, or giant mudfish. It is believed to be endangered because it is rarely found in its natural habitats, such as rivers and swamps, using fishing rods and traditional gear. The observations showed that it is currently cultivated inside cages in Central and North Hulu Sungai Regencies.

Figure 26. *Tauman* or *tuman* fish sold at Amuntai market.

3.4.2 Iwak pipih lexeme

Iwak pipih or *pipih* lexeme is a flat-shaped fish found in rivers.; it is also called a knife-backed fish. It is known as *belida* in Indonesia and cooked into the traditional *pepes*, *empal* (the back part of the fish is used for cooking this dish), and crackers. According to Wibowo and Sunarno (2006), it is endangered and rare in Central and North Hulu Sungai Regencies. Furthermore, it is rarely sold on the market.

Belida is a type of land fish (Notopterus notopterus) [[metaphor: the body is shaped such a thin board on a loom < MJP **balija sj* a thin board for compacting the weave (on a weaving utensil), in Javanese welira; MPP **balija*, Mar *barira*; AP **balija*, Pai *vaida* (see *belera*)]] (Nothofer, 2009, p. 36). Blust (2002, p. 126) refers to the *iwak pipih* as **balida/balidaq* in Proto–Western Malayo-Polynesian (PWMP).

Figure 27. *Iwak Pipih* sold at Amuntai Market.

3.4.3 Iwak jalawat lexeme

Iwak jalawat or *jelawat* lexeme is an expensive river fish consumed by Amuntai residents and cooked with a spicy flavor. *Iwak jalawat* is also called *sultan* fish, and its scientific name is *Leptobarbus hoevenii* (Srithongthum et al., 2021). It is traditionally cooked into gravy or curry with tamarind or fried with sweet and sour spices. This fish is rarely found and caught in the river. A fish seller at the Amuntai market explained that it is cultivated in floating cages and caught with a *halawit* tool.

Figure 28. *Jelawat* fish sold at Amuntai market

3.4.4 Tembiring lexeme

Iwak tembiring or *tembiring* lexeme also called *lais tembiring* or *tabiring*, is a large *lais* river fish with sharp canine teeth. It has a thin elongated body and is white with a slightly dark back. This fish's scientific name is *Walago dinema*. It is rarely found in rivers in North Hulu Sungai Regency. The observations showed that it is only sold monthly at the Amuntai market.

Figure 29. *Tembiring* sold at Amuntai market.

3.5 Types of Fishing Activities Vocabulary in Hulu Dialect of Banjarese

3.5.1 *Mambandan lexeme*

Mambandan lexeme is a fishing activity for *haruan* fish using two rods with a long *tantaran* (dried small bamboo rods). One fishing rod is baited with frogs and the other with an angler or bully duckling into disturbing the small *haruan* with their foot movements. This angers the mother fish or snakehead, pecking or attacking the ducklings. When the anglers notice the mother *haruan* (cork) attacking the duckling, a fisher uses a bamboo fishing rod baited with a baby frog. The mother is fooled and eats the bait, hitting the hook and being caught by the fishing rod. Zdn, from Barabai, informed that the fisherman of this fishing activity is called a *pambandanan*. This fishing activity for snakehead is now rarely performed by the residents in Central and North Hulu Sungai Regencies.

Figure 30. *Mambandan* in Binjau Pirua and Kasarangan Villages, North Labuan Amas Sub-district, Central Hulu Sungai Regency.

3.5.2 *Mamair or mangacar lexeme*

Mamair or *mangacar* lexeme is a fishing technique that involves moving a long bamboo rod (*kacar*) to hook fish to eat the bait (Hapip, 2008). This activity is performed by Central Hulu Sungai Regency residents when the river recedes. However, the observations showed that the residents mostly use *unjun* and *lapak* (fishing gear) to catch *haruan* or snakehead, including *papuyu* (*betok*).

Figure 31. *Mamair* or *mangacar.*

3.6 Fishery Vocabulary of the Hulu Dialect of Banjarese

Based on the results in 3.1, 3.2, 3.3, 3.4, and 3.5, the fishery vocabulary in the Hulu dialect of Banjarese can be categorized into five types. They are (1) types of fishing gear, traps, and net, (2) types of fish containers, (3) types of fishing bait, (4) types of fish, and (5) types of fishing activities. The fishery vocabulary in the Hulu dialect of Banjarese consists of 28 noun lexemes and two verb lexemes.

Table 1 shows that the types of fishing gears, traps, and net that consist of 16 lexemes. The 16 lexemes are categorized as noun classes. These tools were found to be used in swamps or rivers, or both, based on field observations. The informants informed that the lexemes of *tamburu* or *tampirai* or *kapalaan*, *lukah walut*, *lalangit*, *lapak*, *lukah*, *sarakap* or *jambih*, *hampang*, *sarapang* or *sirapang*, and *rimpa* are used in swamps. Meanwhile, the lexemes of *jabak baung*, *pangilar*, *pangilar biawan* and *sapat siam*, *kabam*, *haup* or *haupan* or *humbing* or *hahaup* or *susuduk* or *sususuk*, *kalang*, and *tamba* are used in rivers.

Table 1. Types of fishing gear, traps, and net vocabulary in the Hulu dialect of Banjarese.

No.	Lexemes	Parts of speech category
1.	*Tamburu* or *tampirai* or *kapalaan*	Noun
2.	*Lukah walut*	Noun
3.	*Lalangit*	Noun
4.	*Lapak*	Noun
5.	*Lukah*	Noun
6.	*Sarakap* or *jambih*	Noun
7.	*Hampang*	Noun
8.	*Jabak baung*	Noun
9.	*Pangilar*	Noun
10.	*Pangilar biawan* and *sapat siam*	Noun
11.	*Kabam*	Noun
12	*Sarapang* or *sirapang*	Noun
13.	*Haup* or *haupan* or *humbing* or *hahaup* or *susuduk* or *sususuk*	Noun
14.	*Kalang*	Noun
15.	*Rimpa*	Noun
16.	*Tamba*	Noun

Table 2 shows the fish containers that consist of two lexemes, *ladung* and *bungkalang*. Both lexemes are categorized as noun classes. These containers are known to be placed by the fishermen next to their houses or behind them.

Table 2. Types of fish containers vocabulary in Hulu dialect of Banjarese.

No.	Lexemes	Parts of speech category
1.	*Ladung*	Noun
2.	*Bungkalang*	Noun

Table 3 displays the types of fishing bait that consist of six lexemes. They are *anak wanyi*, *karangga* or insect or *anak kakarangga*, *ulat bumbung*, *kararawai* or *kakarawai* or *anak kakarawai*, *tabuan*, and *kalut gatah*. These words are categorized as noun classes, and these tools are still sold in the markets or personally made by the fishermen at home.

Table 3. Types of fishing bait vocabulary in Hulu dialect of Banjarese.

No.	Lexemes	Parts of speech category
1.	*Anak wanyi*	Noun
2.	*Karangga* or insect or *anak kakarangga*	Noun
3.	*Ulat bumbung*	Noun
4.	*Kararawai* or *kakarawai* or *anak kakarawai*	Noun
5.	*Tabuan*	Noun
6.	*Kalut gatah*	Noun

Table 4 further exhibits the types of fish vocabulary, which comprise four lexemes. They are *iwak pipih*, *iwak tauman* or *tuman*, *iwak jalawat*, and *iwak tembiring*. The four lexemes are categorized as noun classes and are still found to be sold in the markets.

Table 4. Types of fish vocabulary in Hulu dialect of Banjarese.

No.	Lexemes	Parts of speech category
1.	*Iwak pipih*	Noun
2.	*Iwak tauman* or *tuman*	Noun
3.	*Iwak jalawat*	Noun
4.	*Iwak tembiring*	Noun

Table 5 shows the types of fishing activities vocabulary that consist of two lexemes. They are *mambandan* and *mamair* or *mangacar*. Both lexemes are categorized as verb classes and are found when the informants carry out fishing activities in swamps at the research sites. Based on the grammatical meaning analysis (Feist, 2022; Nordquist, 2020), the verb *mambandan* consists of the prefix *mam-* (*ma*N-) and the root word of *bandan*. The verb *mamair* consists of the prefix *ma*N- and the root word of *pair*. The verb *mangacar* consists of the prefix *ma*N- and the root word of *kacar* (hook). The grammatical meaning in the verbs *mambandan* and *mamair* or *mangacar* occurs due to the process of affixation, a process of adding affixes to the root or base word (Sharum et al., 2010). The meaning of the prefix *ma*N- is to do an activity or something (Rahman, 2018).

Table 5. Types of fishing activities vocabulary in Hulu dialect of Banjarese.

No.	Lexemes	Parts of speech category
1.	*Mambandan* lexeme	Verb
2.	*Mamair* or *mangacar* lexeme	Verb

The fishery vocabulary in the Hulu dialect of Banjarese depicts the cultural wealth of these people. Cultural knowledge through the richness of distinctive vocabulary is in line with the findings of Namaziandost et al. (2021). They found that cultural knowledge has a positive impact on vocabulary knowledge. The specificity of fishery vocabulary in the Hulu dialect of Banjarese can be maintained if the local population continues to preserve environmentally friendly fishing gear. This aligns with environmental or local wisdom aspects (Arianto et al., 2021).

The diversity of fishery vocabulary in the Hulu dialect of Banjarese with the vocabulary of fisheries in Loloan Malay (Sosiowati et al., 2019), Batak Toba language (Sinaga et al., 2020), Riau Malay (Fauzi & Iskandar, 2021), and Minangkabau language (Almos & Ladyanna, 2019) shows that differences in geographical location are influential in vocabulary naming. The findings of this study make an important contribution to the development of dialect geography research.

4. CONCLUSION

Based on the results and discussion above, it can be concluded that there are five categories of the traditional fishery vocabulary of the Hulu dialect of Banjarese based on the types of meaning. They are (1) 16 lexemes for fishing gears, traps, and nets, (2) two lexemes for fish containers, (3) six lexemes for fishing baits, (4) four lexemes for fish species, and (5) two lexemes for fishing activities. The 30 lexemes of fishery vocabulary of the Hulu dialect of Banjarese consist of 28 nouns and two verbs.

This research has answered the research question posed for this study; however, it was conducted not without limitations. Some traditional fishing gear vocabularies were not found and examined in the Central and North Hulu Sungai regencies, including *salambau*, *rawai*, and *tampirai pintit*. The reason is that the locations in which the people still use these lexemes are quite isolated for the researchers to reach. They are in the wide river and swampy areas far from the settlements in which the present study was conducted. Therefore, future researchers are encouraged to further study these lexemes in the isolated areas for documentation and further preservation of the Banjarese language.

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APPENDIX

Table A. Data collection.

No.	Fishery vocabulary	Meaning	Function
1.	*sarakap or jambih*		
2.	*lapak*		
3.	*kalang*		
4.	*lukah*		
5.	*kabam*		
6.	*tamburu or tampirai*		
7.	*lukah walut*		
8.	*hampang*		
9.	*haup*		
10.	*jabak baung*		
11.	*sarapang*		
12.	*rimpa*		
13	*lalangit*		
14.	*pangilar*		
15.	*pangilar biawan and sapat siam*		
16.	*tamba*		
17.	*ladung*		
18.	*bungkalang*		
19.	*kararangga*		
20.	*tabuan*		
21.	*anak wanyi*		
22.	*kalut gatah*		

Table A continued…

23.	*kararawai*		
24.	*ulat bumbung*		
25.	*tuman*		
26.	*lais tembiring*		
27.	*pipih*		
28.	*jalawat*		
29.	*mamair*		
30.	*mambandan*		
31.	*salambau*		
32.	*rawai*		
33.	*tampirai pintit*		

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A Study on Condolence Strategies by Jordanian Students at Irbid University College

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Abstract

This study aimed to investigate the strategies of condolence speech act as expressed by Jordanian students at Irbid University College and identified the respective role of social power and social distance in offering these strategies. It employed qualitative and quantitative research methods, and the study participants included 100 university students ranging from 19 to 23 years old. The data were collected using an adapted version of the discourse completion test and coded based on the coding schema. The results of the study demonstrated that praying for God's mercy and forgiveness for the deceased was the most frequent strategy used by the participants, and expressing sympathy was the least frequently used strategy. When the power and distance aspects of the relationship between the speakers are concerned, the results showed that some of the strategies such as 'praying for God's mercy and forgiveness to be with the deceased' and 'offering condolences' are low-risk strategies to threaten the face needs of the bereaved people. Moreover, the results showed that the use of these strategies was mainly attributed to the participants' culture, religious orientation, social power, and social distance between the interlocutors. Finally, some pedagogical implications and suggestions for future research are briefly discussed in this article.

Keywords: Condolences, Jordanian students, speech acts, social distance, social power.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Death is recognized as a normal part of life, so it is considered the normal cycle of nature for all living things on this earth (Williams, 2006). Death is perceived as a very painful phenomenon, regardless of the form it takes. Hence, losing people we love causes a deep feeling of loss, and speech communities deal with this sorrowful phenomenon in different ways, based on these communities' traditions. Commonly, individuals express their feelings when hearing the news of someone's death. In most cultures, an individual is seen as unsympathetic if he/she does not express sympathy, pay respect to the deceased, and does not show any reaction to those left behind. Expressing condolence takes different forms of words or actions that will help the deceased person's family feel closure and strength to this loss. Moghaddam (2012) believes that uttering an emotional expression such as offering condolences depends on the relationship between the individual and the bereaved person.

Moreover, Williams (2006) argues that people think choosing appropriate words to comfort the bereaved is a difficult task, and the bereaved family believes that people do not understand their situation. Hence, people must choose appropriate words and express them politely to show sympathy and help the bereaved family return to their former lives (Al-Shboul & Maros, 2013). In the Muslim speech community, in general, and in the Jordan speech community, in particular, Muslims must carry the deceased person to the burial ground and attend the funeral. Moreover, offering condolences to individuals affected by the death is highly recommended in Islam within three days of the death. Only then may people refrain from giving condolences to the deceased's family and relatives.

The current research problem is seen in terms of the complexity of offering a suitable condolence expression at the appropriate time and how this is perceived as a challenging task. Fernández (2007) states that people tend to be hesitant in dealing with death other than the traditional way of casual conversation. This is attributed to the different social barriers of superstition, fear, and religious rules associated with different restrictions of a social nature. Moreover, Pishghadam and Mostafa (2012) explain that the nature of the language used in offering condolences involves highly emotional situations that would differ from casual conversation. They add that many factors, such as the relations among individuals and cultural norms, complicate condolence routines.

The present study is significant because of the following reasons. First, the researcher fills the literature gap by investigating condolence strategies among Jordanian native speakers of Arabic in the northern region of Jordan (Irbid Governorate) as no studies, to the researcher's best knowledge, focus on these aspects in the same context. Second, the present study examined offering condolences by university students ranging in age from 19 to 23 years old. Third, it also aims to investigate how the type of condolence strategies vary in terms of social power and social distance between the interlocutors. Fourth, the data of the present study are collected using a Discourse Completion Test (DCT). Previous research in the Jordan context examined responses made on the obituary of a Facebook status update by Jordanians in general regardless of their geographic, social background, and the contextual factors of social power and social distance between the interlocutors (Al-Shboul & Maros, 2013). DCT is the most widely used data collection instrument in cross-cultural interlanguage pragmatics that examines different speech acts in different languages. Thus, it is mainly used to elicit the occurrences of different speech act as presented in different situations, therefore yielding written data and recording an extensive range of semantic formulae by which a given speech act can be realized (Barron, 2003; Johnston et al., 1998; Kasper, 2008). DCT situations can also be translated into any language and given to a large number of participants in a short time. As a result, it is recognized as the typical data collection instrument for speech act studies (Aston, 1995; Barron, 2003). Finally, examining the speech act of condolences would help teachers recognize how to teach this speech act to students following the appropriate strategies and how to express such strategies at the right time. This would increase the students' communication ability and avoid communication breakdowns.

In other words, the researcher is interested in exploring the strategies of the condolence speech act due to the lack of research on this speech act compared to other speech acts such as apology, requests, refusal, and compliments (Elwood, 2004). Furthermore, this interest in investigating the condolences speech act developed due to the increasing number of deaths during the COVID-19 pandemic to help utilize the appropriate condolences strategies. Thus, it would be beneficial to examine how condolences are expressed based on the speech act theory and pragmatic approach by Jordanian students at Irbid University College (henceforth, IUC). The present study aimed to answer the following two research questions:

1) What are the most frequent condolences strategies used by Jordanian students at IUC?
2) How do the contextual factors of social power and social distance between interlocutors influence the Jordanian students' choice of condolences strategies?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This section provides the theoretical background of the study focusing on the speech act theory, the definition and classification of the condolence speech act, and a review of previous research conducted on the speech act of condolences.

2.1 Theoretical Background

This study is based on the speech act theory first proposed by the British philosopher Austin (1962). According to Austin (1975), the main concern of speech act theory is based on the assumption that humans' interaction is not only based on lexical and linguistic knowledge but rather on some types of acts like apologizing, complaining, complimenting, etc. (Alfghe & Mohammadzadeh, 2021; Austin, 1975; Putri et al., 2020). Therefore, we are performing something by saying something (Austin, 1975; Yule, 1996). In addition, the communication process is seen as a sequence of communicative acts or speech acts performed by speakers to achieve specific goals. Finally, they believed that all utterances and meanings performed specific actions through definite forces.

2.2 The Speech Act of Condolences

This subsection addresses the condolence speech act paying particular attention to its definition and classification as proposed by different scholars such as Austin

(1975), Searle (1979), and Yahya (2010). Austin (1975) classifies condolences as one of the 'behabitives' speech acts in which they deal with the social behaviors and attitudes towards someone. Based on Searle's (1979) classification, the condolence speech act fits under the 'expressive' category that deals with the speakers' reaction to situations of sorrow and condoling. Finally, Yahya (2010) states that expressing condolences aimed to share sympathy and encouragement with those who have experienced the death of a loved one.

Even though the speech act of condolences is universal and expressing it is almost found in all languages and cultures, it is most likely to vary based on the communities' cultural backgrounds. Compared to other speech acts such as request, apology, compliment, and refusal, the speech act of condolences has not been studied widely except in a few studies (Al-Shboul & Maros, 2013; Behnam et al., 2013; Elwood, 2004; Hidaya, 2016; Nurlianingsih & Imperiani, 2019). To the researcher's best knowledge, only one study on condolences has been conducted in the Jordanian context (Al-Shboul & Maros, 2013). The following subsection presents a brief discussion of previous condolences studies.

2.3 Related Studies on Condolences

One major study on condolences was carried out by Elwood (2004), who examined offering condolences from a cross-cultural perspective. Three participating groups of American English and Japanese participated in the study. The first group was the target group comprising 25 Japanese English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students responding in English. The other two groups were reference groups, consisting of 25 American students responding in English and 25 native Japanese students responding in Japanese. Seven different scenarios of DCT were designed to collect data from the three participating groups. Three of these scenarios required the participants to respond to good news; three were designed to react to an unhappy circumstance, and only one scene showed a reaction to a close friend's status 'I have got to lose weight!' Though, the analysis has only focused on two 'unhappy situations' (i.e., the death of a pet dog and a grandmother). Olshtain and Cohen's (1990) classification of semantic formulas was used in analyzing the data. Accordingly, the analysis resulted in five common strategies: 1) acknowledgment of death, 2) offer of assistance, 3) expression of sympathy, 4) expression of concern, and 5) future-oriented remark. The findings showed the use of different semantic formulas. Besides, the findings revealed a significant difference when responding to a pet dog's death compared to a grandmother's death. Consequently, the researcher argued that results related to one type of condolence scenario could not be generalized to all scenarios of the same type.

In a comparative study, Behnam et al. (2013) investigated how English and Persian expressed their condolences via short messages. For the data collection method, the researchers collected 60 short messages. These 60 short messages were equally gathered in 30 Persian and 30 English messages. The data were analyzed based on a modified version of Elwood's (2004) classification of condolence strategies. The results indicated differences in offering condolences in English and Persian. For example, the messages produced by Persian tended to be short and more direct. Moreover, the Persians' religious and cultural backgrounds influenced the nature of their messages. By contrast, the messages produced by English speakers were almost indirect, apologetic, and sympathetic.

In the Indonesian context, Nurlianingsih and Imperiani (2019) investigate not only the speech act of condolences by Indonesian adolescents but also the influence of social power and social distance on the participants' choice of condolences strategies. Twenty Indonesian adolescents aged 11 to 19 years old participated in the study. The data were gathered using a DCT. The questionnaire consisted of six scenarios that required responses with condolence expressions. Then, Elwood's (2004) coding schema of condolence strategies and Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory were used to analyze the data. The results of their study illustrated that the participants tended to use 'seeking absolution from God' (27.3%) and 'expression of sympathy' (26.9%) as the most frequently used strategies. Additionally, the results revealed that the participants' use of different condolence strategies was affected by many factors, such as the relationship between the speakers. Hence, the participants used lower-risk strategies in more distant relationships. In contrast, they tended to express condolences with higher-risk strategies in a closer relationship. Finally, the results from the study highlighted the influence of the participants' collectivistic cultural norms and their religious orientations on the choices of appropriate condolence strategies.

In the Arabic context, Hidaya (2016) examines the commiseration and condolence strategies expressed by Algerian native speakers of Arabic compared to those offered by English speakers. The researcher used Facebook to gather the condolence data. Additional data were used based on the researcher's knowledge of her speech community, Algeria. Then, English and Algerian Arabic (Darja) condolences data were analyzed and compared based on the use of emotional language and word choice, and structure. The findings revealed that cultural background, as well as religious orientation, influenced the people's perception of death and life and the use of condolence expressions. Finally, while English speakers tended to express their sympathy with self-referring expressions such as 'I was shocked' and 'I am sorry for your loss', Algerians tended to be less direct when expressing their feelings and avoided using emotional language.

