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Developing Motivation through an ICT Cooperation Project Plan in English between Spanish and German Students

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Abstract

This case study aims to research the connection between motivation and real-life experiences in the use of the English language through an ICT cooperation project plan between two centres. Introducing Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) by means of videoconferences and the Edmodo network, we connect teenagers from different countries who share hobbies and interests. The goal is that students from Spanish 3rd-grade compulsory secondary education or their equivalent 9th-grade German peers use English as a lingua franca to achieve their objectives. This also helps students to acquire a foreign language (English) in a motivating and communicative environment and to develop competencies that are usually relegated to the background in standard English classes. In total, 104 teenagers participated in this study, in which they had to write letters, record a video, and participate in three videoconferences. The research started with an online meeting between the two teams of teachers from both centres in which the general guidelines were set up. The research instruments that the students had to carry out during the project were pictures and letters, videoconferences, and finally a profile on an educational social network. The results show how this cooperation project motivated them to the point that they could end their school year with a better grade than they had before starting the project as they shared interests in the use of English to maintain cooperation with their peers.

Keywords: cooperation, English learning, exchange, lingua franca, motivation.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Learning English might be boring for some Spanish students since they do not seem to see long-term use for the language. Although teachers keep on telling them how important it is to learn a second language for their professional lives, they do not usually think about their future since they are generally focused on themselves and their current problems. This is quite the opposite of their German counterparts as they reckon that learning a foreign language opens them to new and unknown pathways. Piaget (1995) described teenage egocentrism as being based on confusion or lack of differentiation between thinking intern aspects and reality external aspects that surround them. For this reason, realizing that the English language works as a lingua franca between non-native speakers might be a great motivation for them.

Marlina and Xu (2019) recognised the predominant use of English in diverse international economic and cultural arenas. However, they failed to recognise its role as a motivating factor among students of different countries to improve their proficiency in English. They focused on the role of English nowadays and the importance of learning it for communication purposes. Therefore, the research statement we hereby propose is to show how students can improve their English level by participating in an ICT cooperation project plan.

Living in a globalized world has led English to be the lingua franca spoken by everyone who wants to communicate everywhere. Therefore, connecting students of the same age, hobbies, and interests but with different native languages is a way of using English as a lingua franca in a situation outside of the standard lesson planning. This research created an ICT cooperation project between two European high schools that might develop later into an eTwinning or Erasmus+ project financed by the European Union in the future. With these programs, the teachers can organise and run both on-site and online activities with their corresponding students along with colleagues from the participating countries (Spain and Germany).

For this reason, having students who can only communicate in English and creating a digital connection between them might prevent communication problems, since they already know each other at a certain level after they have written or digitally talked. According to Ceylan (2021), using English as a lingua franca among teenagers who do not share the same mother tongue but share hobbies, thoughts, or perspectives might work as a motivational factor for them to realise that English is much more than grammar or vocabulary learnt in class.

Consequently, teachers who introduce ICTs have a better chance to increase their students' motivation as the learning process concentrates on the students rather than on the teacher (Paudel, 2020). However, it is still true that using ICT increases students' curiosity and improves their critical thinking skills. According to Haleem et al. (2022), the development of technologies facilitates this kind of project and teachers must be able to use this opportunity to their advantage. If teenagers are keen on technologies, introducing them will increase their motivation among them.

Therefore, all these benefits set the goal of using this exceptional opportunity to develop an ICT cooperation plan among non-native English students. The research statement proposed is to investigate whether using the language in informal contexts where students participate for the sake of communication helps them increase their motivation levels, together with their school grades, and their perception of the English language. It will be interesting for students to interact through correspondence, videoconferences, and an online social network with peers from another country since previous studies did not focus on such a type of research. In the end, what we shall foresee is that the students' grades will improve after the cooperation project.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Before starting with the project, it is necessary to understand some key concepts that will be directly and indirectly worked on during the project development, such as the concept of second language acquisition, the definition of motivation, the explanation of what a language exchange is and a description of both the Erasmus+ and eTwinning projects created by the European Union.

Besides, although a lot of research has previously been published on second language acquisition, motivation, and European language programs, none has specifically focused on the benefits of such an ICT cooperation project for the improvement of the pupils' English level. Having students motivated to use English to communicate with their peers is a topic that has not been researched in depth yet. This is precisely where the originality and novelty of this study lie.

2.1 Second Language Acquisition

According to Kanwai et al. (2022), second language acquisition (SLA) is the acquisition of another language after the mother tongue's knowledge is completed. SLA is a complicated and systematic process which is influenced by many factors that interact with each other such as age, personal experience, native language, or motivation (Sun, 2019). Moreover, the students' culture and social and economic background are also relevant external factors.

2.1.1 Factors influencing SLA

Many linguists believe that age is an essential factor in language learning. In their study, Ozfdian and Burlbaw (2019) mentioned that acquiring a second language after the age of five might have physical advantages related to phonetic control of the second language, contrary to adults who cannot develop this plasticity as easily as children normally do. However, the result of this study also conveyed that age was not always the most dominant factor in successfully achieving language attainment in instructed language.

According to Herschensohn and Young-Scholten (2018), childhood is the best moment to acquire a second language. However, this is not only physical, since the older a person is, the more difficult it becomes to master the language as the situations that adults face are more complex. Therefore, the language needed to express the idea is also more complicated.

Another relevant and individual difference to take into consideration is the native language spoken by the learners. As the students' native languages are Spanish and German, some transfer into the second language (L2) will occur. Regarding error-making when learning a foreign language, linguists claim that the interference between the mother tongue and the newly learnt language is an important source for making errors (Vâlcea, 2020).

However, this transfer does not always have to be negative. According to Zhang et al. (2022), negative transfer reduces the learning performance in the target language and has been a long-standing and challenging problem. Various approaches have been proposed in the literature to handle it. German native speakers can correctly distinguish vowel length on the contrary to Spanish students, for whom there is no distinction between long and short vowels.

Moreover, word order plays an important role in English and German since it is more flexible in Spanish. Then, when building sentences, the structure followed by the German speakers is usually closer to the English language than the Spanish ones. However, for Spanish students, grammar is easier as the tenses are similarly used, for instance, the progressive tenses, which do not exist in German.

The teenage period is also well-known for the identity crisis suffered when teenagers are in search of their identity and role in society. Among adolescents, identity is of great importance because it is the first time when physical development, cognitive skills, and social expectations coincide, which enables adolescents to understand childhood identifications to construct a viable pathway toward adulthood (Upreti, 2017). Consequently, many will struggle to balance all the input received by society (Elsayed, 2021). In Spain, for instance, people speaking English without a Spanish accent are perceived by others as considering themselves superior. Social dynamics are influential for teenagers, and they might speak English with a strong Spanish accent on purpose, so they are accepted by their peers.

One of the first theories about SLA was the behaviourist theory which was based on Pavlov's (1927) work founded on repetition, practice, and reinforcement. This habit formation is what enhances language learning. The grammar-translation method is based on sentence repetition until they are learned by heart (Thornbury, 2017). However, this memorizing process was not effective since there were no natural dialogues or free production.

The innatist perspective was developed by Chomsky (2002) as a criticism of behaviourist theories and developed the concept of Universal Grammar, a knowledge that every child has that allows them to acquire a second language. This perspective lets the child discover by himself how to use the language, but it is necessary for them to be exposed to the language first. Therefore, communication provides an identity that shapes them in different settings (Mulyani, 2019).

Krashen's monitor model (1981, in Hunkler, 2017) is one of the most representative of this theory and englobes five hypotheses that focus on learning a language with meaning and without being based on repetition. One of the most relevant hypotheses is the comprehensible input hypothesis which states that acquisition occurs when the learner is exposed to a comprehensive input + 1, which means grammar or vocabulary beyond their knowledge (Hunkler, 2017).

The cognitive perspective theories use the metaphor of the human mind as compared to a computer that can store and search for data. These theories distinguish between learning and acquiring a language as there is a process that the learners must follow to acquire the language (Dorsch, 2021).

Other linguists such as Lightbown and Spada (2013) have defined SLA as skill learning, which means that every person starts with declarative knowledge defined as the knowledge they are aware of having. This knowledge might become procedural, which implies being able to use it through practice and finally automatizing it. This theory explains why native speakers may not remember the grammar rules of their languages since they have forgotten this declarative knowledge.

2.1.2 Teaching approach to facilitate SLA

Learning a second language in the classroom is different from learning it in non-educative contexts such as many immigrants learning by talking to people. This environment is thought to be more successful for language learning as it is considered natural learning. Natural acquisition settings are those where the learner is directly exposed to the foreign language and in this environment, the learning process develops by interacting with others in many situations. In addition, learners often interact with proficient speakers of the language, which means that delivering the message is more relevant than correctness.

Institutional settings present some structures that the natural setting cannot offer, such as guided learning, meaning that grammar and vocabulary are presented step by step. This enables language to be the focus rather than the message. However, to develop a good command of the foreign language, these classes should not be the only contact or interaction opportunity as they only face the language for a few hours a week. This situation does not happen in real-life contexts, which may lead to the learners' fear of speaking since they are often corrected by the teacher, and this might undermine their confidence.

However, none of these two methods by themselves is completely effective since learners need some guidance and feedback for correcting errors that only language learning institutions can give. Therefore, a communicative instructional setting is a combination of natural and institutional settings. According to Azimova (2019), the implementation of communicative activities in EFL/ESL classrooms prepares learners to use English beyond their own needs, interests, and opportunities fostering group and pair work.

This focus on meaning implies that students interact with each other, and they might produce and receive incorrect in and output, which the teacher or other students can correct if it is an error made repeatedly or interferes with the understanding of the message. This environment also allows learners to participate and produce more in class opposite to teacher frontal classes, where the teacher is the one producing the language and the learners are passive participants.

2.2 Motivation

As defined by Ushiada (2020), motivation in second language learning is the attempt and desire to learn, as well as having positive attitudes toward learning. Studies in motivation psychology show that there are two types of motivation: instrumental motivation (extrinsic), which is the motivation for learning the language to reach practical objectives, and integrative motivation (or intrinsic), which means learning the language for personal development and cultural enrichment. The most common type of motivation in schools is usually extrinsic motivation since students work and learn to receive external rewards such as good grades. This motivation also looks for external validation usually coming from the teacher. This motivation is not permanent considering the variability of external factors.

However, many researchers and psychologists, such as Delaney and Royal (2017), believe that the real motivation is intrinsic because it is a crucial mechanism for open-ended cognitive development since it is the driver of spontaneous exploration and curiosity. Therefore, once students develop this motivation, the results and engagement will improve as learning has become a personal reward.

The self-efficacy theory explains how self-efficacy develops and is altered, as well as how self-efficacy impacts on behavioural change, performance accomplishments, and personal well-being (Lippke, 2020). This concept is responsible for their learning success, as the learners convince themselves that they can reach their goals. However, this theory has been criticised as it might develop frustration if the objectives cannot be achieved.

According to Skinner et al. (2022), learning rarely occurs without significant practice and guidance regardless of the context in which it takes place. This guidance is often referred to as feedback and it is used by learners to make changes to improve their performance. Under learning orientation, the aim is to increase competence by learning or mastering a new task.

The attribution theory developed by Weiner (2010) completes the previous theories and focuses on the learners' self-esteem to measure the resulting performance. If this performance is positive, the self-concept improves, whereas it will decrease if the results are negative. According to Shaver (2018), this motivation is intrinsic, as the results depend on internal attributions that will affect future expectations.

The self-determination theory is an approach that unites human motivation and personality using traditional empirical methods and metatheory for personality development and self-regulation of behaviour (Ryan & Deci, 2018). This approach states that the learners' innate tendencies foster the positive process of learning, integration, and social development.

Nakamura and Csikszentmihalyi (2019) define flow as 'to have a smooth continuity'. This continuity is what the flow theory emphasizes since it states that the learners reach their highest motivation when they are absorbed by doing one task).

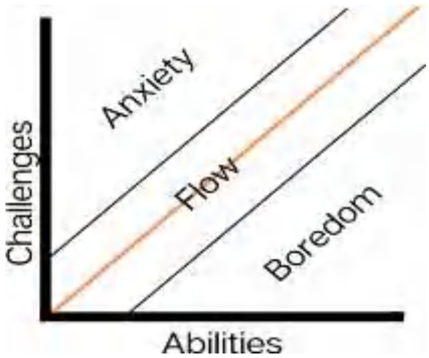

Figure 1. Flow theory (Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2019).

To enhance motivation, it is relevant to emphasize that learning a foreign language focuses not only on grammar but also on communicating with people from other countries. According to Larrea Espinar and Raigón Rodgíguez (2019), it is a generally accepted fact that teaching culture of a foreign country should be an integral part of the foreign language classroom. Language cannot exist without culture, otherwise teaching a language would be just a set of symbols which could be used with a wrong meaning. This orientation depicts the real communicative situations that the learner might face when putting their knowledge into practice.

Thus, based on motivation theories and how they are integrated into foreign language teaching, it is possible to state that learning autonomy is related to the level of motivation of the students as they are responsible and in control of their learning process. Ceylan (2021) defines the learner's autonomy as "to have, and to hold the responsibility for all the decisions concerning the objectives, contents and progressions, methods and techniques to be used, monitoring the procedure of acquisition, and its evaluation" (p. 152).

Motivated students also show high aspirations; they are ambitious and are willing to challenge themselves and live new experiences. Motivation also enhances their perseverance since these students invest time and effort in their learning process and are not easily frustrated or discouraged as they know they will positively progress. All these characteristics lead to good language learners being motivated to acquire a foreign language successfully. Although the characteristics of a good language learner need to be known, they generally have contact with native speakers, listen to the radio or TV, read as much as they can, or learn grammar in class or at home (Fitria, 2022). These learners have a high tolerance for ambiguity, are patient with themselves, aware of their own learning styles, and not afraid to ask questions or make mistakes.

2.3 Language Exchange Programmes: eTwinning, Erasmus +, CEFR

Since learning English in school is usually an artificial process, a language exchange means engagement in authentic communication. Students do not have many opportunities to use the language in real communicative situations. Therefore, these exchange programmes improve their language production, which is not as developed as language reception. Also, introducing Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) in this exchange and cooperation programme brings new opportunities to the students to responsibly use the Internet as a language learning instrument since ICTs benefit and stimulate the learning process as they provide authenticity and modernity in the English foreign language classroom.

2.3.1 eTwinning

The European Union has developed two main projects to promote cooperation between countries. The first project is called "eTwinning" and connects different schools in Europe, encouraging the use of ICTs and cultural exchange between students from different nationalities. The second project, whose name is "Erasmus+", is a project designed to support youth education and sport. The eTwinning programme facilitates finding a partner to develop an online project as more than 300,000 teachers and 140,000 educational centres cooperate in the project. The main objective of eTwinning is that students from different countries work together to develop the project and present a common result. Since the project materialises online, ICT usage is key to implement and produce the project (European Commission, 2018).

2.3.2 Erasmus +

To encourage language learning, the Erasmus+ programme offers language learning opportunities through mobility exchanges or through virtual student exchanges that foster intercultural dialogue and tolerance. The Erasmus+ project is not only dedicated to students, but teachers can also benefit from this. There are many opportunities for further education programmes such as job shadowing,where teachers are allowed to visit other educational centres across Europe and observe the methodology used (European Commission, 2020). There are also programmes where teachers can briefly work in a school from a country that participates in this programme so they can broaden their experience and knowledge.

2.3.3 The Common European Framework of Reference

This ICT cooperation project needs to be contextualised since the legal framework, the educational centres, and the groups of students differ from Spain to Germany. Nowadays, foreign languages are regulated by the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) which states the differentiation and learning levels of the languages (Council of Europe, 2022). Since both centres are in Europe, it is important to mention the CEFR created by the European Union that joins the competencies that learners must acquire from A1 to C2.

The CEFR influences the Spanish law since the key competencies and learning standards are based on it. The current educational law in Spain is the Organic Law 3/2020 of December 29, 2020 (LOMLOE), which modifies the Spanish Organic Law LOMCE from 2013, and it states that the English language must be taught following basic and specific competencies, contents, evaluation criteria, and learning standards. The basic law of the Federal Republic of Germany from September 2020 is a modification from the version of May 1949 which establishes that education must be free and compulsory for every child living in the country. In Germany, each land oversees the education politics; therefore, in Lower Saxony, the educational laws for the *Realschule* level are found in the *Niedersächsisches Kultusministerium*. The *Kerncurriculum mit pandemiebedingten Hinweisen und Priorisierungen Englisch* was published in 2021 and modified the previous one from 2019.

3. METHODS

3.1 Research Design

The research design was conducted in five different stages during the second half of the academic year with different instruments being used in each case. In the first place, students had to complete a motivation questionnaire in class about their interests and expectations. In the second place, the teachers involved analysed the students' grades resulting from a standard written test carried out in class, which measured their listening, writing, and reading skills, as well as an oral interview. In the third place, in class students had to write a presentation letter in English to introduce themselves to their counterparts. In the fourth place, students developed three videoconferences where they could exchange information and share likes and interests.

Finally, in the fifth stage, students had to update their blog entries in the Edmodo network to follow up on the exchange program. The goal was to establish links between students from both centres to foster cooperation for future years.

But before the ICT cooperation project started, teachers from both centres had an online meeting that took place on February 28, 2023. During this meeting, the objectives were discussed, and every teacher agreed that developing oral and written competencies was as important as developing emotional intelligence and intercultural one to foster cooperation and collaboration. Motivating the students was a milestone should we aim to improve their English level. After having discussed the rules and objectives of the project, an official document was presented to assure transparency. Once this document was approved by both departments, school boards, and families, the project could officially start.

The work with special needs students was taken into consideration since there were two cases in the Spanish group and seven in the German one. These students could use ICTs to work better, and another evaluation system was carried out that the special needs teacher had designed for them. These students had partners based on their performance, for example, the grades of the student with autism were average. In this case, what was more important was to pair him with someone with high emotional intelligence, so the interaction could take place.

3.2 Participants in the Study

The participants involved in this project correspond to students doing 3rd year of Compulsory Secondary Education in a centre in the city of Granada (Spain), and ninth grade in a village called Dörverden (Germany). On the Spanish part, there were 48 students involved, while on the German one, there were 56 students participating. In the following sections, we will offer a detailed analysis of each centre.

3.2.1 The Spanish Centre

The Spanish centre is a private subsidised centre which is in the city of Granada. This centre has a long tradition in the city since it is located close to two traditional worker neighbourhoods with a medium-low family income and low cultural access or level. These families do not normally participate in the parents' organisation of the centre (AMPA) and have almost no connection with the school. This neighbourhood is known for being one of the most impoverished ones, where many police raids have taken place to fight against drugs and criminality. For this reason, many students have some discipline problems since they grew up surrounded by people who did not respect the authority power of the police.

This centre has a bilingual certification, which means that some subjects are taught in English following the CLIL methodology. For this reason, the cooperation project with another European country is for them an opportunity to later take part in the eTwinning project financed by the European Union since many teachers have already taken part in the Erasmus+ internship.

The Spanish group is formed of 48 students with different levels and abilities in the same class. The difference between female and male students is remarkable; most of the girls have a higher level as their families also have a higher income. On the contrary, few boys can afford private English classes resulting in a lower level in class.

There is one student with visual difficulties who works with her laptop and electronic books, so she can zoom in and read the texts and exercises. Moreover, there is one student with autism syndrome, and he needs the worksheets printed in A3 format because it helps him focus on the paper and easily read and write since he has more space between letters and lines.

3.2.2 The German Centre

On the other side, there is the German centre located in a small village called Dörverden in Lower Saxony, a region in the north of Germany. The main job sector in the village is related to farming and construction. Although the cultural offer is relatively low, there are two big cities not far away with a bigger offer in different cultural fields.

The school system in Germany is divided into different types of schools, and this one is called *Realschule*. In this kind of centre, the final title that the students receive allows them to continue studying for Baccalaureate if they complete three courses at the highest level of performance. Obtaining a basic *Realschule* title means that they stay until the 10th grade, and after that, they can join a vocational training school, but they cannot study at university.

The German group is divided by level into four different classes. There are 56 students in total, divided into groups of seven to 18 students. These groups are differentiated by level, resulting in two advanced courses, where students must have higher performance, one basic course, which focuses on developing a basic oral competence, and one course for students with special learning needs where a special needs teacher helps the English teacher.

Most of the German students are bilingual since their families come from countries different from Germany, resulting in most of them speaking Croatian, Arabic, or Turkish as well as German. Moreover, there are three students with special social needs and four who need assistance as they have learning disabilities, or they still do not command the German language. These seven students are in a separate class where the English teacher works together with a special needs teacher.

3.3 Research Instruments

The instruments used in the project included a motivation questionnaire to know about their interests; a standard written test to grade their listening, writing, and reading skills; a presentation letter in which they had to introduce themselves; three videoconferences to get to know each other; and blog entries in the Edmodo network to keep in contact. In the following lines, we will offer a detailed analysis of each instrument. But before starting, parents had to sign their consent that their children were doing this exchange with students from another country, and their permission was asked for the teenagers to send pictures and letters, do videoconferences, and finally create a profile on an educational social network.

In the first place, to know the students' beliefs before starting the project, they had to fill out one motivation questionnaire with 10 questions where they had to reflect on the importance of English as a lingua franca and their performance during the project. Moreover, this questionnaire was also helpful in comprehending their opinion about the project. The same questionnaire was handed out at the end of the project to check if their level of motivation had increased as we will reflect in the results section. In the second place, the students' grades were analysed in both centres through a standard written test to measure their level of skills (listening, writing, and reading), and a 5-minute personal interview to check their speaking skills. The students with difficulties were allowed to carry out the interview in pairs.

The third instrument used was a presentation letter in which the German students had to introduce themselves to their Spanish counterparts. These letters had to follow the structure conveyed by the teachers of both centres: description, hobbies, family, and cultural features and presentation of their city. Once every student had written their letter, the teachers differentiated them using four colours: pink (extreme basic level), blue (basic level), green (low advanced and good basic level), and yellow (very advanced level). Based on this differentiation, it was easier to create partners. Having read the letters of those students with lower grades and motivation levels, it was more effortless to partner them with students who had similar interests or hobbies.

Then each colour group had to create a short presentation video about their city or town, centre, hobbies, etc., which was the fourth instrument used. This video helped them overcome shyness and the fear of speaking in English. The first videoconference took place after each student had written three letters. Each differentiated group had a 25-minute videoconference with the other group under the teachers' supervision. Previously they had prepared some questions for the other group and the teachers had sent them to the other centre, so they could prepare the answers. This method mostly helped students in the pink and blue groups as they were able to understand and answer the questions. After this first oral contact, it was remarkable that students in both centres spent the rest of their days talking about the meeting and discussing other questions that they wanted to ask, what they understood, and other topics related to the videoconference.

Finally, after the videoconferences took place, students had to log into the social network Edmodo, which was the last instrument we used, where they could join their corresponding exchange group. This platform enables the students to share blog entries where they can update their daily routines, personal experiences, or anecdotes they want to exchange with other students from the same group. The students with special needs were allowed to use their iPads or laptops during the project, so they sent their digital letter via email to the teacher and then received a scanned copy of the letter the partner sent.

Once this first contact had been established and to continue with the interactions in class, the students had to create a profile on the educational social network Edmodo, join the exchange group created by one of the teachers and regularly post and comment on their peers' profiles. The main rule was that they had to write in English and the post had to be suitable for an educational environment. To conclude, the following step would be a real exchange funded by the Erasmus+ programme where students would be able to visit each other's countries and centres.

4. RESULTS

In this section we analyse the results obtained before and after the project took place in terms of increasing the level of motivation of the students and their level of

English using the different instruments that we analysed in the previous section. After carrying out this ICT cooperative project, the students were not only much more motivated to use English to communicate, but at the end of the academic course their performance and their grades in English improved.

4.1 Motivation Results

This cooperation project is aimed at increasing the students' level of motivation. Motivation was developed by receiving letters and pictures from other teenagers and realising that they can understand and be understood by students from other countries. Something relevant about the motivation level at the beginning of the project was the similarity of low results between both centres.

The results obtained from the questionnaire at the beginning of the project can be seen in the next figures. The motivation level was low in both centres and several students had the feeling that they would never get a good grade, even if they studied. In addition, some students from Germany answered that they would never need English to communicate since they would never leave Dörverden.

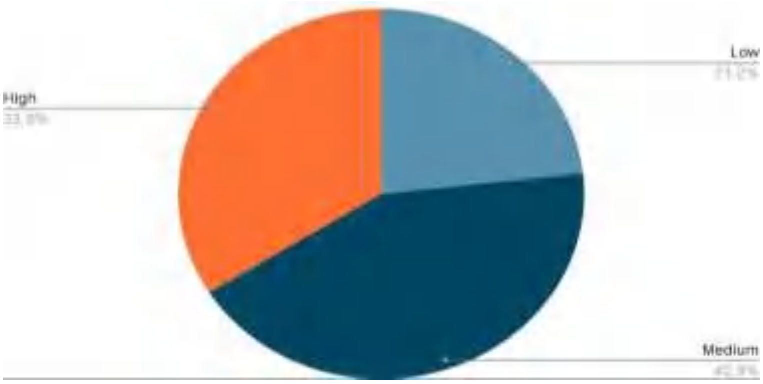

Figure 2. Motivation level – German students.

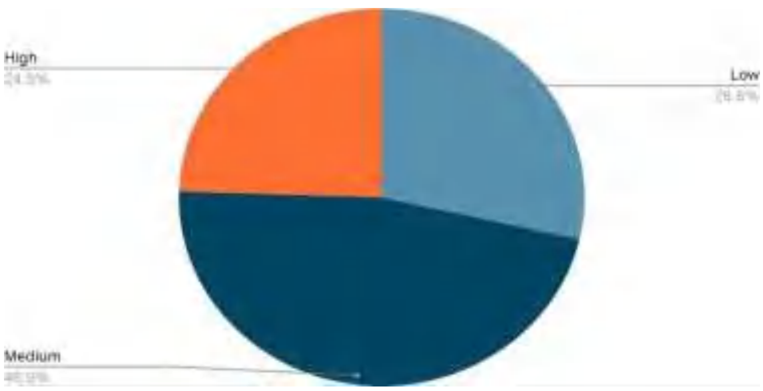

Figure 3. Motivation level – Spanish students.

The results obtained after the implementation of the cooperation plan between the centres clearly show that the level of motivation of the pupils increased significantly in both cases, almost doubling the percentage in the case of the Spanish pupils. In the case of the German students, a high degree of motivation increased by 9.1%, and a medium level by 7.1% while a low level of motivation decreased by 16.2%. As for the Spanish students, the number of students with a high level of motivation increased a 21.4%, while a medium level scarcely decreased a 2%, and a low level significantly decreased a 19.6%.

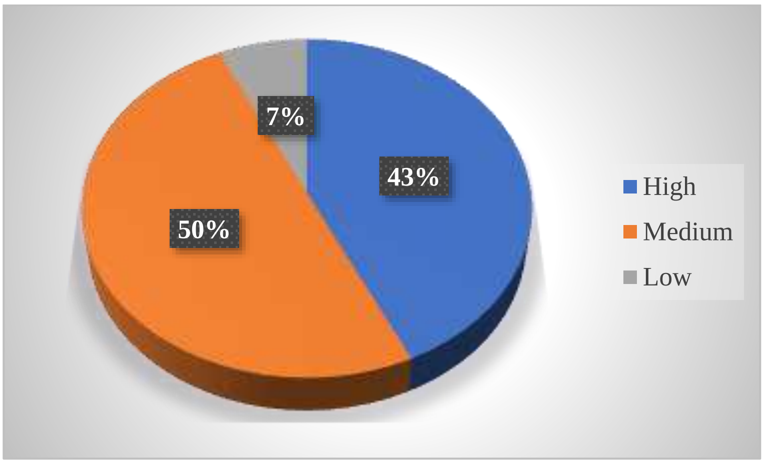

Figure 4. Motivation level – German students.

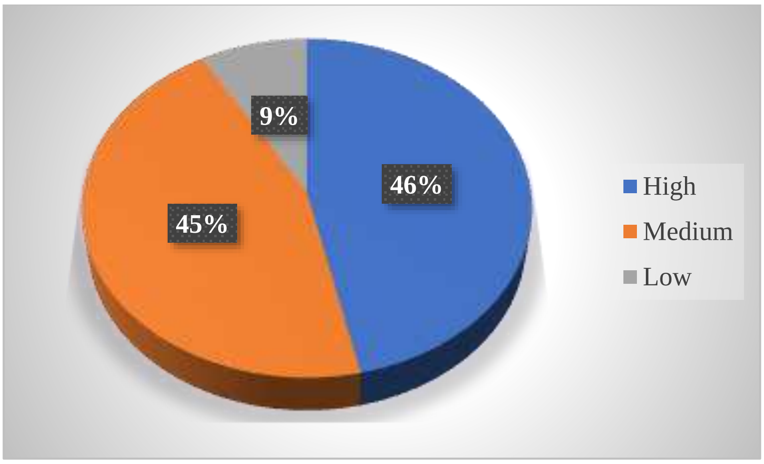

Figure 5. Motivation level – Spanish students.

The comparative results in both centres before and after developing the project can be seen in the next figures.

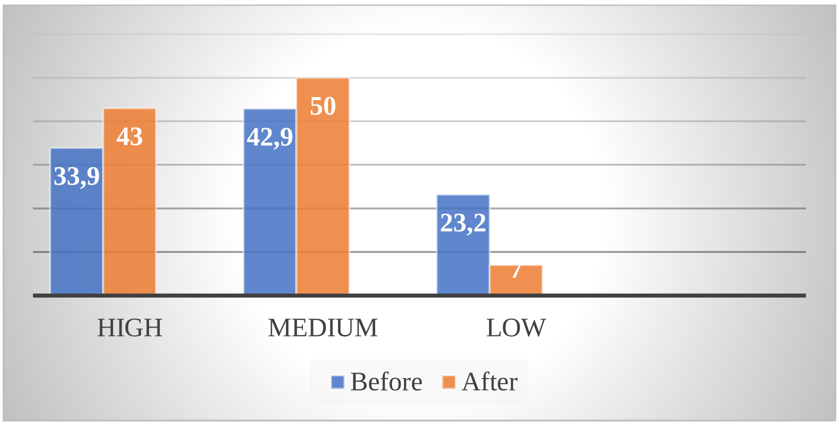

Figure 6. Differences in motivation level – German students.

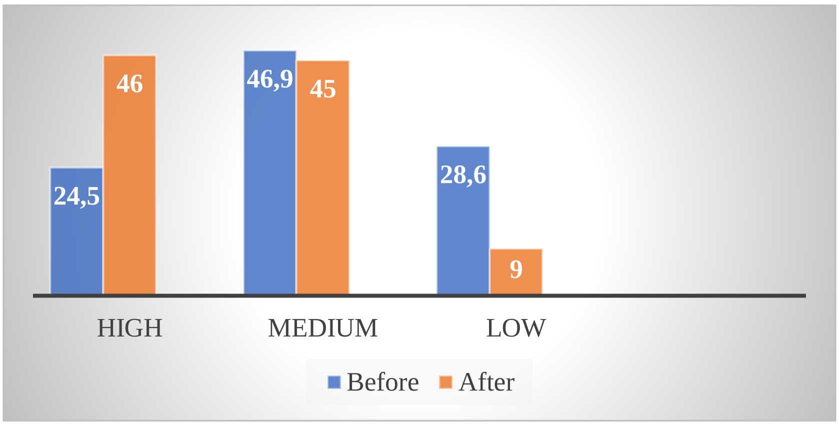

Figure 7. Differences in motivation level – Spanish students.

Self-efficacy was enhanced since students were aware of their language level and knew they could communicate in English with the other group. This efficiency was higher when students were writing their letters than when they had to speak during the videoconference. However, the performance was related to the student's level of English and expectations, meaning that they felt more confident while writing than while speaking. Moreover, students' willingness to communicate rose the moment they received letters with photographs from the students at the other school centre.

4.2 Grade Results

The results obtained from the written test carried out before the project can be seen in the next figure. On the one hand, there were 11 students who failed the subject due to behavioural reasons since they did not pay any attention in class, do their homework, or study for the exams. However, after having some conversations with the English teacher and the tutor, it was clear that these students had much potential. On the other side, 23 students excelled in the subject as their families were able to pay for extracurricular private classes. However, this group was not motivated enough as they were convinced that they had a higher level and used to find lessons boring.

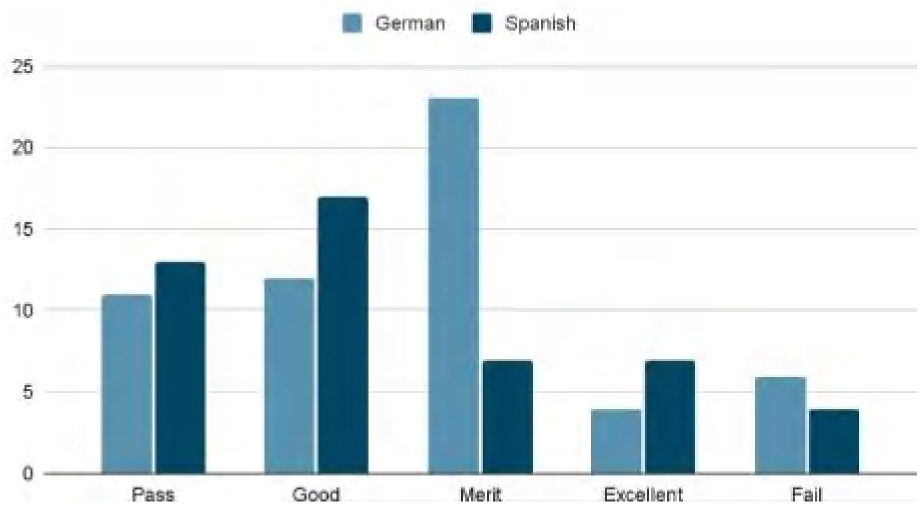

Figure 8. Students' grades before the project.

In the average group, 28 students worked hard and wanted to improve their skills; they paid attention and worked correctly. On the contrary, there was another group who could quickly improve their grades only by paying attention in class. In this group, there were three German students and four Spanish ones.

Grades at the end of the 3rd year of Compulsory Secondary Education improved for some students. It is interesting to remark that a large number of them had problems with the writing part of the exams, and in their final exam, their performance improved significantly as they could reproduce the grammar rules better than before. At the end of the project, students in both centres had to undertake a written exam to measure their improvement, whose results are shown in the next figure.

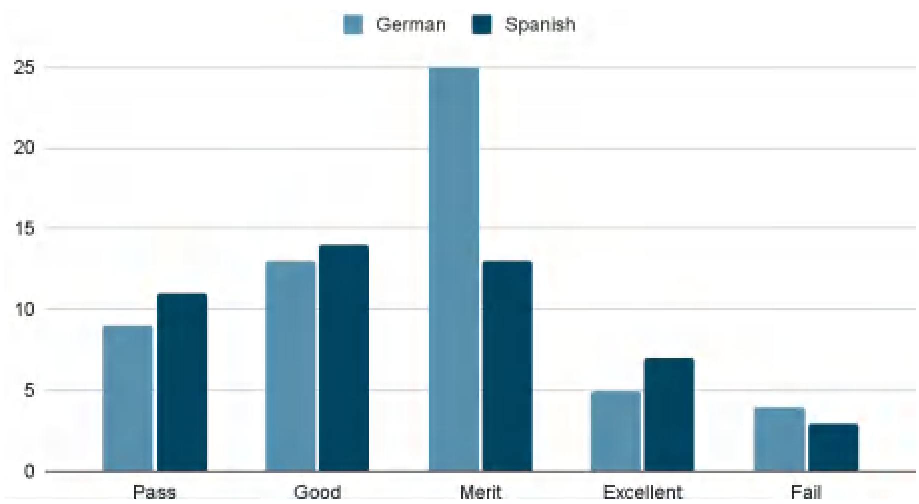

Figure 9. Students' grades at the end of 3rd CSE.

One of the main differences can be observed in the Spanish group, where 11 students improved their final grade; the majority of them were from good to merit, and one of them could pass the subject at the end of the year. This case was one of the students who, in the first questionnaire, answered that he would never get a good grade even if he studied. Having this result was a great motivator for him since he asked if the project would continue the following academic year.

The German group also improved, although not as significantly as the Spanish group. The main observation in this group was when they wrote the final exams that took place in the ninth and 10th grades. Their writing skills improved greatly in comparison with their first performances. Two students were able to pass the subject and it helped them not to repeat the ninth grade. This was a motivation factor, as one of them had previously repeated the seventh grade and she was feeling frustrated.

4.3 Results on the Presentation Letters

Many students improved their writing skills in the two letters they wrote and started to tell personal experiences or details about themselves that were unknown to the teachers. They added pictures and photos and started interacting as peers after exchanging some letters and taking part in the videoconferences. Since this project did not seek accuracy but communication, language abilities were not the main motivator in this situation but the curiosity and excitement of getting to know another teenager from another country with similar likes and dislikes were the stimuli that students needed to improve themselves.

The answering time was significantly reduced. In the beginning, it took over two weeks to collect every letter, while for the last ones, only a few days were necessary. The deadlines to hand up the letters were proportionally shorter during the project. Students' results show that the reduction of the answering time means a higher engagement by students who slowly realise the real-life importance of English as a lingua franca and for their future since they live in a globalised world, and they might face situations in which they need English to communicate.

Since German students wrote their letters using a computer, without adding pictures and they were not very personal at the beginning, when the Spanish students received them, they were expecting pictures and hand-written letters. However, the second letter they received was more personal and they enjoyed reading it; they started moving around the classroom and reading other students' letters, and they commented about the pictures and the hobbies.

4.4 Video Presentation

Since the purpose of the project was to motivate students to interact with other students, the teaching teams decided to develop three different videoconferences to measure their degree of motivation. The first videoconference showed some anxiety levels from students who were more introverted; however, as the extroverts led the conversation, they relaxed and participated spontaneously whenever the topic was interesting for them, or they were curious about something the other group said. Moreover, they felt supported as they were not alone talking to their partner but in bigger groups where there were collaborative interactions. After the first contact, every student intervened and contributed to the conversation during the second and third videoconferences. Figure 10 presents the number of questions asked by students from both centres in the three videoconferences that took place.

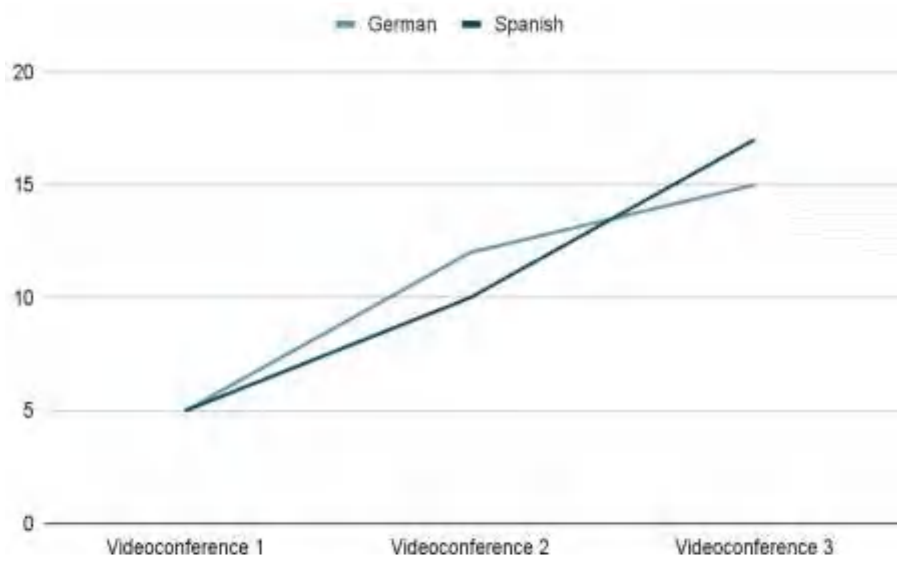

Figure 10. Number of questions asked in the videoconferences.

It is interesting to remark that the first videoconference was not very dynamic although they had previously prepared the questions. However, once they overcame their anxiety, they started asking questions because they were curious about anecdotes they read in their letters or simply because they wanted to know their partner better. Many of the questions asked were not prepared and came up with the conversation flow, and more students raised their hands because they wanted to participate in the videoconference.

During the videoconferences, every student participated, and even the most reluctant ones to speak in public asked a few questions not only to their partners but in general. Both Spanish and German students developed strategies to express themselves in every situation. However, German students were not as afraid of speaking as the Spanish ones, for they showed initiative during the conversations and had fewer problems with pronunciation. Some Spanish students were ashamed of their accents although their language knowledge was high.

This communication success is the motivational reward the students received, seeing during the videoconferences that they were able to maintain from a basic to an intermediate conversation with people who could not speak their language. This was the main reward they could obtain during the project rather than getting good grades.

4.5 Social Network Edmodo

Introducing the social network Edmodo was decided only after the students had introduced themselves and teachers had the feeling the cooperation programme was correctly developing as students were not allowed to share private messages without the teachers reading them. However, if an Erasmus+ exchange takes place in the future, teachers cannot control every student's conversation; for this reason, Edmodo, as a social network with an educative objective, would be a first step for students to start chatting privately without using other social networks.

After explaining what the Erasmus+ project wants to achieve, students from both groups were interested in an exchange, where they could personally meet each other and visit the other centre. Even the students who belonged to families with lower incomes were highly motivated to continue with the project and the exchange.

5. DISCUSSION

Although several recent studies have focused on the importance of fostering the students' motivation in class, none of these proposed an ICT cooperation project as we did. For example, Tambunan's (2018) study identified the teacher's role as the main motivator that influenced students' interests and motivation without paying attention to the use of information and communication technology.

The findings in Drakulic's (2019) study revealed that the teacher's instructional competence was perceived as the most important characteristic to increase motivation in class by the students. Finally, the results obtained in the study developed by Ninkovic et al. (2022) showed that students assigned a high motivational role to the use of computers although they did not propose any cooperation project.

Our ICT cooperation plan increased the students' motivation since they started to learn English in another way, not only to pass their exams but to communicate with other students. The real interaction that took place through the videoconferences and the Edmodo platform increased their ability to learn, understand and produce English outcomes. Furthermore, the attention paid to the teachers increased, and class participation changed drastically. This showed that their degree of motivation increased showing some of the characteristics of motivated students, such as self-esteem, goal-achievement, and tolerance to frustration, which validates our research statement and its originality.

Participating in online social interactions through the Edmodo platform helped the students to learn English as a foreign language without being actively conscious of their learning process since it was happening fluently and indirectly. The willingness to communicate was higher during the videoconferences and the anxiety levels were reduced once they had already interacted the first time.

The students with special needs found the project also motivating despite needing some support during the activities on the part of the teachers, and the videoconferences were challenging. However, during the third videoconference, and one question was directed to one of them, one student wanted to know how school life was for her, and she gladly shared her perspective with some help from the teacher. It was emotional when the students applauded her after her reply.

There were many cultural differences students were unaware of while writing their letters. For example, the Spanish students wrote about the Spanish tradition of Easter. This tradition was shocking for some German students, and they had to ask them for more information so they could understand the meaning; this process is also known as cultural meaning negotiation. Spanish students proceeded to explain this tradition, sent pictures, and engaged their readers with questions. Finally, students from both centres reflected on the cultural differences between both countries.

Being able to identify and value their traditions and culture was another result of this study. Students realised their cultural richness and treasured traditions that were previously taken for granted. Developing an online relationship increases their sensitivity, develops their emotional intelligence, and engages students in producing deeper conversations with their partners.

This communicative instructional setting, where language is learned through teachers' guidance and natural communicative situations, showed a positive impact on students who were used to learning English only focusing on grammar structures and lists of vocabulary. They used the language in real communicative contexts, and they were able to focus on the message rather than on the accuracy. This change of perspective enabled them to relax and produce even more in English than they thought they could do. Once students realised how much they knew and how extensive their performance could be, their motivation and willingness to learn also increased.

Some negative aspects of this project are that it takes some time from classical classes, where the teacher explains grammar and students are asked to answer exercises and do mechanical tasks. Some teachers prefer to follow their teaching plan and a project like this one would interfere with it. Finding time to write and correct the letters, do the videoconferences, or meet with other teachers means some extra work for teachers, who are not always interested in spending more time than necessary on school-related stuff.

6. CONCLUSION

Motivation is a key factor for language learning success. Engaging students in an ICT cooperation project with other teenagers depicts the importance of learning English as a lingua franca. As a result of this project, communicative competence improved in most of the students who participated in the videoconferences. By using real material, such as letters, pictures, and videoconferences, students felt connected to the task and were curious about the other group of students. Comprehending the cultural differences and developing empathy through interaction with others were relevant throughout the project duration. Intercultural competencies were developed every time students learned new traditions from different countries, and they accepted the differences between cultures.

This project not only achieved the fact that students spoke in English in public without fear and shared their opinions, but it accomplished that the students completed all these tasks in a foreign language that they did not consider essential before starting the project. It requires further research in terms of assessing the students' motivation before starting the project. To begin with, the individual characteristics of every student should have been taken deeply into consideration to avoid negative consequences such as the one that happened in this study. To improve this, teachers should mention every student's background during the initial meeting where they discussed the objectives. Moreover, using an adequate questionnaire to evaluate the willingness to participate and engage in the project could help in future lines of research since the questions examined motivation from a more profound point of view and they also address anxiety produced by oral interaction.

Videoconferences should be recorded to help teachers evaluate the engagement of each student. What is more, recording them would help students improve as they will be able to perceive their errors or mistakes and therefore correct themselves. For the teachers taking part in this project, regular online meetings would have helped the communication regarding different topics. For example, students' backgrounds, progress, or motivation, as in this study only one teacher oversaw analysing the results of the whole project.