In the Jordanian context, Al-Shboul and Maros (2013) investigate Jordanian Arabic's speech act of condolences. The researchers gathered the data by observing comments posted on the obituary of a Facebook status update. More specifically, comments were made on the death of a famous Jordanian actor in 2011. Then, the researchers identified seven condolence strategies based on 678 posted comments. These strategies were: praying for God's mercy and forgiveness for the deceased, reciting Quranic verses, enumerating the virtues of the deceased, expressing shock and grief, offering condolences, realizing death is a natural part of life and using proverbs and sayings. The findings showed that the use of these strategies in Jordanian Arabic was mainly influenced by the respondents' religious orientation of being Muslims. Furthermore, the respondents' faith and religious beliefs appeared clearly in the posted comments.

To conclude this section, the researcher reviewed some speech act studies expressing condolences in several cultures and linguistic groups. These studies used different data collection instruments to gather condolence data, such as DCT, SMS messages, and comments posted on the obituary of a Facebook status update. However, few studies were conducted in the Arabic context in general (Hidaya, 2016) and the Jordan context in particular (Al-Shboul & Maros, 2013). Hence, the present study attempted to fill the literature gap by investigating condolence strategies among Jordanian native speakers of Arabic in the north region of Jordan (Irbid Governorate). More specifically, it aimed at examining the speech act of condolences expressed by Jordanian students at IUC and the role of social power and social distance in offering these strategies.

3. METHODS

3.1 Research Design

This study adopted a mixed-method design using both quantitative and qualitative approaches. Creswell (2014) explains that using a mixed-method design is a method for an investigation concerning collecting both quantitative and qualitative data and integrating them using a different design that may include philosophical assumptions and theoretical frameworks. Similarly, Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) indicate that integrating both quantitative and qualitative approaches in research provides the researchers with a better understanding of the research area and an opportunity to examine the phenomenon in-depth. Consequently, a mixed method was appropriate for this study because it aimed to identify the strategies of condolence speech act as expressed by Jordanian students at IUC and the respective role of social power and social distance in offering these strategies.

3.2 Participants

The participants of the present study included 100 university students at IUC. Their ages ranged from 19 to 23 years old. They were all Jordanian native speakers of Arabic from the north region of Jordan (Irbid Governorate). The researcher selected IUC because it is a university college under the umbrella of Al-Balqa Applied University, where the researcher is an instructor on its main campus. This facilitated the process of data collection. Moreover, IUC is established in Irbid (situated in northern Jordan), the context in which the researcher aimed to investigate.

3.3 Instrument

Kone (2020) insists that speech act theory in pragmatics focuses on analyzing language use where the influence of written or spoken words/expressions in both verbal and non-verbal contexts is the main concern. Hence, the researcher of the present study was more interested in collecting naturally occurring data on the speech act of condolence. However, the critical and severe situations at the time of data collection made this impossible to observe actual examples of daily life. This is mainly attributed to the fact that by the beginning of the COVID-19 outbreak, the government of Jordan has implemented several preventive and control strategies to limit the spread of COVID-19 in Jordan. In other words, the government has banned many social events and activities, such as attending wedding ceremonies, funerals, and social visits to prisons and hospitals, sports facilities, cinemas, and youth centers (Al-Tammemi, 2020). Accordingly, collecting ethnographic data seemed to be an impossible option at the time of data collection. As a result, the data are collected using a modified version of DCT.

3.3.1 The instrument to answer research question one

To answer research question number one, the researcher has adopted a modified version of DCT by Nurlianingsih and Imperiani (2019). The questionnaire consists of two main sections: (1) demographic information about the participants, such as gender, age, major, and hometown in Jordan, and (2) six situations that require the participants to offer condolences to the bereaved people. Next, the researcher, a native speaker of Arabic, translates the questionnaire into Arabic to ensure the participants' understanding of the situation.

3.3.2 The instrument to answer research question two

As shown in Table 1, each DCT situation involves two variables representing the relationship between the speaker and the hearer: social power (higher, lower, equal) and social distance (close, distance). A professor and a family member, who are older, represent a person of high (+P) social power. For equal (=P) power, this would be a close friend and an acquaintance (same age). Meanwhile, for lower (-P) social power, this would be a close friend and a neighbor (younger age). Regarding social distance, close (+D) was represented by a close friend and a family member, and distance (-D) was represented by a professor, an acquaintance, and a neighbor.

Table 1. Description of the six situations.

Situation	Description
Situation 1: [=P, +D]	A close friend (same age). A close friend told you that his/her family member passed away a week ago. You then say: …
Situation 2: [=P, -D]	An acquaintance (same age). You heard that one of your acquaintances was not coming to the private course class because his/her family member passed away. You then say: …
Situation 3: [+P, +D]	A family member (older age). Your relative's child has passed away, and you go to their house to condole them on hearing that. You then say: …
Situation 4: [+P, -D]	A professor (older age). You heard that your school teacher's parent has passed away, and you see your teacher the next day. You then say:
Situation 5: [-P, +D]	A close friend (younger age). A younger close friend tells you that his/her family member passed away. You then say: …
Situation 6: [-P, -D]	A neighbor (younger age). Your young neighbor's parent has passed away. You come to their house to condole them. You then say: …

3.4 Data Collection

The data collection procedures were also influenced by the COVID-19 outbreak in which Jordan universities have applied different technology applications such as Zoom, Big Blue Button, and Microsoft Teams to support different online learning models. Thus, Microsoft Teams was used to collect data from the participants.

3.4.1 The procedure of collecting data to answer research question one

The researcher uploaded the questionnaire to three virtual classes of English 101 and English 102 on Microsoft Teams, in which the participants were all enrolled in the summer semester of 2020. A brief description of the instructions and the situations was provided to the participants to gain more reliable data. The participants were asked to read the six DCT situations carefully and respond by offering condolences on these situations.

3.4.2 The procedure of collecting data to answer research question two

During the explanation of DCT situations, the participants were informed about considering the status of the speaker and the hearer involved in each DCT situation. Hence, they were informed that each DCT situation involves two different variables representing the relationship between the speaker and the hearer: social power (higher, lower, equal) and social distance (close, distance). To emphasize the participants' research ethic in gathering the data, the researcher ensures the anonymity and confidentiality of the participants. Finally, they were informed that the information in this study would be used only for research purposes and in ways that would not reveal who they were.

3.5 Data Analysis

Upon the first 100 participants returning the questionnaire to the researcher, the corpus was closed and submitted for analysis. Next, the analysis of the collected data was done by the researcher. Then, two more well-trained professors majoring in English linguistics were invited to help in the classification of data and to ensure the reliability of coding data.

The data were analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively. Qualitatively, the researcher read the participants' responses for all DCT situations to identify the type of condolence strategies used by them by taking into account the two different variables (social power and social distance) that represent the relationship between the speaker and the hearer. Hence, in the situation where the participants had to offer condolences to a relative whose child passed away, a condolence response such as (e.g., عظم الله اجركم و انا لله انا اليه راجعون; 'May God multiply your reward and verily we belong to Allah and verily to Him do we return'), was analyzed as comprising of two units, each of which fits into a corresponding condolence strategy (as shown in the brackets):

(عظم الله اجركم; 'May God multiply your reward') {offer condolences}.
(انا لله و انا اليه راجعون; 'Verily we belong to Allah and verily to Him do we return') {reciting Quranic verses}.

Quantitatively, a descriptive statistical analysis was run to count the frequency and percentage of the strategies used. Following Al-Shboul and Maros (2013) and Nurlianingsih and Imperiani (2019), the researcher listed the types of condolence strategies used and counted the frequency and percentage of these strategies across situations. In other words, the researcher calculated the percentage by counting how many times each type of condolence strategy was made by the participants in all DCT situations, dividing it by the total number of all the condolence strategies in all DCT situations, and then multiplying it by 100. For example, offering condolences was used 371 times across situations. The percentage of responses consisting of offering condolences strategy is 25.99%. Thus, 25.99% of all responses given by the participants across situations involved the condolence strategy of offering condolences.

4. RESULTS

4.1 Condolences Strategies Used by Jordanian Students at IUC

This section presents a quantitative descriptive analysis of the frequency and percentage of the strategies used. The participants used a total number of 1427 written condolence strategies. Table 2 illustrates the condolence strategies expressed by the participants as the focus of the first research question.

Table 2. The frequency and percentage of the condolence strategies used.

Condolence strategy	Frequency	Percentage
Praying for God's mercy and forgiveness to be with the deceased	659	46.20
Offering condolences	371	25.99
Recitation of Quranic verses	173	12.12
*Define relation	87	6.09
Offer of assistance	72	5.05
*Assuming that the deceased child is like a bird from amongst the birds of paradise	39	2.73
Expressing sympathy	26	1.82
Total	1427	100%

*Indicate additional strategies found in the corpus of the present study

The results revealed that 'praying for God's mercy and forgiveness for the deceased' (e.g., رحمه الله; 'May Allah be merciful to him') was the most mentioned strategy used by the participants in almost 46.20 % of the strategies (n=659). As the second most frequently strategy, the participants tended to 'offer condolences' (e.g., عظم الله اجركم; 'May God multiply your reward') in approximately 25.99 % of the responses (n=371). The participants preferred 'reciting Quranic verses' (e.g., انا لله و انا اليه راجعون; 'Verily we belong to Allah and verily to Him do we return') as the third strategy mentioned by the participants in around 12.12% of the responses (n=173). Moreover, 'defining relationship' (e.g., دكتوري العزيز; 'My dear professor') was the fourth most frequently strategy used by the participants in approximately 6.09 % of the responses (n=87). As the fifth most frequently used strategy, the participants tended to 'offer assistance' (e.g., اذا بدك اي مساعدة لا تتردد.; 'Do not hesitate to ask for help') in approximately 5.05 % of the responses (n=72). 'Assuming that the deceased child is a bird from amongst the birds of Paradise' (e.g., طير من طيور الجنة; 'A bird from amongst the birds of paradise') occupied the sixth rank among others in approximately 2.73 % of the responses (n=39). The results showed that the participants used 'expressing sympathy' (e.g., للأسف وفاته صدمتني; 'Unfortunately, his death shocked me') as the least frequently strategy used by them in around 1.82 % of the responses (n=26).

4.2 The Role of Social Power and Social Distance Between Individuals on the Condolences Strategies Used by Jordanian Students At IUC

The influence of social power and social distance between individuals, as the main concern of the second research question, was also measured, and the three power statuses of individuals (i.e., =P, +P, and -P), and the two distance statuses (i.e., +D and -D) were compared. The results are displayed in Tables 3, 4, and 5.

Table 3. The use of condolence strategies for equal status: (speaker=hearer; =power).

Condolence strategy	Situation 1: [=p, +d]		Situation 2: [=p, -d]	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Praying for God's mercy and forgiveness to be with the deceased	112	7.85	94	6.58
Offering condolences	54	3.78	63	4.41
Recitation of Quranic verses	33	2.31	25	1.75
*Define relation	18	1.26	0	0
Offer of assistance	19	1.33	5	0.35
*Assuming that the deceased child is like a bird from amongst the birds of paradise	0	0	0	0
Expressing sympathy	5	0.35	1	.07
Total	241	16.88	188	13.16

Table 3 shows the findings of condolence strategies used by the participants in which the hearer and the speaker were of equal status (=p). Table 4 represents the strategies they used when the hearer was of higher status (+p). Table 5 lists the condolences strategies used by the participants when the hearer was of lower status (-p). When social distance is concerned, situation one, three, and five shows the frequency and percentage of the strategies used by a close person. In contrast, situations two, four, and six show the frequency and percentage of the strategies used by a distant person.

Table 4. The use of condolence strategies for unequal status: (speaker < hearer; +power).

Condolence strategy	Situation 3: [+p, +d]		Situation 4: [+p, -d]	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Praying for God's mercy and forgiveness to be with the deceased	143	10.02	87	6.10
Offering condolences	46	3.22	95	6.66
Recitation of Quranic verses	47	3.30	21	1.47
*Define relation	0	0	38	2.66
Offer of assistance	26	1.82	0	0
*Assuming that the deceased child is like a bird from amongst the birds of paradise	39	2.73	0	0
Expressing sympathy	11	0.77	2	0.14
Total	312	21.86	243	17.03

Regardless of the power and distance relationship between the participants, praying for God's mercy and offering condolence strategies were the two most frequently used strategies by the participants in all DCT situations except for situation three, in which they tended to use recitation of Quranic verses as the second most frequently used strategy. However, the remaining condolence strategies varied based on the role of social power and social distance between individuals. For example, assuming that the deceased child is like a bird from amongst the birds of paradise strategy was used only in situation three (+P, +D). Moreover, the participants tended to opt out of offering assistance in situation four (+P, -D).

Table 5. The use of condolence strategies for unequal status: (speaker > hearer; - power)

Condolence strategy	**Situation 5: [-P, +D]**		**Situation 6: [-P, -D]**	
	Frequency	**Percentage**	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Praying for God's mercy and forgiveness to be with the deceased	116	8.12	107	7.50
Offering condolences	41	2.87	72	5.05
Recitation of Quranic verses	17	1.19	30	2.10
*Define relation	5	0.35	26	1.82
Offer of assistance	8	0.56	14	1.0
*Assuming that the deceased child is like a bird from amongst the birds of paradise	0	0	0	0
Expressing sympathy	3	0.21	4	0.28
Total	190	13.3	253	17.75

In the following section, the condolences strategies used by the participants are discussed based on the effect of social power and social distance on the production of these condolences strategies.

5. DISCUSSION

5.1 The Most Frequently Condolences Strategies Used by Jordanian Students at IUC

Research question number one asked about the frequently used condolences strategies by Jordanian students at IUC. Overall, the participants prefer praying for God's forgiveness as the most frequent strategy found (46.20%), followed by offering condolences (25.99%), recitation of Quranic verses (12.125), defining relation (6.09%), offering of assistance (5.05%), assuming that the deceased child is like a bird from amongst the birds of paradise (2.73%), and expressing sympathy as the least frequent strategy found (1.82%). From these strategies, defining relation and assuming that the deceased child is like a bird from amongst the birds of paradise are additional strategies found in the corpus of the present study.

Consequently, the justification for using such strategies was explained based on previous research and the participants' religious orientation and cultural background. Hence, the content of semantic formulas showed that the main reason for expressing condolences in this way is mainly referring to the participants' religious orientations (i.e., Islam). Thus, the major condolence strategies included responses that referred to God (Allah), religious-oriented praying and reciting Quranic verses. This would be normal in a speech community such as Jordan, where Islam makes up most of the Jordanian population. According to a report published recently by the official site of the Jordan Tourism Board (n.d.), the majority of the population of Jordan is Arab

(98%), mostly Sunni Muslim (92%), Christians, mostly Greek Orthodox (6%), Circassians (1%) and Armenians (1%). So, it is common in people's daily lives to frequently use religious-oriented expressions from simple greetings to thanking others, such as السلام عليكم which means 'Peace be upon you', a way of greetings used more widely and is equivalent to hello, good morning/afternoon/evening, etc. Other Islamic expressions include الحمد لله, which translates as 'Praise to Allah', which is usually used to express satisfaction, or after having finished eating, جزاك الله خيرا which means 'May God reward you with all good', and used when someone does something good to you.

Similarly, the participants' frequent use of the condolence expression 'praying for God's forgiveness or mercy on the deceased' seems widely practiced in Muslim society (Al-Shboul & Maros, 2013). Muslims use such expressions because they believe that everybody makes mistakes that require seeking God's forgiveness. In the present study, this particular strategy (praying for God's mercy and forgiveness for the deceased) was the most frequently used strategy by the participants in almost 46.20% of the responses. Likewise, Al-Shboul and Maros (2013) found that this strategy was the most mentioned in the comments posted by the respondents (33%). In addition, Nurlianingsih and Imperiani (2019) found that the respondents tended to use "'seeking absolution from God' as the most frequently used strategy in around 27.3% of the responses. The researchers justified that in terms of religious-oriented values in Muslim societies, this requires asking God to forgive his or her sins so that his or her soul can rest in peace. However, this is not common in other studies, such as Elwood (2004), where the strategies of 'acknowledgment of death' and 'expression of sympathy' were more frequently used by the participants of her study.

Furthermore, the participants' reciting some Quranic verses as the third most frequently used strategy is also attributed to their religious orientation of being Muslims. Thus, Al-Shboul and Maros (2013) state that it is common for Muslims to refer to the two primary sources of Islamic law: The Quran and the Sunnah. For example, they tended to frequently recite some relevant Quranic verses on the news of hearing someone's death, such as 'Who, when a misfortune overtakes them, say: Surely we belong to God and to Him shall we return'. Accordingly, their study found respondents using it as the second most mentioned strategy in around 23% of the responses.

The participants 'offering of assistance' to the bereaved family as the fifth most frequently used strategy in this study is mainly seen as an Arab cultural norm and religious-oriented value. It is one of the most important values in Islam to help our fellow human beings. In this matter, prophet Mohammad, the messenger of God, insists on the significance of cooperation, helping others, and offering them a hand. He also considered one's faith incomplete until he/she loves for his brother what he loves for himself. The results also showed that in collectivistic cultures, as in Jordan, the relationship between people is based on solid solidarity. Offering assistance to the bereaved family is common to help them return to everyday lives. Similarly, Nurlianingsih and Imperiani (2019) found that 'offering of assistance' was the fourth mentioned strategy. The researchers believe this is a deeply rooted cultural value in a collectivistic culture like Indonesia, where offering help to others is typically used to relieve bereaved sorrow.

It is also important to indicate that the nature of DCT scenarios has resulted in new categories (i.e., defining the relationship and assuming that the deceased child is like a bird from amongst the birds of paradise) found in the corpus of the present study.

Hence, the participants' use of 'define relationship' is explained in terms of the Arab cultural norm. In his study on refusal, Al-Issa (2003) stated that it is common in Arabic culture to define the type of relationship between interlocutors, especially when talking to a person of higher social status. Hence, hearing a student greeting his teacher by saying 'Good morning, Teacher' is widespread in Arabic. The other strategy found only in the corpus of the present study is 'assuming that the deceased child is as a bird from amongst the birds of paradise'. Interestingly, this semantic formula was used in only one DCT situation (situation three), where the participants had to offer condolences to their family member whose child had passed away. Hence, the use of this strategy is a religious-oriented value in which Muslims believe that if a little child dies, he/she will unquestionably enter heaven.

Unlike previous research by Elwood (2004), Al-Shboul and Maros (2013), and Nurlianingsih and Imperiani (2019), 'expressing sympathy' was the least used strategy in almost 1.82 % of the responses. In Elwood's (2004) study, this strategy was the most common. It seems that the participants of the present study preferred to make prayers about the death of someone and offer condolences to the bereaved people more than showing the feeling of sympathy. Expression of emotions is more culturally inhibited in which people in collectivistic cultures, like Jordanians, are supposed to express their feeling indirectly. This is in line with Hidaya (2016), who found that Algerians preferred not to use emotional language and tended to express their feelings indirectly when they had to offer condolences. The researcher compared that with English speakers who frequently use self-referring expressions such as 'I was shocked' and 'I am sorry for your loss'.

5.2 The Contextual Factors of Social Power and Social Distance between Interlocutors that Influence the Jordanian Students' Choice of Condolences Strategies

The second research question examined how the patterns of condolence strategies varied about contextual factors (social power and social distance) used by the Jordanian students at IUC. Hence, the present study's results showed that some strategies, such as 'praying for God's mercy and forgiveness to be with the deceased' and 'offering condolences' are low-risk strategies to threaten the face needs of the bereaved people. Consequently, these strategies can be expressed to the bereaved people regardless of the type of power and distance relationship between the speakers. Thus, 'praying for God's mercy and forgiveness to be with the deceased' is commonly and extensively expressed when the relationship between the interlocutors is close and regardless of the social power relationship (higher, equal, lower). More specifically, it was widely used in situations one (equal power, close distance), three (higher power, close distance), and five (lower power, close distance). Similar results were found in previous research, such as by Nurlianingsih and Imperiani (2019), who found that people in close relationships commonly use the 'seeking absolution from God' strategy.

'Offering condolences' was used as the second most frequent strategy. Even though the participants tended to use it in all situations, it was widely used when the relationship between the speakers was distant and regardless of the social power relationship (higher, equal, lower). Hence, the participants tended to widely use the formal expression عظم الله اجركم of, which means in English 'May God multiplies your reward' in situations two (equal power, distant relationship), four (higher power, distant relationship), and six (lower power, distant relationship).

Unlike previous research by Al-Shboul and Maros (2013) and Nurlianingsih and Imperiani (2019), the participants of the present study tended to use this particular strategy (offer condolences) as the second most mentioned strategy in around 25.99% of the responses. By contrast, this strategy *(*offer condolences) was the fifth most ranked strategy in almost 10% of the responses in Al-Shboul and Maros' (2013) study. The researcher believes that this difference in the frequent use of offering condolences among Jordanians could be attributed to the different data collection instruments used in both studies. In the present study, the participants responded to DCT situations where two variables representing the relationship between the speaker and the hearer were manipulated: social status (higher, lower, equal) and social distance (close, distance). In other words, the DCT involved scenarios intended for a close friend, an acquaintance, a professor, a family member, and a neighbor where they had to offer condolences to the bereaved family more than other strategies. In Al-Shboul and Maros' (2013) study, the respondents posted comments on an obituary status update on Facebook on the death of a famous Jordanian actor where they were unfamiliar with the family of the deceased person. Moreover, Elwood (2004) argued that results related to one kind of condolence scenario could not be generalized to all scenarios of the same kind.

Furthermore, the strategy of 'define the relationship' was commonly used by the participants when they had to offer condolences to their close friend (situation one), professor (situation four), and neighbor (situation six). However, it was used more frequently when offering condolences to their professor (higher status) in situation four than their close friend (equal status) and neighbor (lower status). This can be explained by the Arabs' classification of being more rank-conscious than Western cultures and their attempts to emphasize and even overstress their recognition of the higher social rank of their interlocutors (Hamady, 1960). Moreover, this strategy was commonly used when the relationship between the speakers is distant (situations four and six) compared to a close relationship in situation one.

The 'offering of assistance' strategy was used in all situations except situation four (offering condolences to a professor). Though, this strategy was widely used when the relationship between the speakers is close and regardless of the social power relationship (higher, equal). More specifically, it was widely used in situations one (equal power, close distance) and three (higher power, close distance). This strategy was also commonly used when the participants had to express condolences to a neighbor in situation six (lower power, distant relationship). This is a religious-oriented value in a Muslim context where Islam asks all neighbors to be loving and cooperative and share their sorrows and happiness. It is highly recommended that they have to establish social relations in which one can rely upon the other and regard his life, honor, and property as safe among his neighbors.

Nevertheless, this particular strategy was not found in the corpus of Al-Shboul and Maros' (2013) study. This can be explained in terms of social power and the social distance between the interlocutors. The DCT situations of the present study involved scenarios intended for a close friend, an acquaintance, a professor, a family member, and a neighbor. This semantic formula was used by the participants when they had to offer condolences to their close friend (situations one and five), an acquaintance (situation two), a family member (situation three), and a neighbor (situation six).

However, the participants used it more frequently when offering condolences to their family members (situation three) than in the remaining situations. On the other hand, Al-Shboul and Maros' (2013) study involved offering condolences to someone people unfamiliar with his family. So, it is customary to help and give a hand to close friends and relatives than strangers.

6. CONCLUSION

This study contributes to knowledge of offering condolence strategies in Jordanian Arabic. Therefore, this work enriches our understanding of how the speech act of condolence is influenced by many social variables, including the cultural background of the participants, religious-oriented values and social power, and the social distance of the speakers. These variables resulted in different condolence strategies that resemble Islamic cultures. Thus, the significant amount of condolence strategies included responses that referred to God (Allah), religious-oriented praying, and recitation of Quranic verses.

Regardless of the significance offered in this study, it has some limitations that need to be considered by future researchers. For instance, although the DCT has been widely used in speech act research, it yields written data that cannot be expected to represent naturally occurring talk precisely. Hence, future researchers are encouraged to conduct research using different data collection methods, such as data collected from natural contexts, analyzing discourse, videotaping, and role-plays. In addition, using one data collection method is not enough to highlight every aspect of the respondents' condolence responses. Furthermore, although the data were collected from male and female students, gender was not examined in the present study. Accordingly, future researchers are strongly recommended to study how the condolence speech act is expressed by different age and gender groups. Lastly, further research examining the occurrence of pragmatic transfer by Jordanian EFL learners when expressing condolences in English is required.

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Investigating the Sociological Use of Slang from a Hearer-Oriented Perspective

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Abstract

Numerous studies have investigated the importance of slang in linguistics in various media, including novels. The dominant works on this subject have focused solely on the structural explanation of slang, leaving out its sociological context and meaning. Given the nature of slang itself as a pure informal language, studies about the semantic meaning of slang must be essential. This research looked into the slang words and expressions in a true-crime novel entitled 'Black Mass' by Dick Lehr and Gerard O'Neill in 2000. The goal is to discover the semantic meaning of slang words and expressions in the novel using the qualitative method and Mattiello's hearer-oriented (2008) theory as the underlying theory. We applied the documentary method to retrieve the data and further analyzed it using Miles et al. (2014) theory. Heavily influenced by the setting of South Boston and its crimes, Black Mass data indicated that this novel's slang is primarily attributed to freshness and novelty. Subsequently, we found evidence of the novel's use of desire to impress and faddishness, playfulness and humor, and impertinence properties. Color and musicality are this novel's least common categories of slang, with only four occurrences in the entire manuscript. Given that the novel's literature cover is still scarce, it is hoped that these findings are helpful to those who are interested in studying and researching the semantic area.

Keywords: Hearer-oriented, novel, semantics, slang.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Language is a communication system that allows members of various social groups to interact with one another. Language is used in various contexts of daily life to communicate feelings and emotions, express ideas and opinions, and interact with others. According to Santoso (2006), language illustrates the social condition, including the human relations within society. Centuries of civilization have impacted how people live, particularly how they communicate (Fasold & Connor-Linton, 2006). Long had passed the days of scratching on cave stone walls or sending signals to the group about impending prehistoric feral dangers in the form of signs (Danesi, 2007). Humans have survived those tests and developed a complex mode of communication in the form of language. People interact with one another in communication by using words and meaningful symbols, both in formal and informal contexts (Fromkin et al., 2019; Susilawati, 2018).

When communicating, the speakers and the hearers or readers go through the process of getting the information and confirming it. In this regard, mass media comes into play when it is about communicating with a large number of audiences. According to Crystal (2003), the impact of English as a global language has influenced massive media, platforms, and a variety of other critical aspects of human activity, such as literature. Slang is one of the aspects of sociolinguistics that is given special attention due to its dynamism and flexibility. Several analyses of slang have been conducted, but no absolute definition of it has been established, simply because a large number of new words and phrases containing slang are constantly added over time, and its contextual usage also changes (Izmaylova et al., 2017). Many slang words and expressions are no longer as slangy as they once were because they have long been part of human communication.

Some scholars have delved deeply into the various components of slang, such as Mattiello (2008) in her book, which examines slang from a different perspective. Other scholars investigating the use of slang in a novel have enriched the literature debates in this area, albeit from different perspectives. Linn's (2016) study on urban youth slang in contemporary French literature, for example, investigates how slang among multi-ethnic is primarily divided by three different motives. It is based on Jørgensen's (2010) theory of identity formation in a linguistic context. These three motives are 'we code', 'they code', and 'playfulness'. The final one concerns the motivation for recreational use developed by French youths to ease their conversation among their peers.

Umam and Purnianda (2016) conducted the second study, analyzing Jeff Kinney's Diary of a 'Wimpy Kid' novel using Mihalicek and Wilson's (2011) theory. Using Yule's (2006) theory to explain the morphological process of slang, they generate various types of slang and their morphological forms, which they then divide into parts of speech. Their argument presents various methods for people to create new words in society, such as compounding, coinage, etymology, etc. This is made possible by the speakers' ability to alter and reflect on morphemes or the ability to chunk a word into meaningful units that convey information about the complete word (Bian et al., 2022). Bondarenko (2019) also researched the use of slang in famous cartoons such as 'Cars', 'Kung Fu Panda', 'Open Season', 'Shrek', and 'Madagascar 2'. This study sheds light on how slang words and expressions in those cartoons contain some unusual elements, forcing translators to adapt using various techniques. The outcome indicates that the translators had no major difficulties in bringing and translating the English cartoon films to a new target language, Ukrainian. With omission strategy being used as infrequently as 4.9%, translators are much more likely to use literal translation strategy (44.7%) or even a slightly more stylistic compensation (50.3%). However, cultural equivalence has the lowest recorded strategy, with less than 0.1 percent.

Slang issues affect users in a much broader context. Due to its complex use across various communities and cultures, slang is found to cause issues in a variety of literary works, including translations. Numerous earlier studies have supported this phenomenon. Blonskytė and Petronienė (2013), for example, confirmed that extra work is required when attempting to render the effect of the original transcript into a usable translation by the target readers of specific culture and language in a novel entitled ‘A Clockwork Orange’. In most cases, slang density in translation text is significantly reduced to compensate for reader comprehension. Glewwe (2012) raised similar findings, adding that translators cannot avoid the loss of slang in translation. As a result, they translate standard language into slang to compensate for the unavoidable situation in which they must translate slang to the standard language. Mattiello (2008) proposed the idea of preserving lexical complexity in slang.

As in what has already become the tradition of slang-based research, mostly from these works above, they are emphasizing more the structural level of slang rather than the sociological effect it has on society. It is expected that slang plays such a profound role, impacting society from the slightest touch, such as altering the structure of one’s language to a much more significant effect, like cementing an invisible hierarchy in society. With this consideration, we are trying to bring a new perspective of empirical research which attempts to investigate the use of slang in written contexts, where writers often avoid its sociological effect.

‘Black Mass’ is a novel by Dick Lehr and Gerard O’Neill in 2000 and published by PublicAffairs™ in the same year. The novel depicts a true story about mafia regimes in South Boston, with the main plot focusing on James ‘Whitey’ Bulger and his co-worker Stevie Flemmi. Many other exciting characters are involved throughout the novel, some of which is the FBI’s most prominent figures and judges who were entangled with the mafia. This novel has won and featured some prestigious stages, such as ‘Edgar Award for Best Fact Crime’ in 2001, the best crime novel, and the best gangster novel arranged to ‘Goodreads’.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Slang

The most common definition of slang is seen in its informal application. According to Walter (2008), slang is a very informal language used by particular groups of people. For this reason, in theory, and practice, slang is nothing new to humans. Green (2015), for instance, assumed that specific terms like the Icelandic *slyngr* and *slunginn* (well-versed I, cunning), Norwegian *sleng* (a slinging, device, an invention), *slengjenamn* (a nickname), *slengjeord* (an insulting word or allusion), and Swedish *slanger* (to gossip) are all connected to the word slang. He might not clearly establish that slang was first discovered in those languages, but they are probably related.

Furthermore, Yule (2006) recognized slang as an informal language used expressively by low-status people. In contrast, however, Eckert (2000) is more flexible by saying that slang usage is varied among people. Recent trends seem to favor Eckert's (2000) theory about slang more than Yule's (2006), for wealthy global elites and scholars are excited about using slang in communication. Eckert's definition of slang also aligned with his finding in one of the schools in Detroit where students were using slang accordingly.

2.2 Classification of Slang

Mattiello (2008) brought a certain classification on slang by splitting it first into general and specific categories. Adding to this, he went on to classify these two into more specific branches and properties, one of which is the sociological properties of slang which explains the difference in slang based on speaker and hearer's perceptions. This work is directed to only investigate the latter property, the hearer orientation of slang. These properties are listed below:

- Playfulness & humor
- Freshness and novelty
- Desire to impress
- Color and musicality
- Offensiveness and aggressiveness

Each of these properties is made from the hearer's impression when they heard or found slang (words and expressions). Exploring slang using Mattiello's (2008) theory is a complex process as it offers an intriguing issue for a theoretical debate.

2.3 Semantic Meanings of Slang

Semantic came from the Greek word *sema*, which means 'sign' or 'symbol'. In a contemporary study, semantics can be explained as a study of meaning in a structural way. Kreidler (2002) elaborated on semantics by stating that it was one of the three systematic studies of meaning, while the other two were psychology and philosophy. Linguistic semantics is a study that investigates how meaning works in a language (Saeed, 2003). Danesi (2007) introduced three ways of interpreting the meaning: reference, sense, and definition. Reference is used when one thing represents another, symbolizing something. Sense, however, is achieved through repetition. This means that words are often referentially the same but contextually different. Danesi (2007) later mentioned one example of a planet, Venus. People refer to a particular planet in our galaxy as Venus because of its beautifully emitting color, just like the figure named after it. Meanwhile, a morning star is also Venus's nickname due to a fact that is innate to it. The definition is best seen as a statement about something, often using words or pictures. Danesi's (2007) account of meaning interpretation helps us define specific symbolic representations in the present study, particularly in terms of slang and verbal expressions.

The following brief discussion is intended to highlight Mattiello's (2008) account of the properties of hearer-orientation of slang in her book as part of the sociological property of the slang language as underlying guidelines to explore further a variety of slang used in 'Black Mass' (i.e., the expression of 'I'm cookin' up' to refer to the preparation of a drug for use). It is worth mentioning that Mattiello also presents information about other properties, such as speaker-oriented properties. The first of hearer-oriented properties is 'playfulness & humor', which is a property about something the hearer often finds amusing to hear. Many slang words and expressions are being uttered in jest to create a sense of humor among the hearer. Experts like Allan and Burridge (2006) claimed that language is being playful in a communicative act. The second property is 'freshness and novelty', where slang words and expressions are invented into the language world by altering the old meaning. For some reason, a new word could also be considered for this property because, as Mattiello (2008) said in her book, slang language keeps growing. The youth are usually involved in this due to their inevitable role in chasing the new culture and trends (Wang, 2020).

The next one is the 'desire to impress and faddishness', which is short-lived, as its name suggests. This kind of slang is used when a speaker wants to show something of his/her possession as an act of fanciness. Current trends are also heavily involved in the circulation of this slang, acting as one of the many reasons behind the slang's colossal popularity and breakthrough (Amari, 2010). 'Color and musicality' is the property where slang words and expressions often sound strikingly musical, rhyming, and onomatopoeic. This property of slang causes the hearer to visualize the words, picturing their written sounds. Such slangs are essential in many media to help creates an atmospheric setting. Seyyedi and Akhlaghi (2013) said that onomatopoeic words and expressions are a mix of imitation in sound and conditions of natural things.

The last property is 'impertinence, aggressiveness, and offensiveness'. It is such obnoxious slang because these three properties are primarily negative in words and meaning. People often use it to address their nasty temper toward someone's annoyance. Bergen (2016) also called this profanity language, which means it is powerful enough to provoke and cause damage to someone.

3. METHODS

To achieve the goals of this research, a specific methodology called descriptive qualitative by Miles et al. (2014) was applied. This methodology consists of three fundamental steps: data condensation, data display, and conclusion. In collecting the data, the documentary process, also suggested by Miles et al. (2014), was used to gather what is necessary to work further and analyze them. By this, we attempted to describe social settings and actions occurring in the novel and conducted detailed explorations into answering questions about why something is done in such a way. Analyzing the data began with an investigation of the essential sections, which may contain the necessary slang both in words and expressions. This was processed by reading the novel and coding different parts. After the essential parts were gathered, all the informal words and expressions were the next part of the analysis. For validity purposes, the data needed to be matched with Mattiello's (2008) hearer-orientation properties before being presented in a designated table or matrix, according to Miles et al. (2014). We used two dictionaries for translation purposes. 'The Routledge Dictionary of Modern American Slang and Unconventional English' by Dalzell (2009) is expected to help find the meaning of slang words. Another dictionary, the 'NTC's Dictionary of American Slang and Colloquial Expressions' by Spears (2000), was also used to help with the process. Of all the collected slang words and expressions, only partially are suited to Mattiello's theory. Those remaining are the slangs that would be analyzed later in the next step and presented in the appendix. The last part is the conclusion, putting all results together in a specified section to give us a better view of the completed work.

Miles et al. (2014) used the matrix to calculate the occurrences rate for each category within the 'Black Mass' novel. To achieve 100% in total, the number must be an integer, and no fractional component should be included in the calculation. In the calculation process, the total number of occurrences for each property of slang must be divided by 85 (the recorded total frequency of occurrences). This applies to the entire property displayed in the matrix. The result should be multiplied by 100 to get the exact percentage for each property.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Through the process, 85 slang words and expressions have been found in the novel. As mentioned earlier, they have been categorized into five properties suggested by Mattiello (2008). Specifically, we used two dictionaries to look at the slang's meaning and classify them into the appropriate category. As previously mentioned, the calculation of slang occurrences taken has been classified according to each type of slang, and a percentage can represent its frequency of occurrence. Details for this are illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1. The frequency of slang occurrences.

No	Type of slang	Frequency	Percentage
1.	Playfulness and humor	13	15%
2.	Freshness and novelty	36	42%
3.	Desire to impress and faddishness	18	21%
4.	Color and musicality	4	5%
5.	Impertinence, offensiveness, and aggressiveness.	15	18%
	Total occurrences	85	100%

As illustrated in Table 1, the result shows that most slang words and expressions belong to the 'freshness and novelty' property, nearly half of the total occurrences. Meanwhile, the least belong to the 'color and musicality' property, with only four occurrences in total, giving it only 5% of the share. The occurrences of the other three properties seem to be insignificantly different. The subsequent section discusses each property in detail to follow up with these findings. The five categories of slang in the 'Black Mass' novel are explained separately in the following discussion. Each section is accompanied by the relevant excerpt(s) from the novel containing the corresponding slang being discussed in bolded words.

4.1 Playfulness and Humor

The slangs that belong to this property are metaphorical because the context to which they are applied is amusing and funny—some of the slang found in the novel sound a little off from its original meaning. The given context is simply not justified by the literal meaning; it had to be something else. Green (2017) agreed that such slang is often confusing in its literal meaning as the speaker intentionally uses them to deliver jokes and humor with a slight twist to reality. The following extracts illustrate this:

> Extract 1:
> Bailey said later, remembering a young Cardinale. "He's got good-sized balls."
> (Lehr & O'Neill, 2000. p. 280)

The two people in the excerpt are Bailey and the author. Bailey was a famed defense lawyer (1933-2021), working with Cardinale as a junior attorney for criminal cases. Bailey praised Cardinale for his guts in a court battle with the mobs and their representatives. The novel was awarded in 2001 for its true crime story, not for its slang or sociolinguistics-related feature. This book delivers a very spot-on way of its story and characters' portrayal.

Conversely, the "good-sized balls" is a comical slang that only fits with a male traits, like courage and boldness. The "good-sized balls" part makes the sentence more comical to understand. As we have previously discussed, the meaning of such a slang expression has nothing to do with the round, bouncy object known as a ball. Instead, it symbolizes the masculinity and bravery of a man (Dalzell, 2009). Young Cardinale, one of the characters in this novel, is a brave lawyer who often goes against the opponent's argument. Because the word "ball" is often associated with courage, a person with "balls" should be considered brave.

> Extract 2:
> Partly with help from Bulger and, especially, from Flemmi, the top Mafia bosses were long gone by the 1990s, replaced by a lineup of forgettable benchwarmers with memorable nicknames.
> (Lehr & O'Neill, 2000, Intro.)

The word "benchwarmers" in Extract 2 is a slang word, and it sounds a little playful because it is a common term in sports. This term addresses second-class players whose performance is not bright enough to make it to an elite team. In the context of the novel, the term "benchwarmers" refers to the forgettable lineup of gangsters who cannot even cause enough havoc in the district, let alone South Boston. Indeed, this is a metaphorical use of slang that is applied slightly outside of its original context. Let us review the following example for further understanding.

> Extract 3:
> Bulger told Connolly: "Nick Femia had nothing to do with the hit of Patsy Fabiano."
> (Lehr & O'Neill, 2000, p. 46)

According to Dalzell (2009), the word "patsy" in Extract 3 has no literal meaning as it was invented for a specific context around 1903. This slang word means 'a person to blame' in a compromised situation. In other words, it is frequently used to refer to a person who is easily taken advantage of. Spears (2000) described this as 'a victim of scam', just like an individual who can be easily cheated or blamed for something. In the sentence above, a person named Fabiano was regarded by Bulger as a setup for any downfall among the gangsters, and the term "patsy" is ideally suited to his situation.

American slang, in general, is considered as funny for its humorous effect. Our findings in this category are consistent with Zhou and Fan's (2013) findings suggesting similar results. They mentioned that the purpose of having such a feature is to be understood and remembered. For this reason, slang also carries phonetic methods such as rhyme, the purpose of which is to have a sense of rhythm in sound. This property is discussed later in a different section of this article.

4.2 Freshness and Novelty

In the previous part, it has been addressed that some slang was added to the language world through meaning alteration and new inventions. Still, the same word, but with a slight difference in meaning, gave the newcomer a hard time understanding. Later on, as the frequency of people using this slang increased, it became more common and acceptable. The part of this property that matters is the invention part and how it is mostly positive as it contains novelty. According to Mattiello (2008), the invention part of slang keeps on growing, constantly adding a new index to the slang's glossary. The following examples further depict the property in this classification.

Extract 4:
"The roving bug is probably the most dangerous government intrusion," he said.
(Lehr & O'Neill, 2000, p. 277)

Extract 5:
Tight-lipped and intense, the John Morris of 1985 was still enjoying the glow of having overseen the successful bugging of Mafia headquarters in early 1981.
(Lehr & O'Neill, 2000, p. 193)

There are two slang words found in Extracts 4 and 5, "bug" and "bugging". Our investigation had returned some information that the first use of this terminology dates back to as early as the mid-1800 when engineers referred it to some mechanical faults. However, as mechanical engineering expanded to the use of computers, the first use of this term in such a context could be referred to some malfunctions in the analytical engines of that era, which could be traced back to the early 1930s or 1940s, and when the law enforcement started addressing this term for 'a spying device' (McFadden, 2020). "Bugging" means a covert operation launched by the officers or agents, usually accompanied by a delicate device, "a bugging device," to spy on their target. An additional example can be seen below.

Extract 6:
By late 1973 the thirty-year-old hustler had made the mistake of hoodwinking bookmakers controlled by Howie Winter.
(Lehr & O'Neill, 2000, p. 57)

The slang word "hustler" is derived from "hustle", which means moving in a hurry (Polsky, 2017). The informal meaning of such a word was established around 1840; some even date back to earlier days in the United States to describe 'a gambler' and 'male prostitute'. Today, even though such activity of 'shaking money' is almost disappearing as people are starting to gamble on electronic devices, this word is even becoming more common, not as restricted as it was back in the original days.

4.3 Desire to Impress

The speaker uses some slang words and expressions to amaze others. People usually pair it with another word to create a slang expression in which something of their possession stands out in the talk, ensuring it draws enough attention from other people. This sort of slang trend also lives short, faddish. When people use it more often, the slang quickly loses its charm and becomes more common. Izmaylova et al. (2017) asserted that people wanted to participate in such fashion by imitating popular slang, grasping that ongoing trend. Examples of such properties is presented in the following extract.

> Extract 7:
> Later on, agents at work in the field saw that informant handlers were regarded as rain-makers.
> (Lehr & O'Neill, 2000, p. 45)

"Rain-makers" within the sentence has nothing to do with the weather reporter explaining the climate, or at least not contextually like that. A specific group of people using it could be a key factor that it may be considered slang, not an idiom. The sentence talks about how several so-called "informant handlers" manage to tame clients to get the critical information flow. The "informal handlers" in the sentence is John Connolly. Such a role is essential in the covert operation enrolled by the FBI to monitor the progress of their mission. A rain-maker, in this context, means someone who is influential or has exceptional ability. A person of this ability is considered to have some values to impress. In a slightly different context, the use of an expression in this property can be seen in the following example.