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EFL Students' Motivational Currents during Extensive Reading Programs: A Retrodictive Qualitative Modelling

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Abstract
Motivation to read, the driving force to achieve one's reading goals, plays a significant role in language learning as it relates to reading engagement and achievement. Its presence is prominently necessary for a longer learning period. This article explores the features of nine pre-service students' motivational currents and how their motivation changes throughout the task performance in Extensive Reading Programs (henceforth ERPs). Data were collected from diaries, and a retrodictive qualitative model was applied to recount the experiences of the student participants' motivational currents following Dörnyei's Directed Motivational Currents (DMC). Themes of diaries and interviews were generated following the Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis. The findings show that the features of DMC are salient and functioning throughout the student's learning experiences and facilitate the construction of their future identity as readers. Four patterns of motivational currents during the students' learning were a steady wave, slight wave, moderate wave, and great wave patterns. The variability and stability of task performance motivation indicate that students' motivational trajectories are unique, conditional, and context-bound. Identifications of the sources of motivators and demotivators provide hints for designing more engaging classroom activities, enriching the task

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features, and sustaining students' motivation. This study concludes with possible directions for future motivation research.

Keywords: Directed motivational currents, extensive reading, interpretative phenomenological analysis, retrodictive qualitative modelling.

1. INTRODUCTION

The tradition of research on reading motivation has been quantifying reading motivation based on the reading motivation scales (Dhanapala & Hirakawa, 2016; Hardy, 2016; Maghsoudi et al., 2021). However, such studies view reading motivation as having only dimensions limited by the scales. Scholars in motivation have indicated that motivation is multifaceted and changes over time (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991; Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000). Therefore, such quantitative investigations tend to lack insights into a person's dynamic processes of motivational changes (Dörnyei et al., 2014; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Ushioda, 1996). More importantly, constructs of L2 motivation deserve to obtain more advanced investigation and particularly "individual learner-focused data" to understand better and discern students' learning experiences (Kruk & Zawodniak, 2018, p. 189). Hence, qualitative inquiry, such as case studies, has become an alternative to set the ground for a more thorough comprehension of individual learning experiences with their unique dynamic systems. To date, little exploration is conducted into students' motivation in extensive reading programs in higher education contexts.

Why some studies on reading motivation have shifted to qualitative inquiries lies in the proposition that motivation in language development is changing, evolving, fluctuating, complex, and dynamic (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991; Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000). The complex and predictable dynamic systems (Haggis, 2008) necessitate a research approach such as Retrodictive Qualitative Modelling (RQM) that could cater to the capacity of the dynamic system, portray the existence of system fluidity, and reveal an established pattern and behavioural outcomes (Dörnyei, 2014). Applying the RQM framework as such, students' foreign language anxiety and language enjoyment trajectories are mapped and causes of emotional fluctuations can dynamically be disclosed. RQM has been used to examine the motivators and demotivators of Japanese freshmen (Kikuchi, 2017), students' motivation in overseas teaching programs (Rasman, 2018), students' enjoyment and anxiety influenced by varied factors such as personal goals, teachers, and discontent experiences in the past (Shirvan & Talebzadeh, 2020) and the importance of robust attractors states, the system state that changes generating patterns (Hiver, 2014) that construct signature dynamics of motivation development (Chan et al., 2014). Although RQM has been applied to illuminate dynamic states of language learning motivation with various variables and bring about fruitful endeavours, little is known as to how the RQM works from the perspective of dynamic system theories in L2 reading contexts. By applying RQM, this study seeks to understand:

1. What salient motivational system components exist in the students' reading experience?

2. How do the students' motivational systems change throughout the task performance in the Extensive Reading Programs (ERP)?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Dynamic System Theory (DST) in Language Acquisition

DST was formerly developed from various fields of science (Herdina & Jessner, 2002) and was once known as the complex linear systems which have the characteristics of being dynamic, complex, chaotic, nonlinear, unpredictable, sensitive, open, self-organizing, feedback-sensitive, and adaptive. It is also believed that those characteristics are present in language acquisition (Larsen-Freeman, 1997). DST posits that changes involve interacting components that are rich and therefore complex. The dynamic systems approach allows deeper exploration and a more comprehensive investigation of language growth and change and how such a mechanism of change applies to an individual learner (van Geert, 2008).

From the point of view of DST, language is seen as a constellation of dynamic systems, and language acquisition is considered a dynamic process (de Bot, 2008). The exact dynamic nature is also true for motivation, which is viewed as spontaneously changing over time, space, and other conditions (Larsen-Freeman, 2015). The fluctuation of motivation can be detected and measured using think-aloud protocols (Yanguas, 2011), per-second timescale (MacIntyre & Serroul, 2001), or varied interacting timescales such as days, weeks, months, years, a semester, or even one session of a class meeting (de Bot, 2014). Investigations on motivational fluctuations were also conducted in varied contexts with specific variables such as interests and self-regulated learning (Mynard & McLoughlin, 2020), communicative tasks of economics and management students (Guo et al., 2020), and the dynamics of reading development of chemistry students (Gui et al., 2021). As referred to motivational currents, such fluctuations of motivation could be investigated using RQM, which Dörnyei outlines as scientific research strategies to trace back why a dynamic system pattern results in a particular outcome (Dörnyei, 2014).

Under a dynamic systems framework, properties that initiate motivational currents are crucial to be explored. Moreover, this area of research has not been sufficiently elaborated (Muir & Dörnyei, 2013). A study on the dynamic trajectories and correlation of a Chinese EFL listening strategies and listening performance revealed that nonlinear developmental patterns were salient and new phases of learning were characterized by variability and fluctuations (Dong, 2016). Another study using the idiodynamic method (the process of rating and explaining fluctuations of affective reactions) in search of motivation during L2 task performance found that motivation is closely related to tasks (MacIntyre & Serroul, 2001). Similar studies of language motivation dynamics were carried out and the findings highlight that second language learners experience motivational changes, variability, stability, and fluctuations over time due to compulsory courses (Irie & Ryan, 2014), differences at the beginning of class (Nitta, 2013), teachers' and peer's motivational needs (Kikuchi, 2019), and repeated use of tasks related to students' interests (Yamaoka, 2019). A more recent study reveals that negative emotions, interests, and a sense of achievement are to mention a few factors affecting students' DMC (Başöz & Gümüş, 2022). Such research scrutinizing a topic under the dynamic systems theory, particularly in L2 contexts, is still developing, and no methodological template is yet available. To fill the void, a retrodictive qualitative modelling strategy is proposed (Dörnyei, 2014), and therefore more studies are needed to add more empirical evidence.

2.2 Dörnyei's Motivational Currents and L2 Motivational Self-System (L2MSS)

DMC can be defined as an intense motivational drive which is capable of both stimulating and supporting long-term behaviour, such as learning a foreign/second language (L2) (Dörnyei, 1998). It is referred to as a series of task engagements that leads individuals to become more valued or significant. DMC includes three characteristics – vision-orientedness, a salient facilitative structure, and positive emotionality (Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2015). Vision means other imagined realities to the recent experiences in which learners may want to become multilingual, encouraging them to have positive attitudes toward multilingualism. They may also envision themselves as getting involved in social interactions with the target language speakers. The structure of DMC includes recurring behaviour that is aimed at achieving a goal, regular progress checking, and noticeable start and end. Positive emotionality is the feeling of pleasure, satisfaction, and fulfilment that can generate energy to boost one to become closer to the goals he/she sets (Henry et al., 2015). Gearing on both language and psychology theories, the novel concept of DMC views each learner to have a self-constructing structure after being engaged in spaces with many fluxes (Ölmez, 2016).

Principally developed from Gardner's integrative motivation, L2MSS contains three elements: Ideal L2 Self, Ought-to L2 Self, and L2 Learning Experience (Dörnyei, 2005). Ideal L2 Self refers to a powerful propeller to learn an L2 to reduce the discrepancy between what is actual and ideal. The Ought-to-L2 Self is the quality or characteristics learners need to achieve learning goals and to minimize adverse outcomes (Dörnyei, 2009). The last component, learning experiences, relates to learners' external motives such as curriculum, teachers, and peer groups. In brief, motivation in language learning is not an instant state; it is a process involving varied factors such as environment and time, and a positive learning environment influences motivated behaviours in a positive way (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

3. METHOD

3.1 Research Design

The current study's design followed that of Yin (2003), in which each case was selected based on criteria to provide similar grounds and to allow a deeper understanding of the individual signature dynamics of motivation and detailed, unique case description. Following Dörnyei (2007), such as having positive attitudes toward reading, being willing to write task-to-task based diaries, and demonstrating noticeable motivation in the classes, nine students participated in this study. We discussed with the lecturers and asked for their recommendations for students who met the requirements. Nine students eventually agreed to become the research participants. Next, agreements were made, and consent forms were obtained.

3.2 Participants and Demographics

Nine bachelor students majoring in English language education and taking ERP voluntarily participated in this study. They experienced varied reading activities, but the main reading sources were similar (Graded Readers collection). They were required to read outside the class hours, based on their most convenient time and selected books. They were recruited based on several criteria: having averagely high motivation during classroom activities and being willing to write regular-basis diaries. With the classroom teacher, the researcher observed the students for two weeks and made a list of students who met the criteria. Those who were willing to become participants with the criteria and agreed with the consent forms were then selected. Their profiles are illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1. Participants' information.

Participants	Age (years old)	Gender (female/ male)	Approximate length of studying English (years)
ML	18	F	7
NH	19	M	13
EL	18	F	13
TH	18	F	7
AN	17	F	11
BL	18	F	11
TR	18	F	11
DS	18	F	14
CL	18	M	16

The participants' ages ranged from 17 to 19 years with two male and seven female students. Their average length of learning English varied between 7 years and 16 years. Those with 7 years of experience learning English mostly learned from their formal education (junior and senior high schools plus 1 year at university), while those learning English for more than 7 years attended English courses since they were in their elementary education or even younger from the age of 4 years old.

3.3 Data Collection Techniques

A set of data, including preliminary data (interviews with the lecturers), diary writing, and interviews with the students, were collected sequentially. The interviews were conducted following the RQM by asking why a component of the motivation system results in positive or negative outcomes. After each extensive reading class, the students were required to write diaries containing information on time, descriptions of tasks, activities, and motivation rates. The table-formatted diary was used to facilitate students to capture their reflections on the tasks that they did. While Hiver (2014) asked their participants to draw graphs that reflect their motivational trajectories, this study asked them to write a diary and rate their motivation from 1-10 on a scale (1 represents the lowest motivational state, 10 represents the highest motivational state). Following the timescale of de Bot (2014), one semester (6 months) was set to suit the university learning period.

3.4 Data Analysis Techniques

This study applied the Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA) proposed by Smith and Osborn (2008). The process includes initial case familiarization and initial comments, preliminary theme identification, theme interconnections, a systematic table of themes, and further case analysis. The diaries were annotated, and the interviews were transcribed verbatim. We tried to familiarize ourselves with the issues being addressed, which later enabled us to generate themes for foregrounding. We paid attention to specific terms or groups of lexis related to reading, reading activities, emotions, and motivations. Next, we did theoretical coding by connecting the emerging themes. These data-driven themes were written in the right column next to the transcription. After the theme generation, the categorization of themes was conducted by grouping similar theoretical grounded themes into one more prominent theme. Themes and sub-themes were arranged based on their prominence. The last step was translating the themes into a narrative account. Grounded on the IPA analysis, the personal accounts of each participant on their motivation in reading classes were explored. Narrative arguments were built, and evidence from the transcribed data was included. A series of interpretative activities was employed in a way that the participants' sense-making of motivation in reading classes and my making sense of their motivation were framed within the previous theoretical accounts and empirical evidence. The results of this study were shared and confirmed with the participants (member checking). The sample of annotated diaries is illustrated in Figure 1.

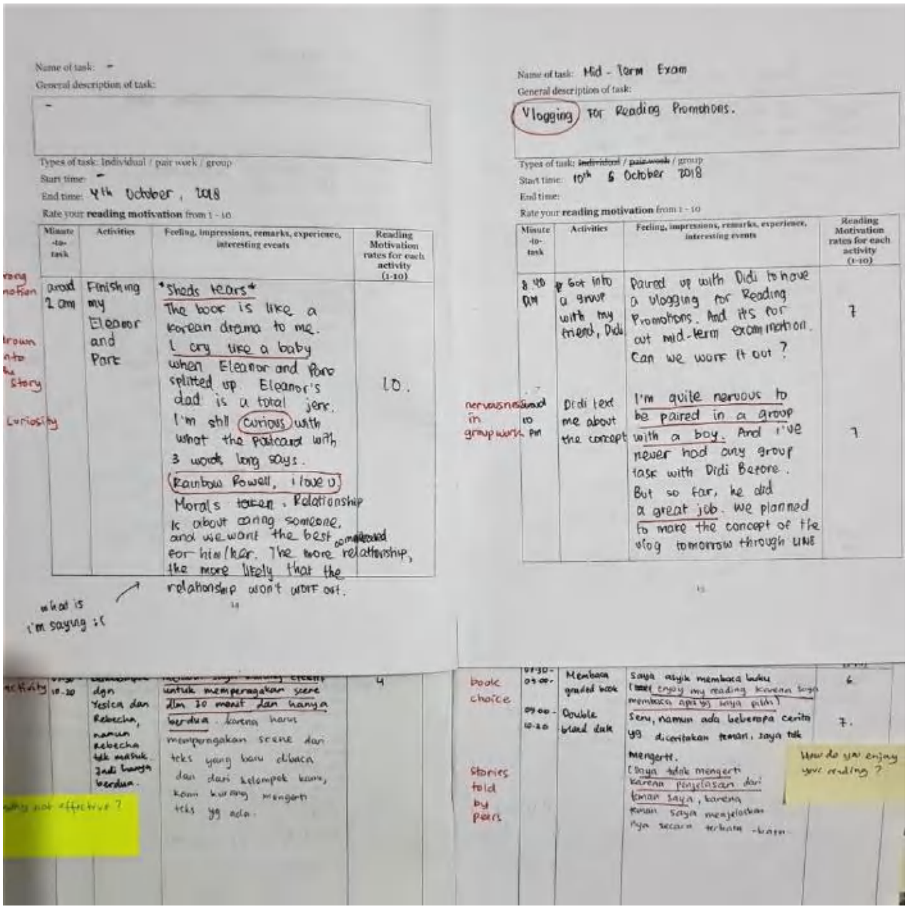

Figure 1. Samples of annotated diaries.

Figure 1 is a sample of a participant's diary annotation. The diary was read many times and annotated by assigning keywords or important points that the participant wrote. The points were written in red ink, highlighted, and circled. Then, sticky notes were also attached to initiate questions to be asked to the participants to get richer and deeper explanations. New and important information was added by the participants by writing them in the same diaries. The important points or issues became parts of codes that establish the themes of the research findings.

Meanwhile, the coding of interview transcripts and diary annotation are summarized in Table 2. The initial interview themes include reading goals, motivation changes, reading interest, reading habits, reading role models, reading identity, and imagined future identity. The initial diary themes cover motivating and demotivating reading tasks, reading goals, emotions/affects, reading autonomy, reading distraction-demotivator, reading interest-motivator, problems with group work, curiosity, and sustaining motivation to read.

Table 2. Initial interview and diary themes.

Initial interview themes	Initial diary themes
Reading goals Motivation changes Reading interest Reading habit Reading role model Reading identity Imagined future identity Reading motivation sustainability	Motivating & demotivating reading tasks Reading goals Emotions/affects Reading autonomy Reading distraction-demotivator Reading interest-motivator Problems with group work Curiosity Sustaining motivation to read

4. RESULTS

4.1 The Existence of Salient Motivational System Components in the Students' Reading Experience

Based on the participants' diary accounts and interview data, the participants' directed motivational features are summarized in Table 3.

Table 3. Participants' DMC features.

Students	Future goals	Facilitative structure	Positive emotionality
ML	a keen reader	Develop reading habit Speed up her reading	Dissatisfied but willing to improve
NH	an English student and educator	Autonomy Reading target	Happy
EL	an influencer and public figure	Regular reading	Enjoy reading
TH	a role model teacher and an English course owner	Regular, voluntary reading	Happy
AN	An influencer for reading	Regular, speed reading Self-motivated	Enjoy reading

Table 3 continued…

BL	A reading model and influencer	Reading and writing passion	Happy to have reading pals
TR	more open-minded person	Escapism	Satisfied
DS	a reading role model	Love to influence and share her reading with others	addicted reader insecure when not reading
CL	Read more	regular reading from application	curious entertained

The table scrutinizes the significant current reading goals, future goals, facilitative structures, and positive emotionality. Although all participants share similar main features of motivation, they reflect different varied facilitative structures, reveal several unique meanings of reading, and indicate their future identities. The facilitative structure indicated by the participants is beliefs of reading (ML, NH), constructed reading habits (ML, EL, TH, AN, BL), and self-regulation (all participants). Nine participants indicated positive emotionality when reading with varied ranges and intensities, such as joy, happiness, satisfaction, and addiction.

Meanwhile, reading has been perceived differently by some participants. TR revealed that reading is her escape from any trouble that she finds, and BL affirmed that reading and writing are her passions as she realized that reading is needed for writing. Reading expands one's perspectives (NH), helps people understand the world (BL), and makes someone grow (TR). All nine students affirmed that being a keen reader, an educator, an influencer, and a role model teacher could be obtained in varied ways, one of which is through reading.

4.2 The Change of Students' Motivational Systems throughout the Task Performance in Extensive Reading Program

Referring to the students' diary accounts, nine motivation trajectories were identified. Each student experiences motivational currents with various attractor states, signified as cognitive, affective, and behavioural factors. In this study, the number of books that the students read was different from what students read based on their phases, choice of books, needs, and levels. Each student had different reading time, engagement, affective fluctuations, and varied environments, as seen in Figure 2.

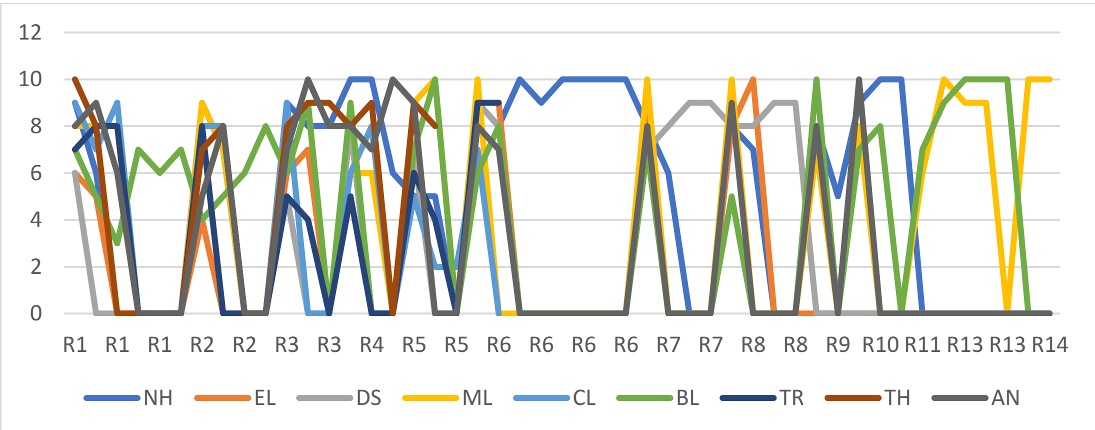

Figure 2. Nine students' motivation trajectories.

The horizontal axes represent the reading activities, while the vertical axes are the motivation rates the students assign to each activity using a scale of 1-10. In the motivational trajectory charts, reading activities include book readings or follow-up reading activities such as book reviews, retelling stories, and book promotion. R1, for instance, represents the first reading activity and so forth. The four participants' motivation trajectory is illustrated in Figure 2, while the summary of the participants' initial highest and lowest motivation is illustrated in Table 4. Briefly, there is no similar trajectory pattern except that motivational currents occur within unique patterns for each student. Many factors, such as the reading activities, the follow-up reading activities, the stories, or the reading environment, influence high and low motivation.

The nine student participants experienced different features of motivational system stability for their reading activities in the reading classes. TH, AN, BL, and ML's highest motivational currents were signified through their satisfaction with the 'uncommon' form of the reading course's final exam, such as poster and story making. Those tasks began with book reading, discussion with classmates, consultation with the lecturers, revising and editing, and publishing the tasks. Throughout this process, TH, AN, and ML rated their motivation 10/10. This array of initial attractor states has supported their motivational system behaviour to capture satisfaction. Their satisfaction may not directly relate to the reading activity per se. However, the published tasks have become their manifestation of intensive reading engagement, a state of emotional appraisal, and a proud self as readers.

EL found her domain of interest highly activated when she had a friendship visit to another university aimed to share the joy of reading together with numerous engaging reading activities in groups and to listen to a reading enthusiast's experience. She rated these activities 9/10. She expressed her feeling in her diary account:

(1) It was motivating and I was encouraged to keep on reading after listening to a guest speaker and her reading experiences. Together with new friends, reading and playing games... It was super fun! (EL)

In comparison, NH found their reading pleasure in the genre (poetic books and horror stories, respectively) and rated his motivation high when deeply engaged in reading. His motivation to read tended to be steady as he loved to continue reading until the last page. As such, their stability has brought him to the attractor basin as he stayed within for a while with the sustained motivational system. This is his diary account:

(2) I choose this book... it's a story about spies and I love it. I really dig into this story... I'm still curious about the stuff (stories) that I might miss... I read the exact same book from the last meeting because I haven't finished it. There's something different about the vibe... the phase of reading something "poetic". It's really enjoyable and makes me down in it. (NH)

When deep engagement and domain of interest met, an intensely emotional force emerged. ML's highest satisfaction was the number of words in books she had read (approximately 50,000 words) and the poster about the book she and her group read. This reading experience, rated 10/10, had become ML's second attractor state which turned out to be the attractor basin. Her motivational system was significantly supported by her fascination with the Wattpad application, where she could also read good books in Indonesian. She wrote in her diary:

(3) I found a good book on Wattpad, but it is in Indonesian. In one week, I finished reading 4 books. I've been reading Indonesian books on Wattpad because they're free, and I got bored with English books on Wattpad because the stories tend to be cliché. (ML)

In addition, TR has two signature dynamics of reading (when she found the Wattpad application and when she has to read outdoors), the two things she enjoys much and repeatedly does. These activities are indicated as her plausible attractor states. In brief, varied reading activities serve as the attractor basins of students' motivation—activities rich with social and cultural interaction, personal interest in book genre, reading application, environment, and unique, tangible outcome-based tasks. Those factors have maintained them in their attractor basins for some time as they are in a steady circumstance to read and enjoy their reading.

Motivational currents in reading experiences are sometimes indicated by negative attitudes that may lead to demotivation of reading activity. In this study, negative occurrences directly or indirectly affected students to stop reading. The primary cause was the mood and the book features, such as too much new information (NH, AN) and books chosen by other people (TH, NH, ML). Other factors were unfavourable reading environments, such as noisy surroundings and disruptive situations (NH), mood-related factors (EL), and follow-up activities, such as questions, tests, or games after reading (CL, TR). When significantly ignored, these demotivators may lead to negative behaviours in learning and, in the long term, could affect students' academic performance. Therefore, in implementing extensive reading classes, reading choice, topics, inconvenient reading environment, monotonous reading activities in the classroom, and types of follow-ups reading activities should be well considered because they can potentially demotivate students to continue reading. In this case, understanding the sources of demotivation could help explain why students experience motivation currents and raise teachers' awareness when giving assignments or conducting activities in extensive reading classrooms.

5. DISCUSSION

Built on the goal-setting theory viewing that the result of any activities leading towards goal achievement, DMC serves as "a source of affirmative feedback". The flow of experiences that can range from short-term or single tasks, for instance, can train learners to have engagement, high interests, and goal-oriented actions during learning (Dörnyei, 1998). Goal-orientedness is built on a series of goal-related components (goal, target, and outcome) which generate motivational energy channelling learners' behaviours and eventually result in activities supporting the goal achievement. Learners in the DMC state includes their ideal L2 self as part of their identity and would envision themselves as being engaged in the target language interaction (Henry et al., 2015). In reading contexts, learners are engaged in reading L2 with the expectation that they can read and understand the messages as to how the authors expect the readers to be. As learners set up their goals and the motivational energy is started up, their activities and behaviours reflect whether they are going towards goal achievement or defying them.

The salient facilitative structure features are indicated by the recurring behaviours when students regularly read independently, not because of the tasks. They even experience the intensity and depth of engagement in their reading activities. In addition, this study also indicates that reading beliefs, habits, and regulations also play roles in facilitating students to maintain their motivation. According to Henry et al. (2015), the facilitative structure, which functions as the route map that directs learners towards goal accomplishment, could be identified through three elements—recurring behaviour, regular progress checks, and discernible start/end (Henry et al., 2015). Recurring reading behaviours can be referred to as reading habits, while motivation is the self-concept of readers (McGeown et al., 2015). In addition, beliefs link up the desired state of affairs with actions in the agent's repertoire (Friedrich, 2014). With the evidence of students having self-regulation, recurring behaviours, intensity, and depth of engagement in their reading, they have the facilitative structure constructed in their motivational systems.

The existence of emotion (affect) in learning can lead students toward goal achievement. Such positive emotionality refers to the enjoyment felt by learners when they do relevant activities leading to goal accomplishment (Kipp et al., 2011). There is the feeling of satisfaction, pleasure, fulfilment, rightness, centeredness, and self-propelling (Henry et al., 2015). This feeling or emotion in language learning is generally known as the affective domain that includes individuals' interests, attitudes, moral and ethical values, and social skills (Crompton & Sellar, 1981). Therefore, these emotions are crucial to building a good learning environment. They also serve as the result of effective pedagogical implementation that is useful for students to become more aware of the environment of education (Reis & Roth, 2009). In addition, varied emotional experiences (positive and negative) could lead to a diverse learning outcome. They commonly fall into the category of either outcome or predictors. However, learners are typically experiencing both emotions during a period of learning. Therefore, it is essential to know the fluctuation of those emotions in relation to the span of time and regard it not as static (Sansone & Thoman, 2005). Although positive and negative emotions interplay during learning, they indicate how the students will complete the whole learning session. Students' positive emotions are likely to facilitate students' learning and ultimately expand their perspectives (MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012). This proposition is in line with Henry et al. (2015) in that positive emotions can be a source of enormous energy that students can use to achieve their goals. The emotional experiences during their learning have thus far strengthened their facilitative structure and help stay focused on achieving their goals. The three DMC features, reflected in their motivational currents, have helped students construct their L2 selves (Ölmez, 2016). As Shirvan and Talebzadeh (2020) propose that students' enjoyment and anxiety could be influenced by personal goals, teachers, and unpleasant learning experiences, this study similarly reveals that some of the student participants' sources of inconvenient learning experiences (negative emotions) are information-condensed books, books chosen by peers, noisy surroundings, and mood factors. Bearing this in mind, emotional currents during one's learning environment play roles in the goal achievement process and when not well-stimulated and managed could bring unexpected learning results in the long term.

Concerning motivation, students' enjoyment of their task performance can be categorized as positive intrinsic motivation and likely to share positive vibes with other tasks, whereas outcome-related emotions are indicated to affect extrinsic task motivation. Hope and anticipatory joy can positively affect total motivation (Pekrun, 1992). Positive emotions, more importantly, are indicated to strongly relate to motivation-related variables in Second Language Acquisition, such as Gardner's integrative orientations and Dörnyei's L2MSS (Macintyre & Vincze, 2017). More interestingly, Zarrinabadi and Khodarahmi (2021) recently disclosed that others' goals, emotions, and even environmental changes could influence one's emotions and perceptions of self. In short, students' emotionality seems volatile as external factors may influence it. Therefore, positive emotionality, as indicated in the DMC, supplies positive energy to learners to pursue their goals. With the positive emotions existing in one task, it is highly possible that other tasks are positively influenced.

The findings of this study indicate the connectedness of reading, identities, and imagined future L2 self. As Henry (2019) affirms that DMC is the extension of Dörnyei's L2MSS and theory of vision (Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2013), and it relates to the development of identity-based conceptualization of L2 motivation and provides a template for understanding motivation that endures over time. Gee (2008) links reading and identities through the sociocultural perspective in that discourse in reading involves a social role such as identity and practices. It is through the process of adoption or resistance of texts that the social identity of a reader is constructed. When put into practice, identities are demonstrated through negotiation and identification, which enable readers to interact, understand, and share with others (Wenger, 2010). The participants' imagined Ideal L2 self of being a keen reader, an influencer, and a role model teacher strongly indicate the social roles of identity practices in which they share stories, interact, and even influence other people. Hence, these students' future imagined selves are inspired by a desired future and self-regulation (Ryan, 2009; Taguchi et al., 2018). In addition, the Ideal L2 self is the result of their passion, dreams, and values (Boyatzis & Akrivou, 2006). L2 learners who have a future vision through persistence and perseverance in acquiring language may develop a high commitment to the learning processes (Henry, 2019). As the motivation theories have affirmed, the imagined L2 self and future goals can become the reasons why people do something, how long they can sustain their choices, and how they make efforts to achieve the goals. The salient Ought-to-L2 Self is indicated by significant others, for instance, DS and ML, who feel that without reading, they will be left behind, and BL and NH, who need to understand the world and expand their perspectives, indicate the social expectation element.

In this study, the motivational currents of the students were identified to follow cyclic patterns (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008) in that several attractor states are present, and the system can move from one state to the other depending on the tasks. Motivation fluctuates like waves – which analogically is easily visible, has surface variability, and changes from one time to time (MacIntyre, 2012) and how much it swings depends on the tasks, the mood, and the occurrences before and after the tasks (Henry, 2014). Further, Ushioda (1996) affirms that learning behaviour could markedly swing over a shorter timescale, such as a lesson. Such a dramatic fluctuation also occurs in this study as experienced by BL. Her first book-reading motivation fluctuated from rate 7, 5, 3, 7, 6, 7. This was due to the task-related reading that was drawing (students were required to draw pictures that represented an interesting part of a book they were reading). In line with this, Gregersen and MacIntyre (2015) affirm that the variability of attractor states causing motivation and demotivation are interconnected and are continuously changing. The motivation dynamics, therefore, are constructed by variables that have two potentials for being positive and negative. The result tends to be positive when the state before and after a reading activity is supportive. However, this state is unstable as it keeps changing along with the previous, current, and following states. These states make the students' motivational trajectories unique, context-bound, and keep changing.

6. CONCLUSION

This study has confirmed the features of Dörnyei's DMC of students' L2 motivation in ERP. Although those nine participants had different reading experiences, they shared similar motivational systems which are unique and context-bound. The revelation of future imagined L2 identity as readers driven by their motivational currents needs to be continually envisioned during learning. Teachers' support, provide feedback, and design challenging and motivating reading activities (Khajavy et al., 2016). Reading materials, that cater to a target community's diverse interests and cultural issues (Peng, 2015), may be a good alternative. Alternatively, students can bring their favourite books and share them with their peers. Teachers can motivate students to develop their intrinsic motivation (Schiefele et al., 2012). These future-imagined identities relate to the concept of future L2 Self Image in Dörnyei's L2MSS. This future imagined L2 identity, in essence, could be enacted by orchestrating reading experiences that involve students in developing future lively images.

Identifying the sources of motivation and demotivation in reading is also helpful in projecting and designing engaging, motivating reading activities to help students maintain their motivation throughout their learning processes. Motivation trajectories in this EFL reading context tend to be cyclical because of the nature of reading properties – book choices, contents, reading environments, and tasks. Under dynamic systems, those natures play pivotal roles and make the changes even more fluctuated yet somewhat predictable. In the case where students have similar preconditioned reading properties, they are likely to maintain their motivation throughout the reading process.

Further studies may include the details of reading activities that can help learners sustain motivation to read and construct their future identities as sustaining readers. The use of RQM to investigate motivation under the dynamic system theory remains wide open as empirical studies are still rare. While this study has opted for homogeneous samples of students with high motivation, future studies can involve more varied student backgrounds, different reading experiences, measurements for motivational currents, and experiments in classrooms or reading communities to address generalizability issues.

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Indonesian EFL Students' Anxiety Factors and Solutions for Listening Comprehension: Multiple Case Study

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Abstract

Students' anxiousness affects the EFL listening process. Listening anxiety is also an aspect that may impact a foreign language student's success or failure in listening comprehension. Therefore, this study aimed to ascertain the factors that lead to students' listening anxiety and the strategies lecturers use to alleviate it. Multiple qualitative case study was the method used in the study. Twenty-one undergraduate students enrolled in a listening class and three lecturers, from three universities in Palembang, Indonesia, participated in this study. Data collection methods included interviews and observation. The results of thematic analysis of qualitative data revealed four factors contributed to students' anxiety when listening: 1) lack of listening skills; 2) lack of attention; 3) mood; and 4) classroom environment. Meanwhile, the lecturers were committed to implementing strategies that alleviate students' listening anxiety. These strategies included: 1) preparing students for listening activities, 2)

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exposing them to a variety of authentic listening materials, and 3) improving the learning environment. The research findings imply that the lecturers who taught listening class have observed that each student experienced anxiety while listening due to specific factors. As a result, they have begun to devise suitable teaching strategies to foster a more enjoyable learning experience in listening classes, thereby enhancing student comfort and engagement.

Keywords: EFL students, listening anxiety, listening comprehension, teachers' listening strategy.

1. INTRODUCTION

Listening holds significant value not only in everyday situations but also within classroom environments. The common belief among individuals is that the ability to write and speak in a secondary language indicates language proficiency. Nevertheless, with proficient listening skills, effective communication is attainable (Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2016; Latupono & Nikijuluw, 2022). Listening occupies a significant position in the learning process, as it constitutes one of the four fundamental skills in language acquisition. While reading, speaking, and writing are undoubtedly crucial skills for developing language proficiency, it is widely acknowledged that listening plays a primary role in achieving language expertise. Listening stimulates an individual's consciousness of language, representing a receptive skill typically among the earliest to emerge during human development (He & Chen, 2017). Developing the skill of actively listening to the target language has been shown to enhance one's proficiency in that language.

Additionally, listening comprehension ability is the capacity to listen attentively, which is of utmost importance to comprehend and receive coherent feedback on verbal communication expressed by others. Listening comprehension holds great significance in the language classroom as it is a crucial input source for the learner. The initiation of learning is contingent upon the comprehension of input at an appropriate level (Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2016). The auditory stimulus is a driving force rather than a hindrance to engaging and acquiring knowledge (Ahmadi, 2016; Utomo et al., 2019). When studying a second or foreign language, it is vital to build listening comprehension (Alzamil, 2021). Students with solid listening comprehension will quickly grasp the information, knowledge, and concepts conveyed by the sources they listened to.

Due to the increased concentration and attention required to comprehend the information, listening was often regarded as the most difficult language skill for foreign language students in particular settings of the language classroom due to the sophisticated process (Alzamil, 2021). One of the affective factors that make it harder to listen is anxiety, which is commonly known to take students' focus away from the listening process (Liu, 2016). Thus, listening comprehension anxiety refers to the distress experienced when individuals engage in the act of comprehending a foreign language through auditory means (Liu, 2016; Wang & Cha, 2019).

There are many studies that focus on listening anxiety both at the secondary school level and at the tertiary level. Many scholars have researched the anxiety experienced by high school students in educational environments when listening to English as a foreign language (EFL). First, the study by Majunggi and Halim (2021) aimed to investigate listening anxiety among high school language learners, along with the underlying factors contributing to their anxieties regarding listening comprehension. Next, the study by Guswita and Sugirin (2021) aimed to investigate the factors contributing to listening anxiety in an English language classroom among high school students. Finally, the study conducted by Arslan (2017) examined the relationship between anxiety over listening and beliefs regarding academic self-efficacy. Based on the findings of these previous studies, it can be inferred that listening anxiety is prevalent among high school students. This anxiety is influenced by various aspects, such as classroom environments, personal characteristics, and textual features. The provided information holds significant relevance to the ongoing research on the factors that influence listening anxiety. Moreover, the aforementioned research has provided us with the insight that a notable constraint exists in the form of a lack of comprehensive investigation into the fundamental elements that contribute to students' listening anxiety. Ultimately, a dearth of data exists about the behavior of students who encounter anxiety during listening exercises, as well as the strategies utilized by teachers to effectively help anxious students within the classroom.

Numerous research investigations have been undertaken regarding foreign language anxiety among tertiary-level students, particularly those learning English as a foreign language (Dalman, 2016; Prastiyowati, 2019; Subekti, 2018; Sumalinog, 2018; Wang & Cha, 2019). First, Dalman (2016) conducted a study to examine the relationship between listening anxiety, listening strategies, and listening proficiency among Iranian EFL university students. Moreover, the study conducted by Wang and Cha (2019) aimed to investigate the effects of foreign language listening anxiety factors on the listening proficiency of low and high-proficient EFL listeners. According to Prastiyowati (2019), the heightened level of anxiety experienced by students can impede their language proficiency. Furthermore, Sumalinog (2018) investigated the anxiety levels of students, the factors contributing to the emergence of anxiety and the coping mechanisms students employed to manage their anxiety. Finally, Subekti (2018) conducted a study to explore Indonesian tertiary students' perspectives on the implications and determinants of foreign language anxiety. Based on the aforementioned research findings, it can be deduced that the focus of these investigations was on students at the tertiary level. Specifically, the studies aimed to examine the extent of listening anxiety among these students, its impact on their language proficiency, the underlying elements contributing to this anxiety, and the strategies employed by students to mitigate their anxious feelings. However, there has been a lack of study investigating particular strategies employed by lecturers to mitigate their students' anxiety in the context of listening comprehension.

Various scholars have also conducted studies that center on foreign language anxiety among students in English education departments. Iftanti and Prastyo (2021) described the various types of anxiety and their underlying causes experienced by fifth-semester EFL students during their listening classes in an English education department. Maulidiyah (2017) conducted a study to determine the degree of listening anxiety experienced by students in an English education department. Finally, Shawfani et al. (2020) discovered that students experienced anxiety due to personal factors, resulting in high anxiety levels during advanced listening classes.

The research studies previously mentioned focus on listening anxiety in EFL classes experienced by high school and university-level students. That research concentrated on exploring the level of listening anxiety, its effect on students' language performance, the factors that caused it, and students' strategies to overcome their anxiety.

Even though there was an investigation focusing on anxiety among students in English education departments during listening tasks, the research was conducted in advanced listening courses offered in the fifth semester (Subekti, 2018). Moreover, the previous research studies have not focused on what strategies have been applied by listening teachers or lecturers to overcome student anxiety in listening. To the best of our knowledge, there have been no scholarly investigations into listening anxiety among novice students enrolled in introductory listening courses in an English education department. Thus, the researchers were interested in conducting research that focused on two research questions:

1. What factors contribute to listening anxiety among English Department undergraduate students enrolled in the introductory listening class?
2. What strategies do the lecturers use to alleviate the listening anxiety among their students in the introductory listening class of the English Education Department?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

In this section, the researchers elaborate on some reviews of research studies related to the three aspects: 1) EFL listening anxiety, 2) causes of EFL listening anxiety, and 3) reducing students' listening anxiety.

2.1 EFL Listening Anxiety

According to Brunfaut and Revesz (2015), several factors related to the attributes of the listening task and the listener have been proven to be determinants of listening complexity. Several factors related to listening tasks have been examined in the research, including input variables, task procedures, cognitive factors, and affective factors such as anxiety.

Anxiety is a critical element affecting language learning. Oteir and Al-Otaibi (2019) mentioned that anxiety is a crucial emotional filter determining both language acquisition success and failure. Anxious students exhibit emotional responses such as academic stress, defensiveness, or impoliteness. It seems to be prone to play an inactive part in class events. As a result, these students cannot employ appropriate learning strategies (Mazo, 2015). Listening anxiety is a significant learner variable influencing language acquisition. However, despite its importance, Serraj (2015) considered listening anxiety among the most under-recognized types of anxiety.

Oteir and Al-Otaibi (2019) classified anxiety into two categories based on its severity; facilitating (mild anxiety) and debilitating (high anxiety). Students who experience low anxiety (facilitating anxiety) will be more attentive, apply information and tactics, and comprehend effectively in listening class. Conversely, students experiencing high levels of anxiety (debilitating anxiety) may encounter challenges in maintaining focus, comprehending auditory information, and interpreting the material presented by speakers. However, if students' anxiety levels are too low, they will also experience negative consequences. This will cause people to lose focus while listening (Avci, 2017). Thus, the anxiety level of each student will have a varied influence on their listening performance.

2.2 Causes of EFL Listening Anxiety

Many studies have been undertaken to establish the causes of EFL students' fear of listening comprehension (Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2016; Guswita & Sugirin, 2021; Oteir & Al-Otaibi, 2019; Serraj, 2015). To begin with, most teachers continue teaching in the conventional classroom setting. Teachers must be aware of their students' current state in class to give them relevant listening content. Teachers must also understand how to educate and motivate students to learn (Pan, 2016). Besides, students' lack of experience with listening activities and a deficiency in the English language contribute significantly to their worry over listening comprehension (Guswita & Sugirin, 2021; Serraj, 2015). Additionally, the speaker's pace, lack of clarity, the quality of the listening audio, and lack of visualization could enhance students' listening anxiety (Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2016; Oteir & Al-Otaibi, 2019).

Additionally, it was discovered that the textual features, personal factors, and process-related aspects were the primary sources of listening comprehension anxiety. (Pan, 2016; Wang & Cha, 2019). According to Pan's (2016) findings, personal factors significantly impact the levels of listening anxiety experienced by students. Firstly, students with lower levels of listening comprehension are associated with higher anxiety levels. Secondly, the level of self-efficacy is a determining factor in both the degree of emergency experienced and the individual's response to anxiety. Thirdly, the student learning habit is a significant factor. A significant number of individuals who are acquiring a new language exhibit limited enthusiasm toward the act of listening. They infrequently engage in listening exercises outside of the classroom setting and require additional incentives within the instructional environment, which impedes their ability to improve their listening proficiency. The motivation for students' achievement plays a crucial role in their experience of listening anxiety.

Another study found that most students felt nervous because they frequently lost focus when the spoken material was excessively long (Otair & Aziz, 2017). Finally, another issue that contributes to students' concern about listening is time constraints. Students may experience anxiety due to the limited time allotted to answer all listening questions, as they must answer all questions within this time constraint (Guswita & Sugirin, 2021).

2.3 Reducing Students' Listening Anxiety

English language instructors can implement various strategies to alleviate listening anxiety among students. One approach, among others, involves enhancing students' engagement in the learning process. The instructional content must be conveyed through a pedagogical approach that fosters an optimal learning environment, engendering heightened student engagement and participation during classroom discourse. Furthermore, it is vital to acknowledge the significance of providing unconditional positive regard toward students' potential to enhance their foreign language listening proficiency. By assigning a positive value to students' efforts to enhance their listening skills, it is anticipated that a favorable learning environment will be established, increasing students' self-efficacy and reducing their anxiety (Avci, 2017).

Meanwhile, Pan (2016) suggested ways to reduce students' listening anxiety; by overcoming listeners' psychological barriers, choosing proper listening material, and creating a vibrant atmosphere in EFL classes to cultivate learners' listening strategies (Pan, 2016). According to Oteir and Al-Otaibi (2019), students' listening strategies should be activated. The first aspect pertains to metacognition, encompassing the cognitive learning processes' planning, management, and regulation. Cognitive strategies refer to problem-solving approaches that learners utilize to manipulate their learning tasks and expedite skill acquisition. The social-affective strategies pertain to the techniques listeners utilize to collaborate with their peers, intending to reduce their anxiety levels and confirm their comprehension.

3. METHODS

The qualitative method was used to understand the causes of listening comprehension anxiety and lecturers' strategies in helping students with their listening anxiety. Qualitative research extracts information about individuals' emotions, perceptions, and beliefs (Creswell & Poth, 2018). In the meanwhile, this study used a multiple-case study approach. A *multiple case study* is case study research that uses many issues or cases in one study. Through these multiple case studies, researchers can provide access or broad opportunities to examine the cases under study in depth, detail, and intensively and comprehensively (Cohen et al., 2018; Creswell & Poth, 2018; Hennink et al., 2020; Leavy, 2017). The primary reason for doing a multiple qualitative case study was because it is an ideal approach for examining instructors' and students' daily behavior in the classroom and describing the phenomena that occur to teachers during the teaching and learning process.

3.1 Participants

This study was carried out at three English education departments at three universities in Palembang, Indonesia. By having an access three different context studies, the data could represent more comprehensive point of view. This investigation employed a purposive sampling technique and a convenience case strategy. Convenience studies depict locations, or person researchers may conveniently reach and gather data from (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The research settings and participants were chosen because they were easily accessed to conduct the research and collect the data.

Lecturers as interview participants were selected based on the following criteria; 1) the lecturer is a permanent lecturer, 2) the lecturer teaches listening to first-year students in an English education department, and 3) the lecturer is willing to be observed in their class. Three experienced lecturers in teaching the listening class to first-year students in an English education department volunteered to participate.

Moreover, students as the interviewees were chosen from the English education departments of the three universities. The cohort consisted of first-year students. The students were enrolled in the introductory level of a listening course, commonly referred to as Basic Listening. Because the course is at the introductory level, the students exhibit a comparatively limited level of proficiency. They still need to utilize the necessary skills to comprehend spoken language.

The students were asked to complete the 20-item Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale (FLLAS) utilized by Liu and Xu (2021) to select the interview participants. The FLLAS was used to classify the students based on their listening anxiety levels. The FLLAS items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale, with options ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.” Each option was assigned a value of 1-5, respectively. The three levels of listening anxiety are as follows; low (with a score range of 20-46), medium (with a score of 47-83), and high (with a score of 84-100).

The majority of students exhibited a moderate anxiety level, as indicated by their responses to the FLLAS. The data from the first university revealed that out of 30 students, one had a low anxiety level, two had a high anxiety level, and the remaining 27 students had a medium anxiety level. Then, the data from the second university revealed that out of 30 students, one had a low anxiety level, one had a high anxiety level, and the remaining 28 students had a medium anxiety level. The data from the third university revealed that one student out of 29 had a low anxiety level, one had a high anxiety level, and the remaining 27 had a medium anxiety level. Thus, 21 students, consisting of three with low anxiety, 15 with moderate anxiety, and three with high anxiety levels, were selected as interview participants. The selection of 21 interviewees was based on the fact that 20 to 50 participants are the optimal number of interviewees for obtaining in-depth information (Creswell & Poth, 2018).