> Extract 8:
> Wheeler was a "big damn guy" in his town who hired hundreds of people and gave money to good causes. Something's wrong here, he thought.
> (Lehr & O'Neill, 2000, p. 153)

The author uses the phrase "big damn guy" to express how a person named Wheeler, held with such tremendous regard to his status by people in town, went missing one day because he had gone the wrong way with gangsters in town. The word "big" in this context signifies his well-known and influential figure, so bigger than anybody else that the author decided to stress it with the word "damn", which is commonly used to emphasize or impress. Similar findings to this have also been reported by Meinawati et al. (2019). For a comparative purpose, let us look at the use of another expression for the present context in the following excerpt.

> Extract 9:
> These were the "techies"—this was a military operation now. The three techies hit the ground running, lugging heavy satchels of equipment and looking like paratroopers taking a beachhead.
> (Lehr & O'Neill, 2000, p. 111)

The use of the slang 'tech' + '-ie', dates back to the early 1940s when American technical college students used the term to denote a technician (Awati, 2021). The term means 'technical object, skill, or technical student'. From there, the use of this term proliferated to different areas but still with technology-related contexts. In this novel, the author uses slang to refer to a group of soldiers capable of dealing with essential technology for their mission. It is clear that there is a desire to impress, particularly when referring to a group of soldiers who are experts in or enthusiastic about technology, which in the present day may closely be associated with computing. Even in today's mass media, the use of slag has become a favorite choice (Mattiello, 2013).

4.4 Color and Musicality

Moving on to arguably the least common slang of all, only four instances of this property have been found in the novel. According to Mattiello (2008), this property belongs to the slang that improves the novel's setting due to its onomatopoeic and reduplicative rhyming sound, as heard in the sound of tools hitting each other, doors slamming, guns popping, and so on. The similar sound in syllables could also belong to this property of slang, specifically for musicality (Meinawati et al., 2019). When used in verbal communication, such intentional uses of 'organs of the vocal apparatus' produces sounds and words that point to specific meaning (Danesi, 2007). Kauffmann (2015) highlighted the reduplicative process of words, including partial and complete, and later addressed it as a colorful way of communication. For further details, the following examples are perhaps worth reviewing.

Extract 10:
Not every visit was so lovey-dovey, though.
(Lehr & O'Neill, 2000, p. 81)

This is an example of a similar sound in a syllable that creates a rhyme when pronounced by the speaker. This slang means 'a very affectionate situation, peaceful', just like some situations depicted in the novel. In a much more romantic context of use, the term usually applies when two people share a romantic relationship so peacefully that they may share their romantic intercourse in public. The excerpt above is an opposite depiction of "lovey-dovey". The slang expression was dated back around 1886 in the US. Another example of color and musicality property is shown in the example below:

Extract 11:
In the mornings, the bays might be filled with the clanging and banging of mechanics' tools, but by early afternoon the tone of the place would change markedly.
(Lehr & O'Neill, 2000, p. 75)

The original use of "clang and bang" originated in a gym where men usually practice their workouts (Landau & Bogus, 1987). The sound comes from a sudden percussive noise when some metal objects come in contact or strike each other. This onomatopoeic slang expression represents a similar sound produced by a set of tools in one of the car's garages in the novel. Like the earlier explanation, the tools, in reality, do sound like that "clang and bang" because of their metallic properties. However, the use of this slang could bring such vivid imagination to the reader, causing them to visualize the exact condition of a busy day in the bay. Our findings in this regard have been consistent with Meinawati et al.'s (2019) hearer-oriented property of 'color'. They argued that a speaker chooses specific slang words of this sociological feature to make speech more interesting. A slightly similar context to this is shown in the following example.

Extract 12:
He realized that the dirty money he had taken amounted to chump change compared to Mitrione's eye-popping $850,000.
(Lehr & O'Neill, 2000, p. 197)

This slang expression also has a similar sound, making it a little rhyming. The slang combines two different words, “chump” and “change.” Not the oldest of its kind, probably around 1968 in the US, this slang was first used. “Chump” means foolish while “change” means to replace. “Chump change” is defined as a very small or insignificant amount of money. The context of the above example says it all when the author compares the little money the man (He) received with a whopping prize of $850,000 received by Mitrione. The context clue here helps readers identify the semantic meaning of the slang easily.

Our findings in this regard support Zhou and Fan’s (2013) claim about specific features of American slang to a certain extent. Mattiello (2008) proposed that the musicality property is in line with Zhou and Fan’s phonetic feature of slang, which they view as carrying readability and understandability purposes. In a more recent publication, Mattiello (2013) added that the initial goal of producing humorous effects with slang had recently evolved to the day-to-day use of language with peers in ordinary life.

4.5 Offensiveness and Aggressiveness

This section explicitly discusses a relatively undesirable side of the hearer-orientation property, as Mattiello (2008) arranged. Perhaps when Yule (2006) claimed that slang mostly came from low-status communities, it was because most of the slang they used sounded too aggressive and insulting to the hearers. In reality, slang is probably more effective when the speakers use words with negative connotations. Razavi et al. (2010) elaborated on how some slang words and expressions are straight-out racist and offensive if used to the wrong audience but considered as brotherly code among the right group. The mafia, however, is bounded by its criminality and racketeering and is undoubtedly full of uneducated people from the fringe areas. The ‘Black Mass’ is a novel that explicitly covers this environment. From the novel, we found 15 occurrences of slang that can be discussed within the property of this section. As not to violate any code and lessen the awareness of ethical importance, only those slang considered less profane are chosen to be discussed in the following examples. Let us now examine the first in this group.

> Extract 13:
> The agents who developed Halloran found themselves fighting a rearguard action against Connolly, who had dismissed Halloran’s lurid account as self-serving prattle from a dirtbag.
> (Lehr & O’Neill, 2000, p. 149)

“Dirtbag” means ‘a despicable person, unkempt in his/her demeanor’. Albeit some seriously swearing words are absent, this slang is quite insulting. People are starting to use this slang when feeling less respected, annoyed, or offended by others. The use of “dirtbag” is common when referring to a filthy or disreputable person. This is perhaps related to what Danesi (2007) referred to as a visual representation. Such a character is generally unpleasant and primarily associated with doing something dishonest or unacceptable. This word seems to have started to gain popularity in the early 1900s (Conroy, 2021). One supporting data we found about the use of slang in such circumstances is what Zhou and Fan (2013) published. They suggested that drug setting and American slang are closely interrelated. They also reported that the social setting among people who smoked marijuana around the 1970s has accounted for the use of typical expressions and terminologies among people who speak similar regional dialects. Their findings were also supported by Dai and He (2010).

Extract 14:
But Bulger just shook his head. No, not guys like me, he said. "I'll always be a redneck mick from South Boston."
(Lehr & O'Neill, 2000, p. 24)

"Mick" is a derogatory and offensive word for an Irish person. Regardless of the context, this very sensitive word must be left unspoken unless the speaker and the hearer are Irish or have that Irish heritage. This slang word was adapted from the ubiquitous name in Ireland, Mickey or Michael. Around 1850 and 1856, in the UK, American and British sarcasm began to be directed at it because it was so common and ordinary. According to Urbandictionary (n.d.), the Irish were known for voluntarily causing problems in foreign lands, assembling gangs after gangs, and enrolling themselves in several fight clubs around the country. This lack of decent attitudes got them several names tailored specifically by the Britons and Americans, and "Mick" was probably one of those names. Perhaps, this word is still deemed offensive today by the Irish due to its negative historical facts, just like how every African descendant hates the term "nigger", such offensive sociological properties of slang have been found in many contexts. In line with our findings, Meinawati et al. (2019), for instance, found that using the 'fish' expression is considered offensive to others as it carries a sense of disrespect. Another example of offensiveness can be seen in the following example.

Extract 15:
He had seen the real Mafia in New Jersey, and Angiulo successors like Salemme seemed like penny-ante bookies.
(Lehr & O'Neill, 2000, p. 252)

The term "penny-ante" is normally used when referring to something of little value or importance. This slang word is usually followed by another word describing a person as low-end and contemptible. Found to be used first in the US around 1935 (Dalzell, 2009), this adjective is a slang word that insults a person because of its cultural meaning. The excerpt in Extract 15 clearly illustrates this meaning by showing how one prominent prosecutor who had worked on a much more extensive criminal case sees his next case as insignificant. To emphasize the meaning in verbal communication, the speaker uses a specific tone and volume when conveying the message of the term being used (Danesi, 2004).

5. CONCLUSION

Slang is frequently associated with many sociological properties in its use, and the 'Black Mass' novel under investigation is no exception. The current study discovered that this novel contains a plethora of slang words and expressions, with specific slang of freshness and novelty being the most frequently occurring. Except for musicality, the other properties appear to co-occur fairly consistently throughout the novel. This could be due to the author's preferred method and possibly the language style used. Other factors, such as the author's choice of setting, the topic of racketeering, and mobsters plaguing regions of the United States, prompted the gangster to invent new terminologies and expressions. That may have been the origin of slang at the time.

Other characters' involvement added playfulness and light humor to the novel's language. However, this is only a portion of Mattiello's (2008) sociological slang properties, and many more may be discovered in other novels. The current study's findings are expected to add to existing debates in the literature because exploring slang is regarded as a one-of-a-kind work in language and linguistics, particularly within the context of a novel. After all, as Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure (1916) put it, 'language is a system of signs used to convey ideas and messages among humans'. In practice, every word we say or write does not always have the same meaning and is always contextual.

A linguistic study like this one almost always has limitations and drawbacks. Apart from the chosen linguistic theme, one of the significant drawbacks of the current study is its likely limited impact in the educational setting. Our investigation of slang within a single novel was the extent of our work. Future research may look into a broader context with more contemporary settings. As slang evolves, its use by speakers from various linguistic backgrounds may be worth investigating.

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The Interjection of *Ômma* in the Acehnese Language: A Natural Semantic Metalanguage Approach

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Abstract

This paper examines the interjection of ômma in Acehnese language using a natural semantic metalanguage approach. The study employed a qualitative method using oral, written, and artificial data sources. Twelve qualified informants from three study locations, i.e., Aceh Besar, West Aceh, and South Aceh provided their consent to participate in this study. Meanwhile, written data were sourced from Acehnese books and previous studies, and the artificial data were used as complementary to oral and written data. The data analysis is presented using a distributional approach. In addition, the Natural Semantic Metalanguage (NSM) theory was also applied. The results show that the interjection of ômma in the Acehnese language expressed three semantic aspects, i.e., emotive, volitive, and cognitive. The emotive aspect includes expressions of amazement, surprise, and anger. In addition, the meanings of the interjection of ômma are highly dependent on the text and the context of the sentence. A chuckle of amazement, pleasant facial expression, hand-clap, head-shake, or thumbs-up accompanies the interjection of ômma expressing amazement. The interjection of ômma that expresses anger is accompanied by a sour facial expression, such as frowns and lip-biting, as well as a high intonation voice. In expressing a feeling of surprise, the interjection of ômma is accompanied by a voice that indicates joy and a happy facial expression. Meanwhile, the interjection of ômma expressing

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volition is accompanied by limb movements, either using hands, mouth, or face. The interjection of ômma that expresses the cognitive aspect is followed by movements or pats on the forehead or legs.

Keywords: Acehnese language, interjection, natural semantic metalanguage approach, qualitative.

1. INTRODUCTION

In Aceh, other regional languages, apart from the Acehnese language, also exist. Within the Aceh region, at least nine regional languages are spoken., i.e., Acehnese, Gayonese, Alas, Tamiang, Jamee, Kluet, Singkil, Sigulai, and Devayan (Yusuf et al., 2021). Moreover, Toha et al. (2008) stated that there are thirteen regional languages in Aceh, namely Acehnese, Gayonese, Aneuk Jamee, Kluet, Tamiang, Julu, Haloban, Pak-Pak, Nias, Lekon, Sigulai, Devayan, and Alas. It is learned that currently, there is no certain consensus regarding the names and number of regional languages in Aceh (Wildan, 2010). However, of the many regional languages in the area, the Acehnese language has the largest number of speakers.

As commonly understood, one of the language functions is to convey feelings through interjection. Similarly in the Acehnese language, interjections include *ômma, ômmi, bakbudik, alahmak oi,* and *alahhuwe* (Azharina et al., 2012; Wildan, 2010). Acehnese people deliver these words to express amazement, anger, fear, hate, disgust, and many more. This is in line with the definition of interjection by Alwi et al. (2003) stating that a function of an interjection word is to express the speaker's feelings such as admiration, sadness, surprise, and disgust. Meanwhile, Wierzbicka (1992) defined interjection as a linguistic sign that can stand alone in its use to express a specific meaning, but it is not included in other signs, either a homophone with other lexical forms that are semantically related, and it is the speaker's spontaneous mental or action requirement.

In the study of linguistic theory, interjection has mostly fallen out of favor (Ameka, 1992; Goddard, 2014; Jovanovic, 2004). However, interjections are essential to express local values, norms, and communication interactions in social life (Ameka, 2006). Linguists have currently been encouraged to focus and pay great attention to the field of interjection, evidenced by many scientific articles discussing this topic. Parsieva and Gatsalova (2020) have discussed the differences between cognitive, cognitive-evaluative, emotive, emotive-evaluative, and volitional interjections. They examined interjection in spoken language, where factors such as gender and age are considered to distinguish the type of interjections used.

Several other researchers also showed interest in interjections. Simanihuruk and Mulyadi (2020) discovered five meanings of the interjection of *bah* in the Toba Batak language, i.e., surprise, disappointment, confusion, and amazement. Simanjuntak and Mulyadi (2019), who show interest in the Batak language interjections, stated that interjections in the Toba Batak language are not affected by context; only a small number of interjections are highly context-dependent. Nasrullah et al. (2017) proposed a new interjection that has not been acknowledged as an Indonesian interjection, i.e., *ciye*, an expression that has been widely used among celebrities and teenagers. In Semarang, a form of Javanese interjection can represent several expressions, such as anger, amazement, fear, surprise or shock, sadness, disgust, and many more (Jovanovic, 2004).

Among previous studies, discussions of interjections in the Acehnese language remain limited. Although as a natural language, the Acehnese certainly has a tool to express the communicator's feelings, i.e., through interjections. Interjections are unique in different languages. An interjection in Acehnese, i.e., *ômma*, not only expresses feelings (emotive) as discovered by Jovanovic (2004) but it can express all three interjection meanings, namely emotive, volitive, and cognitive, at once. Apart from this uniqueness, the interjection of *ômma* is used throughout Aceh, while other interjections, such as *bak budik*, are only used in a few areas. Therefore, it is critical to study the interjection of *ômma* in Acehnese through a natural semantic grammar approach. The formulation of the problem is:

1. What potential meanings can the interjection of *ômma* reveal?
2. Is the use of the interjection of *ômma* in Acehnese determined by the text and context?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Interjection

An interjection is a type of closed word that has received less attention in linguistic studies; thus, it became a neglected topic in the study of linguistic theory (Ameka, 1992; Goddard, 2014). According to Chaer (2008) interjections are words that express emotions, e.g., surprise, anger, touched, loss, amazement, sadness, and many more. An interjection is a function word used to express inner feelings such as amazement, sadness, surprise, and disgust. An interjection is a word that expresses the speaker's feelings and is syntactically unrelated to other words in the utterance (Putrayasa, 2008). It is an extra-sentence and always precedes speech.

Linguists classify interjections into several groups. Wilkins (1992) classified interjection forms into primary, secondary, phrase, and clause interjections. Meanwhile, Kridalaksana (2015) categorized interjections based on their form, meaning, and function. Interjections are classified into basic or simple and derivative based on their form, i.e., affix, reduplications, and word combinations. Examples of basic interjections include *cis, bah,* and *ah*, while examples of combined interjections are *alah* and *mak*. There are various interjections based on their meaning, i.e., amazement, sadness, surprise, anger, irritation, disgust, disappointment, and many more. Interjections are classified into emotive and referential or cognitive interjections based on their function.

The classification by Wilkins (1992) and Kridalaksana (2015) is considered less representative because of the overlapping classification scope between the fields of morphology, syntax, and semantics. Interjections based on derivatives, affixes, reduplications, and word combinations are included in the topic of morphological studies, while phrase and clause interjections are included in syntactic studies. However, Kridalaksana (2015) also grouped interjections based on meaning.

So far, one of the interjection discussions put more focus on the semantic side, i.e., emotive. Therefore, it is relevant to group interjections based on the proposed semantic view (Goddard, 2008; Wierzbicka, 1992, 2003). In the meantime, it is also classified into primary interjections, i.e., short or simple monosyllabic words, and secondary interjections, i.e., a more complex form/derivative.

Semantically, interjections are categorized into emotive, i.e., emotion or feeling about something (good or bad), volitive (will, desire, or obtaining reactions), and cognitive, i.e., the process of thinking and knowing something. Wierzbicka (1992) divided basic emotions into interest, joy, surprise, sadness, anger, disgust, humiliation, fear, shame, and guilt. This classification is considered a reference for emotional expressions and universal emotions. Volitional interjection expresses a desire that encourages specific reactions from the other party. It asks other people to do as the speaker's wishes. Examples of volitive interjections include *hai* to call someone and *sst* to ask someone to be quiet. A cognitive interjection is used to convey messages that are more oriented to cognition or thought, i.e., something known as information, and becomes new knowledge. The Indonesian language has many cognitive interjections, namely *wow, wah, aha, ah, wah, oh, hmm, oops, hah, aduh,* and *nah* (Shalika & Mulyadi, 2019). The interjections *wow* and *wah* deliver amazement and happiness, which are included in the emotive aspect. It can also convey a thought or knowledge, which are parts of the cognitive aspect. There is often an overlap between cognitive and emotive interjections because both are tools for expressing feelings (Goddard, 2014). Although similar, the difference between these two aspects is more clearly in speech. To conclude, interjections are used to express something but not to describe something (emotions or mental states, attitudes, actions, or reactions to a situation). Interjections only convey what a person feels, thinks, wants, believes, or knows at a specific time (Goddard, 2014).

Although there is a clear distinction, an interjection is often considered similar to the exclamation and *fatis* category (a subclass of the word task that has a special form) (Mulyadi, 2021). Interjection does not recognize derivation, for example, *cis.* The interjection of *cis* cannot be converted into *cis lah*. Interjections are located at the beginning of sentences, while exclamations are freely distributed. Interjections are formed non-elliptically, while exclamation is formed elliptically. Furthermore, an interjection refers to an event, which distinguishes it from the exclamation and *fatis* category. The semantic structure of an interjection consists of a macro event formed by two micro-events, which have causal relationships with different semantic elements. Cause events are marked by word elements as predicates and effect events are marked by feeling, thinking, knowing, and wanting elements. Interjections are located at the beginning of sentences. In exclamations, the resultant event is formed by the elements of feeling, knowing, and wanting as the predicate. The exclamation is freely located in spoken language. Meanwhile, *fatis* has similar parameters as interjections, i.e., located at the beginning of a sentence. However, there is a significant difference, i.e., *fatis* functions to start, maintain, or confirm the conversation between the speakers (Putrayasa, 2008).

2.2 Acehnese Interjections

The previously recorded interjections in Acehnese are *ôdu, ôku, astagfirullah, insya Allah, ma é, ek, hoi, alah hai Po, wôi, ôi, ô, e, ih, jéh, nyan ban, ôma or ômma, ômi or ômmi, paléh,* and *euh* (Azharina et al., 2012; Wildan, 2010). The emotive aspect was the only element discussed in this language, while the volitive and cognitive aspects were not discussed. Meanwhile, Durie (1985) classified *ômma* as an exclamation without providing detailed reasons regarding the difference between interjection, exclamation, and *fatis*. Even though there are clear distinctions between the categories, i.e., an interjection is only located at the beginning of sentences, *fatis* is freely located, while exclamation can be located at the beginning of the sentence or on other positions.

Ômma is the most produced interjection in the Acehnese language. It has several variations, including *ôma, ômi, ômmi,* and *ômman*, which have similar meanings but different sound variations. However, the interjections *ôma, ômi, ômmi,* and *ômman* are only used in a few areas, i.e., Aceh Pidie, Aceh Besar, Aceh Selatan, and Aceh Utara.

2.3 The Natural Semantic Metalanguage Theory

Natural semantic metalanguage (NSM) is an approach to analyzing words' meaning in a language. Mulyadi (2006) wrote that the theory was suggested by Anna Weirzbicha, a semantic expert of Polish descent who became a lecturer at the Australian National University. Together with several colleagues, including Cliff Goddard, Felik Ameka, Hilary Chappell, and Jen Harkins, she developed NSM through cross-language semantic studies over the years. Her theory began with an investigation of semantic primitives.

The theory assumes that a sign cannot be analyzed into a form that is not the sign itself, which means that it is impossible to analyze the meaning of a combination of forms that is not the meaning of the form itself. This assumption refers to semiotic principles, i.e., the theory of signs (Goddard, 1994). The primary assumption is that meaning cannot be fully described without a set of semantic primitives (Goddard & Wierzbicka, 2014). In other words, the meaning of a word is a configuration of the semantic primitives. Thus, meaning analysis will be discrete, complete, and straightforward without other discrete meaning combination residues (Goddard, 2008; Wierzbicka, 1996).

The semantic primitive is the first meaning of a word that does not easily change despite cultural changes. The semantic primitive is a reflection and formation of thoughts that can be explicated from ordinary language, which is the only way to present meaning. Those words are universal lexical items, and their meanings can be translated into all languages. The amount of proposed semantic primitives ranges from a few units, like seven (Jackendoff, 1983), to several dozen (Wierzbicka, 1985), or even hundreds (Apresyan, 1995). Although there have not been any dramatic changes to the collection of fundamental ideas governing human society in recent decades, as time goes on, their relative importance shifts.

One of the main theoretical concepts in determining interjection is to apply a set of semantic primitives. However, all semantic primitives presented in the NSM theory refer to the English exponents. Apart from different morphosyntactic properties, the exponents have variations with combinations. Recently, 61 English semantic primitives have been discovered (Goddard, 2008; Wierzbicka, 1996), including think, know, want, feel, see, and hear.

In this paper, the interjection meanings are traced using the components of semantic primitives to distinguish the emotive, volitive, and cognitive aspects. The emotive aspect has a meaning component of 'I feel something', while the volitive aspect has 'I want something' and does not have a component meaning of 'I feel something'. On the other hand, the cognitive aspect has a meaning component of 'I think of something' or 'I know something' and has no emotional component of 'I feel something' or a volitive component of 'I want something'. The categorization is adopted from Wierzbicka (1992) and Goddard (2014).

3. METHOD

The study employed a qualitative approach selected due to its linguistic form of data (Bungin, 2007; Moleong, 2007; Neuman, 2014; Sugiyono, 2006). The data comprised oral and written, in the form of sentences that include interjections. Oral data were collected from informants with Acehnese mother tongue by applying an observation method with a conversation technique for one month. Twelve informants consented to participate in this study, and they are from Aceh Besar, West Aceh, and South Aceh. The informants meet the qualifications proposed by Mahsun (2005) and Djajasudarma (2006). The informants should be male or female, be native Acehnese speakers, born in Aceh, have an Acehnese mother tongue, and aged between 30-60 years old. In addition to oral data as the primary data in this study, written data from previous studies and Acehnese books were used as supporting data.

The result of the data analysis is presented using a distributional method in which the determinants were contained in the language (Djajasudarma, 2006; Mahsun, 2005). This method is used because every language element is related to one another. This paper also applied the NSM theory for data analysis (Goddard, 2008; Goddard & Wierzbicka, 2002; Wierzbicka, 1996). Data were analyzed by following the research procedure as follows: determining the semantic primes from the analyzed words and paraphrasing the meaning of the word.

4. RESULTS

The interjection of *ômma* is one of the Acehnese words used to express feelings. The meaning of interjection of *ômma* in Acehnese is similar to *wah*, *wow*, and *walah* in Indonesian. The study demonstrates that the interjection of *ômma* can express emotive, volitive, and cognitive aspects. The context of the sentence differentiates the meaning of the three aspects. The context is the primary determinant in deciding the semantic aspect of an interjection.

4.1 The Emotive Aspect

Ômma is generally used to express feelings or emotions (good or bad), including amazement, anger, and surprise.

4.1.1 Emotive interjections expressing amazement

Emotive interjections specifically express amazement or responses to specific events experienced by speakers and delivered to interlocutors, as exemplified below.

(1) *Ômma! Leupah that carong ji-beut aneuk nyan.*
Intj. extreme very skillful 3-reciting Quran child that
'*Ômma*! The child is very skillful in reciting the Quran'.

(2) *Ômma*! *Ubè raya rumoh cidara-kah.*
Intj. size big house relative-2.
'*Ômma*! Your relative's house is huge'.

Data (1) and (2) can be tested using the following sequence of NSM analysis.

I now know something about something.
I would never have thought that I would notice.
When I think about this
(I did not imagine it could be like it).
I felt something extraordinary happen; I was so amazed.
When I felt it happen, I said *ômma*.

Now I know something.
I would never have thought that I would notice.
I thought, "That is very good and wonderful".
(I never imagined it could be that wonderful.
Because such a wonderful and amazing thing is beyond my mind)
I felt something positive.
Therefore, I said *ômma*.

Therefore, in Acehnese, the emotive *ômma* is spoken when one finds out something does not concur with their knowledge or previous thoughts. Something happened pleasingly that the speaker said *ômma* as an expression of his or her amazement for something. In this case, the interjection of *ômma* is classified into an expression with a positive meaning. The text and context are also significant because a stand-alone *ômma* without any text and context may not express amazement; instead, it may have expressed anger or surprise. Therefore, facial expressions and gestures also determine the meanings of the interjection of *ômma*.

4.1.2 Emotive interjections that express anger

Several emotive interjections express negative feelings such as anger. An angry interjection is a negative interjection. Examples are shown in (3), (4), (5), and (6).

(3) *Ômma! Pakon meunoe ka-buet dikah. Hana ka-kalön buet gop*.
Intj. why this 2- work 2- no 2-look work people
'*Ômma*! Why do you work like this? Don't you pay attention to other people's work?'

(4) *Ômma! Peu hana mata-kah, ka-jak hana kalön sahoe. Gop dong ka-pok.*
Intj. what no eye-2 2-walk no look where man standing 2-bump
'*Ômma*! What is wrong with your eyesight? You bumped into a standing man'.

(5) *Ômma! Ku-yu meunoe, ka-pubuet meudéh. Meunyoe han ék lé ka-peugah.*
Intj. 1-ask this 2-do that if no want anymore 2-tell
'*Ômma*! I told you to do this; instead, you did something else. If you cannot do it, please say so'.

(6) *Ômma! Bit-bit kah hana ji-lôp asam garam.*
Intj. seriously you no 2-enter acid salt
'*Ômma*! Seriously, it is so difficult to talk to you'.

The interjections *ômma* in (3), (4), (5), and (6) express anger. It can be analyzed using the following NSM.

I now know something.
I would never have thought that I would notice.
I thought, "It is something horrible".
(I never imagined it could be that bad.
Because it was so horrible and beyond my imagination)
I felt something negative.
Therefore, I said *ômma*.

4.1.3 Emotive interjections that express surprise or shock reactions

The data in (7) and (8) show that the interjection of *ômma* can express surprise reactions.

(7) *Ômma! Ka tuwoe ku-balah WA gopnyan.*
Intj. have forgotten 1-reply WhatsApp him
'*Ômma*! I forgot to reply to his WhatsApp message'.

(8) *Ômma! Pajan trôk? Pakon hana neu-brithè neu-jak keunoe*.
Intj. when arrive Why not 2-tell 2-come here
'*Ômma*! When did you arrive? Why didn't you say that you were coming?'

The interjection of *ômma* in (7) and (8) that express surprise reactions can be proven using an NSM analysis below.

I now know something.
I would never have thought that I would notice.
When I thought about it
(I never imagined it like that).
I felt something; I was shocked.
When I felt it happen, I said *ômma*.

4.2 Volitive Aspect

These interjections express a desire to encourage particular reactions from the other party. A volitive interjection has the meaning of 'I want' something. The interjection of *ômma* is also used to ask someone to do as the speaker wishes. The data below show that the speaker wanted his interlocutor to follow his command.

(9) *Ômma! Aneuk miet bèk karu-karu, ka-duek di lua mantong.*
Intj. Child small no noisy 2- sit at outside only
'*Ômma*! Kids, please be quiet! You should wait outside'.

The *ômma* in (9) actually expresses a feeling that wishes the other party to follow the speaker's will. The speaker wanted the children to stop talking or be quiet in this case. The children were expected to do what the speaker commanded, i.e., to be silent. Hence, the *ômma* in (9) is proven using the following NSM analysis.

I want to something now.
I would never have thought that I can fulfill that wish.
(I commanded someone
Because I want something to be stopped)
When I want something to happen
I request someone to fulfill my need.
I said *ômma*.

Data (10) can be also analyzed by the similar phrases such as in data (9). A gesture usually accompanies interjections to express volition. In addition to saying *ômma*, forbidding children from being noisy such as in (9), asking them to be quiet, and requesting them to move to another location, can also be accompanied by putting an index finger to the lip as a sign of prohibition. So, the children, in this case, followed the speaker's command. Likewise, the *ômma* in (10) is used so that the speaker could get the listener to lend him an umbrella.

10) *Ômma! Pah that na ka-ba payông. Töh keu lôn siat.*
Intj. fit very exist 2-bring umbrella. Let to I awhile
'*Ômma*! What a coincidence, you brought an umbrella. Let me borrow it for a while'.

The *ômma* in (11), at first glance, seems like expressing amazement or praise; however, the sentence is semantically volitive, i.e., the speaker wanted someone to do what he wanted, which was to let him bring the flowers back to his village. His desire is by interjecting *ômma* in his utterance as a sign of control.

(11) *Ômma! Lagak-lagak that bungong nyoe. Yang töh jeut ku-puwoe u gampông*?
Intj. pretty very flower this that which can 1-bring to hometown
'*Ômma*! The flowers are so pretty. Which one can I take back to my hometown?'

4.3 Cognitive Aspect

An interjection of the cognitive aspect is used to deliver a message that is more oriented towards cognition or thought, i.e., in the form of information and becomes new knowledge. Cognitive and emotive interjections sometimes are considered similar because they both can be tools to express feelings; however, the difference is more apparent in speech.

(12) *Ômma! Nyoe tanyoe na raseuki, thôn nyoe jeut ta-jak umrah lom.*
Intj. this we have money year this can 1-go *umrah* again
'*Ômma*! If only we have money, we can go for *Umrah* again this year'.

The NSM analysis for (12) is as the following:

I'm thinking about something now
(if we have money)
I never thought about that before.
I think if we have money
(that crossed my mind)
When that crossed in my mind
I said *ômma*

The interjection of *ômma* in (12) is classified as a cognitive aspect because it expresses thinking. It is similar to the interjection of *aha* in Indonesian, *Aha*! *Saya ada ide!* '*Aha*! I have an idea!' (Shalika & Mulyadi, 2019). *Aha* is mentioned because the speaker suddenly thought of a brilliant idea that had not crossed his mind before. Likewise, the interjection of *ômma* is exclaimed spontaneously due to a thought that appeared in one's mind, which was previously unthinkable. Examples from the data are displayed in (13), (14) and (15).

(13) *Ômma! Meudéh jih jeut ta-yu jak awai uroe nyoe.*
Intj. want he can 1-ask come early day this
'*Ômma*! We should have asked him to early first today'.

(14) *Ômma! Hana rôh meujôk seudeukah keu aneuk yatim nyan.*
Int. no cancel 1-give alms to child orphan that
'*Ômma*! I forgot to give alms to the orphan'.

(15) *Ômma! Teulat that trôh kah, ka hana mereumpök jatah.*
Int. late very arrive you exist not meet fortune
'*Ômma*! You arrived very late; you are not in luck'.

In (13), it can be seen that after the event happened, it suddenly appeared in the speaker's mind to ask the interlocutor to come earlier to the event that they were talking about. Previously, the speaker did not even think of telling the interlocutor to arrive earlier. The data show that by asking the interlocutor to come early, the speaker thought he could do something to help the speaker in the event. When the thought crossed the speaker's mind, he said *ômma* to express his regret. In Acehnese, an interjection of *ômma* that expresses cognitive meaning is also accompanied by gestures, i.e., tapping the leg and/or holding the forehead. Likewise, data (14) and (15) show expressions of regret and guilt as cognitive expressions, which is in line with Shalika and Mulyadi's (2019) findings.

5. DISCUSSION

The interjection of *ômma* can express all three semantic aspects of emotive, volitive and cognitive. The emotive aspect concerns feelings directly expressed at the time and location of the event. It refers to interjections that mainly express emotions (Goddard, 2014). For example, an *ômma* is uttered when someone recites the Quran in a melodious voice, which the speaker has never heard before. The *ômma* is spontaneously expressed, followed by other utterances, such as *lagak that su aneuk nyan* 'the child has a wonderful voice'. But, in some cases, an interjection may not articulate all three of the semantic aspects. An example is the Indonesian interjection of *aduh*, which is used to express the emotive meaning of sickness/sadness (Kridalaksana, 2015). This interjection is only found to articulate the volitive and cognitive aspects.

The use of interjections are usually strongly related to context (Ameka, 2006). This interjection is delivered using a distinct intonation (Goddard, 2014), including facial expressions and certain gestures (Ameka, 1992; Wierzbicka, 2003; Wilkins, 1992). In the case of *ômma*, it can be accompanied by the gestures of hand-clap, head-shake, and thumbs-up, with a joyful voice and a happy facial expression to convey amazement with a positive surprise reaction. However, if the emotive aspect is anger to display negative meaning (Goddard, 2014), *ômma* is usually accompanied by high intonation, bad facial expressions, and gestures such as lip-biting and eye-rolling. In the conversations between a superior and a subordinate, as presented in data (4), (5), and (6), the speakers uttered *ômma* with unpleasant facial expressions; hence, displaying negative meaning.

Apart from expressing the emotive aspect, the interjection of *ômma* also expresses the volitive and cognitive aspects. The volitive aspect is used when the speaker wants another person to do something he or she wants (Wierzbicka, 1992). In this study, the speaker expressed *ômma* before asking another person to do what he or she wanted the interlocutor to do for him or her. Gestures play a significant role in this aspect as well. In this case, it was carried out by pointing with the index finger and facial expressions.

Meanwhile, the feelings expressed by the cognitive aspect are the opposite of the emotive and volitive aspects, i.e., it does not occur at the event's place and time, instead it happens through a thinking process (Chaplin & Kartono, 2006; Shalika & Mulyadi, 2019). Cognition is a mental process or activity in seeking and understanding information. Therefore, a cognitive interjection is oriented to cognition, which is usually related to familiar information resulting from the speaker's thoughts, for example, *wow*, *gosh*, and many more (Devi & Tarmini, 2019). After the new thoughts and considerations appear in one's mind, emotional expression emerges in the form of speech. In the data of this study, the interjection of *ômma* expressing cognition is delivered after an event had happened. In the case of *ômma* in (13), it can be said that it contained both the emotive and cognitive aspects. It initially expresses emotional feelings and new thoughts that appear in one's mind after an event that is not supposed to happen. The latter happens after a thinking process, i.e., the cognitive aspect. It means that certain knowledge and new considerations appear in the speaker's mind after an event happens to someone. Previous studies have only classified *ômma* or *oma* to have an emotive aspect that expresses amazement (Azharina et al., 2012; Wildan, 2010). Thus, this study showed that this interjection applies in in the cognitive aspect as well.

6. CONCLUSION

The interjection of *ômma* is used to express three semantic aspects. The first is the emotive aspect, including amazement, surprise, and anger. The second is the volitive aspect, which expresses desires directed at others. In other words, the volitive aspect is an expression that asks others to do what the speaker wants. The last one is the cognitive aspect which spontaneously expresses thoughts, ideas, or regrets immediately after an event occurs. Furthermore, context plays an essential role in determining the meaning of *ômma*, i.e., the meaning, either emotive, volitive, or cognitive, is revealed when in speech. The intonation, expressions, and gestures also determine the meaning of *ômma*. It is difficult to determine the meaning of *ômma* when not related to the context.

Many issues are not yet discussed, such as the variation of *ômma* described in the literature review. Further research focusing on these issues is expected to be carried out. It is hoped that by doing so, it can reveal the specific regions using the interjections and whether each interjection expresses similar semantic aspects as in the finding of this study. In addition, it is essential to examine the three semantic aspects of all Acehnese interjections that have not been explored.

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The Conceptualization of *Jihad* in the Acehnese Saga of *Hikayat Prang Sabi*

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Abstract

This study focuses on the conceptualization of jihad in the text of Hikayat Prang Sabi by Teungku Chik Pante Kulu. This study provides a constructive discourse of thought for readers in understanding jihad. This study narrates jihad as literally meaning 'striving' or 'struggling' in Arabic, such as in wars, and it also examines the conceptualization of jihad in Acehnese literary texts. The method used in this research is descriptive-qualitative. The data were analyzed through a literary hermeneutic approach so that the interpretation of the Hikayat Prang Sabi text can be considered a universal truth in the lives of the Acehnese and Muslim communities in the world regarding the concept of jihad. The results of the analysis show that the concept of jihad in the Hikayat Prang Sabi is divided into three: (1) jihad for religious reasons, (2) jihad to defend the homeland, and (3) jihad for peace. These three concepts form the conceptualization of jihad based on the relationship between humans and God, the relationship between humans and humans, and the relationship between humans and the universe. This confirms the linguistic concept of jihad in the perspective of Muslims, especially the people of Aceh, that jihad is not only about war and suicide but also an inspiration to call for truth and peace.

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1. INTRODUCTION

In the Malay literary tradition in general, the *hikayat* (also known as 'saga') is a literary work in the form of prose (Harun, 2012). The *hikayat* is created and used almost all over the world with unique styles and varieties. From the perspective of Malay society, the *hikayat* is generally written like prose: it has narration, description, and dialogue using direct quotation marks and is written in paragraph form (Fadhi, 2016; Mahayana, 2001; Rizki, 2019).

In Acehnese literary tradition, in particular, the *hikayat* is written in the form of poetry: bound by the number of words in one array, stanza, rhyme, and rhythm (Mukhlis & Herman, 2021b). Although written in poetic form, the *hikayat* in Acehnese literature is also classified as the work of the prose genre, which has several distinct characteristics. A saga in the tradition of Aceh begins with praise to God Almighty, followed by a *shalawat* or 'salutation' to the Prophet Muhammad. As the literature is closely related to Islam, the Acehnese saga always reflects universal Islamic values (Herman, 2010; Kawom, 2012).

In addition to these characteristics, a saga in Acehnese literature also contains stories about certain figures who experience certain events in certain places and periods. The form contains fictional, legal, and genealogical characters, religious, historical, biographical, or a combination of these characteristics, read for solace, power fighting spirit, or just to enliven the party (Nushur & Astutie, 2019).

In the past, a saga was created spontaneously and delivered verbally. In further developments, it began to be written (Mukhlis & Herman, 2021b). In terms of creating literary works, a saga was also created to give advice, moral education, motivation, and doctrine with a specific purpose (Subroto, 2015). It can also function as a medium for character education and propaganda doctrine for specific purposes, including the doctrine of *jihad* and illuminator of the war spirit (Abdullah, 1981; Hasjmy, 1977). In Aceh, many sagas were created as concepts of character education, moral concepts, peace concept, and war concept (Herman et al., 2020).

For decades, a prolific writer and researcher in Indonesia, Hamidy (1974), has mentioned that the Acehnese people used to create a saga, including educating children, conveying traditional messages, and spreading religious propaganda (Saharudin, 2019). The same function was also stated by Alfian (1987) and Maulana (2018) that the Acehnese people used to create a saga as a medium of entertainment as well as a medium to educate children (Harun, 2012). The Acehnese created it spontaneously when looking for sustenance, relaxation, or needs depending on certain situations (Yulia, 2015). A saga was often recited in festivities or parties such as weddings and circumcision ceremonies. It is because a saga was created in various settings; many saga writers tried to convey the message of *da'wah*, the delivery of religious messages and peace in the Islamic context (Maulana, 2018; Rizki, 2019), and the doctrine of war through the saga they created. Therefore, the role of a saga as a medium for conveying the concept of war and the concept of communication for the Acehnese has existed since time immemorial (Alfian, 1987; Nazaruddin, 2017).

Jihad has been understood by many as a war activity and suicide (Borsari, 2018), creating a stereotype against Muslims. In the end, many people fear and worry about Muslims, creating Islamophobia, especially Westerners (Afzal et al., 2021). In fact, the media has even begun to frame Islamophobia (Suryandari & Arifin, 2021). For this reason, it is important to see how the conceptualization shapes the meaning of *jihad* in literary texts as knowledge and answers to the concept of *jihad* and the wisdom of Muslims in general. The conceptualization in this study refers to the opinion by Chilton (2013), which states that in linguistics, there needs to be a marker that is included in deixis modeling. Deixis is not only understood as spatial and temporal but also as a modal in determining meaning (Chilton, 2013). Thus, every text considered related to the concept of *jihad* is given a marker and analyzed to the extent the diction plays in verse. In cognitive semantic theory, meaning is treated as an expression in the form of language, which refers to the conceptualization of reason (Haula, 2020; Haula & Nur, 2019).

The old literary text used as the data for this research was the *Hikayat Prang Sabi* by Teungku Chik Pante Kulu. This saga is suitable for study material for the conceptualization of *jihad* because the world has considered it a concept of international *jihad* (Fadhi, 2016; Rizki, 2019). Several sagas can also be used as a linguistic study of *jihad* in Aceh, including the *Hikayat Prang Atjeh* (Harun, 1982a), the *Hikayat Prang Cumbok* (Sulaiman, 1990), the *Hikayat Prang Gompeuni* (Karim, n.d.), the *Hikayat Prang Pandrah* (Muthalib, 1960), the *Hikayat Prang Cut Ali* (Harun, 1982b), and the *Hikayat Prang Sabi* (Kulu, n.d.). However, *Hikayat Prang Sabi* is the most powerful text about *jihad* to the Acehnese, which has been recognized since the Dutch war era (Alfian, 1987).

The study of the *Hikayat Prang Sabi* answers the thoughts of the world community regarding Islam (Wibowo, 2006). As is known, Islamophobia has developed in the world community with a label that Muslim society is ‘war-crazy’ (Dzuhayatin, 2020; Rahman, 2016). This claim has given rise to stereotypes of Islam (Darnela, 2021; Khasan, 2021), despite many verses in the Qur’an that say Islam is peace-loving. The term *ummah wahidah* (one society) is repeated in the Qur’an up to seven times (Asriani, 2018; Herman & Hamid, 2019). This shows that Islam is a religion of peace, so Islamophobia actually has no basis.

Teeuw (2003) said that a literary work was not born in a cultural vacuum. The author can include cultural elements in his environment in the stories he writes. The emergence of the *Hikayat Prang Sabi* answers cultural behavior in Islam toward the genuine concept of *jihad*, especially in Acehnese society as the universal owner of the text, namely the society in which this text was born (Maulana, 2018). Thus, this research examined the conceptualization of *jihad* contained in the *Hikayat Prang Sabi* in the socio-cultural context of the Acehnese people to further understand the culture of the Acehnese through their language use.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Concept in Literature

The concept is an abstraction of an idea so that it can make it easier for someone to understand something. In simple language, the concept is understood as an effort to bring something abstract into concrete so that it can be understood easily (Jaya, 2019). Thus, conceptualization in literary works is understood as an effort to provide interpretations of literary texts so that they are more easily understood by connoisseurs (Relawati et al., 2018).