All participants signed the consent form to ensure that the participant’s rights were protected. The choice to participate in this study was made solely voluntarily. The participants’ identities were anonymized through the use of aliases in order to safeguard their confidentiality (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Hennink et al., 2020). We utilized L1, L2 and L3 (for the lecturers). We also used SL1 to SL3 for low-anxiety students, SM1 to SM15 for moderate-anxiety students, and SH1 to SH3 for high-anxiety students.

3.2 Instruments

Interviews and observations were conducted to collect data. The interviews were semi-structured and one-on-one (Creswell & Poth, 2018). The interview was conducted with 21 students to investigate the factors contributing to students’ listening anxiety and with three lecturers from three universities who frequently teach listening to first-year students of the English education departments to explore their strategies to alleviate the factors that caused students’ listening anxiety. The interviews were conducted in person and recorded using a recording application from a smartphone.

Interview guidelines were used by the researchers in conducting the interviews for around thirty minutes. To explore the factors that cause students to become anxious in listening, the researchers asked some interview questions:

1) What were the emotions you experienced during listening classes?
2) Did you feel anxious every time you attended the listening class?
3) What specific circumstances elicited feelings of anxiety or relaxation in the context of listening class? and
4) What were the determinants that contributed to the feelings you were experiencing?

Additionally, to investigate the lecturers' strategies in alleviating their students' listening anxiety, the researchers asked some interview questions:

1) Did you know your students probably experienced anxiety during your listening class?
2) Did you plan your teaching activities by considering the anxious students?
3) What teaching strategies have you planned to reduce your students' listening anxiety?

Meanwhile, the observation was also conducted using observation guidelines to observe students' behavior exhibited during the listening process, how students interacted with their lecturers, and how they engaged with other students and to investigate the lecturers' methods for overcoming their students' anxiety throughout the listening process. The observation was in the form of non-participatory observation, that is the researcher performs observations without participating in the observed activity (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Hennink et al., 2020; Leavy, 2017; Miles et al., 2018).

3.3 Data Analysis

The qualitative data analysis was conducted using Thematic Analysis or Coding Analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2020; Creswell & Poth, 2018). At the outset, the researchers fully immersed themselves in the data obtained from the interviews and observations. The procedure of familiarizing oneself with the data encompassed a comprehensive examination of interview transcripts via iterative perusal and attentive auditory engagement with the recorded interviews. Familiarizing oneself with the data was also accomplished by scrutinizing observation fieldnotes and reviewing recorded videos that portrayed the listening activities of students. The researchers utilized note-taking to document significant findings while reviewing interview transcripts and observation videos.

Furthermore, the researchers proceeded to generate codes during the subsequent phase of their thematic analysis. The subsequent research stage entails methodically examining the amassed information executed via coding. Codes designate a particular data characteristic relevant to the study's aims. This study aims to examine the factors contributing to students' anxiety during listening activities and the strategies utilized by the lecturers to mitigate this anxiety.

Finally, the researchers performed a thematic analysis by organizing the codes into potential themes and consolidating all relevant coded data excerpts under the identified themes. The researchers thoroughly examined and generated a document for every determined theme.

4. RESULTS

4.1 Factors Contributing to Students' Listening Anxiety

Following an analysis of the data gathered through observation and interview, four themes that emphasized the factors that led to students' listening anxiety emerged; 1) lack of listening skills; 2) lack of attention; 3) mood; and 4) classroom environment. The themes were detailed as follows:

4.1.1 Lack of listening skills

From the interview results, the information was obtained that basically, the students with low, moderate and high anxiety levels would be very nervous if they could not answer a question in listening. Thus, one factor that causes students' nervousness is the lack of listening skills. According to the interview data, most students would be worried if they could not locate the answers to listening questions. For example, one of the students, SH3, confirmed that:

(1) I was apprehensive when I was required to listen to a lengthy listening text and then answer the question that the answer must be interpreted immediately. This was because I needed to familiarize myself with the meaning of every word in the spoken text. This made me uneasy, so my focus was disturbed, and I could not respond to the questions given. (SH3, personal communication, 2021)

Other students reported needing assistance to maintain concentration when responding to numerous questions related to a lengthy spoken text. One of the students, SM3 mentioned that:

(2) I quickly became worried when I was required to answer questions from lengthy spoken texts because I was required to concentrate on the complete text and to respond to specific questions related to the text. When I attempted to respond to the question, I instantly forgot the listening material I had just listened to. (SM3, personal communication, 2021)

In line with the information gathered during the interview, based on the observation findings, it was determined that all lecturers solely delivered listening through audio and asked students to answer listening questions individually. Then, the lecturers just checked the answer together with the students and introduced the students to new words linked to the listening material. However, the students still needed help answering questions from the lengthy spoken text.

4.1.2 Lack of attention

According to the interview data, most students with low, moderate and high anxiety level regularly became worried when listening due to losing attention throughout the listening tasks. They stated that they felt nervous when they lost their focus, particularly when they could not grasp the meaning of a certain word or sentence. For example, one of the students, SM5, stated,

(3) At times, I felt frightened when I lost focus. It occurred because I often interpreted the words as I listened to them one by one. It frequently left me perplexed by one or two unfamiliar terms. As a result, I lost my concentration and could not get the message completely. (SM5, personal communication, 2021)

Other students conveyed similar emotions, stating that they experienced anxiety when participating in listening activities, resulting in diminished attention and concentration. In keeping with the interview results, it was observed that many students did not appear to be paying attention to the spoken text delivered through audio. They were preoccupied with observing their friends' responses while the audio played. Furthermore, because the lecturer was not paying attention to them, they could copy the answers from other students.

4.1.3 Mood

Based on the interview data, it was discovered that mood could influence students' anxiety during the listening activities. One of the students, SL1, stated that she found it difficult to follow the listening class when she was not in a good mood. Additionally, she acknowledged that her negative mood might predispose her to anxiety. She explained in the interview:

(4) The first thing that might make me worried was my mood, particularly when I had a lot of ideas or a personal problem. Whenever I was in a bad mood, it naturally increased my worry and impaired my attention. (SL1, personal communication, 2021)

4.1.4 Classroom environment

According to the observations and interviews, it was discovered that classroom conditions such as noise and uncomfortable temperature might cause certain students to become anxious. According to the interview data, several students were likely to suffer anxiety when there was a disturbance within or outside the classroom. They found it difficult to concentrate on the native speaker tones in the audio. For instance, one of the students, SM9, stated:

(5) Noisy classroom settings, whether within or outside of the classroom, might make me anxious. It was tough for me to focus on and grasp what the native speakers were saying in the audio. (SM9, personal communication, 2021)

Meanwhile, two other students, SL2 and SH2, expressed similar sentiments that a number of students may experience anxiety in the event of a disruption occurring either within or outside of the classroom.

Additionally, it was shown that the majority of students were prone to anxiety when the temperature in the classroom was high. It made them difficult to concentrate. As a result, it was difficult for them to learn the material. SM1, one of the students, stated in the interview:

(6) For me, the classroom environment significantly affected my anxiousness. For instance, when the room was hot, it made it difficult for me to concentrate. As a result, I was likely to experience anxiety due to my lack of attention and inability to grasp the information. (SM1, personal communication, 2021)

Meanwhile, the other students with low, moderate and high anxiety levels expressed a similar point that majority of students exhibited susceptibility to anxiety in instances where the classroom temperature exceeded optimal levels.

Furthermore, the result of the data analysis show that the students found it difficult to listen if their seating location was in the corner of the room or distant from the loudspeaker. This circumstance would make them feel nervous. For instance, one of the students mentioned:

(7) The thing that made me uneasy in listening was when I sat in the corner of the room that was distant from the loudspeaker. (SM6, personal communication, 2021)

Meanwhile, other students with low, moderate and high anxiety level notably also expressed the same feeling that they experienced difficulty in listening when they sat at a considerable distance from the loudspeaker.

Likewise, the observational data show that the students who sat in the corner displayed nervous reactions, such as having pale faces and shifting their seating posture. Moreover, the observational data reveal that while the class was not particularly chaotic while the audio was being played, certain students frequently had nervous behaviors, such as altering their seating position, which was extremely disruptive to other students' focus. This also occurred when the lecturer requested that they had to complete the listening task. Additionally, it was discovered that another noisy situation originated outside the classroom. It occurred due to some students passing by the class while chatting or laughing loudly. It annoyed some students who were focusing on their listening to the spoken text delivered from the audio. Finally, it was discovered that the room was extremely hot, which occurred when the light was turned off. This extreme heat may impair students' ability to concentrate.

4.2 Strategies Used by the Lecturers to Alleviate Students' Listening Anxiety in Listening Activities

4.2.1 Preparing students for listening activities

According to the data acquired from interviews with the lecturers, they claimed that before students listened to the audio, the lecturers prepared them for the listening task to lower their anxiety, using three techniques. The lecturers began the class by introducing the students to basic vocabulary and language aspects related to the listening material. The lecturers then engaged the students in a discussion about the vocabulary related to the listening content. Finally, the lecturers conducted a session for questions and answers. Those three techniques were used to prepare the students to listen to the audio content. It is believed that by acquiring many vocabulary items, the students could understand the meaning of the words used by the speakers and reduce their nervousness during the listening.

Based on the observation, the lecturers provided their students with keywords or terminologies linked to what they would hear in the listening material. In the interview, the lecturers confirmed that they could understand the listening material more efficiently by providing their students with the target vocabulary. Additionally, it may assist their students in becoming comfortable with the vocabulary used in the listening material and may indirectly alleviate their listening anxiety. For instance, one of the lecturers, L2, mentioned that:

(8) In order to alleviate students' nervousness when listening, I have attempted to help my students by identifying new terms and subjects in the listening material. Before the students listened to the audio associated with the listening material, I presented some vocabulary and keywords to help them activate their vocabulary and make it simpler to interpret the spoken language. (L2, personal communication, 2021)

Additionally, the interview revealed that the lecturers highlighted the vocabulary to boost students' motivation. Exploring basic terminology with the students may help them build their confidence and lessen their fear when responding to the listening questions. For instance, one of the lecturers, L1, explained:

(9) By addressing certain vocabulary associated with the listening content before the students listened to the audio, the students could answer all the listening questions properly. Students were able to focus on and understand the speakers' message. As a result, this aided students in overcoming their listening anxiety. (L1, personal communication, 2021)

4.2.2 Exposing students to a variety of authentic listening materials

According to the data gathered during the interview with the lecturers, they were aware of their students' listening discomfort. The observation found that the lecturers have assisted their students in overcoming their fear of listening. The lecturers provided additional learning materials in the form of authentic listening materials. In the interview session, the lecturers acknowledged that these authentic resources might assist students in getting used to listening to the pronunciation and accents of native speakers. It is predicted that once students have been accustomed to listening to native speakers' pronunciation and accent, they will be able to comprehend the message delivered by the speakers in the listening audio.

In the observation, it was found that the lecturers have employed a variety of authentic listening materials to assist their students in overcoming their listening anxiety while teaching listening skills. The lecturers provided the students with the listening material in their textbooks and occasionally included additional authentic online listening material. For instance, one of the lecturers, L3, stated:

(10) In order to assist students with their listening anxiety, I provided a variety of real listening materials so that they could quickly recognize the words or phrases. I usually used a video projector to address speakers' articulation and accents so that students could distinguish among the several varieties of accents typically used by native speakers. When they could readily comprehend the message conveyed by native speakers in the audio, it helped them alleviate some of the strain associated with listening. (L3, personal communication, 2021)

Meanwhile, other lecturers have expressed a comparable viewpoint that they have provided their students with a diverse range of authentic listening resources.

4.2.3 Improving the listening environment

According to the interviews with the lecturers, they believed that the comfort level in the classroom affected students' nervousness during the listening. Essentially, the lecturers have recognized that the best listening environment is completely insulated. Indeed, the university already operates a language institute with a soundproof room for conducting listening activities. However, due to limited time and shift availability, the majority of lecturers conducted listening learning activities in class. However, because the classroom is essentially not an ideal environment, they attempted to make it conducive to listening. For example, one of the lecturers, L2 confirmed:

(11) One of my difficulties in teaching listening is ensuring the room is conducive to learning. This is due to the limited language laboratory facility. When I did not have the opportunity to teach in a class with adequate facilities, I always tried to make the class atmosphere conducive to the listening process. This was done to keep the students' concentration from breaking and they did not get nervous due to the noise. (L2, personal communication, 2021)

According to observations, the lecturer would prepare the class for the listening process by arranging the chairs in rows and selecting the student's seating positions before starting the listening process. Additionally, the lecturer appropriately positions the audio listening location to ensure students can hear the audio clearly. However, unexpected obstacles, such as noises outside the classroom, could not always be completely avoided.

5. DISCUSSION

In this section the researchers discuss two main points based on the two research questions of the study. It covers factors contributing to students' listening anxiety and strategies used by the lecturers to alleviate students' listening anxiety in listening activities.

5.1 Factors Contributing to Students' Listening Anxiety

Teaching listening comprehension is a critical component of teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL). While listening is a receptive skill that entails processing the messages provided by what others say (Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2016), listening comprehension is the most challenging of the four language abilities for EFL learners. According to Sumalinog (2018), listening is a multifaceted cognitive activity involving receptive, productive, and interpretative cognition elements. This perspective on listening comprises accurately listening to spoken texts, assembling perceptually separate units of sound into words and sentences, and understanding the speaker's projected purpose. This situation can be explained by the fact that listeners must receive the message in a foreign language, decode it, and immediately comprehend it in a meaningful context. Consequently, it is not difficult to imagine them encountering various obstacles, such as grasping the dialogues' main ideas in context and thus suffering from anxiety. Dalman (2016) confirmed that the listening process often produces tension for learners because they need to engage in interpersonal and interpretative communication styles in which they must actively participate. As a result, students' anxiousness has impacted their listening comprehension.

One of the factors contributing to students' listening anxiety found in this study is a lack of listening skills. Most students indicated they were concerned when required to answer numerous questions quickly following a lengthy spoken text. This finding was consistent with Badrasawi et al. (2020), who discovered that many students experience anxiety and fear when unable to comprehend the spoken text.

Additionally, several research studies revealed that most students experienced anxiety when the spoken material was excessively long (Otair & Aziz, 2017; Wang & Cha, 2019). Indeed, it was discovered that lecturers presented students with language associated with the spoken text they heard. Still, the students do need the ability to respond to listening items. Hamada (2015) mentioned that five distinct steps had been identified for effectively responding to questions related to listening comprehension. First, students should scrutinize the images and language to identify pertinent information. Second, students should pay attention to significant expressions or statements. Third, students should deduce suitable responses based on the given context. Fourth, students should choose and make the appropriate response. Fifth, students should evaluate the questions that have not been addressed.

The other aspect that contributed to students' listening anxiety, as shown in this study, was that the majority of students had anxiety during the listening activities due to a loss of attention. Other studies revealed that most students were concerned because they frequently lost focus and could not retain focus when the spoken text was too lengthy (Otair & Aziz, 2017; Prastiyowati, 2019; Subekti, 2018). The majority of the students reported that they had unpleasant feelings due to their diverted attention throughout the listening process.

Additionally, this study revealed that mood might affect students' anxiousness during the listening process. The mood relates to the human emotions felt in specific situations. Mustafina et al. (2020) observed that negative emotions or low moods might deleteriously affect students' ability to study since they develop apathy toward the learning activity. As a result, it was shown that mood was the critical factor determining anxious sensations during the listening process.

The classroom setting also made learners uncomfortable while listening in this research. Sure, students felt anxious when there was noise inside or outside the classroom, as it interfered with their attention throughout the listening process. Additionally, a classroom with a high temperature was a cause of fear for students since it may divert someone's focus away from the audio. This finding corroborated those of other researchers who discovered that students frequently felt anxious as a result of their physical circumstances, such as an overly hot or cold room, an overly noisy room, a room with deficient oxygen, or a room that was too small and cramped, as well as improperly arranged seats and listening audio (Majunggi & Abdul Halim, 2021; Oteir & Al-Otaibi, 2019).

It can be inferred that although listening is a receptive skill, students admitted that they could become anxious when they have to follow the stages of listening activities. To summarize, the factors that cause anxiety are personal factors of the students, such as loss of attention, mood, and lack of listening skills. In addition, other contributing factors can be their teachers, the way they teach, and the listening environment. Listening teachers are expected to be aware of these factors to be able to plan listening lessons better.

5.2 Strategies Used by the Lecturers to Alleviate Students' Listening Anxiety in Listening Activities

It was discovered that one technique the lecturers used to relieve students' anxiety about listening was to prepare them for listening tasks. According to Avci (2017), teachers focusing on listening skills should prepare to deliver instructional content using a pedagogical approach to promoting an ideal learning environment. This approach should encourage increased student engagement and participation during classroom discussions. By providing students with adequate preparation for listening tasks, they are likely to experience an increase in confidence, reducing listening-related anxiety. The significance of adequately preparing students for listening tasks is consistent with dos Santos et al. (2018) findings, which contended that educators must foster students' confidence in their listening abilities to equip them for forthcoming listening tasks.

Furthermore, the lecturer also used the method of exposing students to a variety of authentic listening resources. Gilakjani and Sabouri (2016) asserted that listening tasks should be adjusted to meet the needs of individual students, and lecturers should use authentic listening materials that assist students in interpreting native speakers' utterances. As a result, incorporating a variety of additional references can assist students in developing their listening skills and overcoming their listening anxiety. Indeed, according to Dalman (2016), listening material serves as the foundation of a teacher's pedagogy and plays a crucial role in fostering students' learning engagement while reducing their anxiety levels. The use of suitable listening materials can significantly reduce learners' apprehension and anxiety while simultaneously fostering a sense of confidence in their learning abilities.

Finally, one strategy used by the lecturers to alleviate the anxiety of their students was to condition the listening environment effectively, notably by teaching in a language laboratory. However, if it was unavailable, the lecturers tried to condition the audio so all students could hear it well. It follows what was found by Pan (2016), who discovered that students felt anxious when the voice quality was low, resulting in the sounds being misheard, where the quality of the audio system may affect the comprehension of students in listening (Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2016). Further, conditioning the seating arrangement and minimizing noises that interfere with the listening process by conditioning the listening atmosphere properly are expected to make students able to concentrate on the listening process because, as Saba and Noreen (2020) claimed, one factor affecting students' listening comprehension is their inability to concentrate.

Thus, English language teachers can employ diverse teaching strategies to mitigate listening anxiety among their students. One strategy, among others, entails augmenting students' involvement in the listening process. The listening material should be delivered using strategies that increase student involvement and contribution during in-class discussions.

6. CONCLUSION

According to the research findings, four factors are associated with students' listening anxiety: 1) a lack of listening skills, 2) lack of attention, 3) mood, and 4) classroom setting. This study's findings also revealed that lecturers were devoted to applying strategies to reduce students' listening anxiety as follows: 1) preparing students for listening activities; 2) providing students with a choice of authentic listening resources; and 3) enhancing the learning environment for listening skills.

It can be implied from the multiple case studies that students with different levels of anxiety in listening recognize that classroom conditions affect their anxiety in learning. Students with low anxiety levels also become anxious when learning conditions were not conducive, and this influences their listening comprehension achievement. In addition, from the three lecturers that were interviewed and observed during their listening learning process, it can be concluded that they were aware of their students had anxiety that could affect their listening performance. Therefore, these lecturers have used various strategies that they applied in their teaching process to anticipate their students' anxiety.

Finally, the present study is subject to certain limitations owing to the restricted sample size of participants. Therefore, it is recommended that future researchers conduct a comprehensive study with a broader range of research participants, encompassing individuals from diverse backgrounds across various universities to obtain more comprehensive perspectives. Further investigation is also required to explore discrepancies in perspectives on foreign language listening anxiety between educators and learners.

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Measuring the English Vocabulary Acquisition of Japanese Learners

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Abstract

The measurable vocabulary knowledge of Japanese learners of English (JLEs) has yet to be fully investigated. This study, therefore, attempts a detailed investigation of JLEs' vocabulary knowledge to clarify the relationship between the frequency of words and their difficulty level and to identify the factors that affect the difficulty of vocabulary learning. We tested 192 university-level JLEs on 1,035 verbs, requesting that they choose a correct Japanese translation. The average number of correct answers for each verb was compared with its frequency ranking. Moreover, the characteristics of verbs that received high and low percentages of correct answers were examined. The three major findings were as follows. First, the average number of correct answers was 751.97 (72.65% of the verbs investigated). Second, the average number of correct answers decreased as the frequency of the verb decreased. However, this tendency diminished beyond the 4,000-word level. Finally, not a few low-frequency verbs garnered a high percentage of correct answers; these were verbs that included affixes or were English loanwords that were possibly known to JLEs. However, other low-frequency verbs received a

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low percentage of correct answers because they had abstract or multiple meanings and lacked clues that could facilitate an understanding of the word's meaning. We concluded that these were the main factors affecting the degree of difficulty in learning each vocabulary item. Regarding this study's pedagogical implications, efficient use should be made of English-based loanwords and affixes, and university-level JLEs should intentionally learn low-frequency words.

Keywords: Vocabulary learning, vocabulary size, vocabulary tests, word lists, Japanese learners of English.

1. INTRODUCTION

Learning vocabulary is essential for acquiring language. Researchers believe that words are indispensable components of listening, speaking, reading, and writing (e.g., Webb & Nation, 2017). In Japan, vocabulary learning has been playing an increasingly important role in English education (Nakata, 2019). Regarding the number of words to be introduced into English classes, the latest edition of the Course of Study (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, 2018) calls for 4,000 to 5,000 words to be taught from elementary to high school. This is an increase of 1,000 to 2,000 words over the preceding edition of the Course of Study. The Ministry emphasizes in the Course of Study that vocabulary knowledge is essential for the development of communication skills.

With this renewed awareness of the importance of vocabulary learning, there is a growing need to objectively measure the vocabulary knowledge of Japanese learners of English (JLEs) and gain an overview of their vocabulary learning (Masumi & Ishikawa, 2014). In university courses, learners' vocabulary size is used as an indicator to determine the difficulty level of planned materials. Some studies have attempted to measure the vocabulary size of university-level JLEs and examine the relationship between word frequency and the degree of difficulty (e.g., Aizawa & Iso, 2007; Brown, 2012; Okamoto, 2008). However, JLEs' vocabulary knowledge should be measured by employing more appropriate word lists that reflect the learning experience of JLEs, not that of native speakers (McLean et al., 2014). Moreover, the specific words that learners know and do not know should be investigated by testing them on all of the target words (Kitano & Chiba, 2018). Therefore, teachers can be made aware of the words their students should be taught, so they can make the content of their English language courses more appropriate.

To analyze the factors that affect the difficulty of vocabulary learning, this study aimed to measure the vocabulary knowledge of university-level JLEs. To that end, we made use of an existing vocabulary list, the New JACET List of 8000 Basic Words (New JACET 8000) (Mochizuki, 2016). We focused specifically on verbs on the list, which are significant as receptive and productive vocabulary. In line with the research objective, our research questions are listed below.

For the 1,000 or so verbs in the New JACET 8000,

1. How many verbs can university-level JLEs correctly identify the meanings of in Japanese?
2. Is the order of verb frequency related to the level of difficulty for university-level JLEs?

3. Regarding high-frequency verbs, what are the differences between the characteristics of verbs with a high percentage of correct responses and those with a low percentage?
4. Regarding low-frequency verbs, what are the differences between the characteristics of verbs with a high percentage of correct responses and those with a low percentage?

Through our analysis, we aimed to identify factors other than frequency that affect the ease or difficulty of individual words. Furthermore, we considered the implications of our findings for vocabulary learning at Japanese universities.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Tests of Vocabulary Knowledge for Second Language Learners

The Vocabulary Size Test (VST) (Nation & Beglar, 2007) aims to measure total receptive vocabulary knowledge and to present it as vocabulary size. Aizawa and Mochizuki (2010) developed a valid and reliable VST for JLEs, by presenting the meanings of English words in Japanese and improving the vocabulary list which the test relies on. It consists of seven levels ranging from the 1,000- to 7,000-word level. The format of the test involves selecting English words that correspond to the presented Japanese words, with 26 questions for each level.

The VST has been employed in several studies measuring the vocabulary size of JLEs. McLean et al. (2014), for example, used the VST to measure the vocabulary size of 3,449 university-level JLEs; they reported a strong correlation between VST scores and university departments' standardized rank scores. Nonaka (2020), meanwhile, used the VST to measure increases in the vocabulary size of 98 junior college students. The results of his survey indicated that the student's vocabulary size increased by about 10% at the 2,000- to 4,000-word level and about 15% at the 5,000- and 6,000-word level. Sato et al. (2021) also used the VST to investigate the vocabulary size of 576 freshmen. They compared the test results of their students in April and those in December to examine the effects of the class organization on English proficiency. The results showed that the class division based on academic achievement was more effective for lower achievers.

Researchers generally agree that the VST can measure receptive vocabulary size in a relatively easy way (e.g., Stoeckel et al., 2019). However, the vocabulary size being measured is an "estimate": the VST divides a word list into different levels and uses words sampled from each level. Thus, the learner does not necessarily know the number of words indicated by the test result. Another limitation is that the test does not identify which words are known and which ones are unknown. For this study, therefore, we tested university-level JLES on all of the words in the vocabulary list to accurately determine which words they knew and did not know.

2.2 Lists of English Words Used for Vocabulary Size Measurement Tests

When examining learners' vocabulary size, it is necessary to determine the English words that need to be studied. McLean et al. (2014) used the VST proposed by Nation and Beglar (2007) to study JLEs' English vocabulary. The test was based on a word list compiled from the British National Corpus (BNC). McLean et al. (2014)

noted, however, that the BNC's frequency ranking is not necessarily appropriate for measuring JLEs' vocabulary size. One reason is that the order of frequency in the list does not match the vocabulary knowledge of JLEs. For example, the word "nil," which is unfamiliar to JLEs, is included with the high-frequency words at the 2,000-word level, whereas basic words like "quiz" are included with the relatively low-frequency words at the 5,000-word level.

Milton (2007) suggested that frequency ranking of words based on native speakers' language use might not be relevant to foreign language learners who mainly have textbooks to draw on, since the vocabulary in textbooks tends to be selected based on the contents of materials rather than frequency. In Japan, the contents of English language education up through high school are influenced by university entrance exams (Browne & Culligan, 2008). It is possible, then, that JLEs learn vocabulary items that native English speakers would consider low-frequency words. It also is possible that JLEs do not know some of the everyday vocabulary frequently used by native English speakers. Therefore, vocabulary test creators should recognize that the frequency order of a word list for JLEs does not necessarily match that of a word list for native English speakers.

2.3 Relationship between the Frequency and Difficulty of Words

In planning vocabulary learning and teaching, it is essential to consider what makes it easy or difficult to learn individual vocabulary items. Webb and Nation (2017) suggested that some inherent aspects of a word, such as irregular spelling, difficult pronunciation, or unfamiliar word parts, could make learning more difficult. Aside from those features, word frequency is a major factor that determines the degree of difficulty of vocabulary. Studies have demonstrated that high-frequency words are recognized more quickly than low-frequency words, which applies to both L1 and L2 (e.g., Whitford & Titone, 2012). In addition, this effect of word frequency is greater for L2 speakers than for L1 speakers (Ishida, 2022). The word lists that language learners rely on indicate the frequency of the words listed and suggest that high-frequency words are easier to learn than low-frequency ones; the more frequently learners encounter a word, the easier it will be for them to learn it. Brown (2012) investigated whether the vocabulary knowledge of university-level JLEs followed the frequency model (i.e., the idea that words are learned in order of their frequency). He reported the results that high-frequency words tended to be well-known to the participants of his study, which confirmed the frequency model of vocabulary learning. Therefore, it is pedagogically important to examine the relationship between word frequency and word difficulty.

Aizawa and Iso (2007) investigated how frequency affects difficulty levels for JLEs. They administered two 80-question English vocabulary tests to 164 undergraduates. The participants answered 10 questions for each of the eight levels (in order of frequency) with 1,000 words in each level from the JACET List of 8000 Basic Words (JACET 8000) (JACET Committee of Basic Words Revision, 2003). For each question, three Japanese words were presented and participants were asked to select one English word from a group of six words that corresponded to each of the three Japanese words. The results showed a relationship between frequency and degree of difficulty up until the 4,000-word level of the JACET 8000. For words beyond the 4,000-word level, however, there was no tendency for the difficulty of learning to increase as the frequency decreased.

Okamoto (2008) also investigated the relationship between word frequency and level of difficulty in learning. She randomly selected 200 words from the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English and the Collins Cobuild Learners' Dictionary, and then she asked 291 university students to choose the most appropriate Japanese translation from the five options or "no correct answer." After the test, 37 words containing inappropriate options were excluded, leaving 163 words for the analysis. These words were classified into 15 levels in order of frequency based on the JACET 8000 and the BNC, and the percentage of correct answers for each level was compared. The results showed that the relationship between frequency and difficulty began to weaken at the 6,000-word level but a correlation was observed up to the 8,000-word level.

Aizawa and Iso (2007) and Okamoto (2008) both suggested that, up to a certain level, difficulty increases as frequency decreases, but that beyond a particular level, increased difficulty and decreased frequency are not necessarily linked. There is no consensus, however, regarding the level at which the link begins to weaken. Therefore, additional research should be conducted to determine the threshold level beyond which difficulty levels are not linked to frequency and to scrutinize what factors influence the difficulty of learning words.

3. METHODS

3.1 Participants

The 192 JLEs who participated in this study included 132 first-year and 60 second-year students from two universities in Shizuoka Prefecture. They were enrolled in English classes that the authors of this study taught. The classes were held once a week and the vocabulary tests were given to the students in each class for 13 weeks. When administering the test, we explained the study purpose to the students, how the survey results would be used, and the fact that this research would be made public. Participants who took all 13 tests (192 students) were included in the study. Prior to enrolling in university, the participants had received English education in elementary and high school. The participants' majors included agriculture, engineering, informatics, sociology, and English. Despite the differences in majors, years in school, and which university they attended, the participants' overall English proficiency could be considered intermediate for Japanese university students. Most of them had scored in the 500s on the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) Listening and Reading Test.

3.2 Materials

We relied on the New JACET 8000, which aims to provide JLEs with a bank of vocabulary for daily life and for reading papers and giving presentations in English while pursuing academic studies at university It was created using the procedures described below. First, the editors used the BNC and the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) to create a base list that reflects native English language usage in five genres (spoken, fiction, magazine, newspaper, and academic). Subsequently, 2,188 basic words were selected from English textbooks authorized by the Ministry of Education, high school entrance examinations, university entrance examinations, English proficiency tests, and English-English dictionaries. The words were arranged in order of frequency according to both the materials for Japanese learners and the base list. Next, other 3,553 words required for university disciplines were selected and their frequency was established by cross-referencing them with English newspapers and introductory academic books. Finally, 2,259 words were added from the base list in order of frequency as advanced-level vocabulary, totaling 8,000 words. In summary, the New JACET 8000 is based on the actual vocabulary used by native English speakers as well as the materials most frequently used by JLEs.

Nation (2013) estimated that the 1,000 most frequent word families[†] cover 81.94% of the text of the BNC and that the 3,000 most frequent word families cover 95.37%. Comparatively, educated adult native English speakers know about 20,000-word families. In Japan, a total of 4,000 to 5,000 words are introduced into English classes up to the high school level. We believe, therefore, that the New JACET 8000 could allow us to examine the actual retention of vocabulary learned in elementary and high school as well as the vocabulary size of university-level JLEs.

We limited our survey to verbs because the number of verbs in the New JACET 8000 (1,045 words) was appropriate for English vocabulary tests in 15 university classes during a semester. Verbs are important in both receptive and productive vocabulary because they play a significant role in expressing meaning and structuring a sentence. We believe that surveying all verbs in the New JACET 8000, rather than sampling a subset of verbs, would make it possible to scrutinize the factors affecting the degree of difficulty in learning each word.

3.3 Procedure

From the 1,045 verbs listed in New JACET 8000, we decided to exclude “be,” which is typically used in its modified form, and “fuck,” which is profanity, leaving 1,043 words for the survey. It became clear, however, that some of the incorrect options were confusingly similar to the correct options. Therefore, eight words (‘take’, ‘sell’, ‘pick’, ‘serve’, ‘finish’, ‘bear’, ‘perform’, and ‘cry’) for which there were very similar options were excluded, and 1,035 verbs were ultimately included in the study.

The test asked participants to identify the appropriate Japanese translation of an English verb from six options. The correct answer always corresponded to the most basic meaning of the verb in Japanese. We used multiple-choice so that the scorers’ subjectivity would not intervene in the scoring. In addition, by offering a relatively large number of choices (six), we attempted to minimize the guessing of correct answers as much as possible. The participants were allowed as much time as they needed to answer all questions; it ranged from 15 to 20 minutes for each session. The present authors administered the tests. They asked the participants to answer 80 questions on 80 words (83 in the last session) during a weekly English class held from April to July 2021 (13 weeks), beginning with the most frequently used words according to the New JACET 8000. Table 1 gives a sample of the test questions.

Table 1. Sample test questions.

1	do	A	Pull	b	watch	c	grow	d	feel	e	do	f	bring
2	say	A	Smile	b	know	c	cry	d	sing	e	hope	f	say
3	think	A	Answer	b	like	c	think	d	tell	e	worry	f	find

[†] Laufer (1992) suggested that 3,000 word families correspond to 5,000 words.

Table 1 continued…

4	get	A	Hit	b	finish	c	give	d	hold	e	put	f	get
5	see	A	move	b	see	c	stand	d	guess	e	make	f	lead

Note. The six choices were presented in Japanese.

3.4 Data Analysis

Participants' answers were scored by allotting one point for one correct answer and zero for an incorrect answer. The maximum number of correct answers was 1,035. First, to answer RQ1, we analyzed the total number of correct answers by calculating the mean score, standard deviation, and highest and lowest numbers.

Second, to address RQ2, we categorized the verbs based on the difficulty level (high school, university, and advanced) outlined in the New JACET 8000 and calculated the mean score, standard deviation, and correct percentage. Then, to compare the relationship between the number of correct answers and the frequency of verb use on the New JACET 8000, we categorized the 1,035 verbs into groups of 50 words each (i.e., 1-50, 51-100, etc.) according to their frequency of use. The verb that appeared as no. 1 on the New JACET 8000 was the most frequently used verb, with increasing numbers indicating a decreasing frequency of use. Linear regression analysis was performed to determine the relationship between the number of correct answers and the frequency of the word. A one-way repeated measures ANOVA (within subjects) was conducted to determine the statistically significant differences in the mean scores between each group of 50 words (e.g., between Group 1-50 and Group 51-100), followed by multiple comparison tests using the Bonferroni method.

Next, to further examine the relationship between correct responses and frequency of use, we divided the verbs into four groups and considered the characteristics of the verbs in each category. The four groups were as follows: high frequency and high percentage of correct responses (Group A), high frequency and low percentage of correct responses (Group B), low frequency and high percentage of correct responses (Group C), and low frequency and low percentage of correct responses (Group D). To answer RQ3, we examined the verbs in Group A and Group B.

To investigate RQ4, we first focused on the verbs in Group C and further subdivided them into three categories (Subgroup I: Words incorporated into Japanese as loanwords; Subgroup II: Words with affixes; Subgroup III: Others). Then, we examined the characteristics of Group D. For this analysis, we subdivided the verbs in Group D into three categories in the same way that we did for Group C.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Overall Results

As shown in Table 2, of the 1,035 English verbs presented, the average number of words for which 192 participants correctly selected the Japanese translation was found to be 751.97; the correct response rate was 72.65%. The highest number of correct answers for a single participant was 980 (94.69%) and the lowest was 558 (53.91%), a difference of 422 words (40.78%). From these results, we can presume that the average vocabulary size of the participants was approximately 5,600 words

(72.65% of 8,000 words). This aligns with Aotani (2012), who estimated that the average vocabulary size of university-level JLEs who had learned English vocabulary using word lists to prepare for entrance exams was between 4,800 and 6,400 words. Thus, regarding RQ1 (i.e., How many verbs can university-level JLEs correctly identify the meanings of in Japanese?), the average number of correct responses was 751.97 (72.65%). Thus, university-level JLEs with TOEIC scores in the 500s were found to know the Japanese translations of more than 70% of the verbs in the New JACET 8000.

Table 2. Test results.

Total number	Average number of correct answers (%)	Standard deviation	Highest number of correct answers (%)	Lowest number of correct answers (%)
1,035	751.97 (72.65%)	76.64	980 (94.69%)	558 (53.91%)

4.2 Frequency of Use and Difficulty in Learning

The next analysis considered the number of verbs at each level in the New JACET 8000 and the average percentage of correct answers (see Table 3). The 367 verbs at the high school level were regarded as basic English verbs that everyone learns; for these, there was a high percentage of correct answers (93.64%). This indicates that Japanese translations of English verbs learned in high school are mostly established for university-level JLEs. The next 553 "university-level" verbs are those that appear frequently in English newspapers and in introductory academic materials that university students need to know for their respective majors. The correct response rate for these verbs was 64.76%, which is not high. This could be partly because the participants were either freshmen or first-semester sophomores. Consequently, they were largely in the early stages of study in their major. The remaining 115 words were "advanced" vocabulary, which was selected in order of frequency from the base list based on the BNC and the COCA as words necessary for the study and the daily life of college students. The correct response rate was even lower, 43.94%, showing that university-level JLEs are not very familiar with the low-frequency words selected from the corpora of native English speakers.

Table 3. Number of verbs tested by level and average percentage of correct answers.

	Number of verbs	Numbers in the test list	Average number of correct answers (%)	Standard deviation
High school	367	1-367	343.66 (93.64%)	13.47
University	553	368-920	357.77 (64.70%)	57.73
Advanced	115	921-1,035	50.54 (43.95%)	10.99

Next, as shown in Table 4[‡] and Figure 1, the mean score for each 50-word category based on the frequency ranking in the New JACET 8000 represents the overall tendency between word frequency and the number of correct responses. These data show how the average number of correct responses changed according to the frequency ranking in the New JACET 8000. The overall trend was that, as the frequency decreased, the average score decreased. The R^2 value was 0.93, which

[‡] The results are indicated for up to 1,000 (in order of frequency) of the 1,035 words surveyed.

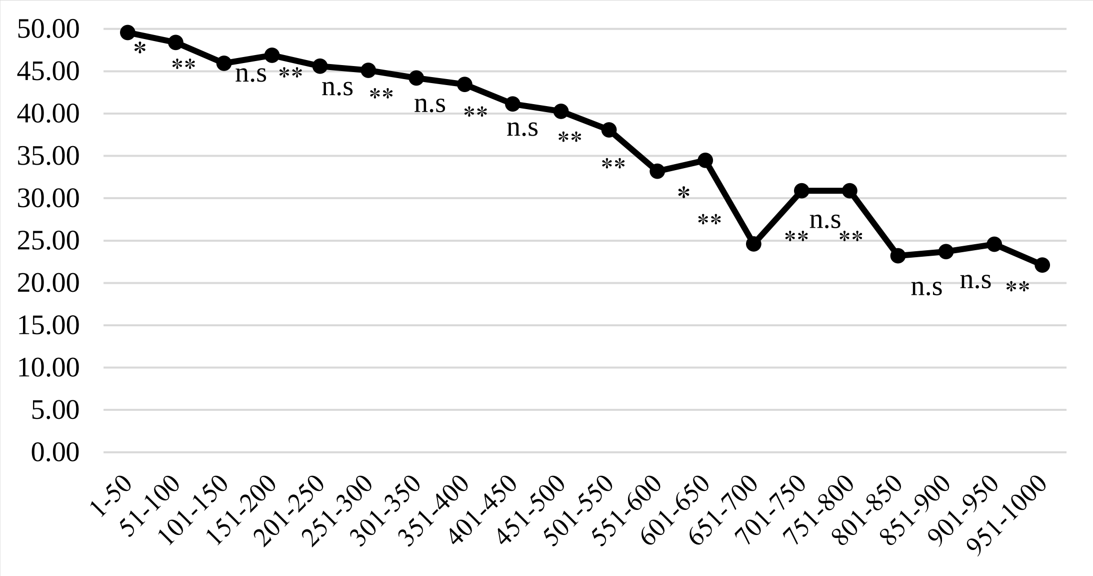
means that the linear regression line could explain 93% of the observed variables (average score). We can safely say, therefore, that the frequency ranking in the New JACET 8000 is related to the difficulty ranking of verbs for JLEs. However, the average scores from 651 to 1000 did not reflect this overall tendency. The R^2 (from 651 to 1000) was 0.33, indicating that the linear regression line could only explain approximately 33% of the observed variables. By contrast, the linear regression line from 1 to 650 could explain approximately 92% of the observed variables ($R^2 = 0.92$).

This tendency was also observed when comparing the average scores between each category of the 50 words. A one-factor ANOVA was performed (F (19. 3629) = 1027.77 p <.001, partial η^2 =.84), followed by multiple comparisons using the Bonferroni method. When looking at each 50-word category, the trend was particularly pronounced from 1 to 650 words; there was a tendency for the average number of correct responses to decrease with the decrease in frequency. However, the average number of correct responses increased significantly from 651 to 700. After the 800th word, although the frequency of use decreased, the average number of correct answers did not significantly decrease.

We can say, therefore, that the correct responses from 1 to 650 were highly influenced by frequency; that is, the average correct responses tended to decrease as frequency decreased. However, this trend began to weaken after the 601st verb, and it collapsed after the 800th. From 651 to 1000, correct responses might have been affected by factors other than frequency.

Table 4. Results for each 50-word category from the 50 most frequently used verbs (n = 192).

Frequency ranking	Mean	SD	Percentage of correct answers
1-50	49.58	0.63	99.16%
51-100	48.40	4.10	96.80%
101-150	45.92	8.45	91.84%
151-200	46.86	2.18	93.73%
201-250	45.61	2.88	91.22%
251-300	45.10	4.14	90.21%
301-350	44.18	3.67	88.36%
351-400	43.43	4.94	86.85%
401-450	41.14	6.07	82.27%
451-500	40.27	6.59	80.54%
501-550	38.06	7.06	76.13%
551-600	33.19	6.93	66.39%
601-650	34.49	6.29	68.98%
651-700	24.59	7.71	49.19%
701-750	30.88	5.58	61.75%
751-800	30.88	5.58	61.75%
801-850	23.20	5.65	46.40%
851-900	23.71	5.15	47.43%
901-950	24.56	4.73	49.13%
951-1000	22.11	5.27	44.23%



Note. *: p<.05, **: p<.01, n.s.: not statistically significant

Figure 1. Test results for each of the 50 New JACET 8000 list rankings.

The 601st most frequent verb was the 3,717th word on the New JACET 8000 list. This is consistent with Aizawa and Iso's (2007) finding that frequency was not linked with difficulty at the 4,000-word level. This could be because, as Okamoto (2008) suggested, the actual differences between the frequencies of each word become less significant as frequency decreases. Moreover, Aizawa and Iso (2007) suggested that frequency is linked to difficulty with high-frequency words because the participants had learned them from textbooks or other materials, although this does not apply to low-frequency words. If this is the case, the threshold beyond which difficulty level is not linked to frequency might be affected by learners' proficiency since more proficient learners will be acquainted with more words. For example, Okamoto (2008) found that this threshold was at the 6,000-word level, while Aizawa and Iso (2007) suggested that it was at the 4,000-word level. Okamoto (2008) attributed this discrepancy to differences in the participants' proficiency levels. Thus, regarding RQ2 (Is the order of verb frequency related to the level of difficulty for university-level JLEs?), the general trend was that the level of difficulty increased as frequency decreased. However, the relationship between frequency and difficulty tended to weaken as frequency decreased below the 601st word in the tests conducted in this study.

4.3 Relationship between the Frequency and Percentage of Correct Answers

For the next analysis, we divided the verbs into four groups. The classification was made by considering verbs with a frequency ranking of 1-260 as high frequency and those with a frequency ranking of 776-1,035 as low frequency. Correct responses of 70% or more were considered high, while those of less than 30% were considered low. There were 250 verbs in Group A, 0 in Group B, 52 in Group C, and 77 in Group D (see Table 5).

Table 5. Groupings of verbs based on their frequency rank and percentage of correct answers.

Percentage of correct answers	Frequency ranking in the New JACET 8000	
	1-260	776-1035
70% to 100%	Group A (250 words) High frequency and high correct response rate	Group C (52 words) Low frequency and high correct response rate
0% to less than 30%	Group B (0 words) High frequency and low correct response rate	Group D (77 words) Low frequency and low correct response rate

The results for Group A showed that 250 of the 260 high-frequency words (96.15%) had high correct response rates of 70% or higher. Among the 10 verbs that did not have high correct response rates, five were included in the 101-200 category (‘apply’, ‘fix’, ‘notice’, ‘preserve’, ‘stick’), and five were in the 201-260 category (‘appreciate’, ‘describe’, ‘dine’, ‘represent’, ‘suppose’). Regarding Group B, no verb belonged to this group. These results indicate that high-frequency verbs did not result in low percentages of correct responses for university-level JLEs. Therefore, most of the verbs identified as high frequency in the New JACET 8000 were familiar to them. Thus, with regard to RQ3 (Regarding high-frequency verbs, what are the differences between the characteristics of verbs with a high percentage of correct responses and those with a low percentage?), no high-frequency verb received a low percentage of correct responses from the participants. We can infer, therefore, that frequency level is a factor that affects the degree of difficulty in learning high-frequency verbs.

We then analyzed the characteristics of the 52 verbs in Group C. Table 6 shows the results for the three subgroups in Group C. The breakdown is as follows: 18 words in Subgroup I (words incorporated into Japanese as loanwords), 32 in Subgroup II (words with affixes), and two in Subgroup III (not applicable to Subgroup I or II). Verbs belonging to Subgroup I are listed as loanwords in the *Daijisen* Digital Edition (Matsumura, 2022), an online Japanese-language dictionary. Verbs for which a derivative was listed in the dictionary were also included in Subgroup I because JLEs would be able to recognize them by association (e.g., ‘circulator’ for ‘circulate’). It is possible that the participants unconsciously used their knowledge of loanwords to identify the Japanese translations of English verbs. Nation (2003) suggested that using loanwords incorporated into one’s native language as a cue for vocabulary learning is an effective way to increase the vocabulary size of L2 learners. Rogers et al. (2015) experimented with JLEs and reported the results that English-based loanwords could decrease the difficulty of learning English words for JLEs.

Table 6. Detailed results for Group C.

Percentage of correct answers	Sub-group	Frequency ranking in the New JACET 8000		
		776-900	901-1000	1001-1035
100% to 90%	I	circulate<circulator hug	chop, nominate, peel	
	II	deepen, generalize, repay, restructure, rethink, rewrite, soften, unlock	darken, memorize, rearrange, socialize	

Table 6 continued…

90% to 80%	I	crawl, elevate<elevator, smash	bind, knit, sprinkle<sprinkler	
	II	differentiate, diversify, disconnect, empower, mislead, prolong, tighten	imprison, reheat, straighten, terrify	
80% to 70%	I	shave<shaver subscribe<subscription	drip, kneel<knee, sniff<sniffer, surrender	Flip
	II	disapprove, heighten, suppress, underlie	lengthen, exclaim	horrify, loosen, proclaim
	III	comprehend	murmur	

Subgroup II consisted of verbs composed of base forms with affixes. They accounted for 32 (61.54%) of the 52 verbs in Group C. Table 7 summarizes these 32 verbs by prefixes and suffixes. The 11 different prefixes, which have the function of changing the meaning of the base verb, are included in 17 of the 32 verbs. Among these, 're-' was the most commonly used, appearing in five words, followed by 'dis-' and 'pro-' with two tokens each. Suffixes, meanwhile, change the part of speech of the base verb, and in all, four different suffixes were attached to 15 words. The most commonly used was '-en', appearing in eight words, followed by '-fy' and '-ize' with three tokens each.

Researchers have proposed learning strategies for increasing vocabulary knowledge based on knowledge of prefixes and suffixes. Nation (2013) suggested that knowledge of affixes can be effective for inferring the meaning of unknown words and recognizing their relationship with other parts of speech belonging to the same word family. Mochizuki and Aizawa (2000) investigated JLEs' knowledge of affixes to determine their order of difficulty. They reported that the most commonly acquired affixes were 're-', 'un-', and 'pre-'. These prefixes were found in some of the verbs in Group C. We can infer, therefore, that the participants' knowledge of affixes might have helped them understand the meanings of those verbs.

Table 7. Breakdown of Subgroup II in Group C.

Prefix	**Verb**	**Suffix**	**Verb**
re-	rearrange, repay, restructure, rethink, rewrite	-en	darken, deepen, heighten, lengthen, loosen, soften, straighten, tighten
dis-	disapprove, disconnect	-fy	diversify, horrify, terrify
pro-	prolong, proclaim	-ize	generalize, memorize, socialize
em-	empower	-ate	differentiate
ex-	exclaim		
im-	imprison		
mis-	mislead		
pre-	preheat		
sup-	suppress		
un-	unlock		
under-	underlie		

The two verbs classified into Subgroup III ('comprehend' and 'murmur') are those for which knowledge of loanwords and affixes does not necessarily aid in understanding their meanings. To consider the possible reasons for the high percentage of correct responses, we examined whether these verbs were included in three of the most commonly used English vocabulary books in Japanese high schools: English Vocabulary Target 1900 (Usami & Urata, 2020), System English Vocabulary (Shimo & Tone, 2019), and Speed Reading English Vocabulary (Kazahaya, 2015). Both verbs were found in two of these books, and ‘comprehension’, a derivative of ‘comprehend’, was found in all three (see Table 8). This suggests that the participants might have learned the two words before they started college.

Table 8. “Comprehend” and “murmur” in English vocabulary books.

	English Vocabulary Target 1900	**System English Vocabulary**	**Speed Reading English Vocabulary**
“comprehend”	○	○	×
“comprehension”	○	○	○
“murmur”	×	○	○

Next, we considered the results of Group D (see Table 9). The 77 words were divided into three subgroups in the same way that the verbs in Group C were divided. The breakdown was as follows: seven words for Subgroup I (words incorporated into Japanese as loanwords), 28 for Subgroup II (words with affixes), and 42 for Subgroup III (not applicable to Subgroup I or II). First, of the 77 verbs in this group, seven of them (‘deploy’, ‘dispatch’, ‘divert’, ‘flicker’, ‘offset’, ‘drape’, and ‘tailor’) are English loanwords in Japanese. However, this presumably did not help the participants understand their meanings since these words are not commonly used in Japanese and thus might not have been familiar to the participants.

Table 9. Detailed results for Group D.

Percentage of correct answers	**Sub-group**	**Frequency ranking in the New JACET 8000**		
		776–900	**901–1000**	**1001–1035**
less than 30%	I	divert, offset		Drape
	II	alleviate, contaminate, contemplate, deduct, deter, disguise, disperse, entail, fasten, recede, reside	condemn, detain, fabricate, testify	
	III	dilute, flatter, ignite, mourn, spawn, stagger, stalk, wrestle	allege, doom, grin, jerk, shudder,	amend, dwell, linger, lurk, preach, rattle, resent, sob, startle,
less than 20%	I	dispatch, tailor	deploy	flicker
	II	encompass, evacuate, exacerbate, mitigate, outweigh, recreate, saturate	aggravate, retort, stipulate	
	III	augment, forge, refute, shatter, shove, taint	chuck, curb, fling, perch, render, slam, solicit	clad, giggle, grate, grunt, stroll
less than 10%	I			
	II	underscore	replenish	
	III		poise, simmer, tumble	

Table 10 summarizes the 27 verbs in Subgroup II (three of them include both a prefix and a suffix). They are characterized by (i) abstractness of the base verb (e.g., ‘replenish’, ‘exacerbate’, ‘aggravate’, ‘saturate’) or (ii) polysemy of the base verb (e.g., ‘outweigh’, ‘underscore’, ‘fasten’, ‘testify’); for example, ‘fast’, which is the base of ‘fasten’, has multiple meanings since it can mean “adhered to” in addition to the more common meaning of “moving at high speed.” As Laufer (1997) noted, abstractness and polysemy are semantic features that make it more difficult to learn the meanings of words. De Groot and Keijzer (2000) conducted an experiment and reported that abstract words were more difficult to learn and more susceptible to forgetting than concrete words. It might have been difficult, therefore, for our participants to recognize the meanings of the 27 verbs, even though they included affixes, because of the meanings of the base verbs.

Table 10. Breakdown of Subgroup II in Group D.

Prefix	Verb	Suffix	Verb
re-	recede, recreate, replenish, reside, retort	-ate	aggravate, alleviate, contaminate, contemplate, evacuate, exacerbate, fabricate, recreate, saturate, stipulate
dis-	disguise, disperse	-en	Fasten
en-	encompass, entail	-fy	Testify
con-	condemn, contaminate, contemplate		
de-	deduct, detain, deter		
ex-	exacerbate		
out-	outweigh		
under-	underscore		

Lastly, regarding the 43 words in Subgroup III, which are neither loanwords nor words including affixes, we assume that they do not present any clues that could help JLEs understand their meaning. Therefore, with regard to RQ4 (Regarding low-frequency verbs, what are the differences between the characteristics of verbs with a high percentage of correct responses and those with a low percentage?), verbs with high percentages were incorporated into Japanese as loanwords or had affixes. Thus, knowledge of loanwords and affixes might have helped the participants understand their meanings. This explains the fact that low-frequency verbs with a high percentage of correct responses in this study. Meanwhile, the low-frequency verbs with low percentages of correct responses can be categorized into three groups: words including the affix and base with an abstract meaning or multiple meanings, English loanwords that are not commonly used in Japanese, and words that do not provide learners with clues to recognize their meaning. Webb and Nation (2017) suggested that the degree of difficulty in learning a word is determined by how well the word can be adapted into the learner’s existing systems of knowledge. Thus, these factors might explain the difficulties in vocabulary learning among university-level JLEs. These results could indicate that as for low-frequency verbs, certain factors, aside from frequency level, such as affixes, English loanwords, abstractness, and polysemy, affect the degree of difficulty for JLEs.

5. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This study examined the vocabulary size of university-level JLEs and investigated the relationship between frequency ranking and the order of word difficulty. There were two major findings. First, the average number of correct responses was 751.97 (out of 1,035), and the correct response rate was 72.65%. This is consistent with the average vocabulary size of university-level JLEs estimated by Aotani (2012). Second, difficulty tended to increase with decreasing frequency up to a certain frequency rate; however, frequency and difficulty were not regularly linked beyond that rate. This finding is also consistent with previous studies (Aizawa & Iso, 2007; Okamoto, 2008).

Additionally, we examined the characteristics of high-frequency verbs and compared those with a high percentage of correct responses to those with a low percentage. The results showed that none of the high-frequency verbs were classified as having a low correct response rate, which means that there will be no factors other than the frequency level that affect the difficulty of learning high-frequency words. Furthermore, we examined the characteristics of low-frequency words by comparing those with a high percentage of correct responses with those with a low percentage. It turned out that approximately 40% of the low-frequency verbs were classified as having a high correct response rate. Through a close examination of these verbs, they were found to be either incorporated into Japanese language as loanwords or composed of bases and affixes. Such characteristics could have helped the participants understand the meaning of the verbs and could be the reason for the high correct response rate, as well as the break in the link between frequency and degree of difficulty. Meanwhile, the other 60% of the low-frequency verbs that received a low percentage of correct responses had abstract or multiple meanings or did not present any clues about understanding their meanings. These factors, along with the frequency level, could have increased the degree of difficulty.

Our findings have the following pedagogical implications for vocabulary learning at a Japanese university level. First, since many low-frequency verbs had higher percentages of correct answers when knowledge of affixes and loanwords could be applied, learners should be made aware that affixes and loanwords are effective tools for increasing vocabulary knowledge. At least 80% of loanwords in Japanese derive from English (Ishino, 1983). Therefore, as Daulton (2008) suggested, JLEs should be encouraged to take advantage of these English-based loanwords as potential cognates, even though their first language has few similarities with their target language. Second, we found that more than half of the low-frequency verbs were unknown to the participants or difficult for them to understand, even though they were English loanwords or included affixes. Therefore, explicit teaching and intentional learning should focus on these words.

Regarding the scope for future research, first, it is necessary to examine whether participants' proficiency is a factor that determines the point at which the relationship between frequency and degree of difficulty begins to weaken, as suggested by Aizawa and Iso (2007) and Okamoto (2008). Second, it is necessary to examine whether there are other factors affecting the difficulty level in learning vocabulary items aside from frequency, affixes, loanwords, abstract meaning, and polysemy. Finally, we focused on verbs from a vocabulary list. Words belonging to other parts of speech should be investigated to get a better grasp of the vocabulary knowledge of university-level JLEs.

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Implementing Double-Entry Journal Assisted with Instagram to Foster Engagement in EFL Writing

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Abstract

Student engagement has critical impacts on students to excel academically. Integrating social media in a classroom can potentially affect students' engagement. The present study aims to examine student engagement in EFL writing using Double-Entry Journal (DEJ) on Instagram, to examine the correlation between cognitive engagement and achievement, and to reveal the challenges in implementing DEJ. The researchers employed a mixed-method design, involving 42 undergraduate students from the English Department of one of the state universities in Indonesia, and obtained the data through questionnaires, writing portfolios, and Instagram documentation. The close-ended and open-ended questionnaires were distributed to the students, whereas writing portfolios and Instagram documentation were observed to examine the students' writing performance. The collected data were managed, classified, and analyzed. The findings reveal that the students are behaviorally,

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cognitively, and affectively engaged by DEJ assisted with Instagram.' There was a positive correlation between cognitive engagement and writing achievement. Yet, challenges had been found, including lack of interaction, student anxiety, and insufficient knowledge during the learning process. The challenges are lessened when teachers and peers offer support with DEJ. The results provide pedagogical implications for teachers to employ instructional strategies that promote engagement in all three dimensions, behaviorally, cognitively, and affectively to attain the students' outcomes.

Keywords: Double-entry journal, EFL writing, Instagram, learning technology, student engagement.

1. INTRODUCTION

Since student engagement plays a vital role in their positive attitudes and behaviors, teachers need to find ways of engagement for writing activities. Student engagement, defined as the effort related to physical and psychological energy that the students exert in academic work (Koranteng et al., 2018), underlined the quality and extent of their participation in learning. In pedagogical practice, students are benefited to perform well academically when they are positively engaged (Lei et al., 2018). With a full construct of engagement, students' attention in the classroom toward learning, understanding, or mastering the knowledge can be depicted from students' active involvement in class activities.

In classroom practice, a double-entry journal (DEJ) can be employed as a pedagogical strategy to facilitate student engagement in writing. DEJ is a two-column journal which enables students to convey their thoughts to assigned text as they read. In the left column, students write down the main points from the assigned reading, while in the right column, students write their responses to the passage. The task characteristic of DEJ provides opportunities for students to engage with relevant content, with real-life examples from both outside and inside the classroom. Guthrie and Wigfield (2000) reasoned that texts and real-world interactions can foster a sense of engagement in the classroom. Pertaining to the factors contributing to student engagement in class, the use of technologies in the teaching and learning process can undergird meaningful student learning and participation. In the context of academic writing, information and communication technology (ICT) brings implications for the writing process and students' participation in writing classes. As technology has advanced, researchers have reported numerous accounts of how the rapid expansion of technology and the application of its tool has affected the students' writing process and achievements (see Elola & Oskoz, 2017; Levy & Moore, 2018; Vetter et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2021)

Regarding the use of technology, social media is a popular tool which accommodates students' needs to interact, share ideas, and engage (Prasetyawati & Ardi, 2020). Social media platforms including Facebook, Twitter, and Instagram are quite popular among online users. Facebook seems to dominate the social media platform followed by Twitter and Instagram, respectively. It is further reported that there has been a noticeable increase in the level of user engagement with the platform over the years (Ortiz-Ospina, 2019). Social media integration into language teaching and learning enables students to substantially reach out to greater readers and foster relationships between authors and readers. Social media can therefore engage students in the learning process both inside and outside of the classroom (Reinders & Benson, 2017).

Research projects exploring engagement in students' academic writing in social media have been recently investigated (e.g. Fithriani & Alharbi, 2021; Prasetyawati & Ardi, 2020; Saeed et al., 2018; Safdari, 2021). The findings of the studies revealed that social media is likely to promote student engagement in writing in English as a foreign language (EFL) in several ways, namely students' involvement in class, students' new learning atmosphere, and collaborative learning during writing. However, the studies have mostly relied on how the implementation of social media can enhance student engagement in EFL writing. Many of the previous studies include one or two dimensions (e.g., behavior and affect) but do not investigate the three dimensions altogether. Similarly, the three dimensions of engagement were not examined simultaneously from the previous studies. Engagement as a multidimensional concept is comprised of three dimensions, namely behavior, cognition, and affect (Fredricks et al., 2004). Accordingly, it is essential for teachers to identify how the different components of engagement interact to effectively promote student performance.

Even though researchers have examined the implementation of social media to facilitate student engagement with EFL writing, the investigations have not illuminated how the three dimensions (behavioral, cognitive, and affective) interact to improve academic performance. This study reports one popular social media platform, namely Instagram, which was selected due to its ease of use and perceived usefulness among online users. It further investigates the three-dimensional engagements underpinning the integration of DEJ and Instagram in EFL writing.

Addressing this issue is important for teachers to understand how students show their engagement as well as how to make the best out of online learning platforms in EFL writing. To guide the exploration, this study aims to delve into the following research questions:

1. How do the students show their online engagement during the implementation of the double-entry journal assisted with Instagram in EFL writing?
2. How does student engagement correlate to writing achievement?
3. What challenges do the students face in the implementation of a double-entry journal assisted with Instagram in EFL writing?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Double-Entry Journal

Double-entry journals (DEJ) as a pedagogical strategy in academic writing can be used to stimulate various stages of the creative process (Cobine, 1996). It is used as a strategy which enables the students to convey their thoughts and to stay connected with the material they read. DEJ is a two-column journal, where, in the left column, students write a piece of information as responsive statements from the text. After discussions and critical analysis of the literature, in the right column, students write a second journal entry analyzing information or synthesizing insights that are written in the left column. As stated by Joyce (1997), DEJ is an effective method in teaching and learning activity which is intended to give students a chance to convey their ideas and actively engage with the learning materials. Similarly, Spaventa (2000) also reported that DEJ benefits students by enabling them to write their thoughts and feelings. Teachers have utilized DEJ widely to improve students' reading and writing skills (Amin, 2012; French & Worsley, 2009; Khairani et al., 2016; Sarma & Rosa, 2014; Tuan, 2010). DEJ in language learning, particularly in L2 writing promotes language skills as informed by the previous studies. As reported by French and Worsley (2009), DEJ can offer innovative practices to encourage students to build their stances by exploring the material they have read. Because DEJ requires students to process information, integrate knowledge, and produce writing, it fosters critical thinking and understanding.

DEJ is conducted in three steps: (1) actuating prior knowledge and present feeling; (2) learning collaboratively; and (3) integrating major language skills. In DEJ, students reflect on and deliver ideas in writing. Students gain insights from the text and use them to support their opinions. In this way, students develop their reading comprehension, such as processing the text, understanding the meaning, and integrating it with their prior knowledge. In the broader sense, the integration of major language skills between reading and writing generates new ideas, new connections, and new insights.

2.2 Student Engagement in Language Learning and Teaching

Hart et al. (2011) argued that student engagement in language learning demonstrates how students are actively involved in all learning activities and make an attempt to fulfill the task with various strategies which serve as a representation of their engagement. According to Fredricks et al. (2004), student engagement is constructed from three dimensions including behavioral engagement, cognitive engagement, and affective engagement. Student engagement cannot be reflected from a single dimension only. Thus, this study adopts the three-dimensional model of student engagement, including behavioral participation, cognitive process, and affective involvement in the learning procedures of DEJ assisted with Instagram. Behavioral engagement is associated with observable behavior exhibited in learning activities or students' positive attitudes toward learning, such as asking a question or submitting an assignment (Lee et al., 2019). Cognitive engagement involves the internal cognitive process of the students, including understanding, knowledge formation, application, and memorization. This dimension of engagement is highlighted as an investment in students' mental effort or learning achievement strategies (Fredricks et al., 2004; Lewis et al., 2011). Ding et al. (2018) added the task-specific thought processing and elaboration that students engage in while carrying out learning tasks is referred to as cognitive engagement.

Meanwhile, affective engagement as an important marker in learning activities relates to the range of feelings that students experience in the classroom, such as curiosity, boredom, happiness, grief, and anxiety (Christenson et al., 2012). Meanwhile, Eccles et al. (1983, as cited in Fredricks et al., 2004), mentioned that there are four values of affective engagement including interest (pleasure in the activity), achievement (importance of completing the work successfully), usefulness (value of the task for achieving future objectives), and expense (downside of doing the task well). The three elements of engagement are mutually interrelated. Hence, researchers have looked closely at the three dimensions of engagement (Sulis, 2022).

2.3 The Use of Instagram as a Technological Tool for Multimodal Writing

The rapid development of ICT has contributed to English language teaching (ELT) (Rahmati et al., 2021). Instagram is one technological product that can be used as a platform for teaching and language learning since it can build social interaction among students and Instagram users. Mao (2014) observed that Instagram is a popular application for teenagers because they can take and share pictures and write captions for them. Numerous studies focusing on Instagram and EFL writing have been done by previous researchers (Alghamdi, 2022; Anggraeni, 2017; Oktaviana et al., 2020; Prasetyawati & Ardi, 2020). Prasetyawati and Ardi (2020) revealed that Instagram could foster student engagement in five different ways, namely allowing students to participate in the learning process, giving students access to a new learning environment, providing opportunities to interact with potential readers, encouraging students' collaboration and interaction and giving students chances to select their preferred learning style while writing.

Thus, the use of Instagram offers an innovative practice that enables students to engage with other Instagram users about their writing since the features in Instagram allow students to share their work with greater target readers. Pertaining to the employment of DEJ in EFL writing, the students can publish the writing of their journal on Instagram as their thoughts or reactions on particular issues and give feedback on their classmates' pieces of writing. Publishing as part of the writing process can be impactful as the students are empowered to reach the readers with their written works.

3. METHODS

3.1 Research Design

This study was conducted using a mixed-methods approach by combining quantitative and qualitative research methods. The use of a mixed-method approach is considered to give a better explanation of the research problem. The conceptual purposes of the mixed-method approach are to seek evidence of findings, to explain findings in detail, to develop information, to delve into contradiction, and to expand the study. In the current study, triangulation was conducted to gather and examine different data (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The researchers used an explanatory sequential design in this study to understand the data at a more detailed level by collecting qualitative follow-up data to help explain quantitative results. There were two stages in collecting the data. First, the quantitative data was collected by administering the close-ended questionnaire to the participants. Following this, in the second stage, the qualitative data was gathered from an open-ended questionnaire. Data gained from two forms of data were integrated into the analysis.

3.2 Participants

There were 42 undergraduate students from the English Department at one of the state universities in Indonesia as participants. They were enrolled in the first semester. The researchers considered the freshman participants as novice EFL writers who were encountering some new challenging intellectual tasks. It is essential to understand that the writing issues experienced by novice writers include their engagement level. There are 21 male students (50%) and 21 female students (50%) selected as participants in this current study.

3.3 Research Instruments

The instrument used to gather the data was a questionnaire presented in Google Form. It involves the collection of both qualitative (open-ended) and quantitative (close-ended) data in response to research questions. The close-ended questionnaire was adapted from Fredricks et al. (2004). It comprises the three dimensions of student engagement: cognitive, behavioral, and affective types of engagement. The five-point Likert Scale questionnaire consisted of 18 items with five options: strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, and strongly disagree, with 5 for the most favorable and 1 for the least favorable. The items of the questionnaire are presented in Appendix 1. Meanwhile, the open-ended questionnaire instrument was distributed to gather qualitative data. The questionnaire was employed to elicit data on the participants' information about the benefits and the challenges of DEJ implementation assisted with Instagram in EFL writing. The data concerning the students' writing performance was gathered based on their scores in writing DEJ. The students' writing portfolios were measured by using a scoring rubric adapted from Brown (2007). The aspects include content (30%), organization (20%), grammar (20%), vocabulary (15%), and mechanics (15%). In this study, the writing assignment emphasized how students developed their voices which was manifested in a piece of writing. Writing assignments also had an impact on how various aspects of this particular activity were assessed based on the learning achievement, which placed a heavier percentage on the content aspect than other aspects. Teachers who integrate DEJ and social media provide opportunities for students to share their ideas on writing and interact with readers. Because student writing is intended to evoke a response from readers, it requires both skill and linguistic knowledge.

Table 1. Dimensions of engagement

Dimensions of Engagement	**Questionnaire items (n)**
Behavioral Engagement	6
Cognitive Engagement	6
Affective Engagement	6

3.4 Procedures

The study took place in an academic writing class where the teacher's instruction, students' behavior, and class interactions were investigated. There were several steps in the instructional procedure during the implementation of DEJ assisted with Instagram in EFL writing class. The teacher implemented DEJ, assisted with Instagram, through three sessions in the EFL writing class. In the first session, the focus was on a brainstorming session where the teacher explained and gave a model of DEJ so that the students could follow. In the second session, the teacher had the students bring materials and work on DEJ. In the last session, the students posted their written work on DEJ on Instagram. The three sessions are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2. Instructional procedures of DEJ assisted with Instagram in EFL writing.

Session		Teacher's activities	Students' activities
1	a	Brainstorming the students about Double-Entry Journal (DEJ).	Paying attention to the model of Double-Entry Journal (DEJ) in brainstorming sessions.
	b	Announcing the topic of the writing project.	Paying attention to the topic of the writing project
	c	Asking the students to browse and download texts and pictures related to the topic.	Starting reading the text
2	d	Asking the students to create DEJ by splitting the page into two sides	Creating DEJ by splitting the page into two sides
	e	Asking the students to read the points from the text they read on the left side of the journal	Reading the points from the text on the left side the of journal
	f	Asking the students to write down their opinions or reactions on the right side of the journal	Writing down thoughts, opinions, or reactions on the right side of the journal
3	g	Having the students post the picture along with their ideas from the right side of DEJ in their Instagram feed	Posting the picture along with the ideas from the right side of DEJ in the Instagram feed
	h	Having the students give comments or feedback in the chat column	Giving comments or feedback to other classmates in the chat column

After several sessions of classroom activities were carried out, the data were collected to get meaningful information from the students. The questionnaire was distributed after the participants' consents were obtained. The participants were provided with an information sheet and allowed to ask questions about any doubt related to the project. The participants completed the questionnaire in a week. Afterward, questionnaire results were analyzed.

3.5 Data Analysis

The researchers analyzed the responses to the questionnaires quantitatively and qualitatively. The results from the close-ended questionnaire were analyzed in descriptive statistics, namely frequencies, percentages, and index scores, which showed students' degree of engagement in three dimensions. The degree of student engagement was categorized based on Riduwan and Akdon (2020). Concurrently, the researchers gathered data on students' writing performance by analyzing their portfolios in writing DEJ and grading them according to a rubric from Brown (2007). The writing portfolios were graded on five components with various weightings: content focusing on the topic and the detail (30%), organization (20%) focusing on the identification and description, grammar (20%), vocabulary (15%), and mechanics covering spelling, punctuation, and capitalization (15%). In the open-ended questionnaire, similar items and concepts were coded, organized, and grouped. The responses from 42 students as participants (P) were coded as P1, P2, P3, to P42. The categories were figured out after grouping and distinguishing the data (Ezzy, 2002). Finally, the data were interpreted accordingly.

4. RESULTS

4.1 Students' Online Engagement During the Implementation of DEJ Assisted with Instagram in EFL Writing

In the present study, student engagement is defined in three ways, namely behavioral engagement, cognitive engagement, and affective engagement. The results of the quantitative analysis indicate that undergraduate students' overall degree of engagement was high, with an index score of 79%.

Table 3. Students' overall degree of engagement.

Dimension of engagement	Index score	Score interpretation
Behavioral engagement	81%	Very High
Cognitive engagement	75%	High
Affective engagement	81%	Very High
Students' overall degree of engagement	79%	High

Table 3 shows that both behavioral and affective dimensions of engagement had index scores of 81%, indicating that the students were likely to display very high levels of behavioral engagement and affective engagement. Whereas, cognitive engagement had a lower index score (75%), which was still in a high level of student engagement.

4.1.1 Behavioral engagement

The findings in the behavioral engagement showed that undergraduate students could be involved actively in their academic tasks and learning processes. The majority of students shared a positive attitude in class and on social media. The students benefited from the classroom activities concerning the integration of social media in EFL Writing. When students received an assignment, more than half of the students (57.1%) fulfilled the task and 40.5% of students submitted it on time. There were 42.9% of students paying close attention to the teacher's explanation for integrating DEJ with social media and 50% of the students following the instruction. Nearly half of respondents (45.2%) looked over notes to ensure they understood the material well. Meanwhile, the context of a social media platform also provided a positive learning environment for the students. Most of the students (45.2%) felt positive about taking part in online discussions. The students' confidence in social media allowed them to play an active role in giving and receiving feedback in the online setting.

4.1.2 Cognitive engagement

Based on the findings, the researchers found the cognitive engagement scored very high at 75%. Even though the students are novice writers, they are cognitively engaged. For underlining details, 45.2% of students completed the first stage of the procedures, while 54.8% did not. The second stage is when the writing process is started, and it involves thinking, taking notes, brainstorming, and outlining. The data shows that 73.8% of the students completed the procedures. In the third stage, namely gathering information, 83.3% of the students completed the procedures. In the fourth stage, namely writing the double-entry journal, the data show that 71% of the students completed the procedures. In the fifth stage, names revising, the data show that 61.9% of the students completed the procedures. In the sixth stage, namely editing before posting their written work on Instagram, the data shows that 59.6% of the students completed the procedures, while 40.4% did not.

4.1.3 Affective engagement

The findings in affective engagement confirm that some students showed positive responses toward the implementation of DEJ assisted with Instagram. About 45.2% of the students strongly agreed that they were happy that their journal was read by many people on Instagram. They also had positive feelings toward the feedback and comments on Instagram (40.5%). Besides, 38.1% of the students also found it easy to publish their writing on Instagram. Furthermore, the student's responses reveal that they enjoyed participating in the online interaction on Instagram (35.7%). Similarly, 35.7% of the students strongly agreed that they took pleasure in completing the assignment of a double-entry journal using Instagram. Some students did not feel nervous to have the assessment from the teacher on Instagram (21.4%).

4.2 The Student Engagement Correlation to Writing Achievement

Student engagement in academic tasks refers to students' active participation in the learning process, predicting academic achievement. For this reason, we explored the students' writing portfolios to figure out the connection between students' reports of cognitive engagement with their writing performance. The correlation between cognitive engagement and writing score was determined using Pearson's correlation analysis, which also indicates how strong the correlation is. The result is summarized in Table 3.

Table 4. Correlations between cognitive engagement and writing achievement.

		Cognitive engagement	**Writing achievement**
Cognitive engagement	Pearson Correlation	1	.974**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	42	42
Writing achievement	Pearson Correlation	.974**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	42	42

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

Table 4 shows a positive correlation between cognitive engagement and writing achievement ($r = 0.974$), and this level is classified as strong. The significance level (Sig 2-tailed) of 0.000 means that cognitive engagement has a significant correlation to writing achievement. To sum up, cognitive engagement and students' writing achievement seem to have a positive and relatively significant correlation. The findings also confirm that students' cognitive engagement is directly regulated by engaging in interaction with teachers. Teachers gave detailed information about writing DEJ and reinforced students' involvement in academic activities.

4.3 Students' Challenges in the Implementation of DEJ Assisted with Instagram in EFL Writing

After collecting the open-ended questionnaires, we coded the responses by selecting excerpts and categorizing them into themes and sub-themes. The participant's ID was attached at the end of every excerpt, which signified the response in the questionnaire. The initial analysis generated three themes, 9 categories, and 9 excerpts. The overall findings are documented in Table 4.

Table 5. Challenges in the dimensions of engagement.

Themes	**Categories**	**Sub-categories**
Challenges in Behavioral Engagement	Low interest to get involved in online discussion Failure to complete a task	Lack of interaction or engagement with classmates Finding hard to accomplish the assignment and submit the task on time
Challenges in Cognitive Engagement	Insufficient knowledge to select good English articles Lack of writing skills Little experience to write on social media State of distraction	Problem in selecting representative articles or journals in English Dealing with some difficulties in composing a good piece of writing so that it is readable due to limited skill Lack of experience to write in social media Need more focus
Challenges in Affective Engagement	Perceived anxiety toward negative feedback Fear of making mistakes Low self-esteem in social media	Having anxiety or negative feelings over negative comments or feedback from teachers, classmates, or other readers Afraid of making errors in language use Lack of confidence to publish own work on social media

4.3.1 Challenges in behavioral engagement

The data from the open-ended questionnaire reveal several problems encountered by the students during the integration of social media into EFL writing. In response to the open-ended questions, some students revealed challenges in their behavioral engagement, such as low interest, low motivation to participate in online discussions, and problems with task achievement. With regard to the most frequently mentioned issues, we obtained responses as reported by the students below.

(1) I never used social networking tools. The challenge is I do not think I am willing to participate in giving feedback or any comments on social media. (P3)

(2) I am a novice writer. I found it hard to accomplish the task due to some limitations, so we failed to submit the task on time. (P7)

The data implies several issues. Some respondents withdrew and did not respond to communication during the assigned work. They did not contribute to class discussion due to unfamiliarity with the social networking tools in their learning process. This unfamiliarity may have led, consequently, to a lack of interest in giving and receiving feedback on an online platform. Another problem that the students face is completing the work on time. For some students with little experience, writing can be hard as they struggle to express a word, sentence, or even a complete thought. The students' lack of experience can hinder their writing process and they need extra time to complete the task.

4.3.2 Challenges in cognitive engagement

This study also found challenges in the cognitive dimension. There were some issues associated with cognitive engagement, e.g., insufficient knowledge to select a well-written article in English, a lack of writing skills, little experience writing on social media, and distraction. With regard to the most frequently mentioned issues, students' responses are reported below.

(3) Finding a good article in English is rather difficult. I could hardly find an English article on my preferred topic. (P10)

(4) I couldn't compose a good piece of writing since I have limited vocabulary and a poor understanding of grammar. (P7)

(5) I am a novice writer. I used to write in Bahasa, but I have never written an English essay before, let alone post it on Instagram. (P11)

(6) Writing a double-entry journal (DEJ) and publishing it on social media requires much effort. This demanding task makes me unable to concentrate. (P8)

Students had trouble selecting the proper article as the first stage in writing a DEJ, which complicated the rest of the process. They did not have enough knowledge of good English articles or journals. Students' low level of literacy skills could complicate the students' thinking on how a representative article looks like. The next challenge dealt with students' poor writing skills. As novice writers, the students still need to improve their skills in providing the content (topic and details), organization (identification, description), grammar (the use of present tense, agreement), vocabulary, and mechanics (spelling, punctuation, capitalization). The third cognitive challenge was about students' lack of experience writing on social media. It was inevitable that writing English accurately on social media was quite challenging for many people. Based on the findings, it was found that students felt their writings were not good enough to attract public attention, especially on Instagram. The students' lack of writing strategies affected their willingness to write on social media. This state of distraction created challenges in the cognitive dimension. The students' lack of writing skills and inadequate experience made them anxious, leading to difficulty in concentrating during learning activities.

4.3.3 Challenges in affective engagement

In the present study, the researchers also found that students struggled with the affective dimension. Students felt anxious about negative feedback, writing errors, and public presentations on social media. Their responses were as follows:

(7) I am afraid if no one reads my posts on Instagram. However, I can't handle it if someone writes negative comments on my writing. (P4)

(8) I have to be careful with grammar and I began to worry if I make some mistakes because everyone can see my post on Instagram. (P11)

(9) I am too shy and scared to expose myself on social media. I am not good at writing in English. I feel bad if people are not happy with what I write on Instagram. (P3)

Students were anxious that people commented negatively and criticized their writing in terms of topic selection or language that they used. Since DEJ required them to write their ideas about a topic of their choice, they were afraid their choice would not meet expectations. The other challenge faced by students is the fear of making errors. Some students stated that they were lacking in their English writing, especially in grammatical aspects. This condition leads students to feel insecure about delivering their ideas in written work. The last emotional challenge is a lack of confidence to publish their work on social media. Publishing is perceived as an essential matter where students publish their writing and reach the readers. Some students found social media overwhelming, and it was not always embraced with enthusiasm. Therefore, some students doubted if they could perform well on social media.

5. DISCUSSION

5.1 Students' Online Engagement During the Implementation of DEJ Assisted with Instagram in EFL Writing

The findings of the study presented here follow three key points, namely the three dimensions of engagement, the correlation between cognitive engagement and writing achievement, and students' views about the challenges in learning activities. The quantitative findings revealed that the engagement levels portrayed from the lens of undergraduate students were high. The students' behavioral engagement shows in their involvement with their learning process. Student engagement can easily be defined by the way they conduct themselves in class, such as following classroom instruction, participating in discussions, and committing to finish the assigned tasks. These findings are in line with Prasetyawati and Ardi (2020), Fithriani and Alharbi (2021), and Safdari (2021) who revealed that adopting social media as a supplementary tool in EFL writing could promote student's behavior by fostering participation and interaction in the writing process. Hence, the students' behavior typically indicates their efforts in learning such as completing work and paying attention. In the present study, the students tend to perceive themselves as being familiar and competent in using Instagram as a widely used social media. The students benefited from the practical features in social media which allow them to give and receive feedback from friends and target readers.

The responses in cognitive engagement indicate that half of the students engaged in learning, understanding, and mastering the knowledge. Despite a lack of experience and skills in writing, the results demonstrate how the students as novice writers were motivated to complete their tasks with strategies to gain deep understanding. It is evident that DEJ is an effective technique to guide students to improve their writing skills by connecting with literary texts. The students could express their thoughts and became actively involved with the assigned text.

Meanwhile, the students engaged at a high level with the affective dimension. It was evident that students could report a variety of emotions in learning activities. The finding agrees with Oraif and Elyas (2021), who suggested a positive correlation between satisfaction and engagement. The researchers of this study found that the students were excited about integrating DEJ and social media in their writing. Students' experience of well-being was significantly associated with affective engagement during task accomplishment using social media and interaction with others. The students' active participation gave them the benefit of giving and receiving feedback. Feurerstein (1996) stated that interaction assists the students in understanding the task purpose and what they achieve in writing. Students could figure out their strengths and weaknesses, and ways to improve using feedback, and those provided a meaningful learning experience.

5.2 The Correlation between Student Engagement and Writing Achievement

The statistical computation shows a positive correlation between cognitive engagement and writing achievement. The students' efforts in class, to develop knowledge and complete the tasks, accentuated their cognitive engagement. This implied that DEJ was effective in teaching language skills, particularly in reading and writing, which stimulated students to engage cognitively in a series of activities, such as writing down sentences from the assigned text and writing responses about the text. This is in line with Joyce (1997), who reported that DEJ helped students express themselves and engage with the subject matter. Moreover, students with a high level of cognitive engagement feel empowered to play an active role in learning such tasks as drafting and evaluation of the writing process in DEJ, making them excited to share their ideas on social media.

This study found that the students had a positive perception of integrating social media, specifically Instagram, in writing. Instagram provided a new learning environment which gave students the confidence to interact, give, and receive feedback about their writing on social media. According to Pietarinen et al. (2014), the interaction that took place during classroom activities had a significant impact on the cognitive involvement of the students. Student engagement in writing and their achievement can be reinforced through classroom interaction. Allowing students to participate actively in interactive social platforms will thereby increase their engagement. The researchers infer that cognitive engagement is not an individual variable, rather it is interrelated with the two other dimensions, behavioral and affective, to influence students' writing achievement. The model from Greene et al. (2004) also demonstrated how motivational variables influence cognitive engagement and achievement. Consequently, the combination of DEJ and Instagram in writing could explain the significant relationship between student engagement and writing achievement.

5.3 Students' Challenges in the Implementation of DEJ Assisted with Instagram in EFL Writing

The qualitative findings revealed that although most students claimed that they were engaged, the implementation of DEJ assisted with social media was also challenging. Several issues occurred during the implementation of DEJ in the online learning environment. First, students who do not have the skills to collaborate productively may not be interested in participating in discussions. Collaboration encouraged the students to get involved in productive discussions and to contribute. Webb and Palincsar (1996) stated that students may not be skilled at explaining their ideas or evaluating the ideas of others. These challenges may threaten the students if they do not master the expected level of understanding. The second issue is a lack of confidence and student anxiety about making mistakes and negative feedback. Student responses show that they were often discouraged by negative feedback. While receiving positive feedback is encouraging, receiving negative critiques can be difficult. When students know how to deal with negative feedback, they can gradually strengthen their self-esteem. Feedback is essential as it can provide students with constructive insights and help them process new ideas and information while improving self-efficacy.

Teachers understand that writing skill is complicated for novice writers and a lack of confidence is normal. The level of language proficiency determines the mastery of language aspects such as punctuation, spelling, grammatical, and lexical resources. It is in line with Byrne (1997) who concluded that that there are three categories of writing problems, namely linguistic, psychological, and cognitive. Byrne's study indicated that dealing with linguistic factors, such as grammar, vocabulary, language use and choice of sentence in writing, is an arduous task for some students. Students who have cognitive problems struggle with the processes of instruction. A writer must master various forms of language, structures, and organization to ensure the readability of their text. However, some students were discouraged by the challenges they faced in class.

With regards to the findings from Byrne's (1997) study, the present study has discovered that the three dimensions of student engagement have different levels. Students displayed high levels of behavioral and affective engagement, but low in cognitive engagement. Considering that the undergraduate students were novice writers with little experience and limited linguistic competence, it is expected that they had low level of cognitive engagement. Instructional practice concerning the implementation of DEJ in an online learning environment affects the degree to which students simply participate or are willing to invest in learning and understanding. Pertaining to this issue, several aspects, such as interaction and feedback in the writing process are the most influential to cultivate engagement, particularly the cognitive aspect.

6. CONCLUSION

The aim of the present study was to understand the degree of student engagement and challenges they faced in implementing DEJ assisted with Instagram in EFL writing. Using a mixed-method approach, the findings reveal how the students were behaviorally, cognitively, and affectively engaged. The results indicate that the students have very high behavioral and affective engagement, but low cognitive engagement. The result of the study also shows a positive correlation between cognitive engagement and students' writing achievement, which can be a predictor of students' writing performances. Alongside the positive impacts, the challenges (lack of interaction, perceived anxiety, and insufficient knowledge) that the study reveals need to be considered in a more comprehensive review.

As a pedagogical prerequisite, teachers should be well-informed about the dimensions of student engagement so they can determine instructional strategies for the students. Teachers who support their students in class, by providing opportunities for collaboration and feedback, are rewarded with more engaged students. Engagement lies in the interaction of the individuals and their settings. Therefore, the quality of interaction is crucial to sustain engagement. This present study also suggests that teachers should be encouraged to increase their technological pedagogical knowledge by integrating DEJ techniques and social media in the writing process to enhance engagement. Furthermore, the results suggest that integrating social media as a new learning environment will allow students to interact and maintain their interest. Future researchers should involve larger sample sizes to gain a wider perspective on how the three dimensions of engagement relate to one another in an EFL writing classroom.

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APPENDIX

Questionnaire of Students' Engagement in EFL Writing

To respond to this questionnaire, please choose one of five options in each item which is suitable to your own situation and condition.
1: Strongly disagree, 2: Disagree, 3: Neutral, 4: Agree, 5: Strongly Agree

No.	**Item**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Behavioral Engagement						
1.	I try to do well in accomplishing the assignment of a double-entry journal using Instagram.					
2.	I look over class notes to make sure I understand the material.					
3.	I participated in giving feedback and comments in the comment column using Instagram.					
4.	I pay attention to teachers' explanations of using double-entry journal using Instagram.					
5.	I follow and do teachers' instruction.					
6.	I submit the task on time.					
Cognitive Engagement						
1.	I underline the details as I read the material for double-entry journal.					
2.	I start writing double-entry journal by thinking, taking notes, brainstorming and outlining.					
3.	I gather the information in some places before the drafting stage of writing.					
4.	I write the double-entry by mentally associating new ideas from the text with similar ideas that I already knew.					
5.	I make some revision on the writing to make sure the ideas explicit and clear.					
6.	I make some editing, such as grammar, mechanics, spelling before posting to Instagram.					

Emotional Engagement						
1.	I enjoy finishing the assignment of double-entry journal using Instagram.					
2.	I have positive feeling toward the feedback and comments in Instagram.					
3.	I find it easy to publish writing on Instagram.					
4.	I feel good having my journal in Instagram read by many people.					
5.	I enjoy getting involved in the online interaction on Instagram .					
6.	I do not feel nervous to have the assessment by the teacher on Instagram.					

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Teachers' Made Writing Assessment Instrument: Pedagogical Insight from Process to Product

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Abstract

Despite the urgency of assessment instruments in teaching foreign language writing, evidence regarding how teachers develop assessment instruments and maintain their quality, particularly for comparison and contrast essay writing based on a genre-based approach to teachers' classroom practices, is scantily reported. To address this empirical need, this article showcases how a set of teacher-made assessment instruments for a comparison and contrast essay based on a genre-based approach in a writing essay course at a public university in East Java was carefully and deliberately developed. To attain the research objective, this research enacted design-based research (DBR) inspired by Cavallaro and Sembiante (2021). In addition to content validity, face validity and inter-rater reliability were ensured by involving ten students, three fellow writing teachers, and two trained raters. This assessment instrument development project produces a set of valid formative assessment instruments, comprising a writing prompt and scoring rubric. The inter-rater reliability shows a high degree of positive correlation with a reliability coefficient of 0.862 from a correlational analysis based on Pearson correlation coefficient. This in-practice assessment instrument

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development can be used as a reference, contributing to the teachers' assessment literacy development. It also serves as a valuable model for future researchers to develop and expand nested classroom assessment scholarship. A well-structured validity and reliability process of assessment instrument development will practically enhance the teaching practices in the essay writing course in particular and EFL teaching in general.

Keywords: Classroom assessment, comparison and contrast essay, teacher-made assessment instrument, teachers' assessment literacy, writing assessment.

1. INTRODUCTION

The scholarship towards establishing quality education through the teaching process cannot be separated from the discussion on effective assessment. In the context of EFL writing instruction, effective assessment is also crucial for raising students' writing achievement. In its development, the practice of assessment is evolving from being previously dominated by a summative orientation as Assessment of Learning (AoL) to initiatives that emphasize more on the use of it to promote students' learning (Assessment for Learning, or AfL) and on the use of it to develop students' metacognitive skills (Assessment as Learning, or AaL). AoL, underpinned by behaviorist theory, emphasizes the use of objective evidence like scores to measure students' writing performance (Shepard, 2000). AfL, grounded in a social constructivist framework, puts the spotlight on classroom assessment to serve as a baseline to inform and facilitate students' learning in EFL writing classes (Fitriyah et al., 2022). This approach creates opportunities for students to acquire knowledge and fosters their agency in overcoming associated challenges (Fitriyah et al., 2023).

Furthermore, AaL involves students in self and peer assessment to oversee their learning advancement and cultivate their self-regulation skills (Alderson et al., 2017). To date, a huge number of assessment scholars (e.g., Fitriyah et al., 2023; Lee, 2017; Leong et al., 2018; Popham, 2009; Wu et al., 2021) argue that when the classroom tends to use assessment for learning and assessment as learning rather than the assessment of learning, students will learn better, which could address teachers' expectations. On the same note, Stiggins (2002) asserts, "If we wish to maximize students' achievement in American schools, we must pay far greater attention to the improvement of classroom assessment" (p. 1). These perspectives highlight the importance of classroom assessment in successful EFL writing teaching-learning, suggesting more attention be paid to the teachers' assessment literacy in developing a particular assessment instrument.