It must be admitted that literary works cannot be separated from four things: the work itself, the universe, the creator, and the audience (Mukhlis & Herman, 2021b; Teeuw, 2003). Literary works are created by authors to be enjoyed by the audience. Therefore, in literary works, many messages are contained and adapted to the socio-cultural conditions of the author and the audience (Nurgiyantoro, 2018).

Among the messages contained in literary texts is *da'wah* (Herman, 2014). The message of *da'wah* in literary works is present as a value that connoisseurs can learn. In another form, the message of *da'wah* in literary texts aims to invite the audience to do something related to *da'wah* (Zuliyanti & Fitrotul, 2019). Therefore, understanding values in literary works cannot be separated from the concept of language. Language as a medium used by speakers to create literary works will form a field of meaning that the audience can use. In literary studies, this is called stylistics (Lafamane, 2020; Unsayaini et al., 2016). This also applies to the saga in Acehnese (Herman et al., 2020), which contains the values of *jihad*, which are conceptualized through diction.

The concept of *jihad* in literary texts can be in the form of doctrine (Rahman, 2016), and it can also be in the form of advice and values relating to the teachings of life (Ramlan et al., 2016). All of this is packaged with literary language so that the concept of language looks more refined and beautiful and does not seem forced (Herman et al., 2018). Therefore, the saga created by language speakers in the past was present as a value and a guideline for the socio-cultural life of the people at that time.

2.2 The Meaning of *Jihad* Based on Islam

In the perspective of the Western world, *jihad* is understood as a holy war to apply *qahriyah da'wah* and expand Muslim territory (Arifin et al., 2020; Rohmanu, 2015). This understanding has led many Westerners to assume that *jihad* or holy war is synonymous with suicide bombing, taking up arms, and all sorts of related killings that Muslims 'must' carry out against people who are non-Muslim (Rijal, 2016). This concept continues to be a framing of Western media so that it gives rise to the influence of labor on Islam in the world (Suryandari & Arifin, 2021). Scholars worldwide have comprehensively defined *jihad* as an earnest effort to survive to maximize thinking according to Islamic rules (Ramlan et al., 2016). The definition of universal *jihad* was expressed decades ago by Ibnu Qayyim al-Jauziyah (Rahman, 2018), a Sunni priest, scholar, and jurist who lived in the 13th century. From an Islamic perspective, jihad is not killing or committing suicide but is an effort to create a safe and peaceful environment (Kurniawan, 2015).

Jihad, in a broader sense, as expressed by Ibnu Qayyim al-Jauziyah, is an invitation to peace, a call to tolerance, as well as an effort to fight one's own desires to carry out Islamic law (Bosari, 2018; Aly, 2014). This shows that Islam is a very tolerant religion, which advocates coexistence and caring for each other. However, war and killing each other in the context of Islam is an effort to survive, both to maintain self-esteem and the homeland. This concept was popularized in many literary works in Aceh, including the *Hikayat Prang Sabi*.

The *Hikayat Prang Sabi*, for example, is considered a literary text of war by the world. This is written by Alfian (1992) in his book *Sastra perang: Sebuah pembicaraan mengenai Hikayat Prang Sabi 'The literature of war: A discussion about Hikayat Prang Sabi'* (Alfian, 1992). In this book, published by Balai Pustaka, he said that the *Hikayat Prang Sabi* is an icon of war literature, which has inspired many nations worldwide to talk about it.

2.3 *Hikayat Prang Sabi*

This *hikayat* is one of the important Acehnese texts during the Aceh war against the Dutch colony. The colonial government considered this text dangerous because it contained a strong concept of *jihad* (Rizki, 2019; Rizki & Latif, 2020). This *hikayat* became a Western Islamophobia of Muslims, especially Aceh. This was reinforced by the social conditions of the people of Aceh, who were able to survive in several war periods: the war against the Portuguese, the war against the Dutch, and other colonial countries (Mukhlis & Herman, 2021a).

Just like the general literary text, the *Hikayat Prang Sabi* also reflected the general social conditions of the Acehnese people at the time. Because this saga tells the story of the colonial war, the story that appears in it revolves around the social conditions of Aceh's colonial society (Haron, 2010; Herman et al., 2020; Subroto, 2015). However, as a literary work that elevates the social side of Acehnese society, the conditions in the *Hikayat Prang Sabi* are not merely about colonialism. It includes moral teachings, worship, and religious orders to serve as a provision for the hereafter. The *hikayat* also contains the stories of the time of the Prophet Muhammad and his companions, whom the author made as a guide and example in the future (Hardiansyah, 2010). In addition, *Hikayat Prang Sabi* also raises the view of the Acehnese people toward *jihad* (Hasjmy, 1977).

Although this literary text was born from the reality of the Aceh war against the Netherlands in 1873, this saga does not necessarily speak of war cases against the Dutch. The context of the war against the Dutch was only one of the many aspects of the concept of *jihad* in the Islamic view that was connected with the context of the life of the Acehnese people at that time. Many stories in *Hikayat Prang Sabi* later became role models and guidelines for *jihad*. Therefore, the concept of *jihad* contained in the *Hikayat Prang Sabi* can be used as a concept of *jihad* in general Muslims. This is in line with the statement by Imam Ghazali (one of the most prominent and influential Muslim philosophers, theologians, jurists, logicians, and mystics, who lived in the 5th century), quoted by Ni'am (2020), that this world is no more a stage than a market. Humans need preparation for supplies for the transit to the hereafter. For the Acehnese, the supply is *jihad* in the way of Allah according to the doctrine of *Hikayat Prang Sabi* (Ni'am, 2020).

Structurally, this text tells readers about *jihad fiisabilillah*, or *jihad* in Allah Almighty's way. It is stated that those who die in the way of Allah during the war because of defending religion, the integrity of the nation, and the motherland, will get a reward of martyrdom (Asriani, 2018). The author, Teungku Chik Pante Kulu, has a strategic role in conveying *jihad* messages so that anyone who hears *Hikayat Prang Sabi* can be moved to participate in the war (Alfian, 1987; Wibowo, 2006). This saga can be considered to contain a robust method of communication in the distribution of *jihad* messages. This saga becomes a language concept in the form of delivering the message of *jihad* and peace (Subroto, 2015). Therefore, *Hikayat Prang Sabi*, which initially became a *jihad* doctrine, can also be considered a concept that is worthy of research and analysis. A profound interpretation of the *Hikayat Prang Sabi* text can refute Islamophobia as depicted by non-Muslims worldwide.

Studies relevant to this article include the work by Asriani (2018), which showed that the *Hikayat Prang Sabi* is a story written in the form of a back-and-forth plot that includes the obligation to defend religion. Other studies are on its 'concept of struggle' (Agustisa & Yulianeta, 2018) and 'the message of *da'wah*' (Maulana, 2018). These two studies state that *Hikayat Prang Sabi* is a concept of *jihad* conveyed through inspirational stories such as 'Ainul Mardiah', 'Said Salmi', and others. The stories are told in beautiful and captivating literary language.

From all the research above, none has looked into how the use of diction in the verses as the conceptualization of *jihad* in the *Hikayat Prang Sabi* is by Islamic understanding. Previous studies observed this *hikayat* as an explicit *jihad* text, which contains an invitation to war and political elements. In the understanding of Islam, they overlooked that *jihad*, as stated by Ibnu Qayyim al-Jauziyah, is not just a matter of war by taking up arms, or about committing suicide and dying on the battlefield (Ramlan et al., 2016). There is much more to that. This study intends to scrutinize the concept of *jihad* to enlighten that the *Hikayat Prang Sabi* is not just a saga about an invitation to war and is politically charged, but also a communication concept for the Acehnese as Muslims for peace and tolerance.

3. METHODS

This study used descriptive qualitative methods (Iskandar et al., 2021; Moleong, 2017; Zaidan, 2002). It was used to provide a systematic and factual description of the data and facts within a certain period obtained (Sugiyono, 2012) from the text of the *Hikayat Prang Sabi* by Teungku Chik Pante Kulu. The text used as the data source is the 50-page text translated by Abdullah Arief, published by Balai Pustaka, and the year is unknown. The text also displays the old Acehnese spelling.

Data analysis was carried out by repeatedly reading the *Hikayat Prang Sabi* text, then giving a marker. This section used the coding method (Saldana, 2009). The coding was carried out in stages: (1) reading each stanza of the *Hikayat Prang Sabi* text as raw research data, (2) marking the parts that contain elements of *jihad*, (3) preparing probing for data deepening, (3) make a classification and (4) building concepts with narratives. Data completed in the coding stage is analyzed using a hermeneutic approach (Wachid, 2015). This approach is suitable to be used in the analysis of literary texts because it relates to the theory of interpretation of the scriptures, serves as a philological method, studies linguistic understanding, and acts as a 'human sciences' methodology, namely, trying to obtain the meaning of human life as a whole, as a phenomenology of existential understanding, and as an interpretation system (Harun, 2005). Thus, the hermeneutic approach in this study is used to interpret the text classified as research findings. The interpretation of the text is made by understanding the diction that appears as conceptualization. The concepts are horizontal communication and vertical communication (Herman & Hamid, 2019). Horizontal communication shows the life of communicating among humans. Meanwhile, vertical communication appears as an indirect way of relying on hopes to

Allah (God). The following figure illustrates the steps taken to analyze the data of the present study.

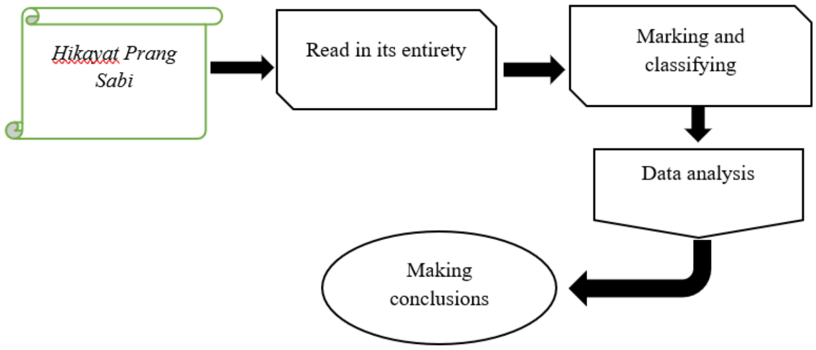

Figure 1. Steps of analysis.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The concepts contained in the *Hikayat Perang Sabi* are divided into two types, namely horizontal communication and vertical communication. These forms of communication can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1. Forms of communication.

Horizontal communication Version-1	Horizontal communication Version-2	Vertical communication
He ureueng mukmin tapoh musoh *Muprang beusunggoh ngon Beulada* *Hate bak teutap wahe rakan* *Tulong Tuhan troh bak gata*	*Silap bacut deungon nabi* *Said Salmi guda jilumpat* *Jihue jiék guda dijih* *Said Salmi pasang leugat*	*Ya Allah Wahidul Kahar* *Ya Ghafar Tuhanku Rabbi* *Neuberi teutap hate hamba* *Bak prang Beulanda Kaphe Hareuby*
(Hey believers, let us fight the enemy Be determined to fight against the Netherlands A strong heart, my friend God's help reaches us)	(Slightly negligent, the Prophet noticed, Said Salmi jumped on the horse He rode the horse quickly Said Salmi rode the horse with a tied handle)	(Ya Allah Wahidul Qahhar Ya Ghaffar, my Lord Keep my heart in the war against the Dutch, the infidels)

Table 1 shows that the saga's concepts are very comprehensive in terms of form, namely horizontal and vertical. The concept of jihad in the form of horizontal communication can be seen from two sides or versions, directly speaking to fellow humans and telling stories to them. Talking directly to humans is seen in the form of invitations, appeals, advice, and the like. It is stated by Austin (1982) that locutionary speech acts simply convey something. However, in other forms, illocations do not apply, which intend to invite to do something based on what has been said. Convincing, persuading, and surprising are included in perlocation speech acts (Austin, 1962). This means that the concept in the quote from the *hikayat* text in the table above has formed locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary speech acts, which all refer to horizontal communication. Meanwhile, the concept as a form of vertical communication is seen in the form of a request to God. Thus, this saga becomes the Acehnese *jihad* concept conveyed through high literary language. This shows that the *hikayat* does not always talk about an invitation to war but can also be in the form of advice and prayer to God. In fact, it can also contain a message of peace. In simple terms, this *hikayat* appears as a form of diplomatic communication in people's lives, both among the community and God. Regarding language function, diplomatic communication is essential to avoid misunderstandings (Amalia et al., 2021).

The invitation to war against the Dutch is also told in this saga. The teachings of war are for defending Aceh as the homeland, Aceh as an honor, and Aceh as a sovereign nation. In addition, the invitation to war in the *hikayat* was for reasons of defending the religion of Islam, which the Dutch colonized. For this reason, the author tries to invite the people of Aceh to fight against the Dutch with the concept of Islamic *jihad*. The concept of Islamic *jihad* can be seen in the stanza quote of the *Hikayat Perang Sabi* that states that not all Dutch should be killed.

Data 1:

Acehnese	English
Ya Allah Wahidoel Kahhar	O Allah Wahidul Kahhar
Ya Gafar Toehankoe Rabbi	Ya Gafar, my Lord
Neubri teutab hate hamba	Give this servant's heart steadfast
Bak prang Beulanda kafe hareuby	War against the infidel Dutch
Nyang dilee kon boh Hate	The first time, dear
Hantom na kaphe euntat syuruga	There has never been a disbeliever led to heaven
Bak saat nyoe that meusampe	Now is the time
Ka troh kaphe euntah syuruga	Until the infidels who lead to heaven

As explicitly stated in (1), the invitation to fight the Netherlands in 'give this servant's heart steadfast, the war against the infidel Dutch' is a reason to defend religion and the motherland (Wibowo, 2006). The author of this saga conveys a message that fighting the Dutch at that time was for four reasons: expel the infidels out of Aceh, expel the Dutch who underestimated the Acehnese and violated trade agreements with Aceh, expel the Dutch who want to control Aceh's crops, and expel the Dutch who want to colonize the land of Aceh. For these four reasons, the author tries to invite the people of Aceh to fight against the Dutch with the concept of Islamic *jihad*. Nevertheless, in the last three lines, 'there has never been a disbeliever led to heaven, now is the time, until the infidels who lead to heaven' mean that enemies who become prisoners of war are not to be killed, but should be preached so they become a believer (i.e., Muslim), and thus later enter heaven in the hereafter.

The author uses the term *kaphe* or infidel for the Dutch who colonized Aceh. The conceptualization of the word *kaphe* refers to the denial of the religion in Aceh and the invaders. This is as seen in (1), a solid reason to fight the Dutch. The narrative of *jihad* against the Dutch in this text is not written much. The story of the war period at the time of the Prophet Muhammad is widely displayed as a source of inspiration and motivation. Hence, previous studies have ignored the fact the *hikayat* is not only an invitation to go to war against the colonizer, and not an inspiration for *da'wa*. This contradicts the findings of this study.

In a *hadith* (the collected accounts of the sayings, actions, and habits of the Prophet Muhammad), it is stated that a Muslim will be branded a traitor on the day of

Judgment if he kills an infidel who has made a peace treaty. The *hadith* states, "If a (Muslim) gives security to an infidel, then kills after he gives the guarantee of security, then on the Day of Judgment, (he) will be placed a sign of betrayal on him" (Al Hakim et al., 2012). This statement proves that not all infidels must be fought. From this *hadith*, it can be seen that *jihad*, in the perspective of Islam, is not merely against all infidels but against infidels who are fighting Islam and violates the rules of war. In the text of the *Hikayat Prang Sabi*, the war against the infidel invaders is described in the following stanza.

Data 2:

Acehnese	**English**
Ureueng Meukah mulia haté	The people of Mecca have a noble heart
Geusurôt le mandum rata	They were ready to retreat
Ka meuhimpôn bandum kaphé	All the disbelievers gather
Wazi meuhasé lam blang raja	The vizier succeeds on the battlefield
Cicem ijô Tuhan suroh	God's green bird
Yue poh musôh kaphé Beulanda	to fight the enemy, the Dutch infidels
Jirom ngon batèe hana teudôh	Constantly throwing stones
Miseue gurôh lam blang raja	Like thunder on the battlefield

The first stanza in (2) mentioned that the people of Mecca (the Muslims) loved peace, so they were willing to retreat at any time. However, because the infidels continued to declare war on Islam, every Muslim had to defend himself and strike back. Likewise, in the second stanza, it is stated that fighting the Dutch infidels was similar to defending the land of Aceh because they tried to colonize it. Therefore, this fight is the same as Allah's command for *fiisabilillah jihad* (the mobilization of strength to fight the enemy to exalt the words of Allah). Much literature mentioned that the Dutch intended to trade at the beginning of their arrival in Aceh. However, the Dutch betrayed the Acehnese by declaring war against Aceh in March 1873, and thus, *jihad fiisabilillah* erupted (Alfian, 1987; Reid, 2007).

As a narrative of social communication, this *hikayat* tries to give an understanding to all readers that *jihad* against infidels will gain heaven. This *hikayat* also emphasizes that the war against infidels does not merely take up arms. Islam prioritizes preaching rather than war with weapons as a religion that brings grace to the universe (or, in Arabic, known as *rahmatan lil 'alamin*). This can be seen in the quotation of the *hikayat*, which narrates the Rasulullah's (meaning, the Messenger of Allah, who is Prophet Muhammad) dialogue with a young man, Iswad.

Data 3:

Acehnese	**English**
Bèk tajak dilèe gata sidroe	You are prohibited from participating
Bak prang nyoe ya Isuat	In this war, Iswad
Lagi goh trôh tujôh uroe	It has not even been seven days
Gata sidroe piyôh siat	It would be best if you rested for a while

The stanza in (3) is an emphasis that the Muslim community loves and prioritizes peace. Taking up arms is not always an obligation. There are certain conditions for someone required to fight. This is what the author of the *hikayat* wants to convey. The Acehnese must also love peace and want a calm, peaceful and harmonious atmosphere. Therefore, it is a reminder that Acehnese people must hold the view that all human beings are united as peoples in the universe, *ummatan wahidah*, who are obliged to worship the One God, as mentioned in the Qur'an, *surah* Al-Anbiya' verse 92. Hamka (1965) conceptualized *ummatan wahidah* as people who are one in terms of humanity and faith, with the four rules of *ummatan wahidah*, namely monotheism, brotherhood, deliberation, and charity.

4.1 *Jihad* for Religious Reasons

As explained earlier, *jihad* on the grounds of carrying out religious orders is the foundation of *jihad*. In the *Hikayat Prang Sabi* context, *jihad* carrying out religious orders is the peak of worship. This *jihad* is called *jihad fiisabilillah.*

Data 4:

Aceh	**English**
Hei Teungku cut adoe sahbat *Peureuman Hadarat Tuhanku Rabbi* *Sigala nyang na dum ibadat* *Njang leubèh that jak prang Sabi*	O Tengku, brother and friend The words of God, Allahu Rabbi Of all the worship that exists The greatest one is the Sabi war
Meunan meuteumèe jeueb-jeueb kitab *Peureuman Hadarat Tuhanku Rabbi* *Tanyong bak Teungku makna ayat* *Pangulèe ibadat cit prang Sabi*	It has been written in every book The words of God, Allahu Rabbi Ask Tengku the meaning of the verse The height of worship is the Sabi war
Soe nyang na jôk nyawong hareuta *Geupeubeulanja bak prang Sabi* *Neubloe lé Po meuhai hareuga* *Dengon syuruga neutuka tinggi*	Anyone who sacrifices life and property To the Sabi war Will be paid by God with a high price With heaven so high

The data in (4) show that the author wants to inspire and motivate everyone that *jihad* is God's call. Allah will give paradise to everyone who strives in the way of Allah's religion. In this context, *jihad* is the culmination of worship. The linguistic expression in this stanza refers to what Ibnu Taimiyyah (is an Islamic thinker and scholar from Harran, Turkey, who lived in the 18th century) expressed: *jihad* means exerting one's abilities to gain the love of Allah and reject those who hate Allah (Taimiyyah, 1980). Therefore, it is hinted in this text that *jihad* to carry out religious orders is far better than staying at home. The author of *Hikayat Prang Sabi* quips that those who chose to die at home rather than die in the Sabi war are dishonored. It suggests that every human will die at home or war. However, it is up to us to choose whether to die honorably or humiliatingly.

Data 5:

Acehnese	**English**
Meunyo maté di rumoh inong *Hanpeue tanyong meugriet sabé* *Sakétteuh that geucok nyawong*	If you die at your wife's house No need to be asked, always lively It hurts so much when your life is taken

Meungkon keunong sinjata kaphé	Unless hit/shot by an infidel’s weapon

The satirical stanza in (5) is aimed at those who are afraid of dying in war. For the author, dying on the battlefield is far nobler than dying at home. The stanza continued with the author mentioning God’s promise through a *hadith* that a believer who dies in martyrdom in war will be given a beautiful angel to accompany him in heaven. The angel’s name is Ainal Mardiah. It is said that the beauty of Ainal Mardiah is incomparable in the world.

Data 6:

Acehnese	**English**
Hadih Pangulèe Rasulullah	Hadith of the Prophet Muhammad
Gata reubah ‘oh keunong beudé	You die being shot by a gun
Meungkon lam leumueng Ainal Mardiah	You will fall in the lap of Ainul Mardhiah
Han lôn reubah hé boh hate	I will not fall (harshly), my darling
Rupajih jroh that hana lawan	Her face is beautiful without a match
Tiwah bulan matahari	Even by the moon and sun
Kamoe bandum rindu dendam	We all miss you deeply
Mata mandang haté wahwi	Eyes look at the heart with desire

Data (6) from the *hikayat* depicts that those who die as martyrs in *fiisabilillah* will get happiness in the hereafter. Another stanza portrays that the number of angels waiting for the martyrs who die in war is not one person, but 70 angels. All of them will welcome those who die in martyrdom in the war, to defend religion.