Through a systematic literature review, Glušac and Milić (2022) conclude that teacher-made assessment instruments have a positive impact on students' learning, including students' writing performance. This is attributed to the fact that these instruments typically provide information on the test's purpose, procedures, and tasks, aspects that standardized tests may lack. However, this sort of instrument usually possesses some flaws and is considered problematic, showing a lack of teachers' design knowledge and skill (DiDonato-Barnes et al., 2013; Glušac & Milić, 2022), and is frequently not validated (Ugwu & Mkpuma, 2019). This postulation reiterates the urgent need to enhance teachers' assessment literacy, particularly by preparing them to be more knowledgeable and skilled in developing valid and reliable self-made assessment instruments. Relatedly, a significant volume of literature has been extensively devoted to scrutinizing teacher-made assessment instruments. The scholarship mainly focuses on providing evidence of teacher-made assessment's validity and reliability (e.g., Effendi & Mayuni, 2022; Ing et al., 2015; Minda, 2018; Setiabudi et al., 2019), content knowledge, cognitive evidence, and authentic evidence (Pesiwarissa et al., 2021). In the context of writing, the text types were also limited to argumentative text (Mukminatien et al., 2021), descriptive text (Santi et al., 2019), and narrative and expository text (Jeong, 2017). The perusal chronicling the step-by-step process of how a teacher-made writing assessment instrument was developed and validated remains underreported (Glušac & Milić, 2022; Schedl & Malloy, 2014), especially for comparison and contrast essay writing based on a genre-based approach. The explicit picture of the development of an assessment instrument would give a practical contribution to the development of teachers' assessment literacy to self-design and develop a valid and reliable assessment for their effective writing teaching practices. Thus, this article aims to respond to this empirical void by picturing the development assessment instrument with two guiding research questions:

1. How is the assessment instrument developed?
2. How is the assessment instrument's quality maintained?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Teacher-Made Assessment Instrument: Teacher's Role and the Key Principles

Teaching is an overall process of instructional activity that covers planning the instruction, developing and delivering materials, facilitating students' learning, and assessing students' performance and achievement. Therefore, teachers' roles in the classroom are multifaceted and, ideally, should not be reduced to one particular domain. Teachers should play a part as curriculum evaluators and assessors by constructing a test as an instrument of assessment to gain information about the students' knowledge, ability, and skills as an outcome of the instructional activities (Brown, 2004; Lee, 2017).

Assessment literacy was first introduced by Stiggins in 1991, making reference to the apprehension and prowess of enacting the knowledge of assessment in a varied procedure of learners' attainment (Xu & Brown, 2016). Twelve years later, Inbar-Lourie (2008) introduced the language assessment literacy term, referring to a multifaceted tenet (Pill & Harding 2013) that consists of knowledge, skills, and principles of language assessment (Davies, 2008). Despite a wealth of body literature showing studies related to the attempt to design teacher-made test instruments, yet, some researchers (e.g., DiDonato-Barnes et al., 2013; Glušac & Milić, 2022; Stiggins, 1991) pinpoint that teachers are still incapable of carrying out a vigorous test and do not have adequate knowledge and skills to design assessment instruments. In a similar vein, some empirical studies also sound out unsatisfactory conclusions, pointing out some challenges faced by teachers, such as a lack of knowledge on language assessment (Razavipour et al., 2011), discrepancies between teachers' knowledge and practice (Jannati, 2015), and the propensity to apply traditional ways of assessment (Tsagari & Vogt, 2017). Scholars (e.g., DeLuca et al., 2016; Janatifar & Marandi, 2018; Tsagari & Vogt, 2017) suggest that more training on assessment should be offered.

Correspondingly, to bring a quality classroom assessment, teachers should adhere to some key principles. Brown (2004) points out that a good classroom test should meet these criteria: validity, reliability, practicality, and authenticity. Validity is understood as the degree to which a test instrument can measure what is intended to be measured (Blumberg et al., 2005; Field, 2005; Robson, 2011). Brown (2004) and Pallant (2011) suggest that validity has four types: content validity, face validity, construct validity, and criterion-related validity. The test instrument has content validity if it measures the behavior, skills, and knowledge that are supposed to be measured (Brown, 2004; Creswell, 2005). Face validity seems akin to content validity, but it wants to see if the test instrument is clear and free from multi-interpretation from the point of view of non-experts such as the test takers (Oluwatayo, 2012). Construct validity is intended to see how the constructed test instrument aligns with the existing theories. Criterion validity is demonstrated to see 'to what extent the test's criterion has been met (Brown, 2004). Furthermore, reliability is defined as the stability or consistency of the scores that students achieve each time they use the test, regardless of who the evaluator/assessor is and how many times the test is taken (Brown, 2004; Livingston, 2018; O'Neill & Murphy, 2017). Next, practicality refers to the test that should be easy to run and should not be costly under reasonable time restrictions with a clear scoring scheme (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2019). Lastly, authenticity could be defined as how closely the test corresponds to real-life situations (Brown, 2004). The test should be interesting, meaningful, and contextualized for the students.

2.2 Comparison and Contrast Writing in Genre-Based Approach

The approaches in teaching writing have been dynamic from time to time. To date, there have been four teaching writing approaches: product, process, genre, and process genre-based approach (Badger & White, 2000). The product approach as the name suggests highly emphasizes the product of writing that focuses on grammar structure, vocabulary, and cohesive markers in the whole of the writing. As a result, to achieve this accuracy, students need to undergo these processes of writing: familiarization (students need to get exposed to the attributes of the texts), controlled writing, and guided writing (students are guided to achieve their independence to write assisted with table consisting needed phrases and sentences and pictures) and free writing (students can produce the whole text on their own). The process approach focuses on writing development and views the writing process as a cyclical process of writing starting from prewriting, composing/drafting, revising, to editing. In pre-writing, students need to do brainstorming to generate as many ideas about the topic as possible and organize those ideas in an outline. During the composing/drafting stage, students start composing the writing based on the outline as their first draft. Students then need to revise and edit the draft. As a cyclical process, editing is not the end of the writing process, but students can revise their writing at any point to produce more drafts and have the last piece for publication. Furthermore, genre could be understood both as an act of grouping things into categories by spotting their attributes and as a platform for people to interrelate under a shared accord (Suharyadi, 2021). It is grounded in systemic functional theory and later developed by its adherents, including J.R. Martin (Firkins et al., 2007).

Badger and White (2000) point out that the genre approach shares some principles in common with the product approach; for instance, they both focus on linguistics aspects and the importance of providing students with a model of texts, serving as language input that students could take as a model (Badger & White, 2000; Hyland, 2007). Differing from other writing approaches, this approach emphasizes the significance of social context: a product of writing is embedded in the purpose, audience, and structure of the text (Hyland, 2007).

A genre-based approach in writing classrooms has been realized in several designs such as the curriculum cycle (Callaghan & Knapp, 1989), a wheel model of a teaching and learning cycle (Hammond et al., 1992), and the teaching and learning cycle (TLC) (Caplan & Farling, 2017; Hermansson et al., 2019). These frameworks accord with necessitating students to work hand in hand and individually to produce a piece of writing and emphasize exposing students to exemplary texts along with their functions, structure, and target audience. The process genre approach is introduced to overcome the weaknesses of previous writing approaches as this approach deals with the writing development and genre of the text. In the process genre approach, learners need to pay attention to the context, audience, and purpose of the text, and genre (social function, generic structure, and language feature of one text). Then, they will undergo a series of cyclical processes namely planning, drafting, and publishing.

Relatedly, an essay is a group of paragraphs that discusses one single idea and has an introductory paragraph, developmental paragraphs, and a concluding paragraph that discusses causes and effects, reasons, examples, processes, classifications, or points of comparison and contrast (Smalley et al., 2001). A comparison and contrast essay is defined as a type of essay that discusses both similarities and differences; the similarities between two entities and the divergences that distinguish them (Englert et al., 1991). In other words, the function of this text is to showcase how two things, persons, and places are the same and to demonstrate how two things, persons, and places are different. In terms of its generic structure, like other essays, it has introductory, developmental/body, and concluding paragraphs. In the introductory paragraph, it has an opening statement, connecting sentences, and a thesis statement. In body paragraphs, each body paragraph has a topic sentence, supporting sentences, and a concluding sentence. Moreover, Oshima and Hougue (1998) explain that the idea in a comparison and contrast essay could be developed in the block and point-by-point organization. In block organization, the writer should write or organize all the differences in one place (block/paragraph) and move to all the similarities in another block/paragraph.

On the other hand, the ideas are organized based on the point of comparison in the point-by-point organization. In other words, in one section, under one point of comparison, two subjects are being compared/contrasted. Finally, a concluding paragraph summarizes the ideas presented in the introductory and body paragraphs. Sometimes, it echoes the thesis statement using different sentences or expressions. As comparison and contrast writing aims to highlight the differences, similarities, or both similarities and differences, this kind of writing requires the writer to use comparative degree and transitional signals that compare and contrast. The transitional signals are mostly used in comparison and contrast writing, for example, “however, in contrast, in comparison/on the other hand, on the contrary, while/whereas, differ from, compared to, compare with, and different from/dissimilar" for contrast and "likewise, similar, as just as, not only… but also, like/just like/similar to, similar to, the same as, and likewise" for comparison (Oshima & Hogue, 2007, p. 143).

Five components of writing are assessed in the comparison and contrast essay namely content, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics (Hughes, 2008). Regarding content, it refers to students' ability to discuss the given topic in their writing. For example, if the students are asked to write a comparison and contrast between two courses that they have taken, the content of the essay should address these two courses. Students should not write anything other than the given topic. As for organization, the students should demonstrate their abilities to meet the comparison and contrast essay development. Apart from having complete introductory, body/developmental, and concluding paragraphs, students' comparison and contrast essays should perform a point-by-point or block-organization pattern. In terms of vocabulary, students' essays should include a wide range of vocabulary use with collocation. In language use, students should be able for example to use tenses, subject and verb agreement, and transitional signals correctly. Finally, mechanics refers to students' ability to use punctuation, capitalization, and spelling appropriately.

3. METHOD

The primary goals of this study were to explore the development and quality control of a classroom assessment instrument for writing a comparison and contrast essay for second-year EFL undergraduate students at a public university in East Java, Indonesia. To attain these research objectives, this research enacted design-based research (DBR), inspired by Cavallaro and Sembiante (2021). DBR is set to study particular instructional aspects more comprehensively while designing an instructional product. This research design is suitable for this scholarly work since it is congruent with the aims of this study. It possesses four main procedures, i.e., 1) pre-implementation; 2) design; 3) implementation and revision; and 4) reflection and evaluation. The pre-implementation aims to achieve familiarity with the researched environments' practices, norms, and behaviors. In Phase 2, the assessment instrument for comparison and contrast essay is developed. Feedback from fellow teachers is gathered. Later, in phase 3, the products are implemented and revised accordingly. Lastly, the overall processes and products are evaluated and reflected. The details of how this research design is integrated into the assessment instrument development are depicted in Figure 1.

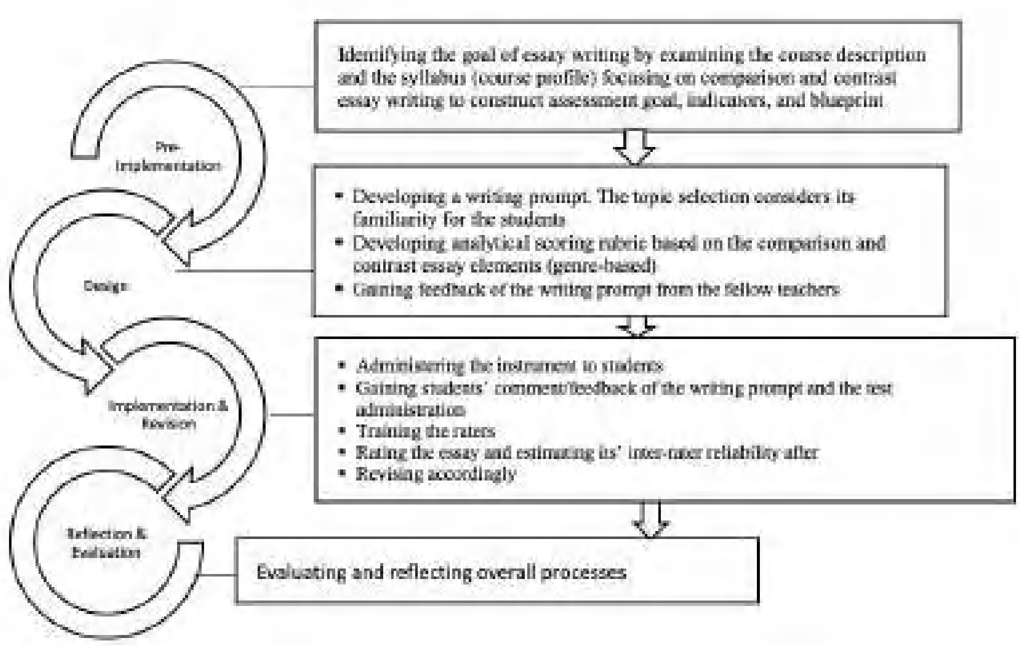

Figure 1. Assessment instrument development steps in DBR phases, inspired by Cavallaro and Sembiante (2021).

Following the first phase of pre-implementation, the second phase of design, and the third phase of implementation and revision, we involved three fellow writing teachers and 10 students to give feedback on the writing prompt. The three fellow writing teachers were asked to analyze and give written comments on the developed assessment instrument, about its language (if the instruction and the language used are clear and not ambiguous), content (if the test content is relevant to the instructional objective (s), assessment goal(s), and the test indicators), and format (if the test time allotment is reasonably sufficient, the format is well organized and complete, containing: test identity and instruction). The 10 students were asked to write a comparison or contrast essay about two different places: two tourist attractions, a traditional market and supermarket, and two cities. Further, after doing the test, the students were asked to complete a survey and write a short reflection about their experience in completing the test using the developed writing test prompt. Additionally, two raters were recruited and trained to rate the students' essays. The process of involving those students, teachers, and raters was based on relevance and accessibility. The students were those who were participating in the essay writing course from a different cohort with a similar level of language proficiency (intermediate to pre-advanced level) to the targeted students for the assessment instrument's enactment. They were involved because one of the authors had access to gain their consent to participate. The three fellow teachers and two raters were recruited based on their expertise in teaching writing, particularly essay writing courses with more than seven years of teaching experience.

Enmeshed in the DBR approach, the overall processes of the assessment instrument development, including the participating individuals, were used as a source of data collection. In this manner, self-observational data (the authors as the assessment instrument developers), 10 students' comparison and contrast essays, students and three fellow teachers' feedback towards the instrument, and the two raters' scoring results were gathered and collectively analyzed, and interpreted to address the research questions. We used data from the self-observation processes of the four DBR phases to investigate how the assessment instrument was developed. Further, we utilized the data from the students' essays and written feedback after the try-out, the fellow teachers' written feedback towards the assessment instrument, and the raters' scoring results of students' essays to determine how the quality of the assessment instrument was maintained. The data from each data source was first analyzed separately using qualitative or quantitative analysis, as appropriate.

In the quantitative analysis, to estimate the assessment instrument inter-rater reliability, the Pearson correlation coefficient formula was employed to determine the scoring consistency of the two sets of scores produced by the two raters. The result of the correlation analysis was interpreted based on the common use of the interpretation table depicted in Table 1.

Table 1. Size of correlation interpretation.

Size of correlation	Interpretation
.90 to 1.00 (-.90-1.00)	Very high positive (negative) correlation
.70 to .90 (-.70 to -.90)	High positive (negative) correlation
.50 to .70 (-.50 to -.70)	Moderate positive (negative) correlation
.30 to .50 (-.30 to -.50)	Low positive (negative) correlation
.00 to .30 (-.00 to -.30)	Negligible correlation

For the qualitative analysis, we aimed to identify the common patterns from the overall fellow teachers' and students' written feedback towards the teacher-made assessment instrument. To achieve this, we carefully transcribed the overall written feedbacks, repeatedly read them, coded them, and interpreted them accordingly to address the intended research objectives. Some simple calculations from the brief survey were also performed to determine the inclusive patterns. In the last phase of reflection and evaluation, the results of qualitative and quantitative analyses were combined to make a relevant interpretation of the overall results. Some key points to ponder and implications were also drawn accordingly.

4. FINDINGS

4.1 The Development of the Assessment Instrument

The very first phase of writing prompt and scoring rubric development for a comparison and contrast essay was identifying the course description of the essay writing course, delineated as follows:

(1) This course develops students' ability to write expository essays using different methods of development: logical division of ideas, chronological order, comparison and contrast, cause and effect, and classification.

This course description was generated by a team of writing teachers by considering the contextual instructional design and the supporting theories (Brown, 1995; Nation & Macalister, 2010). The course description indicates that the essay writing course aims to develop students' writing abilities for expository essays, focusing on the method to develop logical division of ideas, chronological order, comparison and contrast, cause and effect, and classification. It signifies that a comparison and contrast essay is not the sole essay taught in the course. The development of this essay's assessment instrument is, therefore, part of the wider instructional goals and is not designed to represent the whole course assessment.

The next step was examining the alignment between this course description (course profile) and the developed instructional objectives. This process served as a baseline to generate the test goal and indicators. This deliberate and careful analysis aimed to ensure the content validity of the assessment instrument that every teacher could do either independently or in a team of essay-writing teachers. From this process, the assessment goal and indicators were formed.

4.1.1 The goal of the writing assessment

The assessment aims to measure the students' ability to write a comparison and contrast essay about two different places: two tourist attractions, a traditional market and supermarket, and two cities, effectively, accurately, and appropriately by employing the features of a comparison and contrast structure.

4.1.2 Indicators of the writing assessment

This assessment aims to assess students' ability to:

(1) employ the generic structure of a comparison and contrast essay: Making a) an introductory paragraph, b) body paragraphs using block or point-by-point structure, and c) a concluding paragraph correctly,
(2) choose appropriate language use: vocabulary (adjectives, phrases of comparison and contrast) and grammatical structure (comparative degree, tenses) correctly,
(3) use English sentences and transactional signals correctly and effectively,
(4) use correct mechanics (spelling, punctuation, capitalization).

4.1.3 Developing the scoring rubric

The scoring rubric was developed by considering the assessment's goal and indicators representing the course objectives and covering features of a comparison and contrast essay. The element of the scoring rubric was formed in such a way, explicating the genre-based approach as how the comparison and contrast essay is taught in the instructions. Since the purpose of the scoring rubric is to properly guide the raters or teachers in assessing students' writing, its development should be anchored in a systematic, careful, and deliberate endeavor. In this respect, it aimed to provide valid and reliable evidence of students' writing achievement.

The instructional objectives reflected in the assessment goal and indicators would serve as the performance indicators that would be enacted as the guideline to provide scores of students' writing. Practically, the indicators were used to generate specific criteria for determining the proper score for a particular writing quality. The details of the indicators and the nested criteria are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. The blueprint of comparison and contrast essay assessment instrument.

Assessment goal: The assessment aims to measure the students' ability to write a comparison or contrast essay about two different places: two tourist attractions, a traditional market and supermarket, and two cities effectively, accurately, and appropriately by employing the features of a comparison and contrast structure correctly.		
Essay Component (The components were formulated on the basis of the instructional objectives represented in the assessment goal)	Criteria (indicators) for qualified comparison and contrast essay	Weight in %
Introductory Paragraph	- write a complete structure (opening statement, connecting sentence, and thesis statement) - introduce the point of comparison and contrast - attract the reader's attention (hook)	16
Body Paragraphs	- contain a clearly focused topic sentence, supporting sentences, and a concluding sentence that supports the thesis statement - use clear, specific, and sufficient details (supporting sentences) in supporting and developing the topic sentence for a thorough comparison or contrast.	28
Concluding Paragraph	Unify/ tie the overall essay and the points of comparison and contrast effectively	16
Language Use (Vocabulary and Grammar)	- use appropriate and a wide range of technical terms and registers - use correct grammatical structures: tenses, comparison degree, and other required grammatical structures.	20
Sentences and Transition	- write smooth transitions between ideas or paragraphs - employ comparison and contrast transition words to show a relationship between ideas correctly - use effective sentences - employ a variety of sentence structures (simple, complex, compound, complex compound sentence)	12
Mechanics	- use punctuation correctly - use spelling correctly - use capital letters correctly	8

The elements of the blueprint represented in Table 2 were used to develop the scoring rubric. Anchored in GBA, the assessment criteria were ensured to cover the generic structure of a comparison and contrast essay that is distinctive to other essay types. The common features of writing performance indicators were either embedded within the comparison and contrast essay features (e.g., content and organization) or made as explicit criteria (e.g., language use, mechanics). The rating scale ranged from 1 to 100, whereby each performance indicator has a different weight in the overall score. The weight of indicators was formulated based on the undertaking portion of each indicator: 60% for the content and organization of overall paragraphs (16% for the introductory paragraph, 28% for body paragraphs, and 16% for the concluding paragraph), 20% for language use, 12% for sentences and transition, and 8 % for mechanics. The minimum score was set at 25 since there was no zero in the scoring guideline. This decision was made to appreciate the students' effort in writing the essay, as every one of them did write it. Empirically speaking, the decision to give different weights to each indicator was inspired by the work of Bloxham et al. (2016), who underscore the effectiveness of collaborative marking processes in aligning standards and the inherent complexity of assessment decisions.

This research suggests that teachers or educators should prioritize transparency and actively assist students in understanding the nuanced nature of these judgments. Attempting to address the challenge of balancing standardization and complexity in designing assessment criteria, adjusting the weights of different assessment criteria could be an effective approach for improving the accuracy and consistency of writing assessments. Further, Ghanbari and Barati (2020) found that putting more weight on the content indicator might increase the reliability of the writing assessment instrument. In a nutshell, the developed scoring rubric encompasses the necessary features of comparison and contrast essays and common writing conventions in the performance criteria.

4.1.4 Developing the writing prompt

The writing prompt development was based on the selected relevant topics available in the students' textbook and from authentic open-access sources. It was closely related to the materials being taught in the classroom. The writing prompt is provided in Figure 2.

Comparison and Contrast Essay Writing Prompt
(90 minutes)

Direction

1. Suppose that you had a 2-week vacation last month. You visited many places such as tourist attractions, markets, and cities. Having back from your vacation, you were emailed by your friend to recommend the best place to visit. Therefore, write down an essay comparing and contrasting two places to help your friend decide where to visit. You may choose one of the following topics:
   Two tourism attractions
   Two markets
   Two cities
   Be sure to include an engaging introduction, a clear thesis, well-defined and detailed paragraphs, and a fitting conclusion that ties everything together. You may use point-by-point or block organization.
2. Your essay will be evaluated by the following aspects: generic structure of a comparison and contrast essay, language use (vocabulary and grammatical structure), sentence construction and transactional signals and mechanics (spelling, punctuation, and capitalization)
3. You have 90 minutes to write your 400-500 words essay without looking up the dictionary.

Figure 2. Comparison and contrast essay writing prompt.

4.1.5 Administering the instrument

Before assessing the students' writing, the instrument was reviewed by three writing fellow teachers who were not involved in the instrument development process. Some revisions were made as a result of this process. The modified assessment tool was subsequently administered to a separate group of undergraduate students within the English department who had similar language level to the original group of students under consideration. This tryout aimed to evaluate the instrument in terms of its appropriateness, clarity, and adequacy of the time allotment. In so doing, the tryout process was deliberately observed. After the tryout, students were also asked to fill out a brief survey and invited to reflect.

4.1.6 Rating the essay and estimating the inter-rater reliability

After the process of writing the assessment, 10 essays were collected. These essays were then blind-rated by two trained raters, wherein they worked independently following particular procedures. The rating process was done after sufficient training, during which the raters were trained to score properly based on the scoring rubric. First, they were invited to see the details of each performance indicator. Then, a demonstration to assess one essay was conducted. Lastly, they trained themselves to score the students' essays based on the prescribed scoring rubric. After ensuring that the two raters had consistent scores, they started scoring the students' essays.

With the scores of students' essays, the inter-rater reliability was estimated by employing a correlational analysis to see the consistency of the two sets of scores produced by the two raters. The result of this calculation shows a high positive correlation between the two sets of scores.

4.2 Maintaining the Quality of the Assessment Instrument

To ensure the quality of the assessment instrument, the test developers employed content and face validity and inter-rater reliability. The content validity of this developed teacher-made assessment instrument had been achieved since this assessment instrument for a comparison and contrast essay was congruent with the course objectives and essay writing course syllabus from the institution. The test developers perused the existing catalog and the writing course syllabus to ensure the developed assessment instrument met the stated indicators and measured the intended students' comparison and contrast essay writing skills, knowledge, and abilities.

In terms of face validity, we asked three fellow writing teachers' opinions on the writing assessment instrument sheet in terms of the language (if the instruction and the language used are clear and not ambiguous), content (if the test content is relevant to the instructional objective(s), the assessment goal(s), and the test indicators), and format (if the test time allotment is reasonably sufficient and the format is well organized and complete, containing the test identity and instruction). We requested that they put a checkmark on the given test instrument aspects to evaluate whether they are 'yes', 'no', or 'not sure'. Overall, they provided positive feedback by which they mostly ticked 'yes' for all elements. Apart from placing a tick, they gave some notes for test improvement. Table 3 summarizes writing fellow teachers' feedback for the developed writing assessment instrument.

Table 3. Fellow writing teachers' feedback.

Fellow Writing Teachers (FWT)	Good points highlighted (+)	Points needing improvement (-)
FWT 1	The assessment instrument is well developed with reasonable time allotment and clear instruction. I think it covers features of comparison and contrast essays. The template is helpful for students.	My suggestion is to put a brief explanation about important indicators to assess students' writing. This will help students on how they should write better.

Table 3 continued…

FWT 2	This writing assessment instrument is well-developed. It has strengths in terms of language, content, and format.	The indicators should refer to the course objective which focuses on the comparison and contrast essay writing and its characteristics. Also, the writing prompt needs to refer to the indicators in detail.
FWT 3	In my opinion, the test instrument is well-structured and quite complete.	If I may give suggestions, it would be better if the number of words students have to write is included and the time for the test is reduced because half an hour is too long for a writing test. In addition, students may also be reminded about the accuracy of their works and whether they are allowed to look up dictionaries or not.

In general, these three fellow writing teachers acknowledged that the assessment instrument was well-developed in terms of language, content, and format. They reached a consensus in terms of the offered suggestion to enhance its quality: to be explicit about the indicators of the assessment instrument. Based on the feedback from fellow writing teachers, we revised and improved our developed writing assessment instrument. Related to the given suggestion about the time for completing the assessment, when it came to the piloting phase, we found out that the given time (90 minutes) was sufficient for the students to complete their writing.

Following this step, we administered a pilot study (trying it out) to ten students to see the readability (clear and free from ambiguity), the adequacy of time allotment, and the test relevance (with the learned material). In the students' opinion sheet on the writing assessment instrument, these participating students were given the aspects of the assessment instrument (language, content, and format) and asked to provide a tick on the three options ('yes', 'no', 'not sure') under each aspect of the assessment instrument. All these participating students agreed that the assessment instrument was clear and unambiguous, the time allotment was adequate, and the test was relevant to the learned materials. Table 4 shows the participants' opinions.

Table 4. Students' participants' opinions about the assessment instrument.

Statements	**Students' responses**					
	Yes		**No**		**Not Sure**	
	In number	**In %**	**In number**	**In %**	**In number**	**In %**
Language (The instruction and writing prompt are clear and free from ambiguity.)	10	100	0	0	0	0
Content (The test content is relevant to the learned materials.)	10	100	0	0	0	0
Format and test time (The format is appropriate and practical to follow. The test time allotment is reasonably sufficient.)	10	100	0	0	0	0

The students also shared their opinions about the assessment. Most of them felt nervous about being assessed, yet, after listening to the explanation about the aim of the assessment, which would not have academic consequences, they felt much better. One of the students voiced her reflections on the assessment process:

(2) My first impression about the test was that I was a little nervous and I thought the test would be difficult. But when I saw the test and tried to do it, it turned out that the test was easy to understand. The explanation of the test was also easy to understand. The adequate time given also helped me to take this test calmly. This test was helpful to test my own writing skills. (S1)

To see the consistency of the scoring (reliability of the test), we employed inter-rater reliability by asking two experienced writing teachers to mark students' works. Table 5 shows the results from two raters, Rater 1 and Rater 2.

Table 5. Results from Rater 1 and Rater 2.

Students' code	Scores from Rater 1							Scores from Rater 2						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	Total	1	2	3	4	5	6	Total
S1	8	14	12	10	9	4	**57**	8	14	8	10	9	4	**53**
S2	4	4	2	10	6	4	**53**	8	14	8	10	3	4	**47**
S3	8	14	12	15	9	6	**64**	8	14	8	10	6	6	**52**
S4	12	28	12	20	9	6	**87**	8	14	12	15	6	6	**61**
S5	8	28	16	15	9	8	**84**	8	21	12	15	6	6	**68**
S6	16	28	12	15	9	8	**88**	12	21	12	15	6	6	**72**
S7	8	21	12	15	9	6	**71**	8	28	12	15	9	6	**78**
S8	12	28	16	20	12	8	**96**	12	28	16	20	12	6	**94**
S9	12	28	16	16	12	8	**92**	8	28	16	15	9	6	**82**
S10	12	7	12	10	6	4	**51**	4	7	8	10	6	2	**37**

The table of scores from the two raters, Table 5, shows that students performed satisfactorily on grammar and vocabulary aspects, but these students' participants underperformed on sentence construction, transition, and mechanics. Some students' writings lacked comparison and contrast phrases and transition signals, making their writings more descriptive.

After obtaining a set of scoring results from each Rater who rated the test independently, these two sets of scores were analyzed using a Pearson correlation coefficient. Based on the table of correlation interpretation (see Table 1), the results of the statistical analysis indicate a high degree of positive correlation between Rater 1 and Rater 2 in assessing the same set of essays using the developed scoring rubric. Table 6 shows the result.

Table 6. Pearson correlation coefficient result.

		Rater 1	Rater 2
Rater 1	Pearson Correlation	1	.862**
	Rater 1	Pearson Correlation	1
	N	10	10
Rater 2	Pearson Correlation	.862**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	
	N	10	10

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

5. DISCUSSION

The findings of this DBR article have shown how a teacher-made assessment instrument was developed to adhere to the characteristics of a good classroom assessment instrument of practicality, reliability, validity, and authenticity as suggested by Brown (2004). The systematic development process from the pre-implementation to the reflection and evaluation (Cavallaro & Sembiante, 2021), involving fellow writing teachers, students, and trained raters, discloses a strong endeavor to produce a quality instrument. Practicality, reliability, and validity were maintained throughout the process of instrument development (content and face validity), observation of the assessment administration, feedback from fellow teachers and students, and the process of estimating inter-rater reliability. In short, the fellow writing teachers' and students' feedback has helped the test developers gradually enhance the quality of the developed assessment instrument. Coupled with the result of inter-rater reliability, which shows a high degree of positive correlation with a reliability coefficient of 0.862, this instrument is ready to be employed in real classroom settings. In congruence with Hyland (2007), the teacher-made assessment instrument was developed based on a genre-based approach that places a significant emphasis on the social context. As a result, this instrument is inherently authentic. Likewise, the test developers effectively incorporated the principles of effective assessment instruments, including weighing each component of students' writing indicators, as suggested by Ghanbari and Barati (2020). They also included the component of writing assessment for a comparison and contrast essay, as postulated by Hughes (2008), as well as comparison and contrast transitional signals, as advised by Oshima and Hogue (2007). Additionally, they incorporated block and point-by-point organization, as demonstrated by Oshima and Hogue (1998). This finding enunciates that designing quality assessment instruments is doable for teachers who hope to have the capacity to be qualified assessment designers and curriculum evaluators (Brown, 2004; Lee, 2017) as a reflection of assessment literacy mastery (Davies, 2008).

Furthermore, the developed genre-based comparison and contrast essay writing assessment instrument represents the concern of equally translating the principles of the genre-based approach both in the teaching-learning process and its assessment. The coherence between the teaching approach and the employed assessment principle is fundamental to generating students' better learning quality. In other words, designing the right and appropriate assessment instrument for the delivered teaching to advocate students' optimum learning is the essence of the assessment literacy that every teacher should possess (Stiggins, 1991, 2002). The detailed and explicit explanation of the way this writing assessment instrument developed is likely to be an alternative reference to address the empirical dilemma, such as teachers' inability to construct a rigorous assessment instrument (Stiggins, 1991), numerous challenges for teachers to develop the instrument (Razavipour et al., 2011), discrepancies between teachers' knowledge and practice (Jannati, 2015), and propensity to apply traditional methods of assessment (Tsagari & Vogt, 2017). This written source of knowledge could be a complementary measure for the practical training on assessment literacy suggested by DeLuca et al. (2016), Tsagari and Vogt (2017), and Janatifar and Marandi (2018).

When receiving feedback from fellow writing teachers, suggesting explicit indicators in the assessment instrument means that teachers should consistently connect the learned concept to its implementation in writing. In other words, teachers should be able to show how conceptual ideas are put into written form to tie all learned and practiced materials together. According to the in-depth examination, it is noteworthy that students tend to underperform in two areas of basic writing skills, namely sentence transitions, and mechanics, despite having presumably learned them in their previous writing courses. Furthermore, it was observed that some students' essays lacked comparison and contrast phrases as well as transition signals, resulting in overly descriptive writing. This highlights the importance for writing teachers to review and emphasize these aspects in daily instruction, along with essay development materials.

6. CONCLUSION

Given the increasing attention to the teacher's role as an assessment instrument designer, coupled with the inadequate documentation of related references in the literature, this article sheds light on the careful and deliberate development of a set of teacher-made assessment instruments for a comparison and contrast essay. These instruments were based on a genre-based approach in a writing course at a public university in East Java and were designed to maintain their quality. This assessment instrument development project produced a set of formative assessment instruments comprising a writing prompt and scoring rubric. The findings highlight some fundamental procedures to enact in the instrument development to generate a practical, reliable, valid, and authentic teacher-made instrument. Based on the observation of the writing assessment administration to students, feedback from fellow teachers and students, and the process of estimating inter-rater reliability, the developed instrument was valid and reliable. The statistical analysis, employing a Pearson correlation coefficient, indicates that the correlation coefficient between Rater 1 and Rater 2 was 0. 862 ($p = 0.001$), which was lower than 0.01. It implies that the inter-rater reliability is in high positive correlation showing a high degree of agreement between trained Rater 1 and Rater 2 in assessing and judging the same essays based on the same developed scoring rubric.

This in-practice assessment instrument development can be used as a reference, contributing to the teachers' assessment literacy development, particularly in essay writing courses for undergraduate students in English language teaching. It also serves as a valuable model for teachers who would like to do similar assessment development and for future researchers to develop and expand the nested classroom assessment scholarship. A well-structured validity and reliability process of assessment instrument development will practically enhance the teaching practices in the essay writing course in particular and EFL teaching in general. We suggest that future research is directed to investigate the empirical evidence of employing this developed instrument, enacting other relevant research designs such as case studies or experimental research. Similar design-based research highlighting the process of developing assessment instruments for other language skills is also preferable to enrich the existing literature on teachers' assessment literacy development.

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APPENDIX

Comparison and Contrast Essay Writing Prompt

Name : ______________________________ Course: Essay Writing Date : ______________________________ Time : 90 minutes	**Score:**

Direction

Suppose that you had a 2-week vacation last month. You visited many places such as tourist attractions, markets, and cities. Having back from your vacation, you were emailed by your friend to recommend the best place to visit. Therefore, write down an essay comparing and contrasting two places to help your friend decide where to visit. You may choose one of the following topics:

- Two tourism attractions
- Two markets
- Two cities

Be sure to include an engaging introduction, a clear thesis, well-defined and detailed paragraphs, and a fitting conclusion that ties everything together. You may use point-by-point or block organization.

Your essay will be evaluated by the following aspects: generic structure of a comparison and contrast essay, language use (vocabulary and grammatical structure), sentence construction and transactional signals, and mechanics (spelling, punctuation, and capitalization)

You have 90 minutes to write your 400-500 words essay without looking up the dictionary. Use the following template.

______________________Title

______________________________________Introductory paragraph

____Body paragraph 1

____ Body paragraph 2

_______________________Body paragraph 3 (Not necessary if you use Block Organization)

____Concluding paragraph

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Learner Autonomy: Moroccan EFL University Students' Beliefs and Readiness

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Abstract

Learner autonomy has attracted considerable scholarly attention in language learning. Research on this concept is abundant and continues to flourish. However, to date, scant attention has been paid to researching autonomy in the Moroccan context. Thus, the present mixed-methods study aimed to partially bridge the gap by investigating university EFL students' beliefs and their perceived readiness level of autonomy. For this purpose, both quantitative and qualitative methods were employed to collect data. Questionnaires were administered (n=245), and interviews were conducted with selected participants (n=16). An autonomy scale consisting of five parameters (planning and goal-setting, learners' expected teacher roles, learners' beliefs and affect management, learners' social behaviors, and learners' self-assessment and learning strategies) was used to elicit and analyze data. The items that made up the learner autonomy scale were adopted and modified from different influentially existing scales. Three main themes were generated and analyzed in the qualitative strand following thematic analysis procedures. The results demonstrate that most students held positive beliefs towards autonomy and appeared ready to embrace it in their learning journey. Students exhibited a strong inclination towards using English outside the classroom (89.8%), displaying a willingness to take responsibility for their learning (85.3%), and setting learning goals (82%). The qualitative results highlight some aspects, such as participating in content creation within lessons and effectively managing their time. In light of these findings, this study

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suggests pedagogical implications for EFL teachers to enhance learner autonomy in their classrooms as well as a set of recommendations for future research.

Keywords: Assessing autonomy, autonomy dimensions, beliefs, EFL students, learner autonomy.

1. INTRODUCTION

A growing interest in researching autonomy has been observed in recent decades. Since its first emergence into the field of English Language Teaching (ELT) in the 1980s, efforts have been made by scholars to conceptualize the concept (Benson, 2011; Little, 2007; Sinclaire, 2008). Little (2007) described it as an educational goal that is "cross-culturally valid" (Smith, 2008, p. 396). It is needed in students' language learning (Han & Reinhardt, 2022; Lien, 2022; Pawlak, 2017; Yusnimar, 2019). Five core areas have been the research focus in the last two decades. These include the nature and origins of autonomy (Benson, 2011; Little, 2007), the promotion of learner autonomy (Benson, 2011; Cotterall, 2000), pedagogy for learner autonomy (Jiménez Raya & Vázquez, 2022), the relationship between learner autonomy and target language proficiency (Dafei, 2007; Little, 2007; Sakai & Takagi, 2009), and measuring students' readiness for autonomy (Alrabia, 2017; Chan, 2010; Saeed, 2021).

This proliferation of research has yielded evidence that autonomous learners appear to be successful language learners (Daflizar et al., 2022; Soruç et al., 2017). Learner autonomy has been advocated because it fulfills one of the prerequisites of student-centered learning (Al-Khresheh, 2022). In this context, learner autonomy is understood as an aim that needs to be achieved so that learners will manage their own learning and pursue learning for life. As ELT has changed in theory and practice, education in Morocco has recently witnessed some reforms and changes, the latest being the Framework Law 51-17, which appeared in 2019 (The Ministry of Education, 2019). This law encourages learner autonomy, considering it as the ultimate goal of education since it develops life-long learners who will be able to sustain learning beyond the walls of the classroom. The present study follows the trend of research that focuses on EFL learners' autonomy, but in a different context where much still needs to be done to get insights into how learners perceive and exercise autonomy in their learning.

Indeed, students at the university level should become autonomous learners because, at this phase, they have become learners who ought to be characterized by initiating and self-directing their own learning (Kermani & Hashamdar, 2017; Merriam, 2018; Merriam & Bierema, 2014). It has been proven that language learning occurs when learners are involved in the teaching-learning process, when engaged in the negotiation of classroom activities that respond to their needs, and when encouraged to learn as a community (Richards, 2006). In essence, they should be able to formulate their learning goals, identify learning materials, use learning strategies, and eventually assess their learning (Knowles et al., 2015). In this regard, learner autonomy should be encouraged because it is "both a pre-condition of self-efficacy and higher achievements in learning and an essential learning outcome" (Raitskaya et al., 2021, p. 213). In other words, assuming a degree of autonomy plays a key role in students' learning experiences and, hence, in achieving better learning outcomes.

The concept of autonomy in the Moroccan context has been the subject of extensive research. As Bagci and Aydin (2021) observed, research focusing on autonomy has been more prevalent in Western than Eastern societies. Therefore, the readiness of Moroccan EFL learners to take control of their own learning has remained significantly under-researched, creating a gap that the present study aims to address partially. Another gap that the present study sought to bridge relates to the national educational reforms, which have not been adequately reflected in empirical research. This has rendered attempts to promote autonomy among students somewhat superficial in practice. This is because a model of autonomy that works in a particular educational context may not necessarily apply to another. The present study believes that initiating the design of a local model with the voices of students is a pivotal step in addressing this issue. Essentially, the paper investigates whether students are prepared to be autonomous in their learning and the extent to which they exhibit autonomous beliefs and practices. The study addresses two primary questions:

1. To what extent do Moroccan EFL learners perceive themselves as autonomous language learners?
2. How do these learners perceive and exercise autonomy?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Over the last few decades, autonomy has become a well-established construct. Indeed, much headway has been made in this concern and continues to be made as publications have recently been on the rise in an increasingly academic manner (Benson & Lamb, 2021; Han & Reinhardt, 2022; Raitskaya et al., 2021; Reinders, 2021). The field is, therefore, "reaching a stage of maturity" (Chong & Reinders, 2022, p. 1).

2.1 The Concept of Autonomy

Defining autonomy has been a primary focus of much research among scholars. Being "a construct of constructs, entailing various dimensions and components" (Tassinari, 2012, p. 28), autonomy appears to be a challenging concept to define. The foundational definition of the concept was provided by Holec (1981), who defined it as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning" (p. 3), which entails the ability to determine one's goals, to choose the content to be learned and how it should be learned, and to engage in self-assessment. While Little (1991) considered Holec's account of autonomy as "the universally accepted definition" (p. 14), there has been an emphasis on some aspects related to autonomy over others. For example, whereas Holec's (1981) definition stresses the ability to learn independently from others, Little (1991) put more emphasis on the psychological aspect of the learner's capacity to make decisions about both the content and process of their learning. At another end of the spectrum, Cotterall (1999) conceptualized autonomy in terms of the learners' ability to use learning tactics, a point that is consistent with the statement that autonomous language learning involves, among other things, the use of learning strategies

(Griffiths, 2015; Rubin, 2005). Meanwhile, Benson (2011) deemed the concept as "the capacity to take control of one's own learning" (p. 58).

Thus, two notions stood out in Benson's definition: capacity and control. The former is defined as "what a person has the potential to do, rather than what they actually do" (Huang & Benson, 2013, p. 9). The term capacity denotes the potential that an individual possesses within them rather than a set of instances of learning behaviors, while control indicates "the power to make choices and act on them" (p. 9). Although this may indicate that what and how to learn are decided by the learner, learners may actually choose to purposively depend on the teacher when they consider that necessary and more appropriate at an occasion (Reinders & Benson, 2021). All in all, the definitions above imply that autonomy is a capacity or ability that is developed and that implies assuming responsibility for and control over one's own learning, where 'control' is "a matter of learners doing things not necessarily on their own but for themselves" (Little, 2007, p. 14). Therefore, this capacity can be achieved if learners are able to decide on their own learning, choose and identify learning materials, use effective learning strategies, and constantly assess their own learning.

A growing body of research on learner autonomy identified several aspects that determine the learning behaviors of autonomous learners (Chan et al., 2010; Larsen-Freeman et al., 2021; Macaskill & Taylor, 2010; Phan, 2021; Ruelens, 2019; Shen et al., 2020). One of these characteristics is the learning beliefs that students bring to the classroom (Cotterall, 1999). They are factors that may either enhance or hinder the development of their potential for exercising autonomy, depending on the kind of beliefs learners hold (Chan et al., 2010; Tassinari, 2012). Learner beliefs may influence how learners approach language learning (Dang, 2012), and they eventually affect learners' autonomy readiness (Saeed, 2021). Another aspect that plays a role in autonomous learning is self-assessment (Phan, 2021; Ruelens, 2019; Shen et al., 2020). The ability of students to self-assess their learning progress is key to developing their autonomy (Benson & Lamb, 2021; Phan, 2021). Also, learners' use of planning and learning strategies is another determinant of autonomous learners (Knowles et al., 2015; Larsen-Freeman et al., 2021; Phan, 2021; Ruelens, 2019; Shen et al., 2020). The variety of the aspects discussed here suggests that learner autonomy is indeed a complex construct, and its measurement must reflect these aspects.

2.2 Assessing Learner Autonomy

Assessing learner autonomy has been problematic based on the related literature. Nunan (1997) pointed to the difficulty in trying to measure autonomy, which is essentially a matter of degrees and "not an all-or-nothing concept" (p. 192). In other words, while there is some evidence of students' observable behaviors manifesting some characteristics of autonomy, it is, in the first place, "not a single, easily described behavior" (Little, 1991, p. 7). However, according to Benson (2011), this does not mean that one cannot try to measure it. He continues that there should be a possibility for a measuring scale allowing for judging how successful the process is if the aim is to promote autonomous learning.

Therefore, Benson (2011) viewed that the construct of autonomy can, in principle, be measured. However, the environment in which it is present or assumed to take place should be considered to reflect the learners' characteristics (Lin & Reinders, 2017). Ho and Croockall (1995) thought the issue of context as central to the discussion on an assessment by emphasizing that "the culturally constructed nature of the classroom setting" (i.e., learners' and teachers' expected roles) "needs to be taken into account" (p. 237). Moreover, since it is contextually variable (Benson, 2011), the assessment of autonomy is influenced by the constraints and affordances that are particular to an educational context. This means that there should be an alignment between the measuring tool and the setting where it is developed. Taking all the above considerations into account, the scale items of the present study's instrument are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Learner autonomy dimensions**.**

No.	Dimensions of learner autonomy	Cited sources
1.	Planning and goal-setting.	Knowles et al. (2015), Larsen-Freeman et al. (2021)
2.	Learners' expected roles of the teacher.	Cotterall (1999)
3.	Learners' beliefs, affect, and self-management.	Chan et al. (2010), Cotterall (1999), Larsen-Freeman et al. (2021), Macaskill & Taylor (2010), Tassinari (2012)
4.	Social and other behaviors.	Chan et al. (2010), Larsen-Freeman et al. (2021)
5.	Learners' self-assessment and learning strategies.	Phan (2021), Ruelens (2019), Shen et al. (2020)

3. METHODS

3.1 Context and Participants

A sample of 245 EFL students from the Department of English Studies at the Faculty of Arts and Human Sciences, Moulay Ismail University, Meknes, Morocco, were non-randomly selected. In terms of the participants' gender, there were 105 males and 140 females. They were divided into three age groups: 19-22 years old, 23-25 years old, and 26 years old or above. All participants were majoring in English and were second- and third-year students.

3.2 Data Collection Instruments and Procedures

This study used the questionnaire and interview, adhering to the quantitative and qualitative approaches. It is viewed that the mixed methods approach, allowing for ample data from various data collection tools, is in a position to address the research problem more thoroughly. The approach is more practical in the sense that it encourages the researchers to use all the tools at their disposal to better deal with a problem (Creswell & Clark, 2018). In fact, in his discussion of the research methods in applied linguistics, Dörnyei (2007) encouraged the integration of both quantitative and qualitative methods as each describes a "reality in a different, yet complementary, way" (p. 44). In the present study, learner autonomy is a complex construct that requires using various tools to thoroughly elicit students' views and assess their readiness for autonomous learning. Also, in an attempt to assess learners' readiness for autonomy, Murase (2015) recommended using both quantitative and qualitative tools.

The questionnaire was first piloted with a group of students whose characteristics were similar to the actual intended sample, following the guidelines set by Bryman (2012). Once the final version had been established, participants were asked to indicate their perceived degree of autonomy on a five-point Likert scale, where "Strongly disagree" = 1, "Disagree" = 2, "Neutral" =3, "Agree" = 4, and "Strongly agree" = 5. Specifically, to answer the first research question, five learner autonomy sub-scales that can measure the construct were identified (see Table 1). Consequently, the presentation of results and their description followed these parameters. To ensure that the questionnaire accurately represented the concept of autonomy, its items were all validated following the specialized literature on the concept. Also, the internal consistency of the questionnaire was assessed using Cronbach's Alpha, a commonly used statistical test (Loewen & Plonsky, 2016). It was found that the internal consistency was 0.80 on the learner autonomy scale, which is a highly accepted level.

Furthermore, a semi-structured interview was deployed to seek more insights on some aspects of autonomy to answer the second research question. This type of interview involved using a pre-determined set of questions that the respondents were asked to ascertain how they perceived and exercised autonomy in their learning. Generally, the interviewing technique seeks to probe into the participant's detailed subjective perspectives about an issue (Creswell, 2014). It allows for documenting "how things are experienced, with respect to the phenomenon under investigation" (Leavy, 2017, p. 5). Unlike in a quantitative study, the sample size for a qualitative study is usually determined by the concept of saturation (Boddy, 2016), for it is challenging to predetermine the exact sample size (Denscombe, 2010). Following these arguments, 16 students were selected for an interview in the present study. The participants were asked questions seeking more subjective views about autonomy. Concerning the ethical issues, all the participants, both at the stage of responding to the questionnaires and the interviews, were assured that their responses would be kept confidential and that their views would be used for research purposes only.

3.3 Data Analysis Procedures

The quantitative data was analyzed using SPSS version 23. Scale item analysis for learner autonomy was carried out. The analysis was mainly descriptive in accordance with the first research question, which inquired about their perceived level of autonomy.

Three main themes were generated following the transcription and the coding process to answer the second research question. Thus, thematic analysis was applied to ascertain the beliefs of the students regarding how they perceive their ability and readiness for autonomy. Given that the qualitative strand adheres to the assumptions of constructivism, multiple perspectives that exist in the world ought to be valued (Creswell, 2014). Likewise, the qualitative data of this study is an example of those different views that need to be made sense of, the interpretation of which is only one of several 'right ways' (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003, p. 32). As such, one of the suggested ways to support the interpretation of the participants' responses was to cite examples of text data. In this way, other researchers can understand how the present data was analyzed, which adds to the analysis's transparency and credibility, two important tenets of trustworthiness.

4. RESULTS

4.1 Analysis of the Quantitative Findings

This section presents the main results of the current study. This is done by including tables displaying the percentages of each response to understand the extent to which the participants are ready to assume autonomy in their learning. The first item concerns the learners' engagement in planning and goal-setting.

Table 2. Students' engagement in planning and goal-setting.

No.	Items	SD %	D %	N %	A %	SA %
1.	I set achievable goals in learning English.	.4	5.7	11.8	52.7	29.4
2.	I make study plans that match my goals in learning English.	2.4	9.4	15.1	46.9	26.1
3.	I revise my English study plans if they do not work well.	4.5	13.1	17.6	41.6	23.3

Note. (SD) = strongly disagree, (D) = disagree, (N) = neutral, (A) = agree, and (SA) = strongly agree.

With regard to the first statement, the majority of the participants agreed (52.7%) or strongly agreed (29.4%) that they set achievable goals in learning English. In contrast, only a small number of the participants disagreed. Concerning statement 2, more than half of the participants agreed (46.9%) or strongly agreed (26.1%). As for statement 3, two-thirds of the respondents agreed (41.6%) or strongly agreed (23.3%) that they revised their English study plans if they do not work well, while nearly a quarter of them (17.6%) remained uncertain. Table 3 presents the results about the students' perceived teacher roles.

Table 3. Students' perceived roles of the teacher.

No.	Items	SD %	D %	N %	A %	SA %
4.	*I like the teacher to tell me what to do.	35.1	37.1	13.9	10.2	3.7
5.	*I like the teacher to tell me what my difficulties are.	58	31.8	4.1	5.3	.8
6.	I like the teacher to be more of a facilitator.	.4	8.2	15.5	42	33.9
7.	I can learn without the direct support of the teacher.	10.2	24.5	14.7	34.7	15.9
8.	If given the opportunity, I would like to negotiate which activities to do in class.	1.2	12.7	18.8	41.2	26.1
9.	*I feel worried about learning on my own as I need a teacher to tell me if I am doing well.	22.4	36.3	10.2	21.6	9.4

It is worth noting that the items to which an asterisk is attached indicate their contradiction with the measured construct. Therefore, in response to item 4, the results demonstrated that many participants disagreed (37.1%) or strongly disagreed (35.1%). However, very few of the respondents either agreed or strongly agreed, a result which is similar to item 5, indicating that the participants could do the reverse because the items were reverse coded, which is also the case for the ninth item, whose results are similar to the previous ones. Concerning item 6, more than two-thirds of the participants agreed (42%) or strongly agreed (33.9%). Moreover, in response to item 7, half of the participants agreed (34.7%) or strongly agreed (15.9%) that they could learn without the direct support of the teacher. However, the other half expressed their disagreement and remained neutral.

Regarding item 8, more than half of the participants agreed (41.2%) or strongly agreed (26.1%), and an insignificant number disagreed. The results of item 7 and the qualitative results indicate a kind of ambivalent attitude that the students had towards their expected role of the teacher, probably because of the traditional view of the teaching-learning process that lent authority to the teacher. Table 4 summarizes the results of the students' beliefs and affect and self-management.

Table 4. Students' beliefs, affect and self-management.

No.	Items	SD %	D %	N %	A %	SA %
10.	I believe I can be successful in learning English.	.4	.8	4.1	26.1	68.6
11.	I feel confident in my learning ability.	1.6	5.6	20.8	33.9	37.1
12.	I believe that I can achieve well in my learning.	0.0	.8	4.9	41.2	53.1
13.	I am willing to take responsibility for my learning.	0.0	3.3	6.9	43.7	46.1
14.	I believe that making mistakes is part of my learning	1.6	1.2	2.4	18.8	75.9
15.	I encourage myself to participate in class even if I am afraid that I would make mistakes.	6.9	12.2	14.3	38	28.6
16.	When I feel stressed about my learning, I know what to do about it.	6.9	31.8	18.4	30.6	12.2
17.	I try to create good conditions under which I can learn best.	2.4	4.9	9.8	47.8	35.1
18.	I am resilient, not easily discouraged, and I persevere.	4.5	15.9	24.9	36.7	18

In the third sub-scale, most of the first five items pertained to students' beliefs and received high levels of agreement responses. For example, concerning item 10, many participants agreed (26.1%) or strongly agreed (68.6%), whereas only a few disagreed. Results across the remaining items were almost similar, indicating positive learners' beliefs about their learning. However, higher negative results were demonstrated in response to item 16, and significant negative results were shown in item 18. These items are related to students' affect and self-management, where disagreement levels were observed to be higher. Table 5 presents the results of social and other behaviors.

Table 5. Social and other behaviors.

No.	Items	SD %	D %	N %	A %	SA %
19.	I can make good use of materials.	3.3	13.5	13.5	43.7	26.1
20.	I can identify the websites that are useful for my learning.	2	9.4	12.7	40.4	35.5
21.	I try to find opportunities to use English outside the classroom.	1.6	5.7	7.3	32.2	53.1
22.	I know how to learn from and with others.	3.3	11.8	10.2	43.7	31

The fourth sub-scale results indicate that most participants manifested general self-regulated and social behaviors. For example, most respondents agreed (43.7%) or strongly agreed (26.1%) that they could use materials and resources well when studying at home. In contrast, only a minority of them disagreed. Almost similar results were obtained concerning the rest of the items. The last results about the students' self-assessment and learning strategies are displayed in Table 6.

Table 6. Students' self-assessment and learning strategies.

No.	Items	SD %	D %	N %	A %	SA %
23.	I have my own ways of testing how much I have learned.	5.3	16.7	18.8	39.2	20
24.	I can identify my learning strengths and weaknesses.	3.7	11.8	13.5	45.3	25.7
25.	I evaluate how well I can use English.	.8	10.6	26.1	44.5	18
26.	I know how to organize my learning time more effectively.	7.8	32.2	19.6	27.8	12.7
27.	I know how to choose the strategy of learning that suits me best and use it.	2	16.3	17.6	38	26.1
28.	I can describe the learning strategies that I use.	4.1	17.6	16.2	42	19.6

In response to item 23, over half of the participants agreed (39.2%) or strongly agreed (20%) that they had their own ways of testing how much they have learned. However, a significant proportion of them disagreed. Regarding items 24 and 25, almost similar results were demonstrated with a quarter and a third of the participants, respectively, who either disagreed or remained neutral. In response to statement 26, less than half of the participants agreed (27.8%) or strongly agreed (12.7%). However, almost two-thirds of them disagreed (32.2%), strongly disagreed (7.8%) or remained neutral (19.6%). Regarding statement 27, more than half of the respondents agreed (38%) or strongly agreed (26.1%), a finding that is almost similar to the results of the previous item.

4.2 Analysis of the Qualitative Findings

The qualitative strand is needed to explain whether or not students know how to use a certain strategy because perceiving oneself as an autonomous learner does not ensure knowing what it constitutes. The analysis of each case and the sixteen cases' responses yielded three main themes relating to the participants' autonomy, including the importance of autonomy, the student-teacher relationship, and the student's own initiatives and responsibilities. It is worth noting that the participants are referred to as P1, P2, P3, and so on. What follows is a description of these themes.

4.2.1 The importance of autonomy

This theme emerges from the data analysis: "Does autonomy play a role in your learning? Explain why or why not". Results obtained from this question across the participants are positive. Indeed, most interviewees stated that taking control of their own learning is very important. Further scrutiny of the data revealed that the participants mentioned some important reasons why one should be an autonomous learner. For example, P1 stated that being an autonomous learner:

(1) …helps us learn better by doing readings on our own because the teacher cannot give us everything. (P1)

4.2.2 The student-teacher relationship

The second theme that emerges from the analysis of the responses to the question of the students' expected roles of the teacher was related to how they viewed themselves in relation to their teachers and what roles they would assign to the latter. The results generally reveal that the teacher's role, as viewed by the participants, is that of a guide and a facilitator. In this respect, P3 noted, "the teacher should guide us and facilitate things for us when we find something difficult". Some went even further to determine how much is expected of a teacher. For example, P2 mentioned that she "prefer[s] the teacher to give [her] 25%". P15 stated that:

(2) I expect my teachers to guide me, and the rest depends on me. For example, to show me the things that I should focus on and look for by myself because I consider him as a guide, not as the one who provides me with everything I don't understand. (P15)

Another way of describing the students' views of their roles and their teachers' is in terms of the choice of the content to be taught in class. The question was: "Whose responsibility should it be to choose the content to be taught in class?" The participants were divided into two main types of responses: those who said it is only the teacher's responsibility, which was voted by the majority, and those who advocated a shared responsibility between both parties. Regarding shared responsibility, some participants stated that students and teachers should decide on the content. For example, P7 elaborated on his comment as follows:

(3) The teacher is responsible for the course, but sometimes it is a good opportunity to let students bring with them some new lessons, just to be more helpful to the other students, and those lessons, of course, must be related to the course we are studying. (P7)

4.2.3 Student's own initiatives and responsibilities

One of the questions the participants were asked to elicit their autonomous practices, especially related to the student's initiatives and responsibilities, is: "How do you usually study?" This question was asked to understand whether or not students could explain their usual study plans as another way of depicting some autonomous behaviors. The analysis indicates that most students were identified to do some activities showing their initiative and responsibilities. For example, P6 noted that he attended his classes in the classroom, read some other materials, such as books, and listened to native speakers as an act of out-of-class learning.

Another question is: "How much time do you devote to your studies outside the classroom?" In response to this question, most students reported no specific time. Indeed, P8 said that he would study for two hours and sometimes the whole day. Generally, the time the participants would devote to their studies outside the classroom differed, depending on whether it was an exam period or not. This indicates that they were exam-oriented and lacked effective time management, as the quantitative results indicated. For example, P9 explained that:

(4) As you can see, in the period of the exams, we are spending four hours per day. However, in the period of normal days, we spend, let's say, one hour or two hours reading books and novels. So, it depends on the period. (P9)

Another question is, "What does being responsible for your learning mean?" The analysis identifies two types of learners: reactive and proactive. On the one hand, some equated responsibility with attending classes and doing what is assigned to them only (reactive autonomous learners), which applies to the majority. On the other hand, others understood it as going beyond the usual assigned tasks or activities and taking initiative (proactive autonomous learners).

Concerning the self-assessment question, students were asked: "Do you check your progress? Explain how". Most participants said they would check their progress, but they did it in different ways. For example, P6 noted that he would sometimes check his progress by accessing some tests on the internet. Another participant (P10), in addition to doing some exercises online, recorded himself on the phone and later listened to his voice to check his speaking. Moreover, P1 said she would check her progress by reading books. She explained her method as follows:

(5) Every time, I check my progress to see if I am improving or not. I do it by reading some easy books first; then, I read more complex books. If I understand the idea in these books, I feel I am progressing in my learning. (P1)

However, the other participants either do not check their progress or, if they do, they did not provide any examples of how they would do so when asked to explain more.

Based on the results presented in this section, the qualitative data show that the participants' responses varied considerably. The results also prove that perceiving oneself as engaging in a certain activity or a strategy does not necessarily mean knowing how to practice that activity or strategy, which applies to some of the participants in the present study.

Generally, students assessed their overall ability and readiness for assuming autonomy in their own learning positively. The quantitative results revealed that these students were more likely to set goals and accept responsibility for their learning. This was further probed in the interview, which shows that students had positive beliefs about autonomy. While this perceived level of readiness may indicate their readiness to learn autonomously, the qualitative results further demonstrate some aspects they could not control, especially regarding the choice of the content to be taught in class. These findings are discussed below in light of the literature and the results of other studies conducted in other contexts.

5. DISCUSSION

Based on the findings obtained in this study, EFL students' perceived level of autonomy is generally significantly high. Adding the two levels of agreement (94.7%, 89.8%, 82.9%, and 82%), the percentages are rather high with regard to aspects related to their belief to be successful in their learning, their willingness to take responsibility for their learning, their use of English outside the classroom, and setting learning goals. Also, the qualitative results support some of the quantitative results, with the exception of the participants' lack of the ability to choose the content to be taught, which is an important aspect of autonomy. Although some consistency in the quantitative and the qualitative results exists, students in the present study still could not choose or influence the content to be brought to the classroom.

In relation to setting goals, the results of the current study are in congruence with Dang's (2012) study of Vietnamese EFL students who were found to be engaged in setting goals for their learning. Nunan (1997), in his five levels of autonomy, 'creation' is considered a level at which learners can create and set learning goals, a fact demonstrated by most of the participants in the present study. Moreover, it has been found that the level of students' learning with and from others appeared to be among the highest-rated aspects (74.7%). In fact, the literature has already pointed to the fact that being autonomous does not mean being totally detached from others (Little, 2007) because most of the time, learners' "independent efforts to control learning are often episodic and ineffective" (Benson, 2011, p. 91). Concerning their confidence in their learning ability, the participants reported a high level of agreement with a percentage of 71%, a finding by Saeed's (2021) study in which his participants displayed the fourth highest-rated agreement response for the same item.

Similarly, the qualitative analysis revealed that all the students are responsible for their learning. However, examining their responses at a theoretical level yielded two types of autonomous learners: reactive and proactive. The analysis show that most of the participants were reactive autonomous learners, and few of them were identified to be of proactive type. Knowles et al. (2015) considered the latter type more desirable because learners who take the initiative usually perform well in their learning.

The students' views and practices of autonomous learning constitute an implicit acknowledgment of the indispensable role of the teacher, mainly as a facilitator who mediates between them and the content they are taught rather than being the transmitter or source of knowledge. In other words, the students generally do not only appear to be autonomous, but they also seem to understand, except for some students, the idea that taking control over one's learning does not mean excluding the role of the teacher, which is compatible with the literature (Benson, 2011). Contrary to these results, studies carried out in other EFL contexts (e.g., Alrabia, 2017) found that the respondents were identified to have a low level of autonomy readiness in their learning and, thus, were teacher-dependent.

The above results and most other studies' results indicate that EFL learners may be autonomous in some aspects and lack control over others. Also, some students showed instances of autonomy, whereas others did not. This is consistent with the literature that autonomy is a matter of degrees (Nunan, 1997), that these degrees are unstable (Sinclaire, 2008), and that it may not be achieved by all learners, some of whom may depend on the teacher (Merriam & Bierema, 2014). This study attempted to understand autonomy in a context with a noticeable dearth of research on the concept. In investigating this topic, the study used a scale that included various aspects and characteristics of autonomous learners to fully capture how EFL learners are ready for autonomy in their learning.

6. CONCLUSION

The present study investigated Moroccan EFL students' perceptions of and readiness for autonomy in their learning. Based on the findings, it is evident that EFL students' perceived level of autonomy generally significantly high. The highest percentages, when adding the two levels of agreement (94.7%, 89.8%, 85.3%, and 82%), have been evident in the students' tendency to believe that they can achieve success in their learning, their willingness to take responsibility for their learning, their use of English outside the classroom, and their establishment of learning goals. The qualitative data support some aspects of the quantitative results and reveal other aspects over which students could not have control.

Although many students showed a satisfactory level of autonomy, others failed to reach this level. Furthermore, even those who demonstrated high levels in certain aspects of autonomous learning appeared to underrate other aspects of the same construct. In addition to these comparisons of perceived rates on the scale items, the results obtained were also discussed in the light of both the questionnaire and the semi-structured interview to cross-check the quantitative and the qualitative findings. For example, while students seemed highly willing to negotiate which activities should be included in the classroom, the qualitative results revealed their reliance on the teacher in choosing the content to be taught. In terms of their ability to engage in autonomous learning, it can be concluded that they showed some autonomy in several ways. For example, they reported the use of learning strategies, the establishment of learning goals, and an increased awareness of their roles and those of their teachers. The findings of this study seem promising but suggest that some students could not show autonomy in all its aspects. Therefore, some implications for teachers, syllabus designers, and future research can be drawn in light of these conclusions.

Given the current situation, teachers must raise their students' awareness of the importance of assuming autonomy in their learning and involve them in the decision-making concerning what activities to be carried out inside the classroom. Teachers may also use the study's autonomy items as descriptors for a reference checklist to assess their learners' readiness for taking control of their learning. However, as is often the case in our local context, university teachers play multifaceted roles, encompassing those of instructors, autonomy advocates, syllabus designers, and more. Different teachers may adopt different approaches. Therefore, it is crucial to devise a model that can guide teachers in developing autonomy-oriented pedagogy and, by extension, promote autonomy within their classes. Furthermore, it is pedagogically sound for a teacher to guide and help students in areas where they may still struggle to achieve autonomy. The teacher raising their awareness therein should challenge any discouraging belief that students may hold to learn autonomously.

Additionally, since this study only involved the students, including teachers for future research may yield other important insights. Understanding teachers' beliefs could be integral to their readiness to promote autonomy in their students. Moreover, the present research relied on two instruments, a questionnaire and a semi-structured interview, through which the results were obtained. Future research may include, in addition to these instruments, other forms of data collection such as learners' portfolios and diary.

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The Dynamic Influence of Interactive Feedback on Elevating EFL Students' Writing Skills

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Abstract

This study investigates the effect of interactional feedback on students' writing skills. One hundred participants enrolled in an intermediate EFL course at the State University of Malang, Indonesia, were recruited for this research. The quantitative method was employed for data analysis. The primary data analysis method used was the ANCOVA test, followed by the Wilcoxon and Mann-Whitney tests. The results reveal that the dependent variables in the experimental group exhibited higher means compared to the control group. The ANCOVA test show that the dependent variables (writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness) were significantly affected by the addition of feedback (p = 0.000). However, no significant differences were found between the experimental and control groups regarding

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accuracy (p = 0.425) and writing length variables (p = 0.731). As a result, interactional feedback significantly impacted EFL students' writing ability. This result highlights the need for thorough planning and preparation, including preparing ESL/EFL students through explicit instruction prior to peer review, to ensure that learners' interactional feedback is useful. The findings suggest that EFL teachers should carefully select feedback styles that align with the intended purpose of providing feedback. For instance, more specific feedback options may prove more effective in assisting students in revising and improving their written assignments. Finally, this study provides valuable recommendations for further research in this field.

Keywords: EFL learner, interactional feedback, writing ability, writing assessment, writing performance.

1. INTRODUCTION

Various aspects and characteristics of students' texts contribute to their overall quality. No experienced EFL instructor would argue that the number of linguistic errors students make represents the total value of a student's writing ability (Sarré et al., 2021). In the context of writing, students expect a prompt response from the teacher when they submit their writing assignments. These responses were primarily evaluative. Feedback is loosely defined as information the teacher offers to help students comprehend and improve their performance by allowing them to identify and rectify their mistakes (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010). This process informs students whether an instructional response is correct (Polio & Park, 2016). Generally, three broad meanings of feedback have been explored (Hattie & Gan, 2011). The first relates to motivational feedback that enhances general behaviors, for example, in writing or revision activities (Grindle et al., 2017). The second pertains to reinforcement feedback, reacting to specific behaviors, such as spelling errors or particular approaches in writing. The last encompasses informational feedback, consisting of information that students use to modify their performance in a particular way (Elola & Oskoz, 2016). All three aspects are essential in a school setting, but the informational aspect holds the utmost significance.

Kaivanpanah et al. (2015) have demonstrated that feedback has the most significant impact on incorrect answers compared to correct ones in written assignments. Therefore, the most well-known type of feedback is corrective feedback, as these responses were evaluative and educative. Corrective feedback provides information about student performance and understanding (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012). Based on this definition, a student can explore the answers to assess the correctness of a response with corrective information provided by the teacher. This aligns with Miller and Geraci (2011), who revealed that feedback is information that students can use to confirm, add to, overwrite, or restructure information in memory, encompassing domain and metacognitive knowledge, self-awareness, and awareness of tasks, as well as cognitive methods and strategies.

Interactional feedback has also been discussed in the context of feedback on forms, such as grammatical and contextual issues, and on material, such as word-level writing restrictions and concept development. The findings demonstrate that content and form must be considered when providing feedback (e.g., Nava & Pedrazzini, 2018; Wiliam, 2018). Dabbagh (2017) used conversational journal writing to descriptively investigate students' writing skills in an EFL context. In his study, 84 students between the ages of 17 and 22 were divided into control and experimental groups. The quantitative analysis focused on the writing contents, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics. His findings revealed that three scoring settings (content, organization, and vocabulary) significantly improved in the post-test, while language use and mechanics exhibited no significant changes. Moreover, considering students' responses to teachers' feedback, students highly value the feedback they receive on their writing errors (Ferris et al., 2013). The researcher identified numerous grammatical errors in students' writing at the State University of Malang. To address this issue, the researcher employed interactional feedback to enhance students' writing ability. Thus, this study investigates the impact of feedback on students' writing ability, arguing that interactional feedback can facilitate writing skill development (Warsidi, 2017). The following research questions were addressed:

1. What is the relationship between the interactional feedback and students' writing?
2. What is the effect of the interactional feedback on students' writing ability?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Studies on Interactional Feedback

The results of three recent empirical observational studies performed in initial and intermediate-level senior EFL settings (Abdollahifam, 2014) suggest that different types of corrective feedback should be used, depending on students' proficiency levels. Written corrective feedback is considered crucial for the ultimate success of writing, and a wide range of patterns for written corrective feedback are now available in the literature (Bitchener, 2012; Bitchener & Knoch, 2010). Direct feedback involves a teacher pointing out an error and providing the correct form (Ellis, 2009). Direct feedback can take various forms, including eliminating unnecessary words or sentences, providing missing content, and writing the proper form next to the incorrect one (Mao & Crosthwaite, 2019). In this form of written corrective feedback, students receive feedback with explicit corrections from their teacher. In contrast, indirect written corrective feedback indicates an error without making explicit or direct corrections. Students are responsible for identifying and correcting any issues on their own. In most cases, four types of indirect written corrective feedback are used: (1) highlighting or circling the error; (2) indicating the number of errors in a certain section in the margin; (3) using a symbol to indicate where the error occurred; and (4) using a symbol to specify the type of error (Hosseiny, 2014; Sarré et al., 2021).

Identifying students' errors, such as detecting student errors by circling or underlining, is the most commonly used technique for addressing second-language students' writing (Ferris, 2014). Other studies suggest that systematically identifying grammar errors for second language students can improve their writing accuracy and overall writing performance (Van Beuningen et al., 2012). The extent of the errors determines the teacher's choice between direct or indirect written corrective feedback

(Ellis, 2009). However, the effects of either form might be beneficial or detrimental depending on how it is delivered (Mao & Crosthwaite, 2019).

Despite teachers' best efforts, Crosthwaite (2018) used longitudinal data sets to monitor student errors during a semester of English for Academic purpose (EAP) instruction with several options for written corrective feedback in different forms but found no longitudinal decline in the amount or types of errors produced. Jamalinesari et al. (2015) have shown a preference for indirect feedback from teachers in general. Students are encouraged to engage in direct instruction and problem-solving, leading to self-correction and awareness that facilitate further learning (Scott & Dienes, 2010). As a result, identity and motivation can be fostered and developed, enabling students' long-term growth to expand and reinforce their learning. Nassaji (2015) divided participants into four groups to test the effectiveness of various types of instructional feedback: a) explicit correction, b) underlining with error explanation, c) simple description in the margin, and d) underlining only. The results showed that the more explicit the comments were provided, the more accurate the students' revisions were. While written corrected feedback in an academic writing study (Poorebrahim, 2017) was more receptive to students' explicitly and implicitly corrected criticism, text-based feedback for students' writing skills in their classroom instruction is rarely examined.

The instructional aspects of feedback have received a significant attention. Several studies have examined the attitudinal aspects of feedback, specifically EFL students' responses to teacher feedback and their opinions (Lee, 2008). Some researchers have argued that teacher-provided corrective feedback is crucial for learning progress (Abdollahifam, 2014; Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Kaivanpanah et al., 2015; Poorebrahim, 2017). On the other hand, some researchers have questioned whether written corrective feedback positively impacts students' accuracy improvement (Benson & Dekeyser, 2018). However, many still believe that written corrective feedback is a clear, high-priority, and selective way to guide students and help them master their skills and correct their mistakes (Arrad et al., 2014). Providing feedback on student writing is considered an essential educational practice for teachers who aim to enhance their students' writing skills and linguistic accuracy (Bitchener, 2012; Hyland & Hyland, 2017).

Interactional feedback refers to the process of exchanging information or responses between individuals or groups in response to each other's behavior or communication (van Ruler, 2018). This can occur in various contexts, including interpersonal communication, learning, and social interaction. Theories and concepts related to interactional feedback include communication theory and learning theory. In communication theory, there are several models, such as the Shannon-Weaver model. This model depicts communication as a process involving a sender, message, channel, receiver, and noise. Interactional feedback can occur when the receiver responds to the message back to the sender. Another model is the transactional model, which emphasizes the interdependence between the sender and receiver in the communication process. Interactional feedback is considered a response that can alter the dynamics of communication (Wrench et al., 2023).

In the learning theory, several models have also been proposed. For instance, feedback in the learning theory plays a crucial role. In the context of learning, interactional feedback involves providing feedback from a teacher to a student and vice versa. Feedback allows for adjustments and improvements in the learning process (Thurlings et al., 2013). Another relevant theory is constructivism, which highlights the active role of individuals in learning and understanding concepts. Interactional feedback in this context helps individuals build their understanding by providing information and guidance (Kapur, 2019). It plays a crucial role in refining and optimizing communication processes, learning, and social interaction. It creates opportunities for improvement, adjustment, and the development of relationships between individuals or groups.

2.2 Interactional Feedback in Writing Instruction

Some scholars have investigated interactional feedback in language learning in both Teaching English as a Second Language (TESOL) and Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL), including effective supervisory feedback (Mehrpour & Agheshteh, 2017), and written corrective feedback (Poorebrahim, 2017; Zarifi, 2017). Because interactional feedback can be used not only in classroom activities but also in non-classroom settings such as private tutoring, language environments, and long-distance learning interactions such as the internet, its application requires various concepts for better results, considering the interactional purposes, for more effective feedback (Mehrpour & Agheshteh, 2017). For example, the genre approach concept has been applied to enhance interaction in social life, cultural activities, and personal experience (Thorne, 2002), and the goals of the interactional context in language teaching and learning tend to emphasize the abstract concept of knowledge and skills, (Hua et al., 2007), which leans toward the concept of interaction (Seedhouse, 2007). Consequently, in EFL teaching, the interactional context is used not only for situational purposes but also has the potential to improve EFL skills, such as in academic writing and other types of studies.

Previous research has examined the impact of explicit instruction on learners' interactional feedback exchanges during peer review. In the studies under review, instructors—often researchers—explicitly instructed students on peer review. This training directed students on the writing-related difficulties they should focus on and how to offer constructive criticism. Typically, this research-based training aligned with the objectives of university writing courses and the study's purpose. For instance, according to Stanley (2012), coaching or training influenced the intensity of groups' communication, as trained groups engaged in more interaction than untrained counterparts. Additionally, trained groups provided more detailed interactional comments to their peers, which aided them in improving their text revision. This finding suggests that training enabled those groups to assume the roles of evaluators. The frequent interactional exchanges (pointing, advising, collaborating, and clarifying) are indicators of the coached groups' enhanced engagement.

3. METHOD

3.1 Research Method

This study employed quantitative research to systematically and precisely compute the data from the research findings using statistical analysis. Quantitative techniques are prepared methodically and comprehensively, commencing with the research concept and culminating in the study's outcomes (Siyoto & Sodik, 2015).

The researchers employed an experimental design in this quantitative study to explore the influence of interactional feedback on students' writing skills. An experimental design is a broad strategy for a study containing an active independent variable. The research design determines its internal validity, or the capacity to make correct inferences about the influence of the experimental treatment on the variable. In a quasi-experimental design, participants are assigned to groups for the experiment, but not at random.

There are two basic quasi-experimental designs: pre-test and post-test group designs. The researcher employed a pre-test-post-test group quasi-experimental design in this investigation. The pre-test and post-test procedures can be used in a quasi-experimental design (Creswell, 2003). Thus, this study compared the experimental and control groups. The control group is a class that does not use interactional feedback to provide feedback, while the experimental group is the class that provides the interactional feedback. The experimental and control groups were recruited from separate classes or students.

3.2 Participants

This study involved 100 students enrolled in an intermediate English language course at the State University of Malang, Indonesia. These students' writing skills were improved by incorporating interactive activities into the selected language sessions. With 50 students in each group, they were randomly divided into experimental and control groups. The students' ages ranged from 16 to 26, and all were from the same linguistic background: Indonesian natives who had studied English as a foreign language for about nine years. Although this is an unofficial observation based on experience, the student's English language skills could best be defined as pre-intermediate or intermediate without formal test results.

3.3 Research Procedures

The research involved pre-test, treatment, and post-test. This research was conducted over two months, from March to April 2022, comprising eight meetings. The meetings included one pre-test session each for the experimental and control groups, six treatment sessions in the experimental class, and one post-test session for the experimental and control groups.

In the experiment group, students were instructed to create four writing pieces throughout the semester – the treatment in each of the six meetings covered and practiced one unit for each composition. Themes were also designed to help students learn the grammatical structures taught in the unit. At each meeting, the students were given interactional feedback as a treatment. In contrast, the control class did not receive this treatment.

3.4 Data Collection

The research instrument used was an essay writing test. Students were instructed to compose a free essay on subjects found in their course books at the end of the course for the final assignment, which was part of their final exam, and were allocated 40 points. Topics were controlled to elicit conditional structures. Each student's essay was also assessed in terms of word count. Students were required to write a 150-word essay on one of several topics chosen by their teacher. Using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree,' participants were asked to indicate their support for various interactional feedback and rate their preferences for specific types of corrective feedback.

Each feedback point was then categorized according to a local or global problem following the scheme adopted by Nassaji and Kartchava (2017) and Boggs (2019). Local problems include grammar (morphological and syntactic problems), language expression (lexical errors), and mechanics (spelling, punctuation, and capitalization).

Table 1. Categories of writing skill.

Type	Function	Examples
Grammar (morphological and syntactic problems)	Ensuring correct language structure and grammatical rules.	Errors in verb conjugation, mismatch between subject and predicate, or the use of incorrect word forms.
Language expression (lexical errors)	Guaranteeing the accuracy of vocabulary and phrases in appropriate contexts.	Use of the wrong word, differences in meaning in specific contexts, or a mismatch between selected words and the intended message.
Mechanics (spelling, punctuation, and capitalization)	Maintaining readability and clarity of writing through correct spelling and punctuation rules.	Spelling mistakes, incorrect or missing punctuation, and inappropriate use of capitalization.

Global problems include ideas (feedback on the intention and personal viewpoint), content (feedback on the material provided), and organization (feedback on the structure of linked phrases, paragraphs, or passages). In this study, local and global concerns could receive either direct feedback (in the form of reformulations) or indirect feedback (circling/underlining codes or comments).

3.5 Data Analysis and Scoring

Writing tests were administered to the class, consisting of pre-test and post-test, to assess students' recount text writing skills before and after the treatment. The scoring rubric, provided in the appendix, was used to assess the students' writing. This rubric provides comprehensive assessment guidelines for recount text writing skills with the specified indicators. A score of 5 indicates the highest level of performance, while a score of 1 indicates the lowest level of performance.

The main data analysis used in this study is the ANCOVA test, which is an analytical technique useful for increasing the precision of an experiment as it regulates the influence of other uncontrolled independent variables. ANCOVA is used when the independent variables include both quantitative and qualitative variables. ANCOVA applies the concept of ANOVA and regression analysis to determine or examine the effect of treatment on the response variable by controlling other quantitative variables. ANCOVA is a comparative test with the dependent variable interval or ratio data, while the independent variable consists of a mixture of categorical and numerical data, where categorical data can also be interpreted as qualitative or ordinal data. Meanwhile, numerical data is data in numbers or the data which can be interpreted as interval or ratio data.

Subsequently, the Wilcoxon and Mann-Whitney tests were conducted. The Wilcoxon (sign test) is a non-parametric statistic with nominal and ordinal scale data. This test uses two interconnected samples (pairs) to examine relationships. The Mann-Whitney U test is a non-parametric test used to determine the difference in the median of two independent groups when the data scale is ordinal or interval/ratio but not normally distributed. The Mann-Whitney U test requires the data to be ordinal, interval, or ratio scale, even if the data is interval or ratio because the distribution is not normal.

4. RESULTS

Intermediate EFL students at the State University of Malang participated in this study. The researchers employed two samples for this study: experimental and control classes. Interactional feedback was used as a treatment for the experimental class, while there was no treatment for the control class. This research investigates the effect of interactional feedback on EFL students' writing ability in essay writing.

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

Statistics is a preliminary data analysis technique that provides an overview of measured variables. Analysis in descriptive statistics can be performed in the form of data tendency (such as mean, mode, and median) and data distribution (such as standard deviation and variance). Table 2 presents the mean and standard deviation of all variables in the study.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics of all variables.

No.	Variable	Experimental		Control	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1.	Accuracy	2.97	0.88	3.14	0.99
2.	Writing length	3.03	0.85	2.97	1.04
3.	Effectiveness	2.76	1.05	3.09	1.03
4.	Vocabulary	2.80	0.90	3.13	1.09
5.	Elicitations	2.90	1.12	3.29	1.03
6.	Self-correction	3.26	0.95	3.01	0.94
7.	Metalinguistic	3.31	0.96	2.88	1.05
8.	Responsibility	3.12	0.95	3.06	0.86
9.	Preferences	3.31	1.17	2.96	0.93
10.	Proficiency level	3.14	1.11	3.04	0.98

Table 2 describes the mean and standard deviation of ten variables in this study for the experimental and control groups. Six variables in the experiment group have a higher mean than the control group, including writing length, self-correction, metalinguistic, responsibility, preferences, and proficiency level. Four variables in the control group have a higher mean than the experimental group: accuracy, effectiveness, vocabulary, and elicitations.

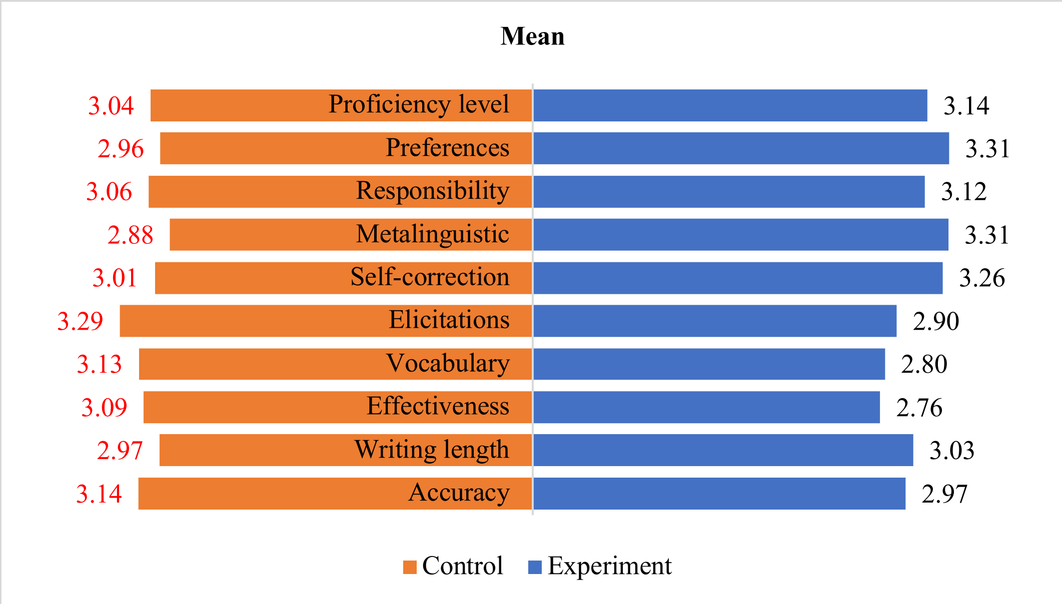

Figure 1. Mean per variable.

4.2 ANCOVA Test

The ANCOVA test is a comparative test with the dependent variable being interval or ratio data. ANCOVA test was performed on the dependent variables: writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness. The results of the ANCOVA test are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. The results of the ANCOVA.

Source	F	Sig.	R-Sq	Adj R-Sq
Corrected Model	41.789	0.000	0.463	0.452
Intercept	104.118	0.000		
Writing Length	81.173	0.000		
Treatment	3.339	0.071		
Corrected Model	34.922	0.000	0.419	0.407
Intercept	93.278	0.000		
Accuracy	67.621	0.000		
Treatment	0.540	0.464		
Corrected Model	38.850	0.000	0.445	0.433
Intercept	150.041	0.000		
Effectiveness	75.372	0.000		
Treatment	0.018	0.894		

Table 3 displays the results of the ANCOVA test, including the corrected model tests, which show the influence of all independent variables simultaneously on the dependent variables. The ANCOVA test results indicate that the dependent variables (writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness) all simultaneously have a significant effect on interactional feedback ($p = 0.000$).

The intercept value represents how much the interactional feedback variable can change without being influenced by covariates or independent variables. The independent variable in this research was interactional feedback, and the dependent variable was writing length, accuracy, or effectiveness. The results show that the

ANCOVA test on writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness on the intercept is significant (p = 0.000). This means that the interactional feedback variable underwent a significant change without being influenced by the dependent variable, whether it is writing length, accuracy, or effectiveness after the treatment.

The effect of each dependent variable, starting from writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness, is expressed in the significance value for each. The p-value for all dependent variables results is 0.000. Concluding that, writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness partially significantly influence interactional feedback. As for the treatment variables (the experimental and control types), all significance values were higher than 0.05, indicating that the experimental and control treatments have no significant effect on the interactional feedback. The goodness of estimation, indicated by R^2 in each ANCOVA test, is 46.3% for writing length, 41.9% for accuracy, and 43.3% for effectiveness.

4.3 Wilcoxon Test

The Wilcoxon test, conducted on writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness variables, is an alternative to the t-test for paired data, and the results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Wilcoxon test results.

Item	Accuracy	Writing length	Effectiveness
Negative ranks	22	27	21
Positive ranks	24	21	27
Ties	4	2	2
Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test	-0.798	-0.344	-1.565
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.425	0.731	0.118

Negative ranks mean the sample with the second group (control) value is lower than the first group (experiment). Positive ranks are samples with the second group (control) value higher than the first group (experiment). In contrast, ties is the value of the second group (control) equal to that of the first group (experiment). In the accuracy variable, 22 students' scores are classified as negative ranks, 24 as positive ranks, and 4 as ties. The Wilcoxon value obtained is -0.798 (p = 0.425), concluding that there is no significant difference between the experimental and control groups for the accuracy variable. For the writing length variable, 27 scores belong to the negative ranks, 21 positive ranks, and 2 ties. The Wilcoxon value obtained is -0.344 (p = 0.731), indicating no significant difference between the experimental and control groups for the variable writing length. In the effectiveness variable, 21 scores belong to the negative ranks, 27 positive ranks, and 1 Ties. The Wilcoxon value obtained is -1.565 (p = 0.118), concluding that there is no significant difference between the experimental and control groups for the effectiveness variable.

4.4 Mann-Whitney Test

The Mann-Whitney test was carried out on writing length, accuracy, and effectiveness variables. The Mann-Whitney test first describes the mean variables in each group (experimental and control), as displayed in Figure 2.

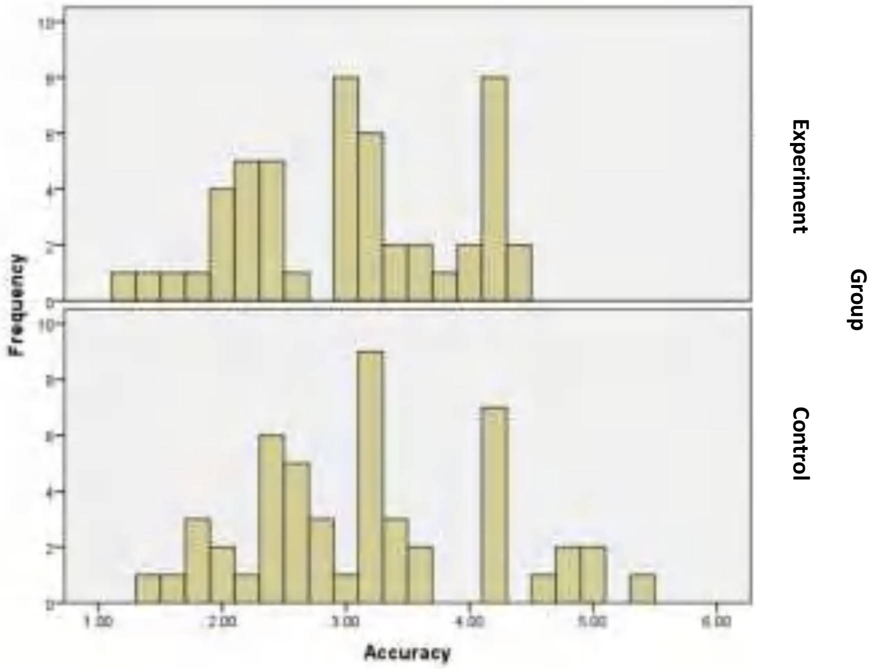

Figure 2. Histogram of mean accuracy.