Data 7:

Acehnese	**English**
Tujôh plôh droe nyang cideumat	Seventy beautiful angels
Rupa jroh that han sakri	Their faces are so beautiful
Tujôh plôh droe nyang that ceudah	Seventy beautiful angels
That bit indah budiadari	Very-very beautiful angels

The conceptualization in (7) is strengthened by the diction, which states the promise of martyrdom. The diction chosen by ‘seventy angels’ is a strong illustration of God’s retribution for martyrs. In an implied message, the author of this text wants to convey that martyrdom is a choice. In certain stanzas, it is stated that people who die in the war on the orders of religion never die. He lives forever with Allah. This can be seen in the following stanza.

Data 8:

Acehnese	**English**
Maté syahid hana sakét	Martyrdom is without pain
Duem geucutiet gukèe keuranjang	(Just) as pinched by a fingernail
Ureueng syahid bèk takheun maté	Martyrs should not be called dead
Beutat than lé ie rupa tapandang	Even though their faces are no longer seen

Gopnyan udép bak po teu Allah	They live by Allah's side
Dalam kubah syuruga manyang	In the high dome of heaven
Boh lam rumba meuh puwo laju	Placed in a golden shell
Beutat taeu ka seulintang	Although it still looks transverse

4.2 *Jihad* to Defend the Homeland

Defending the nation and the homeland is an attitude of nationalism and patriotism. The Acehnese has owned this attitude for a long time. A *hadith maja* (Acehnese proverb) describes the attitude of the Acehnese abstinence, *pantang peudeueng meubalék sarông, pantang rincông meubalék mata; pantang Aceh diteu'öh kawôm, pantang hukôm peujeuet peukara* 'abstinence of the sword inverted the *sarông* (a large tube or length of fabric, often wrapped around the waist), abstinence of the *rincông* (a type of knife originating in Aceh, originally a fighting weapon) inverted the eyes, abstinence of the Acehnese being insulted by the nation, abstinence of the law leads to crimes'. This proverb is an attitude of patriotism of the Acehnese, who are willing to die for the sake of their people's homeland, nation, and identity (Harun, 2005).

The Acehnese believe that fighting to defend their homeland is a religious call. Historically, it has been stated that 'loving the motherland is part of faith'. Although this saying is not a valid *hadith*, many scholars support this short sentence. This also alludes to the *Hikayat Prang Sabi* on patriotism that every Acehnese and every Muslim, in general, must share. In the *hikayat*, the attitude of patriotism in defense of the homeland is illustrated through the narrative of a young man who was willing to leave his wife even though they were just married for a week (Mukhlis & Herman, 2021a). This concept is shown in the form of doctrine. Therefore, the attitude of defending the homeland became a doctrine conveyed by the author to the Acehnese at that time that wives and properties were not life goals; however, martyrdom to defend the homeland was the dream of every Muslim.

Data 9:

Acehnese	**English**
Bèk tajak dilèe gata sidroe	Don't you go alone
Ubak prang nyoe ya sahabat	In this war, my friend
Lagi goh trôh tujoh uroe	Not even seven days (of (your) wedding)
Gata sidroe piyôh siat	You better take a break
Silap bacut deungon nabi	Slightly negligent the Prophet noticed
Said Salmi guda jilumpat	Said Salmi jumped on the horse
Jihue jiék guda dijih	He rode the horse quickly
Said Salmi pasang leugat	Said Salmi riding a horse with a tied handle

The stanza in (9) implies that every Muslim must constantly defend their homeland. It does not matter whether they are newlyweds or not. Fighting to defend the homeland is reflected in the *hikayat* as the doctrine of martyrdom which is a noble death. The concept that appears in this verse is intended to remind everyone to always love their homeland. If the newlyweds are willing to sacrifice for the sake of their homeland, let alone those who have been married for a long time. This is what the author of the saga wants to convey. In short, the courage of Said Salmi (one of the

Prophet Muhammad's companions) in the saga motivates everyone to always be ready to defend their homeland. Thus, the concept of *jihad* in the stanza quoted above states that *jihad* to defend the homeland is a must, regardless of age and status, but maintaining peace and tolerance is also an obligation for everyone.

4.3 *Jihad* for Peace

Muslim societies are always seen as a threat to non-Muslim societies. Muslims are considered a primary threat to the existence of western liberal values (Arifin et al., 2019). Muslims are labeled as terrorists because they accentuate *jihad*. However, the understanding of *jihad* is broad, including efforts to create peace. *Jihad* aims at creating peace. Islam never advocates war towards all non-Muslims, but only to those who strike the Muslims, and thus the Muslims with all their might must defend themselves.

In *jihad*, it is also mentioned that wars between nations do not always have to be put forward. In the modern era, war with weapons leads to world consequences. In this case, there is the United Nations (UN). Each country that wants to declare war on other countries must face UN regulations. Therefore, international *jihad* is a consequence of the outbreak of hostility, not because of merely pursuing *Darul Islam* (countries under Muslim sovereignty). In this case, international law applies according to UN regulations (Aly, 2014).

In the *Hikayat Prang Sabi*, the concept of dispute is told because of the betrayal of the Dutch, who violated the agreement with the Acehnese. In the context of language, the author uses the term infidels in the Dutch. He conveys the invitation to *jihad* against the Dutch as the proper *jihad*. Muslims believe that peace is much better than war. However, Muslims are also encouraged to survive and fight when they are colonized or attacked. Islam as a peace-loving religion is contained in the *surah* An-Nisa, verse 128, "And peace is better". If the Dutch had not violated the trade agreement with Aceh, *jihad* would not have occurred because Islam advocates peace with every nation, including infidels. As stated by Alfian (1992), this *hikayat* was born because the Dutch betrayed the trade agreement in Aceh.

In another form, the author of the *hikayat* also says that enemies who have been defeated cannot be killed. Enemies who become prisoners of war are not to be slaughtered but to be held in *shahada* and invited into Islam as a religion of peace, as elaborated in Data (1). This story shows that *jihad* in the concept of the *hikayat* is not aimed at killing but reconciling, as displayed in Data (10).

Data 10:

Acehnese	**English**
Hingga talô mandum Samad	Until all Samad is subdued
Bit sahbat Ali Mortala	Because of the greatness of Ali Mortala
Teuma meusabda Alaihisalam	Then the Prophet said:
Tapeu-islam kaphé Beulanda	We Islamize the Dutch infidels

Many *surah*s and verses call for peace in the Quran (Nuhung & Rahim, 2018). Some *surah* calling for peace include *surah* Al-Hujarat verse 9 and 13, An-Nisa verse 90 and 114, and Al-Anfal verse 61. There are still many other verses mentioning that humans are created to know each other and make peace with one another. This also appears in the *Hikayat Prang Sabi*, a war saga that aspires to peace. Thus, the linguistic concept of *jihad* that the author wants to show through the narrative of this verse is more about maintaining peace, but not giving up to circumstances. The author conveys a message of motivation and fighting spirit, described through quotes from the Quran, which have been interpreted and converted into a beautiful language in the form of a saga. Therefore, *Hikayat Prang Sabi* has been in a powerful position in the social life of the Acehnese people from the past until now and always.

5. CONCLUSION

Observing the *jihad* narrative in *Hikayat Prang Sabi*, it can be seen that this literary text contains a strong concept. The linguistic concept reflects the *jihad* ideology of the Acehnese, which is depicted in two forms, namely (1) horizontal communication and (2) vertical communication. Horizontal communication shows the Acehnese linguistic concept in understanding *jihad* between humans (creatures) and everything in the universe. Vertical communication shows the linguistic concept of the Acehnese in surrendering all forms of *jihad* to Allah. This concept has positioned the *hikayat* as a patron and *jihad* ideology from the Acehnese perspective.

The horizontal form of communication also appears in the narrative told by the author of the *hikayat*. The goal is for the reading community or the listening community to understand how the previous people lived through and during the war. The vertical form of communication is the author's language that is based on God, leading to prayers and requests to Allah. Here, the concept of *jihad* in Acehnese society is not merely a physical effort but also a prayer to God. In the understanding of the Acehnese, no matter how great a person is or how dexterous he plays weapons, the war will be in vain if he or she does not pray to Allah. This is where the power of vertical communication is supplementary to horizontal communication in the *Hikayat Prang Sabi*.

This research is still focused on the *Hikayat Prang Sabi*, a phenomenal war saga in Aceh's history. There are still many other war sagas or *hikayat* in the Acehnese culture. In the future, it is hoped that there will be research on other war stories, and also using different frameworks to approach the notion of *jihad*, so that its concept in literary texts can open the horizons of thinking to many scholars.

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The Pragmatic Study of Metafiction in Preeti Shenoy's 'The Secret Wish List' and 'It Happens for a Reason'

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Abstract

This study aims to spotlight the postmodern tendency of metafiction in Preeti Shenoy's selected texts. Metafiction is self-conscious in relation to language, literary form, and storytelling in fiction. This form of fiction accentuates its construct and reminds the readers to be aware of a fictional work. Shenoy is a noteworthy postmodern writer, and her famous novels are 'The Secret Wish List' (2012) and 'It Happens for Reason' (2014). These two novels exhibit the subject of postmodern metafiction through her writings. In these novels, the protagonists overcome their family doctrines to fulfill their wishes. The method of study adopted the metafiction theories proposed by Mark Currie, Patricia Waugh, and Linda Hutcheon. It highlights Shenoy's texts that represent the elements of metafiction through the protagonists. Using various theories related to postmodern metafiction, the view of metafiction in the texts is substantiated and explored. The postmodern perspective of metafiction is explored in Shenoy's texts and analyzed with metafiction theories. The study results are compared and discussed with other studies and contemporary texts concerning metafiction. The findings show that metafiction is applicable in the texts of the two novels by Shenoy. She projects the aspects of

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metafiction in her works through her writing, especially narration, both fiction and reality.

Keywords: Fiction, metafiction, postmodern, theories.

1. INTRODUCTION

In the context of English literature, many novels have aspects of postmodern tendencies, especially in Indian writing. Postmodernism (Hariharasudan et al., 2022) is a broad area movement that comprises many aspects such as liberal feminism, paranoia, intertextuality, parody, magical realism, pastiche, metafiction, and so on. Waugh (1984) mentions that contemporary metafictional writing deals with a response and contribution related to reality or history. While studying metafictional work gives the effect of the novel's identity. The characteristics of metafiction are unreliable narration, self-reflexivity, and intertextuality, and they often treatise both historical and political. Preeti Shenoy is a popular writer in English. Most of her works are projected as women-centric. Her notable works are 'The Secret Wish List' (Shenoy, 2012) and 'It Happens for a Reason' (Shenoy, 2014). These two novels have the postmodern tendency of metafiction, and Shenoy explores the incidents and sufferings especially faced by a married woman in the real world. She reflects these problems on the protagonists, Diksha in 'The Secret Wish List', and Vipasha in 'It Happens for a Reason'.

Many studies have been chosen regarding postmodern tendencies of paranoia (Pandeeswari et al., 2020), intertextuality (Pandeeswari et al., 2021), feminism (Rolin, 2004), and metanarrative (Pandeeswari et al., 2022). Many researchers have also conducted the study of metafiction in different works. Some postmodern tendencies have been analyzed in Preeti Shenoy's works, but none has investigated postmodern metafiction in her works. She is a multifarious postmodern writer, and her works deal with many aspects of postmodern tendencies. Her notable works are 'The Secret Wish List' (Shenoy, 2012) and 'It Happens for a Reason' (Shenoy, 2014).

Some postmodern ideas have been explored in the work of Shenoy (see Pandeeswari et al., 2020, 2021, 2022). Hence, no study transmitted the postmodern tendency of metafiction in her work, and this idea kindled the researchers to research in this area. Therefore, the present study links the gap in the literature. Furthermore, most writers express their personal ideas, issues, and sufferings in their works. Likewise, Shenoy has reflected on her perspective and interpretation of women. This highlights the novelty and significance of the present study as well. The present study focuses on postmodern metafiction in Shenoy's texts by employing the metafiction theories of Waugh, Hutcheon, and Currie, who are all centering on self-consciousness, self-historiography, and self-referential. Accordingly, the research question proposed in this study is:

- What are the metafiction elements in the selected texts of Preeti Shenoy's 'The Secret Wish List' and 'It Happens for a Reason'?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Postmodernism and the Definition of Metafiction

Postmodernism is an indicative effect of modernism in all fields, especially art and literature. These connotations are visible in fiction. In the postmodern age, fiction has been filled with postmodern perspectives. The famous philosopher and theorist Jean Francois Lyotard abbreviated postmodernism as “I have said and will say again that ‘postmodernism’ signifies not the end of modernism, but another relation to modernism” (Lyotard, 1984, p. 277). Postmodernism is a broad movement comprising many tendencies (Hariharasudan et al., 2022). Metafiction is among the noteworthy postmodern perspectives, and it is high relative to the self-conscious narration. Gass (1970) coined the term ‘metafiction’ in his book ‘Fiction and the Figures of Life’. He explained metafiction, and the use of metafiction is merely for understanding. This way of understanding may lead to a drastic change in the writings of fiction (Gass, 1970, pp. 24-25).

According to Gass’ theory of metafiction, Scholes (1979) defines the aspect of metafiction into four divisions. They are formal, philosophical, structural, and behavioral. The characteristics of metafiction are to break the boundary between the writer and reader, self-reflexive, and experimental. It deals with the constructive of the text, especially the exploration of ideas such as language, storytelling, the writer’s actual experience, to create awareness among the readers, and interpretation of some issues. Eco (1976) explicates, “in order to be impressed, disturbed, frightened, or touched by even the most impossible of (fictitious) worlds; we must rely upon our knowledge of the actual one” (p. 83). Here, he elucidates that the text writers must rely upon the reader’s knowledge, and each text must give a unique connotation, advice, or personal experience of a particular sequence.

2.2 Theories of Metafiction

Patricia Waugh is a popular metafiction theorist and is working as a professor at Durham University. She is a leading figure in both modernism and postmodernism. She wrote the book ‘Metafiction: The Theory and Practice of Self-Conscious Fiction’ (Waugh, 1984). In this book, she mentions the texts’ quality and explores metafiction tactics. In the postmodern age, most of the texts have been filled with the perspective of metafiction. Therefore, she highlights metafiction that many writers explore some characters, incidents, scenes, and issues self-consciously. That is why she highly explores many connotations regarding metafiction in her 1984 book. She mentions metafiction as blended with reality in fiction. Some writers explored their slang, issues, autobiography, and experience in their texts.

Linda Hutcheon is the best metafiction theorist, and she coined the term ‘historiography metafiction’ and used it in ‘A Poetics of Postmodernism: History, Theory, Fiction’ (Hutcheon, 1988). In this book, she abbreviates the term ‘historiography metafiction’ that correlates three connotations: fiction, reality, and history. Another notable work of Hutcheon is ‘Historiography metafiction parody and the intertextuality of history’ (Hutcheon, 1989). This work artifice the aspect of metafiction with a historical note. She considers metafiction as an element explored in fiction related to history. Hutcheon abbreviates metafiction related to the narrative technique reflected in postmodern texts. It is an exodus from the traditional narration.

Mark Currie is a notable metafiction theorist and contributed so many perspectives on postmodernism, especially metafiction and deconstruction. He has written many theoretical works, such as 'Metafiction' (Currie, 1995), 'Postmodern Narrative Theory' (Currie, 1998), and 'The Invention of Deconstruction' (Currie, 2013). These three different works are related to postmodern tendencies. In 'Metafiction', he associates metafiction with the border between fiction and criticism because some writers used different narration for metafiction. During this narration, writers explored some historical issues that may create some problems as 'misrepresentation of issues'. Metafiction texts rely upon the border between fiction and criticism, and they also sometimes relate to reality (Currie, 1995).

2.3 Related Studies in Metafiction

2.3.1 Studies Related to Patricia Waugh's Metafiction Theory

Patricia Waugh is a leading figure in both modernism and postmodernism. She is a dynamic theorist because she has contributed to metafiction, history, neuroscience, and postmodernism. She is best known for her work 'Metafiction: The Theory and Practice of Self-Conscious Fiction' (Waugh, 1984). In this work, she has explored metafiction and its competence. She points out the characteristic features of metafiction that examine the fictional system, incorporating an aspect of both theory and criticism, creating biographies of imaginary writers, and presenting fictional works of imaginary characters (Waugh, 1984). For instance, Johnston (2017) explores metafiction through gender and politics in Egan's work by utilizing data surveillance and Waugh's (1984) metafiction theory. He found that metadata and metafiction in Egan's (2010) 'A Visit from the Goon Squad' are self-reflexive, and the ideologies are related to postmodern metafiction. In addition, this work has combined both real and fiction by bringing the idea of metafiction and highlighting the political position. In 'A Visit from the Goon Squad', Albert is the real explorer to Lou's son and guide, and Egan relates to Lou's son to evoke the history of how a real explorer behaves.

The study by Donnelly (2014) also employs the metafiction theory of Waugh (1984), it abbreviates metafiction and its development. The author points out metafiction in Naipaul's (1988) 'The Enigma of Arrival' and Wicomb's (1987) 'You Can't Get Lost in Cape Town'. These two writers have used the postmodern technique of metafiction to replicate the multipart and imbalanced structure. These two books track the narrator's development from childhood to adulthood structure. The narration helps the technique of metafiction towards its development.

The study of Bhadury (2013) explicates metafiction by highlighting the self-reflexive quality from Waugh's (1984) self-conscious narrative technique in Funke's Inkworld trilogy: 'Inkheart' (Funke, 2003), 'Inkspell' (Funke, 2005), and 'Inkdeath' (Funke, 2007), and Ende's (1979) 'The Neverending Story'. Bhadury (2013) points out that both Ende and Funke's texts are within the limit of Waugh's (1984) self-conscious narrative concept in metafiction. Cornelia Funke explores the characteristics of metatextual ideas, such as Orpheus as the villain in the 'Inkworld trilogy'. Funke further explores his childhood incidents in 'Inkheart' through the character of Fenoglio.

2.3.2 Studies Employing Hutcheon's Theory

Linda Hutcheon is a noteworthy postmodern theorist. According to her, metafiction is the relationship between the text and the world (Hutcheon, 2014). She further points out the construction of the text through the story with the writer's interpretation. She abbreviates metafiction with history and politics because many past incidents are reflected in the text. For instance, the study by Masemola (2020) explicates metafiction in South African Transitional literature. He analyses African cultural memory aspects in Fred Khumalo from his notable works 'Touch my Blood' (Khumalo, 2006) and 'Seven Steps to Heaven' (Khumalo, 2008). In these works, Khumalo explores the narrative of allochthonous memory and intermediary character, and metafiction through the portrayal of Canada, South Africa, and Zimbabwe, especially urban and rural areas. Masemola (2020) then utilizes Hutcheon's metafiction theory (Hutcheon, 1989). In 'Touch my Blood', Khumalo has explicated a nightclub fight with South Africans. Another metafiction link is that the writer Khumalo's mother's name is Thokozile, and he names Sizwe's mother's name as Thoko in 'Seven Steps to Heaven'. Next, Khumalo's father's name is Mandlakayise, who was in Seven Steps as Mandla (Masemola, 2020).

The study by Stovel (2006) utilizes Hutcheon's (1989) metafiction theory to illustrate metafiction in Shields' (2002) 'Unless' novel. This novel highlights the issues of feminism and postmodernism. In this study, Stovel (2006) abbreviates an interview with Shields. Shields explores her sufferings and feminist thought in 'Unless'. Stovel (2006) points out that the works of Shields have been filled with the postmodern technique of metafiction. In 'Unless', Shields explores reality as the main content through the narrator, who resolves her real-life dilemma. The idea of metafiction in 'Unless' is that Shields mentioned architecture through the character of Norah. Shields takes the epigraph from Eliot's (1871, 1872) 'Middlemarch'.

The study by Moss (1990) abbreviates metafiction and poetics in children's literature. Moss (1990) analyzes 'Charlotte's Web' (White, 1952), 'The Wind in Willows' (Grahame, 1908), and 'The Secret Garden' (Burnett, 1911) or 'The Eighteenth Emergency' (Byars, 1973). These works belong to true stories and are filled with metafictional elements, but not for children because they find it challenging to understand these metafiction elements. These kinds of texts have foregrounded the technique of metafiction. The writer may explore his/her childhood experience or may explore the stories of kings and queens. Therefore, these kinds of stories come under metafiction. Moss (1990) mentions that storytelling structure is difficult in children's literature, and utilizes Hutcheon's (1989) metafiction theory to illustrate metafiction in these children's literature.

The study by Goellnicht (1989) states the history of metafiction, by pointing out that metafiction is considered self-referring or auto-representational because many writers have explored their flashbacks or childhood experience through their writing. By employing Hutcheon's (1980) metafiction theory, Goellnicht (1989) analyzes metafiction in Kogawa's (1981) 'Obasan'. In this fiction, the author of the novel explores the narration of marginalized society. Naomi is the protagonist who goes to Alberta. Through this character, the writer has explored about Japanese minority group problem, but the government does not allow 21,000 Canadians into their country between March and September 1942. These Japanese and Canadians deviated from many groups, such as housing projects, farms, road camps, and war. These ideas are explored in Kogawa's text, and it problematizes the very act of reconstructing history. This minority group problem is derived from historical and documentary work.