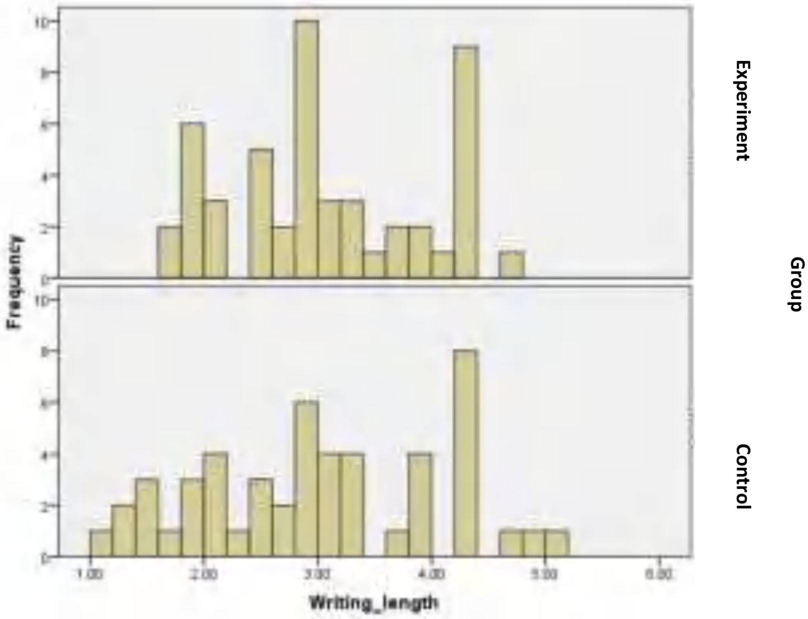

Figure 3. Histogram of mean writing length.

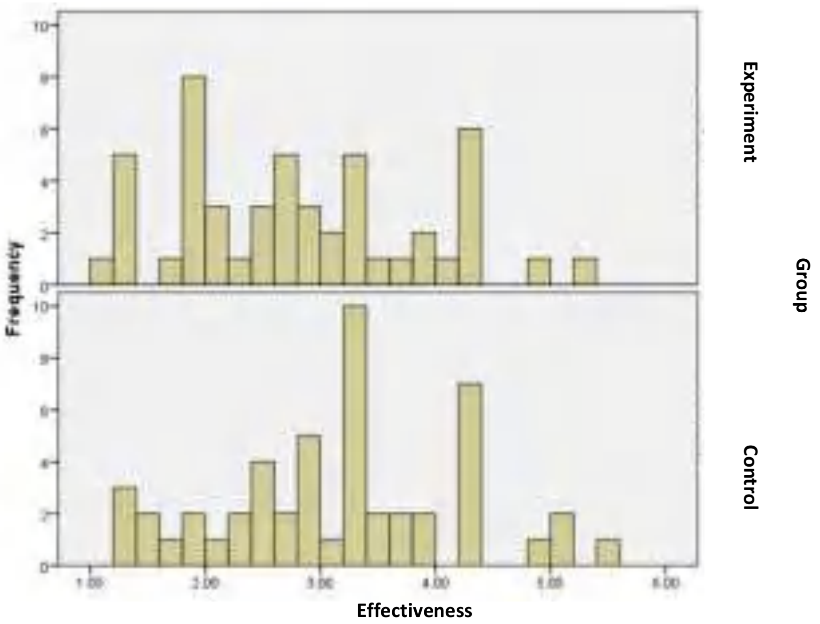

Figure 4. Histogram of mean effectiveness.

Figures 2, 3, and 4 show the difference in the experimental and control groups' data distribution. There are striking differences in accuracy, writing length, and effectiveness variables. Furthermore, a homogeneity test was conducted to ascertain whether the variance in each group (experimental and control) differed.

Table 5. Homogeneity test results.

Item	Accuracy		Writing Length		Effectiveness	
	Levene Statistic	Sig.	Levene Statistic	Sig.	Levene Statistic	Sig.
Based on Mean	0.316	0.575	1.991	0.161	0.261	0.610
Based on Median	0.331	0.566	2.154	0.145	0.278	0.599
Based on the Median and with adjusted df	0.331	0.566	2.154	0.145	0.278	0.599
Based on trimmed mean	0.287	0.594	2.000	0.160	0.225	0.636

Table 5 shows the homogeneity test results using Levene's test method. Levene's test is recommended because it can be used to test the homogeneity of variance on data that are not normally distributed. Meanwhile, the Fisher F test is preferred if the data is normally distributed. The Levene's Test results in Table 4 show that the variance of the two groups is the same or homogeneous on the accuracy variable ($p = 0.575$), writing length ($p = 0.161$), and effectiveness variables ($p = 0.610$).

Table 6. Mann Whitney test results.

Item	Accuracy	Writing Length	Effectiveness
Mann-Whitney U	1,142	1,221	1,003
Wilcoxon W	2,417	2,496	2,278
Z	-0.746	-0.201	-1.708
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.455	0.841	0.088

Table 6 shows the U and W values for the accuracy variable. The Z value is -0.746 ($p = 0.455$), indicating no significant difference between the experimental and control groups. The writing length variable shows a U value of 1,221 and a W value of 2,496, resulting in a Z value of -0.201 ($p = 0.841$), concluding that there is no significant difference between the experimental and control groups. For the effectiveness variable, the U value is 1,003, and the W value is 2,278, with a Z value of -1.708 ($p = 0.088$), indicating no significant difference between the experimental and control groups.

5. DISCUSSION

The first research question investigates whether interactional feedback affected the EFL writers' writing ability. In the immediate post-test, the experimental group outperformed the control group, which aligns with findings from Bitchener and Knoch (2009), where interactional feedback was shown to enhance accuracy. Previous research has explored the impact of explicit instruction on learners' interactional feedback exchanges during peer review. In the studies under evaluation, instructors, often researchers themselves, explicitly guided students in peer review, directing them to focus on specific writing-related difficulties and providing constructive criticism. Such research-based training aligns with the goals of university writing courses, as Stanley (2012) noted. Coaching or training has been found to intensify group interactions, with trained groups engaging more actively than untrained ones. Furthermore, coached groups offered more detailed interactional comments, contributing to improved text revision. The increased frequency of interactional exchanges, including pointing, advising, collaborating, and clarifying, indicates enhanced participation in coached groups.

Learners in the experimental group were found to engage more actively in peer review than those on the control groups (Zhu, 2015). The coached groups were also involved in longer, more in-depth, and more vibrant discussions, a finding corroborated by McGroarty and Zhu (2017), who noted an increased interaction in trained groups regarding the number of turns and the length of livelier exchanges. Additionally, Min's (2015) study showed that specific instruction on peer review increased the number of comments focused on clarifying, identifying, and explaining issues and providing recommendations to improve texts. Learners' attention to comments on global issues also increased.

The second research question examines the relative effect of the interactional feedback variable on EFL students' writing. The results indicate that six variables in the experimental group had a higher average than the control group: writing length, self-correction, metalinguistic awareness, responsibility, preferences, and skill level. Interactional feedback proved to be stimulating, motivating students to produce longer compositions, including drawings and graphs, demonstrating increased motivation.

The statistical analysis indicates that interactional feedback significantly influenced students' accuracy in new writing assignments. The gap between the two groups in terms of error reduction from the first draft to the final revision of each assignment increased over time, though it was not significant in the first two written tasks. That is, neither of the two types of mistake feedback was more useful than the other in assisting learners in fixing their errors during the review stage of the first two tasks. The disparities between the two groups became noticeable in the third task and grew larger in the fourth task. This observation can be explained by the proximity of the feedback options used in this study. When there is significant variation in the level of feedback provided, differences in learners' abilities are more likely to manifest in the initial stages. As a result, the more similar the feedback types, the longer it may take for differences in revision accuracy to appear or become substantial.

Comparing Abdollahifam's (2014) study with the results of the present study, treatment length may impact the study's outcomes. In our study, the variation was insignificant in the first two tasks completed within the first treatment. However, the outcomes of the second and third activities differed. The variation became meaningful in the third and fourth tasks.

The number of tasks completed by students and the treatment duration appear to be crucial. Nassaji (2020), who compared the usefulness of four distinct types of supplementary input on revision accuracy, reported that they were comparable to those of Ravand and Rasekh (2011). They found that less time-consuming ways of diverting students' interest to surface flaws might suffice after finding no difference in the participants' performance in different groups (Nassaji, 2020). Although the study lasted approximately eight months, participants only produced five pieces of writing, which may not have been enough for the differences to arise then. Therefore, shorter-term research findings can be more confidently applied when supported by longer-term longitudinal investigations. This supports what researchers have discovered in the literature, as students desire input on language, content, and structure (Saeed et al., 2018). Written feedback can help students understand how their teachers interpret their writing and identify strengths and flaws.

Teachers should provide feedback selectively, concentrating on crucial areas, such as recurring error patterns (Hardman & Bell, 2018), thereby reducing the input quantity and teachers' workload. This approach can also lead to more legible feedback. Teachers could explore other types of feedback, such as feedback forms with clearly stated criteria, which saves time by allowing teachers to write comments relevant to the criteria, and other feedback modes like voice feedback and computer-based feedback. Future research can investigate various alternatives to textual instructor feedback and students' responses to them in different situations.

6. CONCLUSION

This study highlights that EFL teachers should select interactional feedback styles based on the aim for which the feedback is provided. More specific feedback options prove to be more effective for facilitating students' revision and enhancement of their written assignments. Conversely, more implicit forms of feedback are preferable when the aim is to aid learners in improving their knowledge. The use of more implicit feedback holds two key advantages. Firstly, teachers can deliver implicit feedback more efficiently, saving time. Secondly, by engaging students in the problem-solving process of revision, a more implicit approach increases the likelihood of successful learning.

Nonetheless, there are certain limitations to the present study. Firstly, despite an appropriate teacher-to-student ratio, the study involved a limited number of teachers, making it challenging to generalize the impact of interactional feedback across various contexts. In addition, due to the limited number of participating teachers and their busy schedules, in-depth follow-up interviews that could have provided more nuanced insights and explanations were not feasible. Conducting such in-depth interviews in future studies could help researchers achieve a more comprehensive understanding of the perspectives of both teachers and students regarding differences in actual classroom input.

Moreover, further research is needed to understand the numerous elements influencing learners' preferences for interactional feedback. Based on the diagnostic assessments of the language institutes that participated in the study, one of the study's weaknesses was the rather inadequate operationalization of the proficiency variable. Our findings might be put to the test in a variety of settings, such as a more extensive evaluation of writing skills. Given the physiological and behavioral differences between adults and younger students, a more fruitful line of investigation would be to investigate the influence of age and learning opportunities on preferences for written interactional feedback.

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APPENDIX

Scoring Rubric: Recount Text Writing Skills

Variable	Score 5	Score 4	Score 3	Score 2	Score 1
Accuracy	Demonstrates a high level of accuracy in grammar, syntax, and vocabulary.	Shows accuracy with minor errors in grammar, syntax, and vocabulary.	Has noticeable errors in grammar, syntax, and vocabulary.	Contains frequent errors in grammar, syntax, and vocabulary.	Contains numerous errors impacting overall understanding.
Writing Length	Consistently meets or exceeds the required writing length with a well-developed recount.	Meets the required length with a sufficiently developed recount.	Approaches the required length but lacks thorough development.	Falls short of the required length with limited development.	Significantly below the required length with minimal development.
Effectiveness	Highly effective in engaging the reader, maintaining interest, and clearly conveying the recount.	Effectively engages the reader, maintains interest, and clearly conveys the recount.	Moderately engages the reader, with some lapses in interest and clarity.	Ineffectively engages the reader, with significant lapses in interest and clarity.	Fails to engage the reader, lacking interest and clarity.
Vocabulary	Rich and varied vocabulary used appropriately to enhance the recount.	Good use of vocabulary with some variety, contributing to the recount.	Limited vocabulary use; lacks variety and impact.	Very limited vocabulary use; minimal impact on the recount.	Inappropriate or repetitive vocabulary; does not contribute to the recount.
Elicitations	Effectively elicits emotions, reactions, or responses from the reader.	Somewhat elicits emotions, reactions, or responses from the reader.	Attempts to elicit emotions, reactions, or responses but with limited success.	Lacks effective elicitation of emotions, reactions, or responses.	Does not attempt to elicit any emotions, reactions, or responses.
Self-correction	Demonstrates a high level of self-correction with minimal errors remaining.	Shows effective self-correction with only a few errors remaining.	Attempts self-correction but with noticeable errors remaining.	Shows limited self-correction, with frequent errors remaining.	Lacks self-correction; errors persist throughout.
Metalinguistic	Effectively uses metalinguistic awareness to enhance the recount.	Shows good metalinguistic awareness, contributing to the recount.	Demonstrates some metalinguistic awareness, but with limited impact.	Limited use of metalinguistic awareness; does not significantly contribute.	Lacks metalinguistic awareness; does not contribute to the recount.

Appendix continued…

Responsibility	Takes full responsibility for the recount, demonstrating a high level of ownership.	Takes responsibility for the recount, with a good level of ownership.	Demonstrates partial responsibility for the recount; ownership is inconsistent.	Shows limited responsibility for the recount; lacks consistent ownership.	Lacks responsibility for the recount; no sense of ownership.
Preferences	Effectively incorporates personal preferences, enhancing the recount.	Incorporates personal preferences with some impact on the recount.	Attempts to incorporate personal preferences, but impact is limited.	Shows limited use of personal preferences; impact is minimal.	Does not incorporate any personal preferences; lacks impact.
Proficiency Level	Demonstrates a high level of proficiency in recount text writing.	Shows proficiency in recount text writing.	Approaches proficiency in recount text writing.	Demonstrates limited proficiency in recount text writing.	Lacks proficiency in recount text writing.

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A Case Study of Argument Diagramming in Thai and Indonesian Higher Education Argumentative Essays

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Abstract

This study explores first-year undergraduate students' argumentation essays using argument diagramming structure. A corpus-driven data of 394 argumentative essays were gathered from both Indonesian and Thai universities. A content analysis was employed to examine the dataset of the students' argumentative essays. After gathering primary information from the body parts of their essays, we subcategorized their argumentations into claims and premises in a compliant reading. To ensure data trustworthiness, this study employed triangulation by source and method. The findings show that the most prominent type of argument diagramming was a basic argument, followed by convergent and divergent arguments. Regardless of how the argument diagramming was written, the study found that the students still lacked mastery in structuring their logic when building up the case to be extended to claims and premises. This study suggests a need to revisit pedagogical instructions, in which there should be a provision not only on the basic knowledge of argument structures but also on the skills to recognize the quality of a good argument cognitively. This additional practice will provide important insights to recognize the representational strengths and weaknesses of the students' argumentative writing proficiency to achieve a better performance in the content of their essays.

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Keywords: Argument diagramming, argumentative writing, EFL students, essay.

1. INTRODUCTION

In most societies, the ability to write has become a significant criterion in determining one's academic success or failure (Abadiano, 1995). However, writing is not one's native skill mastery as it is considered the most difficult skill for everyone (Cekiso et al., 2016). The complexity of the process of transferring thoughts into a text (Harris & Cunningham, 1994) involves prominence in language control (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000). Despite the challenges, good writing skills is paramount in higher education as most academic knowledge is constructed and available as written texts (Bazerman, 1988). Moreover, the urgency of fostering students' critical thinking through writing in universities has become an important agenda (Nejmaoui, 2018) as higher education expects students to obtain sufficient knowledge on a subject matter and critically think about the issue or any issues they encounter in their daily situations (Schafersman, 1991). Thus, essay writing using critical thinking is considered an important skill for students in higher.

To conform to what higher education demands, argumentative writing has been used as a central component of university writing since it manifests the students' voices in realizing their academic dynamic by negotiating their individual and socio-culturally-affected voices (Morton & Storch, 2019). EFL classrooms worldwide have incorporated the need to advance their English courses at universities by involving argumentative essay writing as it is a fundamental learning skill, where students share knowledge and construct understandings through social constructivism (Aldridge et al., 2000; Mercer, 2005; Vygotsky, 1978) even though to write is the most difficult skill to master for the EFL students regardless of how long they have studies their English (Phuket & Othman, 2015). The importance of argumentation stems from the need to create a convincing idea to propose or refute with a reasonable critique of a particular notion (Jackson, 2002), which denotes the importance of thinking in the process of human rational activity. Therefore, learning to argue itself is essential as it is a form of deep thinking that advocates critical thinking and the basic construction of conceptual knowledge.

Writings by EFL students have been the subject of prior research, with some dealing with argumentation patterns (Lubis, 2020; Reddy & Pradita, 2022; Rusfandi, 2015). However, prior studies frequently employed undergraduate research to gather their findings only to examine the students' capacity to formulate clauses of disclaim. Furthermore, little research has identified the students' argument diagramming in their writings. Recognizing this gap is crucial to enable students to leverage the potential of developing good arguments. To fill this void, this research sheds light by recognizing the types of argumentation structures that EFL students write. This study also incorporated EFL students' writing from Thailand and Indonesia to broaden the scope of EFL learners, in contrast to prior research that used a single scope of EFL students' writings (e.g., Thailand or Indonesian students exclusively). Thus, this study aims to answer the research question of "Using argument diagramming, what are the types of argument structures that Thai and Indonesian students write in their argumentative essays?"

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 The Nature of Argumentative Essay Writing

Regarding argumentative essay writing, several scholars have clearly defined its general quality. It starts with the authors' points of view towards a certain phenomenon detailed with existing theoretical or empirical evidence (Chandrasegaran, 2008). This is consistent with Bacha's (2010) claim that academic argumentation is a defense of writers' assertions supported by empirical evidence. To conform to the general quality of how an argumentative essay should be written, there is a need for further investigation in the students' argumentative essay writing, especially in the body part where authors present the process of dialogic activities in contrasting ideas to respond to claims, counter-attacking the others' arguments, constructing explanations, posing clarification questions, and rebutting alternative ideas (Chin & Osborne, 2010). This study seeks to examine EFL undergraduate students' argumentative essays by analyzing their arguments' structures utilizing Stab and Gurevych's (2017) illustrated argument diagramming. The goal is to uncover the students' rhetorical tendencies in arranging their thoughts.

2.2 Previous Studies in EFL Argumentative Essay Writing

Educationally and professionally, essay writing has been considered one of the forms of written argumentation that can facilitate the learning process (Andriessen et al., 2003; Jackson, 2002) as the students will actively have ideas on a subject matter, connect them, build the meanings and stances on their own prior to the knowledge they received. Despite the expectations, EFL learners still find it difficult to develop their writing skills, resulting in writing problems. A study by Hammad (2013) in a Palestinian university unfolded how problems occurred in cohesion errors (also in Qaddumi, 1995), grammatical errors, word-for-word translation, lexical errors, lack of content knowledge, and lack of academic style. In the study by Rusfandi (2015), EFL students were aware of the grammatical combinations. Yet, in their competence level, they rarely used their prior knowledge of writing English academic text fluently as a performance. Wray (2012) explained that this was because the nature of English is a language with formulaicity. Thus, it was highly dependent on the student's language learning process.

Ahmed (2010) disclosed other issues in English essay writing of Egyptian students, who found it difficult to write and identify the introduction, thesis statement, topic sentence, and concluding sentences due to a lack of understanding of those elements. Liu (2013) and Reddy and Pradita (2022) found that students tend to focus on the generic argumentation structure given by their teachers. They had restricted order of English and were also difficult to move from their L1 writing abilities. This affects the correct generic structure of argumentation, yet the argumentation delivery remains stagnantly challenging because the ideas constructed in L1 are not always transferable to L2. In other words, determining L2 words that can transfer the L1's idea requires a strong vocabulary and grammar mastery. Coirier and Golder (1993) and Golder and Coirier (1994) also confirmed the previous study as they conducted their developmental study in writing argumentative texts and concluded how argumentative discourse complexity eventually leads to the students' structural elaboration challenges.

Previous studies also identified the difficulties in articulating arguments among EFL students. Johns (2017) and Stapleton (2017) observed the phenomenon in EFL environments where they found that teacher-centered instructional strategies do not make students enthusiastic to engage in dialogue and discussion. Meanwhile, an earlier study by Altinmakas and Bayyurt (2019) pinpointed the underlying disparities between EFL and native English learners in processing argumentation, which might affect the process of learning argumentation itself. EFL learners are seen as passive learners because they are taught how to value experience-based information, while native English learners are taught how to use criticism and arguments to promote learning environments since such discrepancies and disagreements are bound to happen because these stress on the rational aspect of explaining a point of view in the logical flow of thoughts. A study by Mei (2007) also revealed some patterns in argumentative writing where the students in low-rated essays performed repetitive proclaims and disclaims as their simplistic approach to avoid erroneous details.

Dealing with argumentative essay writing has become nuanced as this represents a discourse of organizing thoughts to develop compelling reasoning. Consequently, understanding argumentation structures is inevitable as it enables students to engage sound reasoning, impacting learning, and decision making. Understanding these structures plays a pivotal role in their ability to make informed and effective contributions in society.

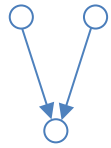
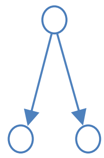
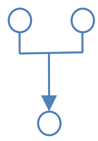
2.3 Argument Diagramming

An argument in academic writing is essential because it affects the quality of works (Stapleton, 2001). Previous studies evidenced this claim to prove that student writers are yet experienced in dealing with stance and voice in academic writing (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). Chryssafidou (2014) found problems with argumentation structure. Those problems are that many students are unable to support their own opinions clearly, are unable to respond by either endorsing or opposing the other scholars' viewpoints, are difficult to integrate other scholars' viewpoints, and lack experience in constructing arguments. In other words, practicing developing argumentation in academic writing is closely related to practicing critical thinking skills. To this extent, this indicates that the students are not yet familiar with the development of arguments and how to voice the arguments.

A previous study by Harrel and Wetzel (2015) found that argumentation diagramming is one of the effective methods to familiarize students with critical thinking practice as integrated into writing skills. Argument diagramming was initially used for computational purposes (Suthers et al., 1997). However, in its development, argument diagramming is used as a teaching technique in computer- and paper-based academic writing (Nussbaum, 2008; Okada & Shum, 2008). This study, thus, suggests that argument diagramming be used as a tool to analyze students' argumentation structure. Through argument diagramming, a discourse analyst can represent the graphical aspects of argument schemata and scaffold the writer in generating argument structure while visualizing the structure.

Hankemans (2000) proposed a method for informal logic known as argument diagramming. This method aims at evaluating the analysis steps of an argument. Stab and Gurevych (2017) illustrated argument diagramming using the node-link concept. They further categorized it into five types of arguments. The summary of this concept is provided in Table 1.

Table 1. The summary of argument diagramming with nodes illustration

Argument types	**Definition**	**Illustrated diagram (nodes at the bottom are the claims of the arguments)**
Basic argument	A claim that is supported by a single premise.	
Convergent argument	It consists of two premises that support the claim individually.	
Serial argument	It includes a reasoning chain.	
Divergent argument (Beardsley, 1950)	When a premise supports several claims.	
Linked argument (Thomas, 1973)	It includes two premises; however, neither of the two premises independently supports the claims. The premises are only relevant to the claim conjunction.	

Research on pedagogical intervention in EFL argumentative essay writing has frequently examined cohesion and coherence. However, little research has been conducted on how the students perform their rhetorical patterns in argumentative writing. Focusing on EFL university students at an undergraduate level, this study aims to analyze their argumentation structures by breaking down the essential elements in argumentation, such as how they build a case claim and premise(s) toward a particular phenomenon.

3. METHODS

3.1 Data Collection Process

The data for the present study were collected from 400 argumentative essays which were selected randomly. However, after further reading, six essays were considered ineligible for further process due to ambiguous formatting and plagiarism issues. Thus, 197 essays were compiled, each from a Thai university, i.e., Walailak University, Nakhon Si Thammarat, and an Indonesian university, i.e., Universitas Islam Indonesia, Yogyakarta. Since students in both countries were enrolled in an introductory course in general writing, they were exposed to basic writing skills, such as sentence writing, paragraph writing, and essay writing. Their English proficiency level was also in the similar range of A2-B1 CEFR level. All student participants completed and signed the consent form to volunteer in this research, and they can withdraw their participation anytime.

During the data collection, each lecturer from Thailand and Indonesia informed those lecturers who taught the basic writing subject regarding the purpose of this study at the beginning of the course. In this research, we did not specify any particular themes the students had to write. Yet, we shared similar goals for the students to produce an argumentative essay by the end of the term. The purpose of this argumentative writing class is to make the students able to construct an argumentative essay as a response to the given topics. They were taught the basic concept of argumentative writing during the course. After learning the structure of argumentative writing, the students were instructed to write an essay based on the topics they ought to choose. During the writing process, consultation and feedback were provided to support their learning.

3.2 Analysis Procedure

To analyze the data, we referred to content analysis procedures proposed by Krippendorff (1989). First, we put the data into an academic context in a way that the students should provide their stance and arguments upon students-related provocative issues in Thailand and Indonesia, e.g., learning styles, national migration issues due to disparities in education quality, mental and health issues, and lifestyle issues. The research instrument in this study was a spreadsheet that was used to categorize the claims and premises from 394 essays. We codified the essays in accordance with Stab and Gurevych (2017). During this phase, we conducted a thorough examination of the students' argumentative essays to determine if the writing had a valid argument consisting of a claim, a premise, or neither. This analysis focused primarily on the body section of the essays, as it is where the students' evaluative language towards a specific phenomenon is most prominently expressed.

We annotated the essays by labeling the Thai students' argumentative essays from ST1-ST197 and ST198-ST394 for the Indonesians'. To validate the data analysis, we performed cross-checking between us. We both were aware of the challenges that the students experienced when writing an argumentative essay in English. To ensure the data trustworthiness, two research assistants were present in dataset analysis to re-examine the argumentative patterns after a brief training for data triangulation.

4. RESULTS

In this section, we provide a comparative analysis of argument diagramming between Thai and Indonesian students found in their essays. After several phases of compliant reading, we as the authors, who acted as peer raters, and the two independent research volunteers involved also identified some markings in the use of discourse markers to ensure we did not miss any argumentation structures. By referring to argument diagramming by Stab and Gurevych (2017), we evaluated the argument components to consider the number of argument diagrams observed in the students' essays. On closer inspection, the students' essays were generally found to follow a claim-oriented procedure by stating a brief background of problems and continuing with collecting their claims. The argument types were then observed, and the results are disclosed in Table 2.

Table 2. Frequency of argument diagramming found in EFL essays.

Thai Undergraduate Students		Indonesian Undergraduate Students	
Argument types	**Occurrences**	**Argument types**	**Occurrences**
Basic argument	90.25%	Basic argument	87.5%
Convergent argument	2.75%	Convergent argument	3%
Divergent argument	0.5%	Divergent argument	2.5%

From Table 2, the majority of both Thai and Indonesian students wrote their essays by forming a basic argument that included a claim supported by a single premise. As described in Table 2, 90.25% of the arguments written by Thai undergraduate students were in a basic structure, while 87.5% of the same cases were reflected in Indonesian undergraduate students' arguments. This shows how they only considered the minimal initial structure of an argument model. A maximum of 3-percentage occurrence in argument writing represented their effort in building up the layers of premises and/or claims identified in convergent and divergent structures by Thai and Indonesian undergraduate students. In the following, we provide samples of argument diagramming from the representatives of students' essay writing in each category.

4.1 Basic Arguments

As elaborated above in the finding, a basic argument, which refers to a claim supported by a sole premise, was favored in the students' argumentative essay writing. The patterns were similarly found in both Thai and Indonesian students.

Thai students' samples:

1) Today, many students or adolescents are suffering from depression and stress in the academic society, where homework is a major stress factor **(claim)**. Homework affects students' grades as *they (homework)* put pressure on students to do it correctly and best for their grades **(premise)**. (ST76)
2) Bubble tea contains caffeine from tea **(claim)**. This can affect concentration, learning, and mood, causing awake and insomnia at night **(premise)**. (ST103)
3) There should be no morning classes because some students are not ready to study at that time **(claim)**. This is causing the students to become tired fatigue for the body, brain blurred, no concentration, study in the morning **(premise)**. (ST122)

Indonesian students' samples:

4) I stand against the saying that life was easier 100 years ago **(claim)**. By saying that a century ago life was easier means that we are not changing for the better because clearly life back then was not suitable for modern people and even to specific groups of people that experience degradation whether it be in their own homeland or migrated with the hope of having a better life for themselves and their family **(premise)**. (ST251)
5) The money that has been used for anti-smoking advertising is wasted **(claim)**. The country has a lot of debt, why not use it to pay off debt or maybe to make a business that can grow in the future **(premise)**. (ST311)

6) Despite studying English for many years, many students still cannot communicate English **(claim)**. Many students experience anxiety when speaking English **(premise)**. (ST320)

The samples above represent a variety of topics that the students were assigned to work on, such as the danger of bubble tea, the consequence of morning class, the effectiveness of anti-smoking advertising, the importance of studying English, and so on. The students made the claims by simply stating a point-to-prove extraction detecting a standard argument component. During the compliant reading, we confirmed that the majority of their argument structuring focused on establishing a minimum element of providing a claim by stating their stance and supported by only a premise, providing reasoning in a single layer. These samples show how the majority of their essays were written. At this point, as pointed out by Hammad's (2013) findings in regards to lack of content knowledge, the current study confirms the idea that the students could not extend their premises in additional linkages given the facts that they simply added new claims instead of extending the premise they wrote with further logical reasoning. It may also conform to Wray's (2012) notion of the nature of English as a language of formulaicity that challenges the students' language learning process to engage toward their evaluative positioning.

4.2 Convergent Arguments

A convergent argument is defined as "two premises that support the claim individually" (Stab & Gurevych, 2017, p. 625). The following samples are extracted from the students' argumentative essay writing displaying the structure of convergent arguments.

Thai students' samples:

7) I think the morning class should start around 10 o'clock **(claim)**. When we start the class at 8 o'clock, it may be too early to cause extreme drowsiness **(premise 1)**. Sometimes, it makes learning difficult to understand **(premise 2)**. (ST26)
8) We should not study in the morning because it's not good to wake up early in the morning **(claim)**. These days, most students like to sleep late because of work, homework, reading, playing games and phones, so most students don't want to get up early **(premise 1)**. Due to not having enough time to sleep and also needing to wake up earlier than usual, it causes us to wake up late or not eat breakfast **(premise 2)**. (ST68)
9) Social media is a major threat to society today **(claim)**. Social media addiction can lead to depression, stress, anxiety, ADHD, and bipolar disorder **(premise 1)**. It also makes us have less time to relax **(premise 2)**. (ST132)

Indonesian students' samples:

10) Anti-smoking advertisements only frighten them but do not make them understand that cigarettes are dangerous and stop smoking **(claim 2)**. The more prohibitions or signs of no smoking, the more it will encourage smokers to carry out their favorite activities **(premise 1)**. The ban is also currently not happening much because smoking is dangerous **(premise 2)**. (ST237)
11) The implementation of Received Pronunciation in Indonesian curriculum functions as the authentic resource of English material **(claim)**. It is important for Indonesian students to be exposed to standardized English listening material as they will use English in academic and official context **(premise 1)**. Another reason to implement RP in Indonesian curriculum is to standardize English discourse in the Indonesian education system **(premise 2)**. (ST353)
12) IELTS can be used as a goal that motivates non-native speakers to improve their English as it is known as the standard legalized and accurate assessment of English language proficiency **(claim)**. The IELTS test can help us to achieve our education, job, or life goals if we plan to enroll in a

university or college, apply to businesses, or register for a visa from government authorities **(premise 1)**. The IELTS test is widely used and easily accessed **(premise 2)**. (ST391)

As can be observed from the samples, some students presented the argumentation in convergent arguments on various topics. The structural features indicated 2 premises to support a claim independently. For example, in the case of ST237, the extension of the premises lay on two independent factors: 1) prohibitions encourage smokers to keep smoking and 2) smoking is dangerous, though the latter premise seemed out of the coordinated standpoint that he/she needed to describe further and elaborate. Both premises supported the claim, showing that the students were aware of how to structure their argumentation structure in a suggested argument type.

However, in contrast to the student's efforts, in both cases of Indonesian and Thai students' essays, we found that their subjectivity to construct a viewpoint is still lacking in terms of dialogic backgrounds to recognize the context they were referring to in their essay writing. To this extent, the students' ideas tend to represent spontaneous reactions instead of structured and logical ones. For instance, ST132 claimed that social media is a major threat to society, that he/she extends the premises to support the claim by saying that social media addiction leads to stress and mental disorders and it makes us have less time. The premises revolve around a basic assumption that the more somebody does this, the more they will get that without characterizing contextual details that may reflect the objectivity of the build-up case. The student should have started by validating why social media creates a major threat to society instead of directly assuming that social media addiction will eventually lead to mental strain and time inefficiency. The exploration of writing a good claim with acceptable premises needs to be revisited to the point where the students need to understand how they position themselves on the discussed issue.

4.3 Divergent Arguments

The last diagram structure, a divergent argument, identified in the students' argumentative essays refers to a premise that supports several claims. The following samples reflect on the idea that a premise is found in the last part of their argument after specifying details in their claims.

Thai students' samples:

13) People might think that social media has a positive effect, but it reduces the interaction and communication between peers **(claim 1).** In addition to wasting your time, social media causes excessive playing and connecting with social media while with other people or in meetings **(claim 2).** Also, we can't concentrate when we're doing homework or projects **(claim 3).** When we do our homework or work, we tend to use social media, which makes us waste time on other things on social media that are not our homework or work that may result in our goal not being achieved within the time limit. Most importantly, too much use of social media makes us less interested in real life **(claim 4)**. As you can see, the social media is totally an enemy to us **(premise)**. (ST142)
14) In general, most students want to study online **(claim 1)**. There is no need to travel to study **(claim 2)**. Online learning requires a method of teaching content in a logical sequence of content which is different from a lecture or one-on-one classroom **(claim 3)**. Therefore, online learning is essential for effective learning **(premise)**. (ST159)

Indonesian students' samples:

15) The implementation of the character education is based on the social function of cultures, traditions, values and norm of Indonesian people **(claim 1)**. The 2013 curriculum implements several values in the students' textbook **(claim 2)**. Thus, English textbook tend to contain social practices that may be not directly shown **(premise)**. (ST273)
16) Anti-smoking advertisements do not cause people to not stop smoking because the message in anti-smoking advertisements does not make smokers afraid of the dangers posed by smoking **(claim 1)**. Smokers do not believe in the effects of the disease because it does not occur directly after they smoke **(claim 2)**. Advertisement warning of the dangers of smoking apparently does not affect cigarette sales turnover and the level of consumer cigarette consumption **(claim 3)**. So, cigarette advertising is not very effective because people are just afraid but don't stop smoking **(premise)**. (ST282)

Both samples portray a reasoning chain in inductive reasoning by focusing on a specific observation in their pattern details of the claims followed by a general conclusion in a premise. In the Thai student's sample (ST142), with the topic of social media and its effects, the premise was identified as a stance to oppose social media in four major claims: reducing interaction, excessive playing and connecting, not focusing on tasks, and a lack of interest in real life. Likewise, Indonesian student's sample (ST282) focused on the premise that the anti-smoking advertising is not effective by three claims: people are not afraid of the danger of smoking, people do not believe in the effects of the disease, and the warning does not affect the sale and the consumption of cigarettes.

As observed in the samples above, the premise was similarly identified as a concluding remark of the previous claims. The components in claims, however, still did not exhibit complexity in their argumentation, but the structure is obvious in modelling divergent arguments. Their experiences in responding to provocative issues highlight this way of delivering arguments. As previously detailed in issues regarding argumentative writing, Mei (2007) found that EFL student writers tend to respond to provocative issues with repetitive claims and a single premise. This finding is similar to Reddy and Pradita (2022), who found that EFL student writers tended to apply their understanding of creating claims. The participants of their research used lexemes that were related to proclaim and disclaim expressions more than the lexemes that represent premises. To some extent, there is a consistent pattern of EFL student-writers argumentation structure. However, observing the pattern found in the previous two decades' studies implies that there should be a concern about the English writing curriculum in EFL higher education.

5. DISCUSSION

From the findings of the argument diagramming as sampled above, we found a major attempt from the students to write their body section of the argumentative essays by evaluating a phenomenon. However, in terms of engaging themselves with the phenomenon, the students still based their positioning as a writer who just writes what he/she read instead of evaluating it from dialogically alternative voices after several data research regardless of the types of argument structures they attempted to write. Missing logical connections often occurred in the students' argumentative essay writing in all types of argument structures as they were unaware that there should have been a validating reasoning before claiming that a particular effect would happen because of what they claimed to be the reason in the first place. On closer inspection, jumping logic would be a habitual practice that the students performed when writing an argumentative essay. Rusfandi (2015) validated this phenomenon where most EFL students were aware of the structural combinations in writing but had not reached their competence level in fluently performing it in their English texts. The finding of current study also affirms that the students were still concerned with following the argument structures instead of validating the content, in this case, their reasoning when generating claims and premises.

This study found that there is a difference to observe in terms of the overall quality of an essay and the argumentative quality of its text. Though there is a connection between these two, they should be treated as distinct constructs to be further assessed. First, in terms of the overall quality of the students' argumentative essays, we found that they followed the generic structure of the essay quite well. The students know how to compose what goes into the introductory, body, and conclusion paragraphs. They could also start identifying their stance on a certain issue in their assigned topic. However, regarding the quality of the argument itself, this study found the importance of matching the base of the argument diagramming function under the writers' argumentative ability. This has been warned by Chryssafidou (2014) as the students may face a potential challenge in integrating the scholars' viewpoints when they lack experience in critical writing, and this results in the students' difficulty in voicing out their arguments structurally. Most EFL students grounded their stance solely using basic argument patterns, reflecting their ability, especially for learners with low argumentative writing ability. The study from Philippakos and MacArthur (2019) that also adopted the framework of strategy instruction from Coirier and Golder (1993) and Golder and Coirier (1994) found that there was an improvement in their low-skilled students' writing, especially in terms of lexical density. As they cited, it is possible that when the students attempt to write in a more complex argumentation structure, it is apparent that their writing quality may deteriorate. The study found that EFL students need to be acquainted with a dynamic range of argumentative structures that should be exposed from early on. This way, they become more aware of the structures and know how to recognize them.

This study also essentially foregrounds the need to explore the cognition process underlying the interaction between argument diagramming and the writer. Writing itself is a process of cognition in which each individual processes it differently. The affordances of the argument diagramming are not always responding to their needs and expectations. The results of engaging with this argument structure become somewhat mixed among writers, with some strengths and weaknesses in their argumentation schema. Those results may come from potentially two reasons. First, the students were brought up in an environment that might not emphasize the need to question things or when the course of argumentative writing was done in a teacher-centered strategy. This has been observed by Johns (2017) and Stapleton (2017), where most EFL writing classes did not let dialogue and discussion happen among students. With that, the students lack the habit of expressing their ideas and may not react favorably to the suggestion of questioning the necessity of arguing the provided issue in argumentative essays. Second, all higher education in EFL settings has mostly been in a high expectation that their students should master critical thinking skills, but this system may not yet be established. In argumentative writing, the dynamic negotiation of students' skills lies in a generic structure and in such ideas of reforming the students' critical thinking. This needs balanced support from all angles, such as more exposure to argumentation patterns from other countries' argumentative writing, more assistance from the teachers who can facilitate access to more argumentative structures in essays, as well as standardized rubrics that may help the teachers orient themselves to set minimum requirements of the assignment. Indeed, all of those considerations will take some time to re-assess.

6. CONCLUSION

This study attempts a practical approach to identifying the argumentative diagramming in the students' argumentative writing. The presence of argument diagramming empirically examines the students' ability in structuring their arguments. It indicates that although they intended to create an argument, their argument structures may have contained logical fallacies. However, by recognizing the structures as such, this study may draw attention to the missing claims and premises and provide constructive feedback to improve the quality of their argumentative writing.

This research sheds some implications on the teaching of academic writing. First, teachers should make their EFL students aware of argument structures. This is essentially important because, in the pre-writing stage, EFL students may create stronger outlines when they are made aware of the broad range of argument structures. This study does not imply that a basic argument structure is less qualified than the convergent and divergent ones. In fact, this study endorses EFL teachers to strengthen the students' potential in writing basic argument structures. Before composing arguments in divergent and convergent argument structures, the students should be equipped to develop a basic argument structure. The second implication is that EFL teachers should reconsider pedagogical instructions in assisting the students' writing to assure that the argument structures are skillfully delivered. This research, however, has limitations in extending the scope of EFL students' essay writings. Further studies can present an additional scope of other EFL countries.

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Investigating English Textbooks Used in Taiwanese Senior High Schools from an ELF Perspective

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Abstract

English textbooks are the major learning resources for Taiwanese students to gain access to the target language. This study examines the English textbooks used in senior high schools (Grade 10 to Grade 12) in Taiwan from the perspective of English as a lingua franca (ELF). To prepare students to use English for international communication, it is worthwhile to examine how English textbooks incorporate an ELF orientation. Through textbook analysis, I investigated the following questions: (1) how the English textbooks used in senior high schools in Taiwan integrate an ELF perspective, and (2) how ELF attributes are manifested in the textbooks through various subject matter, exercises, and activities. The study finds that the examined textbooks partially incorporated an ELF orientation, and the ELF attributes were manifested to different extents. The main ELF attributes in the textbooks were helping learners understand the use of ELF and encouraging English use in relation to learners' experiences and localities. Additionally, the study reveals that the ELF attributes were displayed in various types of activities and exercises, while the subject matter of the textbook units covered a wide range of topics. In light of the findings, I make suggestions for the development of ELF-oriented textbooks at the senior high school level, such as helping English learners to understand the use of ELF by introducing English varieties, encouraging the use of intercultural communication strategies, taking into account of learners' experience in learning English, and promoting learners' awareness of ELF.

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1. INTRODUCTION

With the spread of English usage, the majority of users of English as a lingua franca (ELF) for international/intercultural communication are non-native speakers (non-NSs) (Graddol, 2006). In the global context, English users will mostly encounter non-NSs whose English might differ from the English usage of native speakers (NSs). English teaching practices that favor NS norms may not sufficiently prepare English learners to use English with people from differing English-speaking contexts (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011). However, in Taiwan, English has been traditionally taught in schools as a foreign language (EFL), focusing on teaching grammar and vocabulary for test-taking purposes, especially at the high school level. The EFL-oriented pedagogy and curricula were designed to enable students to achieve native-like competence. Realizing the pitfalls of teaching English to conform to NS standards, the National English Curriculum Guidelines (NEC Guidelines) stipulated by Taiwanese Ministry of Education (MOE) emphasize the importance of Global English varieties and the use of ELF for international/intercultural communication (The 12-Year Basic Education Curriculum Guidelines, 2018). The NEC, aimed at equipping learners with the ability to use English for international/intercultural communication, would inevitably affect the teaching approaches and materials adopted by schools in Taiwan.

ELF is defined as “English being used as a lingua franca, the common language of choice, among speakers who come from different linguacultural backgrounds” (Jenkins, 2009, p. 200). Researchers have investigated ELF from the perspectives of teachers, learners, content, and pedagogy (e.g., Luo, 2017a, 2018; Mauranen & Ranta, 2009; Seidlhofer, 2011). Nevertheless, English teaching practices, testing, and teaching materials continue to target NS norms (Jenkins, 2012), which is why NS norms still “exert a strong effect” on English learners (Csizér & Kontra, 2012, p. 7). As McKay (2012, p. 78) stated, teaching materials “in giving directions for how topics and activities should be implemented can dictate teaching methods or how learning occurs”. It is worthwhile to investigate teaching materials used in schools from an ELF perspective to bring light to the field of English language teaching (ELT) (e.g., Luo, 2017b; Takahashi, 2010; Vettorel, 2018; Vettorel & Lopriore, 2013).

For Taiwanese students, English textbooks are the major learning resources to gain access to the target language and culture. To better prepare students to use English in the age of globalization, it is essential to examine how English textbooks incorporate an ELF orientation and explore the implications of developing ELF-oriented English textbooks (Luo, 2023). Previous studies of English textbooks mainly focused on the analyses of cultural content (Robles & Laborda, 2022) and English uses presented in textbooks (Syrbe & Rose, 2018). Meanwhile, textbook research from an ELF perspective is lacking, and the present study attempts to fill this gap.

This study is aimed at examining the English textbooks used in senior high schools (i.e., Grade 10 to Grade 12) in Taiwan for ELF-oriented content. To evaluate these textbooks from the perspective of ELF, I developed a framework for textbook analysis based on previous studies that included ELT material analysis (e.g., Matsuda, 2012; Mckay, 2012; Vettorel & Lopriore, 2013). Through textbook analysis, I investigated the following questions: (1) to what extent do the English textbooks used in senior high schools in Taiwan integrate an ELF perspective (e.g., promoting awareness of ELF, encouraging the use of intercultural communication strategies, and promoting multicultural knowledge using English)? and (2) how are ELF attributes manifested in the textbooks through various subject matter, exercises, and activities? Additionally, I discussed the implications arising from the findings related to the development of ELF-oriented textbooks at the senior high school level. Through this study, I intend to build knowledge for developing ELF-oriented English textbooks for use in Taiwan specifically and in similar educational contexts generally.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Previous studies of high school English textbooks have examined content concerning course objectives (e.g., Shirazi & Zamanian, 2015), learners' language needs (e.g., Fatima et al., 2015), subject matter (e.g., Ahour et al., 2014), activities (Maharma, 2021) and skills (Pitaksuksan & Sinwongsuwat, 2020; Topal, 2022). Others have investigated cultural representation (e.g., Ke, 2012; Lee, 2009; Robles & Laborda, 2022; Song, 2013; Su, 2016; Yuen, 2011) and English users and uses introduced in the text and activities (e.g., Syrbe & Rose, 2018).

2.1 Cultural Representation and English Uses

Ke (2012) examined high-school English textbooks published in Taiwan during the period from 1952 to 2009 and concluded that the textbooks needed to include more intercultural lessons. In the same line of research, Su (2016) examined the textbooks used in high schools in Taiwan and showed that among the English-speaking countries, the United States had the highest percentage of cultural coverage in the text. Similarly, English textbooks that were used in high schools in Korea presented American culture as the supreme source of English-speaking culture (Lee, 2009). Furthermore, the intercultural interactions portrayed in Korean high school textbooks remained superficial and involved only explanations or discussions of "cultural products such as food, travel, and festivals" (Song, 2013, p. 386). American white cultural representation appears to be favored in high-school English textbooks in the expanding circle such as Korea and Taiwan.