2.3.3 Studies Employing Currie's Theory

Mark Currie is a notable thinker of metafiction. He published many books related to metafiction. In 'Metafiction' (Currie, 1995), he mentions metafiction that comprises two elements, they are cause and effect. First, cause indicates the interpenetration of criticism and practice of writing. Secondly, the effect is an emphasis on the playing with styles and forms from enhanced self-consciousness and awareness of the elusiveness of meaning. This work has been employed in many studies by various authors. For instance, the study by Tunca (2018), by using Currie's (1995) metafiction theory describes metafiction in Adichie's (2006) 'Jumping Monkey Hill'. It is one among the collection of 'The Thing around Your Neck' (Adichie, 2009). Tunca (2018) points out that Adichie has explored the metafiction device of *mise en abyme* in 'Jumping Monkey Hill'. This work is metafiction with Conrad's (1899) 'Heart of Darkness' because Conrad mentioned Congo and racism. Likewise, Adichie explored racism, and 'Jumping Monkey Hill' is the name of a resort that takes place in her works also.

The study by Butler and Gurr (2008) also utilizes Currie's (1995) metafiction theory to explain metafiction in Auster's (2007) 'Travels in the Scriptorium'. In this work, Mr. Blank is the protagonist, who leads his life in an anonymous cell-like room. It is also one of the strategies of Auster through metafiction. Auster has explored both reality and unreality. This story is related to de Maistre's (1794) 'Journey around my Room'. Auster has combined the text with language, reality, history, and reader.

3. METHODS

This study analyzed Preeti Shenoy's texts in her novels 'The Secret Wish List' and 'It Happens for a Reason' by adopting three metafiction theories proposed by Mark Currie, Patricia Waugh, and Linda Hutcheon. Currie (1995) mentions metafiction as fictional self-consciousness. It is the borderline between fiction and criticism. The metafictional characteristics can be found throughout prehistory or postmodernism. There is something about postmodern fiction: the deep involvement with its own past and the constant dialogue with its own conventions that project self-analysis. Currie (1995) highlights metafiction in two aspects. First, metafiction is a kind of storytelling with the ability of words to share experiences or converse. Second, to surrogate the reader who feels like the protagonist and she makes sense of the incident, interprets, and compares. Metafiction always takes that border as its subject (Currie, 1995) because the writers reflect their texts' sufferings, interpretations, and issues. She mentions that metafictional novels reject the traditional figure of the author.

Waugh (1984) mentions that metafiction relates to fictional writing, which describes self-consciously and systematically. It deals with posing questions about the relationship between fiction and reality. In contributing a critique of own construction methods, such writings not only examine the fundamental structures of narrative fiction but also explore the possible fictionality of the world outside the literary fictional text (Bhadury, 2013). According to Waugh (1984), metafiction deals with the outside world in a literary text. She mentions that metafictional novels are instrumental to study because it offers the representational nature of fiction and the literary history of the novel.

Hutcheon (2014) explains metafiction as self-referring or auto-representational because it provides its own status in fiction through language. It is known for its own process of production and reception. The metafictional novel includes a commentary on its own narrative and linguistic identity. She deviates metafiction as mimesis of process and mimesis of product.

4. RESULTS

Based on the analysis, Preeti Shenoy's texts substantiate the metafiction theories proposed by Mark Currie, Patricia Waugh, and Linda Hutcheon. Many ideas are exhibited concerning metafiction in Shenoy's works. The exploration of metafiction is noticeable in Shenoy's texts, and this is displayed in Table 1.

Table 1. Metafiction theorists and their theories applicable to Shenoy's texts.

No.	Theorist(s)	Book(s)	Definition of theories	Metafiction theories applicable in Shenoy's texts
1	Mark Currie	'Metafiction' (Currie, 1995)	Metafiction text places itself on the border between fiction and criticism and takes that border as its subject.	'The Secret Wish List' (Shenoy, 2012), and 'It Happens for a Reason' (Shenoy, 2014)
2	Patricia Waugh	'Metafiction: The Theory and Practice of Self-Conscious Fiction' (Waugh, 1984)	Fictional writing self-consciously and systematically draws attention to its status as an artifact to pose questions about the relationship between fiction and reality.	'It Happens for a Reason' (Shenoy, 2014)
3	Linda Hutcheon	'Narcissistic Narrative: The Metafictional Paradox' (Hutcheon, 2014)	Metafiction, as it has now been named, is fiction about fiction-that is, fiction that includes within itself a commentary on its narrative and/or linguistic identity.	'It Happens for a Reason' (Shenoy, 2014)

The next subsections elaborates the findings of this present study.

4.1 Mark Currie's Metafiction Theory

Mark Currie is a noteworthy metafiction theorist. He assumes so many connotations regarding the metafiction text 'Metafiction'. Currie (1995) states that "metafiction text places itself on the border between fiction and criticism and takes that border as its subject" (p. 2). He abbreviates that metafiction texts are connected to the border between fiction and criticism. This idea is considered a 'subject'. Firstly, in 'It Happens for a Reason', Vipasha is the protagonist, who says:

(1) "The Paw-Factor nets me a good profit most months, especially so during the holiday season when we are full up. There is always a demand for good boarding hours for dogs". (Shenoy, 2014, p. 6)

Shenoy loves dogs very much, explored through the protagonist, Vipasha. Secondly, in 'The Secret Wish List', Shenoy portrayed the protagonist Diksha related to the border between fiction and criticism because Diksha has listed her wishes in her diary, and she wants to fulfill her wishes on her own. This is fiction. For criticism, she has learned that her life is full of sacrifice. Therefore, she decided to come out from her family doctrine to attain her wishes. This part comes under criticism because, as a mother, she cannot come out from her family in reality, but she did that. Diksha says:

(2) "This is my life, and I am determined now to really live it, to follow my heart's urging which I have ignored and tried to suppress for so long". (Shenoy, 2012, p. 249)

Most writers project their ideas and experience through some characters in their text. The metafiction theorist Currie (1995) mentions, "a kind of surrogate author grappling with his ability as a storyteller and with the ability of words to communicate…experiences; as well as a surrogate reader trying, as protagonist…to make sense of events and to interpret (their) significance in a manner analogous to that of the external reader" (p. 4). He notifies that many writers explored their point of view and connotations through some characters. Those characters are a replica of the writer's experience or idea. Likewise, Shenoy portrays her wish toward dogs in her work, and Vipasha, the protagonist, is a replica of Shenoy in this fiction. She maintains a paw factor and earns some amount. Shenoy utilizes the character of Vipasha as a storyteller and interprets her to wish for dogs. Vipasha says:

(3) "Dogs have always been a part of my childhood, and I am so comfortable around them". (Shenoy, 2014, p. 45)

The role of dogs in Shenoy's life is vital and is explored through Vipasha. Shenoy mentions about dogs in the column of 'a note from the author'. She writes:

(4) "Dogs do make the world a better place. Whatever you give a dog, you get back exponentially, multiplied to the power of infinity. Dogs have that much love to give". (Shenoy, 2014, p. 258)

Therefore, Shenoy is fond of dogs, and this event is depicted through the protagonists in her in two different novels: Vipasha and Trish. Vipasha retorts:

(5) "There is Jojo, the German shepherd; Salt and Peppa, the two Labradors; Shiro, a pampered beagle; Manga, who is a cross between a German shepherd and an India dog; Zoobi, a rescued Lhasa Apso; Calvin, a boxer; Duke, a mixture between a terrier and a cocker spaniel; Mini, another beagle; Sheri, a Dalmatian; and Angel, an Indian dog". (Shenoy, 2014, p. 6)

Storytelling is a unique concept; storytellers can communicate, narrate, interpret, or surrogate any of their own experiences. Likewise, first, Shenoy surrogates the impediments of a woman and how she overcomes all the obstacles. This idea is projected through the character of Diksha in 'The Secret Wish List'. In the middle part, Diksha comes out from her family to attain her wishes. Here, the writer projects liberty work through the character of Diksha. Likewise, Shenoy explores the reader’s point of view, where most women want to do all the things according to their wishes. The writer kindles the readers’ minds to attain their goals and what they want to become. This concept relates to Currie’s (1995) metafiction theory.

Various texts have been filled with some conscious and unconscious levels of portraying ideas in the text. Currie (1995) states that the text’s conscious and unconscious levels both contain metafiction. He mentions that metafiction is visible through the concepts of conscious and unconscious. This is explored in Shenoy’s ‘The Secret Wish List’. In this fiction, Diksha’s life starts with Sandeep as unconscious because she does not have an interest in marriage, and she wants to go for higher studies, but she gets married to Sandeep with the compulsion of family members. During this state, she is unconscious and does everything for her family’s sake. When she begets a child, she realizes her life and wants to attain her wishes. She realizes:

(6) “I have done everything that a good wife and a mother is expected to do. I have never once failed in my duties. I have raised my child well; I have kept the house well. I have cooked, cleaned, and served. I have supported Sandeep in all that he has wanted to do. I have never once protested, grumbled or complained”. (Shenoy, 2012, p. 251)

Most of the writers employ different structures, behavioral, and idealistic views. Currie (1995) explores, “metafiction assimilates all the perspectives of criticism into the fictional process itself. It may emphasize structural, formal, behavioral, or philosophical qualities” (p. 106). This concept is applicable in Shenoy’s works: ‘The Secret of Wish List’ and ‘It Happens for a Reason’. She utilizes many bombastic words and behavioral and philosophical qualities in these works. The aspect of criticism has been adopted into a fictional format. Diksha breaks all the rules in ‘The Secret Wish List’ and comes out of her sentimental life. Here, criticism based on the character of a mother, Diksha writes her wishes:

(7) “[…] Get drunk!, Learn salsa, Wear a bikini […]”. (Shenoy, 2012, pp. 77-78)

In real life, no such mother leaves her children for any cause. This part emphasizes Currie’s behavioral concept. This concept has been projected in Shenoy’s other novel ‘It Happens for a Reason’, but the protagonist’s name is different in this novel. Similarly, in the above novel, Vipasha has abandoned her boyfriend, Ankush. After this incident, she gets a new job and starts a new life with her son, Aryan. Her only idea is to give her son a good education; as a mother, she does not send her son to boarding school. Vipasha says:

(8) “[…] I would never send my child away to a boarding school, no matter how prestigious it was or how great the education”. (Shenoy, 2014, p. 117)

This is one between philosophical quality and behavioral quality in Shenoy’s ‘It Happens for a Reason’. Next, Shenoy portrayed another philosophical quality through the character of Manav. His words encourages the readers to feel positive and works hard to attain their dream:

(9) “Yesterday is but a dream and tomorrow is a vision, But today well lived can make every yesterday a dream of happiness and every tomorrow a vision of hope”. (Shenoy, 2014, p. 114)

4.2 Patricia Waugh's Metafiction Theory

Patricia Waugh mentions metafiction concepts in 'Metafiction: The Theory and Practice of Self-Conscious Fiction'. In this book, Waugh (1984) explains, "fictional writing which self-consciously and systematically draws attention to its status as an artifact in order to post questions about the relationship between fiction and reality" (p. 2). She asserts that the writing of metafiction is related to self-conscious and systematic status. This idea posts a question linked with reality and unreality things that have blended into the text. This idea is connected with the protagonist Vipasha in 'It Happens for a Reason'. She is pregnant. After knowing this incident from her parents, they are not allowing their daughter to beget a child, even though she is willing to beget a child. Therefore, Shenoy blends both reality and unreality. Here, the reality is Vipasha's courageous act, and the unreality is that before marriage, no woman can beget a child without the parents' support. Therefore, Shenoy posts an artifact question through a link between reality and unreality in the text of 'It Happens for a Reason'. Here, reality is combined with fiction.

Waugh (1984) mentions that metafiction is a hint to developing a story. Through the story, the authors make a proclamation or moral regarding the formation of the story. She explicates the aim of metafiction, "simultaneously to create a fiction and to make a statement about the creation of that fiction" (Waugh, 1984, p. 6). This concept is linked with Shenoy's work 'It Happens for a Reason'. First, Vipasha shares:

(10) "I have created a huge wall between 'life before Aryan' and 'life after Aryan'. I am now on this side of the wall. The reality now is that I am perpetually short on money, but I am proud because every single rupee that I spend is what I have earned". (Shenoy, 2014, p. 14)

For Vipahsa, after begetting her son only, Vipasha's life has started with a new beginning. Before this, her life had been shattered with many sufferings and broken ideas. That is why Vipasha mentions 'life before Aryan and life after Aryan'. Here, 'life after Aryan' only, Vipasha leads her life full of happiness, which is a hint to frame the story. Shenoy has projected the creation of this fiction through the protagonist in this fiction. She classified the story as 'life before Aryan and life after Aryan'.

4.3 Linda Hutcheon's Metafiction Theory

Linda Hutcheon is a noteworthy metafiction theorist. Hutcheon (2014) is known for the famous book 'Narcissistic Narrative: The Metafictional Paradox'. Many researchers utilize this book for metafiction theory. She highlights the postmodern aspect of metafiction in many aspects. She signifies "metafiction, as it has now been named, is fiction about fiction-that is, fiction that includes within itself a commentary on its own narrative and/or linguistic identity" (Hutcheon, 2014, p. 1). She emphasizes that metafiction implements fiction. Metafiction includes a commentary on its narrative or linguistic form (Sangeetha et al., 2022). Some writers explore their narrative by elucidating some real-life incidents through narration (Hariharasudan & Thavabalan, 2018). Likewise, Shenoy explores fiction within her commentary narrative. She mentions the readers' insistence on watching a movie in 'It Happens for a Reason' through her narration. She says:

(11) "Anyone who does like dogs have to watch the movie Hachiko's Story, which is based on the real-life dog, Hachiko, who has a statue erected in his honor in Japan" (Shenoy, 2014, p. 257).

The linguistic identity has been explored in this fiction. She utilizes many dialects through some characters, like Ankush's "Paudhon ka koyiprayojanhonachahiye" (Shenoy, 2014, p. 212). This proves that Hutcheon's metafiction theory is seen in Shenoy's works in the form of narration.

Hutcheon underlines that "(…) metafiction is less a departure from the mimetic novelistic tradition than a reworking of it. It is simplistic to say, as reviewers this for years, has nothing to do with "life". The implied reduction of "life" to a mere *product* level that ignores *process* is what this book aims to counteract" (Hutcheon, 2014, p. 5). This theory is applicable in Shenoy's texts. First, Vipasha as the main character in 'It Happens for a Reason'. In this fiction, the first half of the story projects life, and it is a product. When she realizes her life, everything changes. Vipasha mentions:

(12) "My parents, I think, were paranoid about what society would say" (Shenoy, 2014, p. 110)

Those words were uttered because Vipasha's parents do not allow her to beget a child. Vipasha says:

(13) "I don't want to come back. I want to give this child the best of what I can. I want him to be raised in an atmosphere of love—where he is welcomed, wanted. Home is not the best place, Dad" (Shenoy, 2014, p. 125).

This is the feeling of a mother. According to her, she wants to fulfill a mother's duty and grow her son with love. Therefore, Hutcheon's (2014) metafiction theory as the element of the tradition is related to Shenoy's texts.

5. DISCUSSION

The elements of metafiction are highly explored in many postmodern texts, but they deal with different concepts of metafiction. Findings that are relatable to previous research are found in this study. First, Shenoy also explores the aspect of metafiction in her work ('The Secret Wish List') through the concept of memory portrayed via diary because the protagonist has written her wishes in her diary that kindles her mind to fulfill her wishes. Masemola (2020) found the same thing while analyzing the works of Khumalo (2006, 2008) through allochthonous memory by connecting memory with the locale, especially South Africa. Shenoy is also found to utilize the self-conscious narrative techniques in her two novels. The self-conscious narrative concept has been explored through the protagonists of these novels. Likewise, Bhadury (2013) also self-conscious narrative concept in the novels by Ende (1979) and Funke (2003, 2005, 2008).

In terms of reality, Shenoy explores some issues with reality in 'The Secret Wish List'. In this fiction, Diksha is the protagonist, who struggles a lot to lead her life with a workaholic person, Sandeep. He is always concerned about his job alone, not his family. Therefore, Diksha comes out from her family life, and it is not an easy way to explore. This is a kind of mission to fulfill her wishes on her own (Shenoy, 2012).

Correspondingly, Brown (2016) found that Mitchell (2004) in the work of 'Cloud Atlas' also blended with some missionaries.

Other elements found in the studied novels combine text with language, reality, history, and reader (i.e., reality and unreality). Shenoy builds some problems through the protagonist Diksha in 'The Secret Wish List'. Many problems have flourished in her life, even though she fought for her freedom to fulfill her wishes. Therefore, Diksha came out of her family life, but in reality, no woman agrees with this kind of action of giving up her children to anyone. This concept may be indirectly referred to a particular person by Shenoy. Therefore, reality and unreality are blended. This metafiction is also found in the analysis by Butler and Gurr (2008) on the work by Auster (2007) and de Maistre (1794).

The study of Moss (1990) abbreviates metafiction and poetics in children's literature. He studies works not in the fiction category, and they belong to short stories. These kinds of texts have foregrounded the technique of metafiction. Moss (1990) found that it is common for writers to explore their childhood experiences through their writings. In the same way, Shenoy depicts her fondness of, and this idea is depicted in her novel, 'It Happens for a Reason', through the protagonist, Vipasha.

Furthermore, Thomas Pynchon, a notable postmodern writer and theorist had most of his works deal with all the postmodern aspects. Here, metafiction has been explored in his novel, 'Mason and Dixon' (Pynchon, 1997). In this fiction, he retells about Surveyors of British. They are Charles Mason and Jeremiah Dixon. They occupied so many places, especially Pennsylvania and Maryland. Therefore, this novel explicates the real incident, and the writer's intention is explored in the texts. Pynchon (1997) states the real incidents with his connotations. The aspects of reality and history have blended into this fiction. Likewise, Shenoy projects the issues related to women in her works. According to tradition, women are supposed to do household chores and take care of their children (Hariharasudan & Pandeeswari, 2020). Shenoy mentions women's sufferings and given importance to women and their wishes in 'The Secret Wish List' (Shenoy, 2012). The writer has expressed her connotations and desires through the protagonist, Diksha. Here, history and reality are blended. This study is known as 'fiction-centered' metafiction.

David Wiesner is an illustrator and writer, and wrote 'The Three Pigs' (Wiesner, 2001). In this work, he narrates the three pigs and their activities. They want to build a house, but two pigs are lazy, and the other pigs are very meticulous. Finally, these three pigs built a house to protect themselves from wolves. This is a replica of the classic 'Three Little Pigs'. Here, the writer creates some controversy and applies the same concept. Similarly, Shenoy has explored the same concepts in her texts as women empowerment in 'The Secret Wish List' and 'It Happens for a Reason'. The writer has projected women-centered concepts, their sufferings, and their roles in these three novels. These two writers, Wiesner (2001) and Shenoy (2012, 2014) demonstrate the issues or persons, and thus, their texts are referred to as 'indirect metafiction'.

Ariel S. Winter is a noteworthy writer in English, and he received many awards for his debut novel, 'The Twenty-Year Death' (Winter, 2012). This novel reveals the story of the writer Shem Rosencrantz and his wife Clotilde-ma-Fleur because their attitudes, especially egotistical, obliterate this couple. This book comprises three books just as a trilogy, but the three books retold the story of the couple in different years. This novel is mainly based on crime, and the writer has proved that he is known as a crime novelist. Similarly, Shenoy also narrates a couple's life, especially the life of

Diksha, in 'The Secret Wish List' because no one gives importance to her. She has been treated as a doll. Shenoy has treated the women characters in the same aspects, but the ending alone differs from her three texts. This study comes under critical metafiction because the two writers' works depict a couple's story, and no one knows the exact thing.

David Mitchell is a well-known British writer. His famous work is 'Cloud Atlas' (Mitchell, 2004). For this fiction, he received many awards: The British Book Award for Literary Fiction, Book of the Year, and Nebula Award for Best Novel. This novel has been adapted into a film version. In this novel, the writer describes the aspects of both metafiction and historic metafiction. This novel comprises six stories in six different places with different characters. This story is based on a particular character who experiences six different places and explores post-apocalyptic prospects. Shenoy also projects Vipasha's life in 'It Happens for a Reason', and it is categorized as life before Aryan, and life after Aryan. He is the son of Vipasha, who takes care of her son perfectly. Shenoy (2014) illustrates the problems of women and struggles in her life indirectly. These two writers have not projected any particular person, but they indirectly convey the issues in society. Therefore, this study relates to indirect metafiction.

William Goldman is a notable American playwright, novelist, and screenwriter. His famous novel is 'The Princess Bride' (Goldman, 1973). This novel is an abridged version of the fictional character Morgenstern. Goldman has given his name as the protagonist in 'The Princess Bride'. It is a romance and fantasy novel. This novel begins in the renaissance period. First, the author, to his daughter, narrates this story as 'princesses and other brides'. Later, it changed to 'The Princess Bride' with an abridged version. The narrator in the story is a persona. The writer comprises the story and elucidates it in short form. Similarly, Shenoy utilizes an abridged version in her texts. First, in Nisha's life, she comes out from all the suffering and stands without anyone's help. She desires to buy a house in Pondicherry. Finally, she buys a house in the same place. From this segment, everything has been mentioned in the abridged version (Shenoy, 2012). Second, Vipasha reunites with her husband, but the writer uses the abridged version after reuniting as she runs a paw factor for her son's wish (Shenoy, 2014).

6. CONCLUSION

The present study draws attention to the postmodern tendency of metafiction, which is a narrative style. It is infrequent to discover in literature, especially in Indian writing. This aspect has been rendered in some studies and texts. The present study spotlights Preeti Shenoy's works 'The Secret Wish List' and 'It Happens for a Reason'. These novels were analyzed through metafiction theories proposed by distinguished theorists. The findings show that metafiction is applicable in the texts of the two novels by Shenoy. She has projected the aspects of metafiction in her works through her writing, especially narration, both fiction and reality.

This study has its limitation that it only researched on two characters: Diksha and Vipasha, from the two novels. Future related studies are encouraged to focus on other prominent characters in the novels as well. There are also other theorists on postmodern metafiction, and so, future work are recommended to analyze these works based on their theories. The present study suggests that future studies can be carried out in the areas of psychology, alienation, workaholic, family doctrines, philosophy, feminism, metanarrative, and metafiction in other interrelated works.

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