Nevertheless, a study of a locally produced English textbook used at the secondary level in Bangladesh showed that sufficient references to international culture and intercultural content helped raise learners' intercultural awareness and abilities (Siddiqie, 2011). Differently, some studies have analyzed ELT materials to investigate English uses and users represented in textbooks. For instance, Syrbe and Rose (2018) found that non-native English speakers were not positioned as target interlocutors and British models of English were overemphasized in the textbooks used in Germany.

2.2 ELF Perspective

Rather than analyzing cultural content or the representation of English uses and users in textbooks, some studies have investigated English textbooks from an ELF perspective (e.g., Asakereh et al., 2019; Caleffi, 2016; Luo, 2017b; Vettorel, 2018; Vettorel & Lopriore, 2013). Both Caleffi (2016) and Asakereh et al. (2019) examined the listening and speaking activities in the textbooks regarding ELF features, such as exposure to a variety of English accents and oral exchanges, reflections on global topics and multicultural content, and opportunities to exploit communication strategies in ELF contexts. Their studies revealed similar findings in that the examined textbooks failed to provide sufficient exposure to linguistic and cultural variations (Asakereh et al., 2019) and lacked tasks and activities that experimented with ELF strategies (Caleffi, 2016).

Vettorel and Lopriore (2013) examined the English textbooks adopted in secondary schools in Italy from an ELF perspective based on criteria such as references to ELF, activities for raising ELF awareness, and promotion of intercultural communication strategies. Their study revealed that the examined textbooks did not reflect an ELF perspective; there was no significant change in the inclusion of ELF-oriented content and related learning tasks. Similarly, Vettorel (2018) investigated whether the English textbooks used in Italian upper secondary schools included tasks and activities related to communication strategies, for instance, appeals for help, meaning negotiation, and response strategies. Vettorel noted that the examined textbooks did not acknowledge ELF communication strategies and suggested that ELF corpora should be used as resources to demonstrate how communication strategies are employed to negotiate meaning in ELF interaction.

2.3 Teaching Material Evaluation from an ELF Perspective

To improve ELF-oriented teaching materials, some researchers have attempted to establish a framework for developing ELT materials that reflect an ELF perspective. For instance, Mckay (2012) enumerated principles for developing ELF-oriented materials, such as relevance to the domains where English is used, the inclusion of examples of English diversity and ELF users, and respect for the local culture. In comparison, Matsuda (2012) proposed some criteria for evaluating ELT materials with the view of English as an international language: (a) the varieties of English represented in the teaching materials match the needs of students and the focus of the course; (b) the teaching materials raise students' awareness of English diversity; (c) the teaching materials represent both native and non-native speakers of English; (d) a wide variety of cultures are represented in the teaching materials; and (e) the teaching materials are appropriate for the local teaching contexts. These principles and criteria could serve as a reference for evaluating ELT materials from an ELF perspective.

As aforementioned, Taiwan's NEC is aimed to equip Taiwanese students with the ability to use ELF for international communication. Arguably, to align with the NEC, the designs of English textbooks used in Taiwanese schools would underscore the instructional focus on ELF abilities for the students. As textbooks are the major resources for Taiwanese students to learn the English language and the cultures of English-speaking countries, it is essential to examine how the English textbooks used in Taiwanese schools integrate an ELF orientation.

3. METHODS

In this study, I incorporated ELF-oriented principles into the framework to analyze the English textbooks adopted in Taiwanese senior high schools. The textbook selection and analysis scheme is described in this section.

3.1 Textbook Selection

The English textbooks being examined were used in senior high schools (Grade 10 to Grade 12) in Taiwan from 2018 to 2019. The English teachers at the school mostly decided on English textbooks to be used. The English textbooks currently adopted in Taiwanese senior high schools were locally published and distributed. They were mainly produced by three publishers: FE Book Company, LC Publishing, and SN Book Company (these are pseudonyms). Purportedly, the textbooks being adopted at schools represent the locally published textbooks in terms of teaching approaches and content design. Therefore, I chose the textbooks produced by these three publishers for analysis in this study. For this study, I selected three textbook series for analysis, that is, one series from each of the three publishers. Each series consists of six books; one being used in one school semester. I examined 18 textbooks, with a total of 240 units.

3.2 Analysis Scheme

I analyzed the textbooks by closely examining the units based on the framework developed in view of the previous studies on ELT materials (e.g., Matsuda, 2012; Mckay, 2012; Vettorel, 2018; Vettorel & Lopriore, 2013) (see the framework of textbook analysis in Appendix A). The unit of content analysis is each unit in the textbooks. In textbook analysis, it is necessary to select the smallest unit of analysis that can be studied as a whole within which factors of change exist. The subject matter, texts, and activities vary for each textbook unit; therefore, each textbook unit itself is complete and suitable for analysis. The subject matter, texts, and activities presented in a textbook unit were analyzed according to the following ELF attributes:

- helping learners understand the use of ELF (Matsuda, 2012; Mckay, 2012; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2013);
- encouraging the use of English in relation to learners' experiences and localities (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2013);
- encouraging English use outside the classroom (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2013; Vettorel & Lopriore, 2013);
- promoting the use of intercultural communication strategies (Vettorel, 2018; Vettorel & Lopriore, 2013);
- promoting awareness of ELF (Matsuda, 2012; Mckay, 2012);
- promoting the use of English as a tool for understanding global issues (Caleffi, 2016); and
- promoting multicultural knowledge through the use of English (Caleffi, 2016; Matsuda, 2012).

Questions associated with these ELF attributes were developed and used to analyze the content of each textbook unit (Vettorel & Lopriore, 2013). For instance, the questions associated with the attribute "helping learners understand the use of ELF" are as follows:

1. Are there references to ELF in the unit?
2. Are English varieties represented in the unit?
3. What are the English varieties?
4. How are the English varieties represented?

3.3 Data Analysis

In data analysis, a textbook unit could display more than one ELF attribute if the texts or exercises in the unit were evaluated as such. Therefore, the total number of units displaying the ELF attributes would be more than 240. The percentages of units that displayed the ELF attributes would be added up to more than 100 percent. However, a text or exercise inside a unit should only be counted once to prevent duplication. Specifically, a text or exercise can be counted to represent only one ELF property. As aforementioned, the content analysis unit was each unit in the textbooks. Data from each textbook unit were organized into a table that showed the ELF attributes and the content (including the text, exercise, and activity) that displayed the attributes so that one table contained the data analysis of one textbook unit. In this study, I analyzed 240 units and thus produced 240 tables (see an example of the data analysis table in Appendix B). The research data formed a rich collection of information about the examined textbooks that consisted of quantitative information (namely, the frequency and distribution of the ELF attributes in each of the textbook series) and qualitative data (i.e., the presentation of the ELF attributes).

The analysis scheme was carefully designed, and it enabled me to examine the textbooks in detail, both quantitatively and qualitatively, through the lens of ELF. To test and ensure the validity and reliability of the analysis scheme, four ELT professionals at the senior high school level were invited to review the appropriateness and comprehensiveness of the ELF attributes included in the scheme. Additionally, an outside rater was trained and asked to analyze one book in the textbook series produced by each of the three publishers (i.e., a total of three books). Inter-rater reliability was calculated to be 0.95.

4. RESULTS

In this section, the results of data analysis are divided into two parts: (1) the quantitative data, that is, the occurrence and distribution of the ELF attributes among these textbook series, and (2) the qualitative data, namely, the presentation of the ELF attributes shown in the units.

4.1 Occurrence and Distribution of ELF Attributes

The data analysis (see Table 1) reveals that among the 240 units, the top three ELF attributes displayed in the textbook series were: 'helping learners understand the use of ELF' (126 units; 52.5%), 'encouraging the use of English in relation to learners' experiences and localities' (54 units; 22.5%), and 'promoting multicultural knowledge through the use of English' (48 units; 20.0%). The two attributes that were least presented in the textbook series were 'promoting awareness of ELF' (8 units; 3.3%) and 'promoting the use of intercultural communication strategies' (9 units; 3.8%). Intriguingly, as shown in Table 1, among the 126 units that addressed the ELF attribute 'helping learners understand the use of ELF', only four units included content (i.e., texts or exercises) that introduced varieties of English. As for the 54 units for 'encouraging English use in relation to learners' experiences and localities', only one unit contained content that related English learning to learners' experiences. There were considerably fewer units in which the texts or exercises introduced English varieties or related English learning to learners' experiences.

Table 1. Number of units displaying ELF attributes among the examined textbooks (N=240).

No.	Attributes	n	%	SN n(68)	FE n(68)	LC n(104)
1.	Helping learners understand the use of ELF	126	52.5	68	9	49
	(1a Making reference to ELF)	(125)	(52.1)	(68)	(8)	(49)
	(1b Introducing varieties of English)	(4)	(1.7)	(1)	(2)	(1)
2.	Encouraging the use of English in relation to learners' experiences and localities	54	22.5	14	15	25
	(2a Relating English learning to learners' experiences)	(1)	(0.4)	(0)	(0)	(1)
	(2b Relating the content to learners' localities)	(53)	(22.1)	(14)	(15)	(24)
3.	Encouraging English use outside the classroom	35	14.6	16	5	14
4.	Promoting the use of intercultural communication strategies	9	3.8	0	1	8
5.	Promoting awareness of ELF	8	3.3	0	2	6
6.	Promoting the use of English as a tool for understanding global issues	23	9.6	12	5	6
7.	Promoting multicultural knowledge through the use of English	48	20.0	8	15	25

Note. The percentage was rounded up from the second decimal point. FE stands for FE Book Company, LC for LC Publishing, and SN for SN Book Company (these are pseudonyms).

The data analysis also reveals the occurrence and distribution of the ELF attributes in each of the three-textbook series. As Table 1 shows, the textbook series published by LC Publishing contained 104 units; the most frequently presented ELF attributes were 'helping learners understand the use of EL'F (49 out of 104 units; 47.1%), 'encouraging the use of English in relation to learners' experiences and localities' (25 out of 104 units; 24.0%), and 'promoting multicultural knowledge through the use of English' (25 out of 104 units; 24.0%). Among the units that helped learners understand the use of ELF, only one unit introduced varieties of English. Additionally, among those units that encouraged the use of English in relation to learners' experiences and localities, one unit related English learning to learners' experiences.

The textbook series published by FE Book Company consisted of 68 units. As Table 1 presents, 15 out of 68 textbook units (i.e., 22.1%) displayed the ELF attribute: 'encouraging the use of English in relation to learners' experiences and localities'. However, these units only related English learning to learners' localities. Another ELF attribute highlighted in this textbook series was promoting multicultural knowledge through 'English' (15 out of 68 units; 22.1%). This textbook series included nine units for 'helping learners understand the use of ELF'; among these units, two units introduced varieties of English (i.e., 2.9%). In the entire textbook series, only one unit promoted the use of intercultural communication strategies, while two units raised awareness of ELF, with a percentage of 1.5% and 2.9%, respectively.

In the textbook series published by SN Book Company, all of the units (i.e., 68 units) helped learners understand the use of ELF; however, among these units, only one unit introduced English varieties. The other two ELF attributes that were most displayed in the textbook series were 'encouraging English use outside the classroom' (16 out of 68 units; 23.5%) and 'encouraging the use of English in relation to learners' experiences and localities' (14 out of 68 units; 20.6%). None of the units related English learning to learners' experiences. Additionally, this textbook series lacked units that promoted the use of intercultural communication strategies and awareness of ELF.

4.2 Presentation of ELF Attributes

In the above section, I presented the occurrence and distribution of the ELF attributes found in the textbook series. To elucidate how the ELF attributes were manifested in the textbooks (such as types of exercises and subject matter of texts in which the ELF attributes were displayed), some of the examples are described as follows.

4.2.1 Helping learners understand the use of ELF

Based on the analysis framework (see Appendix A), a textbook unit that is counted as 'helping learners understand the use of ELF' should contain texts or exercises that either make reference to ELF or introduce English varieties. Examples of texts and exercises that 'make reference to ELF' are illustrated as follows:

(1) In a conversation, the characters were from different countries (including Denmark, Korea, Japan, and Taiwan) and used ELF for communication. (SN Book 1 Unit 2)

(2) A reading passage described a Taiwanese girl's first impression of America and her experience with her host family. In the passage, it could be referred that the girl used ELF for communication. (FE Book 3 Unit 3)

(3) As a writing exercise, students had to complete a dialog between an exchange student in the United States and his sister on Facebook. In the dialog, the exchange student talked about the mistakes he made with a classmate from India. This exercise would help students make reference to ELF. (SN Book 3 Unit 6)

As for introducing English varieties, all the textbook series were written in American English. While examples of British English were found, no other English varieties were presented in the textbook series. Examples of texts and exercises in the textbooks that introduced English varieties are explained as follows:

(4) A reading text introduced the origin of 'soccer' and explained that the word in North America refers to 'football' in other parts of the world. (FE Book 6 Unit 2)

(5) In a vocabulary section, words describing some exciting outdoor activities were introduced. For instance, 'spelunking' in British English is 'caving' in North American English. (LC Book 4 Unit 3)

4.2.2 Encouraging the use of English in relation to learners' experiences and localities

To be characterized as 'encouraging the use of English in relation to learners' experiences and localities', the text or the exercise should either relate English learning to learners' experiences or relate the content to learners' localities. Only one unit included an exercise that related English learning to learners' experiences, that is, an after-reading discussion activity in which students shared with their classmates how long they had been learning English and the good methods they used to learn English. Examples of activities that related the content to learners' communities and neighborhoods are as follows:

(6) As an after-reading activity, students discussed what they could do to make their hometown or community a better place to live and shared their answers with the class. (SN Book 4 Unit 3)

(7) Students worked in groups to make a special flyer for their school festival by changing the information about the Wife-Carrying Competition, which was introduced in the unit. (FE Book 1 Unit 12)

(8) As a speaking activity, students practiced how to make an emergency call to report a fire happening in their neighborhood and to ask for help. (LC Book 2 Unit 8)

4.2.3 Encouraging English use outside the classroom

In the examined textbooks, the exercises that encouraged the students to use English outside the classroom were mostly homework assignments in groups, for instance:

(9) As an activity of show and tell, students were asked to work in groups to find English signs, labels, notices, or manuals and show them to the class. The students told the class where they had found them and explained what they meant. (LC Book 1 Unit 1)

(10) As an after-reading activity, students worked in groups to find information about a Greek myth that human beings were like chess pieces in the hand of gods and shared the information with the class. (SN Book 2 Unit 5)

The above examples indicate that this ELF attribute was manifested in after-class activities through which the students would be assigned to use English outside the classroom. However, it is argued that ELF-oriented activities should encourage English learners to initiate the use of English after class in a proactive manner to develop ELF communication abilities.

4.2.4 Promoting the use of intercultural communication strategies

Among the few units in the textbooks that promoted intercultural communication strategies, one unit introduced body language and greetings in different cultures. Exercises that promoted the use of intercultural communication strategies are illustrated as follows:

(11) As a listening comprehension activity, students listened to a dialog about gestures and chose the meaning that each gesture conveyed. (FE Book 2 Unit 5)

(12) As a reading and writing exercise, students read a passage about the different ways of greeting and filled in the blanks with the names of the correct ethnic groups associated with the gestures. (FE Book 2 Unit 5)

This ELF attribute was also presented through side notes shown in the units. These notes introduced commonly used English words and expressions for different functions in intercultural communication such as asking questions, giving information, giving orders, expressing strong emotions, inviting, accepting, declining, complimenting, consoling, suggesting, and thanking.

4.2.5 Promoting awareness of ELF

A unit that promoted awareness of ELF would include ELF-awareness-raising activities or exercises in which students used ELF for communication. Examples are shown as follows:

(13) As a writing exercise, students illustrated a special place in Taiwan for a foreign-travel website in English. (FE Book 6 Unit 3)

(14) Students completed several writing tasks to introduce Taiwan to a high school class in Germany through e-mail exchange. (LC Book 4 Unit 2)

(15) As a conversation practice, students worked in pairs and acted as new students in class. They looked at their name cards. One of them was from Germany and the other one from Spain. They introduced themselves in English to each other. (LC Book 1 Unit 1)

(16) As a listening practice, students listened to a passage about how English has been widely used in the world and then completed the comprehension questions about the passage. (LC Book 1 Unit 1)

The above activities and practices presented a simulative context of ELF. Through these activities and practices, the students would become aware of the use of ELF for international communication.

4.2.6 Promoting the use of English as a tool for understanding global issues

Through the data analysis, this ELF attribute was identified in reading texts as well as in various types of tasks. For instance, in a unit about child well-being, the reading text mentioned a series of documentary films about the inequality of children in the world and featured children from different countries to illustrate this global issue. Examples of tasks that had this attribute are described as follows:

(17) As a before-reading exercise to introduce the plight caused by global warming, students looked at a picture of a polar bear standing on a melting iceberg and chose correct statements about the picture. (SN Book 2 Unit 9)

(18) As a writing task, students used certain sentence patterns to rewrite a passage about reviving endangered animals. (SN Book 3 Unit 11)

(19) As a listening practice, students listened to a recording and answered comprehension questions about Earth Day. (SN Book 1 Unit 8)

(20) Students were asked to discuss phrases about environmental protection that they had heard of on TV and to share these phrases with their classmates. (LC Book 2 Unit 3)

These tasks would allow students to learn about global issues such as global warming, endangered animals, and environmental protection by using English in reading, writing, listening, and discussion.

4.2.7 Promoting multicultural knowledge through the use of English

Texts or exercises that promoted students' multicultural knowledge through the use of English helped students develop an understanding of different cultures. Examples of these texts and exercises are presented as follows:

(21) A reading text illustrated bathing practices in different countries, followed by a listening exercise in which students listened to recordings about unique bathing experiences in different countries and matched passages with the correct pictures. (LC Book 6 Unit 2)

(22) As a warm-up task, students looked at different numeral systems and identified the patterns of development, followed by a reading text that introduced numeral systems in different cultures. (LC Book 3 Unit 3)

(23) A reading text introduced Greek mythology (gods and goddesses) and Chinese mythology, followed by a discussion task in which students worked in groups and compared Cupid with the Chinese god of marriage, "the Old Man under the Moon." (LC Book 3 Unit 9)

These texts and exercises would help students develop multicultural knowledge about bathing practices, numeral systems, and mythology through using English in reading, listening, and discussion.

5. DISCUSSION

Given the data analysis, the research findings are discussed concerning the research questions: (1) to what extent do the English textbooks used in senior high schools in Taiwan integrate an ELF perspective, and (2) how are the ELF attributes manifested in the textbooks through various subject matter and tasks. Based on the findings, recommendations are provided for the creation of textbooks that promotes ELF.

5.1 Partially Reflecting an ELF Perspective

In response to the first research question, the findings show that the examined textbooks partially reflected an ELF perspective, and the ELF attributes were manifested to different extents. It is found that the main ELF attributes presented in the textbooks were: 'helping learners understand the use of ELF' and 'encouraging the use of English in relation to learners' experiences and localities'. The occurrence of these two prevailing ELF attributes had a disproportionate distribution concerning attributes 1a and 2b (as shown in Table 1), that is, 'making reference to ELF' and 'relating the content to learners' localities'. The study reveals that the textbooks included a very small number of units that introduced English varieties or related

English learning to learners' experiences. The percentages of the units displaying these two ELF attributes were significantly low (1.7% and 0.4%, respectively). Two ELF attributes, 'promoting the use of intercultural communication strategies' and 'promoting awareness of ELF', were overlooked in the designs of the textbook series. The textbook series published by SN Book Company did not contain any references to these two ELF attributes.

In contrast with previous research (e.g., Song, 2013) showing that the intercultural interactions presented in textbooks simply involved explanations or discussions of cultural products at a superficial level, this study indicates that the examined textbook units promoted multicultural knowledge through the use of English and encouraged the use of English as a tool for understanding global issues. Although fairly low percentages of these two ELF attributes, they were present in all three textbook series (as shown in Table1).

This study reveals findings similar to those of previous studies (Lee, 2009; Su, 2016) in that the hegemony of American English was maintained in the designs of English textbooks. The examined textbooks presented American English and British English but excluded all other English varieties. Differing from previous research on English textbooks that favored cultures of English-speaking countries (e.g., Song, 2013; Su, 2016; Yuen, 2011), this study shows that the examined textbook series introduced cultures of non-English-speaking countries such as Japan, Mexico, and European countries (Robles & Laborda, 2022). The importance of understanding the cultures of the expanding circle was recognized in the designs of the textbook series. As Yuen (2011) stated, English textbooks need to introduce more foreign cultures other than those of English-speaking countries if English is considered a lingua franca in the international community.

The findings show that although the examined textbooks over-relied American models of English use, there were conversations featuring the ELF attribute of 'making reference to ELF'. Characters in these conversations were from the expanding circle, such as Denmark, Japan, Korea, and Taiwan, and they used ELF for communication. Different from previous studies of English textbooks (e.g., Su, 2016; Syrbe & Rose, 2018), in which English uses and users were mainly from the inner circle, the present study reveals that in the examined textbooks, English users from the expanding circle were portrayed in contexts using English as a lingua franca. To promote the concept of ELF, English textbooks need to give characters from the expanding circle more prominent roles in the unit dialogs (Matsuda, 2012).

The above discussion shows that an ELF perspective was partially integrated into the designs of the examined textbook series. The textbooks' contents were at least partially ELF-oriented, with different levels of occurrence and distribution of the attributes. While American English was dominant in the English uses represented in the examined textbook series, English users from and cultures of the expanding circle were presented in the unit dialogs and texts.

5.2 Manifesting ELF Attributes through Various Topics, Types of Activities, and Exercises

Regarding the second research question, the data analysis reveals that the subject matter of the units covered a wide range of topics, from personalities to the interpretation of dreams and from rhymes of poems to famous people in the world.

Additionally, to promote the use of English as a tool for understanding global issues, the textbook series presented a variety of global issues such as discrimination, inequality among children, noise pollution, illegal drugs, global warming, endangered animals, sustainability, environmental protection, and ecological balance and biodiversity.

The study finds that the ELF attributes were displayed in various types of learning tasks including listening, speaking, reading, writing, and discussion. For instance, in a unit that related the content to learners' localities, students would participate in group discussions about cities, local attractions, and events in Taiwan. However, it is argued that the designs of the learning activities did not seem to encourage students to initiate English use for communication outside the classroom as they were intended to. Rather, these activities were assigned to students to complete as after-class homework. Nevertheless, the study indicates that the ELF-oriented content was presented through integrative activities that combined listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills to motivate student learning (Zohrabi, 2011). The ELF-oriented content promoted learners' communicative competence through interactive tasks, such as group discussions (Koh, 1992; Pitaksuksan & Sinwongsuwat, 2020). All the conversation units in the textbook series displayed the ELF attribute of 'helping learners understand the use of ELF' (i.e., 'making reference to ELF'), considering that the characters in the dialogs of the units were from different countries and used ELF for communication. The study reveals that, in addition to introducing intercultural communication strategies in the unit exercises, the textbooks presented these strategies as side notes listed in the units.

As shown in the above discussion, the examined textbook series presented ELF attributes through different subjects of texts and activities. While the texts covered a wide variety of topics, they maintained a balance among the types of tasks in terms of listening, speaking, reading, writing, and group discussion. The study finds that although American English was dominant in English uses presented in the examined textbooks, these textbooks were intended to promote student use of ELF, rather than rote learning of English, through a myriad of activities and exercises. For instance, the textbooks encouraged students to use English to explore multicultural knowledge through various types of activities and subject matter. In line with Shin et al. (2011), I argued that to advance learners' multicultural knowledge, presentations of cultural issues in ELF-oriented textbooks need to be communication-focused rather than based on factual knowledge.

5.3 Suggestions for Developing ELF-oriented Textbooks

In this study, I analyzed the content of English textbooks used in senior high schools in Taiwan from an ELF perspective. In light of the findings, I suggest developing ELF-oriented textbooks for senior high schools. First, ELF-oriented textbooks should acknowledge learners' experiences in learning English. The findings reveal that the content of the examined textbook series lacked relevance to students' learning experiences. To enable learners to use English to connect the unit content with their lives and localities, ELF-oriented textbooks must include tasks inviting learners to relate the texts and exercises to their living experiences (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2013). For instance, as a pre-reading task in a unit introducing different ways of greeting, the learners could list English greetings they know and discuss how they might use the greetings in different situations.

Second, I suggest that textbooks should introduce English varieties other than American and British English, such as those of the outer and expanding circles. This study indicates that the examined textbook series taught American English, and only introduced British English as another variety. Because English textbooks are frequently the major resource for learning target languages in schools, the textbooks inevitably affect how learning occurs in the classroom (McKay, 2012). To equip English learners with the ability to communicate with ELF users, who are mostly non-native English speakers, English textbooks must introduce English varieties other than the dominant American and British English. English teaching practices that conform to NS paradigms will not adequately prepare learners to communicate with English users from different English-speaking contexts (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011). Additionally, textbooks should present different English varieties through texts and activities, for instance, texts that introduce differences in word use among English varieties and activities in which students use English varieties in different contexts (Luo, 2017b).

Third, ELF-oriented textbooks should include activities that promote the use of intercultural communication strategies. The NEC Guidelines (The 12-Year Basic Education Curriculum Guidelines, 2018) set the ability to use English for international/intercultural communication in various contexts as an essential competence for Taiwanese learners. Given the importance of this competence, which was adversely overlooked in the examined textbook series, ELF-oriented textbooks should include activities that promote learners' acquisition of intercultural (both verbal and nonverbal) communication strategies (Maharma, 2021). Most importantly, the activities need to engage learners in using these strategies to improve their communication in ELF. For instance, instructors could introduce learners to intercultural communication strategies through productive and interactive exercises (such as online discussion forums and writing activities) so that learners can gain hands-on experiences in using these strategies for communication purposes (Koh 1992).

Fourth, the designs of ELF-oriented textbooks need to accentuate the development of learners' awareness of ELF. In line with previous research (Luo, 2017b; Vettorel & Lopriore, 2013), this study finds little manifestation of the ELF attribute of 'promoting awareness of ELF' in the examined textbook series. To become users of ELF, English learners must be aware of how ELF is used for intercultural communication in the global context rather than simply studying English as a school subject for tests. To promote the awareness of ELF among learners, I suggest that ELF-awareness activities be emphasized in the designs of English textbooks. Activities of this kind could be those that engage English learners in critical thinking about the use of ELF by people of different linguacultural backgrounds. For instance, as a reading activity, students could read different English-language newspapers' reporting of the same event and discuss how the newspapers reported the event differently or similarly (Luo, 2017b).

6. CONCLUSION

To sum up, this study was an examination of English textbooks adopted in senior high schools in Taiwan from an ELF perspective. The study reveals that the textbooks partially took into account an ELF orientation in their designs and that the ELF attributes were displayed through various types of subject matter, activities, and exercises. Through this study, I systematically and descriptively analyzed English textbooks and provided suggestions for developing ELF-oriented textbooks. Owing to the global spread of ELF, traditional English teaching practices and materials based on NS norms may not fulfill English learners' needs as users of ELF for international communication. As the lack of ELF teaching materials is one of the challenges facing ELF instructors, it is essential to develop English teaching materials that integrate an ELF perspective. Although the scope of this study focuses on Taiwan, through this study, I wish to highlight the development of ELF-oriented English textbooks used in the expanding circle, such as Taiwan, Japan, and Korea, in which English teaching has followed an EFL paradigm. Finally, it is hoped that the analysis scheme developed in this study may serve as a reference for those who intend to pursue further studies of ELT materials.

Finally, the scope of this study was the analysis of textbooks used in senior high schools in Taiwan from an ELF perspective. The main limitation of this study is that I was not able to find adequate literature on textbook analysis from an ELF perspective because previous research on textbook analysis mainly focused on the representation of cultures and English uses. To elucidate the development of ELF-oriented textbooks and to promote English learning for international communication, further research should explore the content and task design of English textbooks used in different educational contexts through the lens of ELF.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Framework of textbook analysis

1. Helping learners understand the use of ELF (Matsuda, 2012; Mckay, 2012; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2013)
   Are the references to ELF present in the unit?
   Are there varieties of English represented in the unit?
   What are the English varieties?
   How are the English varieties represented?
2. Encouraging the use of English in relation to learners' experiences and localities (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2013)
   Does the unit relate English use to learners' experience?
   Does the unit encourage learners to relate the content to their localities?
3. Encouraging English use outside the classroom (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2013; Vettorel & Lopriore, 2013)
   Does the unit promote the use of English outside the classroom, even if among non-NSs?
   How are learners encouraged to use English outside the classroom?
4. Promoting the use of intercultural communication strategies (Vettorel, 2018; Vettorel & Lopriore, 2013)
   Are intercultural communication strategies introduced in the unit?
   What are the intercultural communication strategies?
   How are the strategies presented?
5. Promoting awareness of ELF (Matsuda, 2012; Mckay, 2012)
   Are ELF awareness-raising activities introduced in the unit?
   What are the awareness-raising activities?
   How are the activities presented?
6. Promoting the use of English as a tool for understanding global issues (Caleffi, 2016)
   Does the unit introduce global issues?
   What are the global issues?
   How are the global issues presented to promote English use?
7. Promoting multicultural knowledge through the use of English (Caleffi, 2016; Matsuda, 2012)
   Does the unit introduce cultures at home or those of foreign countries?
   What are the cultures?
   How are the cultures presented to promote English use?

APPENDIX B

Example of Data Analysis Table

No.	Attributes	Unit 1 Learn English, Go Global
1.	Helping learners understand the use of ELF	
	(1a) Making reference to ELF	p. 2-p.4, Reading Selection: in the text, the role of English as an international language is discussed. p.7, Vocabulary: the sentence example: *CNN, ABC and Time Magazine are important news media.* p.17, Writing Corner, Application 1: The sentences to be analyzed by the students: *English is one of the most commonly used languages in the world. Ninety percent of the information on the Internet is stored in English.*
	(1b) Introducing varieties of English	X
	(1c) What are the English varieties?	X
	(1d) How are the English varieties represented?	X
2.	Encouraging the use of English in relation to learners' experiences and localities	
	(2a) Relating English use to learners' experiences	p.5: Thinking Further about the Topic: Students are asked to share with their classmates how long they have learned English and some good methods for learning English.
	(2b) Relating the content to learners' localities	X
	(2c) How is it related?	X
3.	Encouraging English use outside the classroom	
	(3a) Encouraging English use outside the classroom	p.14, Language in Use: Show and Tell-English is Everywhere in Your Life!
	(3b) How is it encouraged?	Students work in groups to find English signs, labels, notices, or manuals, and show them to their classmates. Tell where they have found them and explain what they mean.
4.	Promoting the use of intercultural communication strategies	
	(4a) Intercultural communication strategies	X
	(4b) What are the intercultural strategies?	X
	(4c) How are the strategies presented?	X
5.	Promoting awareness of ELF	
	(5a) ELF awareness-raising activities	V
	(5b) What are the activities?	p.15, Listening Practice: English, English Everywhere!
	(5c) How are the activities presented?	Students hear a passage with a lot of numbers and need to fill in the blanks. This passage is about how English is used widely in the world.
6.	Promoting the use of English as a tool for understanding global issues	
	(6a) Global issues	X
	(6b) What are the global issues?	X
	(6c) How are the issues presented?	X
7.	Promoting multicultural knowledge through the use of English	
	(7a) Promote multicultural knowledge	V

	(7b) What are the cultures?	English, Japanese, Korean, Spanish, Chinese, and Arabic.
	(7c) How are the cultures presented to promote English use?	p. 1, Warm-up: Students hear people saying "welcome" in six different languages and guess what these languages are and where they are spoken.

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Effective English Teachers in Online EFL Learning: A Post-Pandemic Reflection on Students' Perspectives

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Abstract

In the framework of conventional academic settings, there have been a large number of studies on the qualities of effective teachers; however, studies in the context of online environments seem to be scarcely documented in the literature. This explanatory sequential mixed-method study of 224 secondary school students, 21 of whom were interviewed in detail, examined their perspectives on effective teacher characteristics in online EFL instruction. This study differed from earlier investigations of the qualities of effective teachers in terms of its research site and inquiry emphasis. The results of the surveys and interviews provided students' judgments of effective teacher traits in terms of roles, professional abilities, personal qualities, and pedagogical expertise. According to the results of the polls, the most significant criteria for effective online learning management were instructors' classroom management roles and their professional skills. The interviews stressed the importance of teachers' qualities in managing classrooms and their pedagogical knowledge. In an online EFL instruction, students needed their teachers to scaffold them and explain what they should do with the lesson and the procedures they should follow for activities and assignments. In addition, the interviews validated teachers' capacity to establish a favorable rapport with the students to facilitate their meaningful learning. As this study identified teachers' professional abilities in managing online learning as a requirement, an online-learning-based professional development

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program for teachers is highly recommended as the most plausible alternative for the post-pandemic reflection of this current study.

Keywords: Effective teacher, online learning, students' perspectives, teacher professional development.

1. INTRODUCTION

Academic contexts have been significantly impacted by the COVID-19 pandemic, which has significantly altered both the physical and social ties between people on a global scale. As the severity of the epidemic varies from zone to zone, educational institutions have been forced to adopt a variety of approaches in terms of classroom learning to accommodate these differences. Training strategies and innovative experiences in the classroom have been reported (Ferdig et al., 2020) and how institutions and stakeholders adapted to the new scenario created by the COVID-19 pandemic (Bao, 2020; Flores & Gago, 2020; Quezada et al., 2020). Internet-based learning has become increasingly prevalent in educational institutions across the globe as a means of customizing the curriculum to the different needs of students. In classrooms across the world, students are increasingly adopting online learning as their instructional method. Due to the minimal cost of transportation, lodging, and the overall expense of institution-based education, online learning is regarded as one of the most cost-effective educational alternatives (Dhawan, 2020). Online learning, which is internet-based learning, makes education more accessible, encourages adaptability so students can overcome geographical and temporal barriers, and opens up exciting new opportunities for tailoring instruction to students' different needs and interests (Bonk & Graham, 2006; Huang et al., 2020).

EFL teachers should receive more recognition for their expertise in online pedagogy and the qualities they bring to online classrooms. Even though the characteristics of effective instructors may not differ substantially between online and traditional courses, online teachers encounter unique challenges and opportunities (Baran et al., 2011). DiPietro (2010) found that instructors who employed behavioral management techniques to address disruptive students could provide safe classroom environments for their students. Hence, it is imperative for educators to possess a comprehensive understanding of suitable pedagogical approaches, techniques for managing virtual or online learning environments, and methodologies that successfully foster student engagement.

Numerous studies on the characteristics of effective instructors have been conducted in the context of more traditional face-to-face (f2f) academic settings and a variety of locations. The studies on the effectiveness of teaching have focused on identifying the characteristics of effective teachers and effective teaching, as well as proposing models of effective teachers and teaching that can be implemented in schools and universities (Chen et al., 2012). In conventional face-to-face settings, academics have studied teachers' pedagogy-specific knowledge, personality traits, professional abilities, and classroom behavior (Al-Mahrooqi et al., 2015; Carmel & Badash, 2019). From teachers' perspective, effective instructors are viewed as student-focused, exam-oriented, fostering student engagement, and employing novel approaches in typical classroom settings. This is how teachers perceive effective educators (Tavakoli & Baniasad-Azad, 2016). From students' perspectives, excellent teachers are approachable and assertive, kind, patient, helpful, articulate, enthusiastic, disciplined, professional, and humorous (Minott, 2020).

Since the qualities of teachers in all fields of study have been studied in traditional classroom settings for several years and from a variety of perspectives, it is imperative to ascertain the educational needs of students and the desired outcomes they expect their instructors to achieve during their participation in online learning experiences. Students are the classroom's active recipients; consequently, a number of questions must be posed to elicit their perspectives on effective teacher characteristics and their conceptions of how effective teachers deliver instruction. This must be determined through investigation. Therefore, this study aims to investigate secondary school students' perspectives on the characteristics of effective instructors in online EFL learning in the Indonesian context. The results of this study provide secondary school English instructors with a comprehensive profile of their students' perspectives on the characteristics of effective online EFL teachers. As a direct result, the following issues were investigated during the research:

1. What are the distinguishable qualities of an effective English teacher for students who are engaged in EFL online learning?
2. Which qualities are considered to be the most essential for the effective management of online learning?

The students' responses pertaining to the inquiries explored within this study provide valuable insights into the discernible attributes of effective English teachers in the realm of online EFL learning.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Effective Teachers in Traditional Classroom Settings

Acquiring the necessary skills and knowledge to become an effective educator, while concurrently employing pedagogical approaches that align with the broader societal milieu of the students, is imperative for achieving optimal outcomes in the educational setting. It is suggested that teacher quality, efficacy, resilience, and retention are all interconnected with teacher preparation and the teaching profession (Mansfield et al., 2012). Teacher quality issues are affected by how quality is evaluated, judged, and used to inform teacher education, policy, practice, and research (Carmel & Badash, 2019). Extensive research has been conducted on the topic of effective teachers, encompassing various educational contexts. However, when it comes to online learning, a consensus regarding the specific attributes and characteristics that define an effective teacher has yet to be reached.

Numerous studies (e.g., Afshar & Doosti, 2014; Al-Mahrooqi et al., 2015; Borg, 2006; Gu & Day, 2007) have examined what made an excellent educator in a traditional face-to-face classroom setting. These studies investigated subject matter knowledge, class management skills, pedagogical competence, and fairness. In Al-Mahrooqi et al. (2015), teachers' general characteristics and affective variables were the most relevant categories. The student participants viewed their teachers as having a good command of English, speaking and writing effectively, being prepared for class, and treating them equally, with patience and care, and a passion for teaching. In a comprehensive study conducted by Borg (2006), a meticulous examination was carried out on a sample of 200 individuals who were currently engaged or aspiring to be foreign language instructors. These individuals were carefully observed and evaluated under diverse circumstances, allowing for a comprehensive understanding of their experiences and perspectives. The findings of his research elucidated the disparities among language instructors in terms of their respective disciplines, pedagogical approaches, interpersonal dynamics with students, and apprehensions pertaining to the distinction between native and non-native language educators. In the scholarly work of Gu and Day (2007), it has been observed that instructors who achieved success possessed a distinct disposition and a repertoire of skills, which they unwaveringly adhered to, regardless of any challenges encountered. The study conducted by Afshar and Doosti (2014) revealed a convergence of opinion between instructors and students regarding the admiration of certain professional attributes. These encompassed the instructor's domain expertise, effective communication, adept interpersonal abilities, and proficient classroom governance.

Personal characteristics and instructional skills influence students' learning attitudes, motivation, and outcomes (Chen, 2012). And the efficacy of teaching cannot be solely attributed to experience, as it is contingent upon the instructor's active engagement in self-reflection and subsequent modification of classroom practices. Therefore, teachers should require personal traits since they help learning and may affect student learning. Classroom dynamics and student achievement were both enhanced by enthusiastic EFL instructors. Having a teacher that is calm, friendly, helpful, goal-oriented, humorous, and has a good grasp of the material could make for a far more pleasant learning environment. Therefore, being well-versed in subjects and able to convey them effectively is not enough to be a good EFL instructor; EFL teachers should be comfortable, kind, and supportive to help students learn and build a positive classroom atmosphere (Chen, 2012).

2.2 Effective Teachers in Online Learning Settings

Online learning occurs when students use numerous internet-connected devices to study synchronously or asynchronously and communicate with instructors and classmates (Singh & Thurman, 2019). Using technologically enhanced terminal devices, online learning has become a popular educational technique for shifting conventional learning practices, allowing people to study anytime and anywhere (Liu & Pu, 2020). The implementation of online education necessitates the utilization of technological tools and the vast expanse of the internet (Adedoyin & Soykan, 2020). This study operationally defines online learning as utilizing the internet for synchronous and/or asynchronous activities outside the conventional face-to-face classroom using any internet-based devices.

The transfer to online education for secondary school students and teachers is rapid and remains unclear since online learning has not been thoroughly defined (Singh & Thurman, 2019) and varies widely (Chigeza & Halbert, 2014). Online pedagogies and how to promote online learning are seldom taught in teacher training courses; therefore, many instructors cannot manage online learning (McAllister & Graham, 2016). It is worth noting that the concept of online learning still remains unfamiliar to a significant number of educators within certain educational settings. Consequently, it is plausible that instructors may encounter deficiencies in their understanding pertaining to asynchronous discourse tasks, virtual research undertakings, recorded educational presentations, and real-time video engagements. Furthermore, it is imperative to acknowledge that online education is confronted with a myriad of challenges, encompassing the realms of effective communication, student comprehension, and the accurate measurement of progress (Gurley, 2018).

The role of online learning facilitators encompasses the crucial task of assisting students in discerning their individual learning needs, selecting appropriate educational materials, and devising effective strategies to address their academic challenges. Consequently, online learning requires teachers who are proficient with technology. They should be proficient in ICT (Information and Communication Technology). Since communication, technology, time management, pedagogy, and assessment have been identified as critical issues affecting online education quality (Limperos et al., 2015), their distinctive teaching style and socio-affective abilities should be improved. They are encouraged to effectively construct instructional frameworks for online learning environments, substantiating their efficacy by asserting that internet-based resources and activities are appropriate, devoid of any detrimental effects or misleading content. Kerr (2011) found that instructors should use the internet to promote active, constructive, purposeful, genuine, and collaborative learning in schools. This underscores the need for effective online remote education methods.

3. METHODS

Grounded in Creswell and Creswell (2018), the explanatory sequential mixed methods approach used in this study involved two phases of data collection. In the first phase, the researcher collected quantitative data and analyzed the results. The second phase was planned or built upon using the results from the first phase. Quantitative results informed participant selection and question formulation for the qualitative phase. The design used qualitative data to provide more detailed explanations for the initial quantitative results. It was crucial to connect the quantitative results with the qualitative data collection. The procedure involved collecting survey data, analyzing it, and conducting qualitative interviews to explain confusing or contradictory responses.

3.1 Participants

The participants of this study were secondary school students attending public schools in Lampung, Indonesia. With written approval from teachers, 224 secondary school students participated in the survey, and 21 were randomly selected for the interview. Online classrooms were implemented throughout this pandemic research. Most students utilized Google Classroom and Zoom Meetings, while others took WhatsApp chat classes. The interviewees met two criteria: (1) the online learning activity was part of the school's official curriculum, and (2) the students had no previous experience with organized online instruction. In addition, their age range was 15–18 years old, and they had pseudonyms.

3.2 Instruments and Data Analysis

This study employed a modified Al-Mahrooqi et al. (2015) 4-point Likert-type questionnaire. This research investigated personal qualities, pedagogical knowledge, professional skills, and teacher roles. The quantitative data from the survey was used to statistically describe the characteristics of students' favorite teachers. Interview data was thoroughly analyzed. Students were asked about the personal qualities, pedagogical knowledge, professional skills, and teacher roles of effective face-to-face and online EFL teachers. These themes were used to interpret the replies. The qualitative data from the interviews were taken to support the quantitative data.

4. RESULTS

The quantitative data in this study revealed students' perceptions of effective teachers' characteristics in online EFL learning. The survey's results demonstrated that teachers' roles in managing their classes, professional skills, personal qualities, and pedagogical knowledge were the students' most perceived characteristics in online EFL learning.

Table 1. The most perceived teachers' characteristics.

Characteristics	**Percentage (%)**
teachers' roles	85.7
professional skills	83.4
personal qualities	74.0
pedagogical knowledge	71.7

Students' perspectives on the four dimensions of effective teachers' characteristics were then analyzed from the most perceived characteristics for each dimension. The five most perceived characteristics ranged from the highest percentage in each dimension.

4.1 Students' Responses to the Four Dimensions of Effective Teacher Characteristics

Table 2 describes the most perceived characteristics of an effective teacher in online EFL learning. Data gathered from 224 students responding to the survey were taken from the highest percentage of the student's responses.

Table 2. The most perceived teachers' characteristics in the four dimensions.

Teacher's roles	**%**	**Teacher's professional skill**	**%**	**Teacher's personal qualities**	**%**	**Teacher's pedagogical knowledge**	**%**
stimulating students' interest in learning	85.7	identifying students' progress	83.4	Fair	74.0	Creative in teaching	71.7

Table 2 continued…

helping students in the process of learning	79.8	identifying and adjusting the teaching with the students' learning styles	74	Responsive	73.5	Explaining & clarifying complex concepts	68.6
giving appropriate feedback on students' mistakes	74.4	coping with the current changes and innovations	72.6	Strategic thinker	72.2	proportional Use of English	63.7
managing the classroom	71.7	focusing more on students' interests	65.9	Patient	70.9	Technology savvy	63.5
creating a positive and fun learning environment	68.2	accepting students' different backgrounds in a sensible way	64.1	Friendly	65.5	Good command of English	61.0

The findings of the survey showed that an effective teacher in online EFL learning in the dimension of teacher's roles was characterized by the teachers' ability to stimulate students' interest in learning, help the students in the process of learning, give appropriate feedback to students' mistakes, manage the classroom, and create positive and fun learning. Teachers' professional skills were viewed from the teacher's ability to identify students' progress, identify and adjust the teaching with the student's learning styles, cope with the current changes and innovations, focus more on students' interests, and accept students' different backgrounds sensibly. Teachers' personal qualities were characterized by the teacher's fairness, teacher's well-accepted responses to students' work, the teacher's strategic thinking, willingness to repeat the explanation and employ strategies for weak students, patience, and friendliness. In the dimension of pedagogical knowledge, creativity in teaching, the ability in explaining and clarifying complex concepts, the use of proportional English regarding the students' different levels of competency, the ability to use online gadgets, and a good command of English were viewed to be the most chosen characteristics.

4.2 Students' General Perspectives

4.2.1 Perspectives of effective teachers' characteristics in EFL F2F classrooms

Two questions were addressed to the students in the interview sessions. The first question elicited students' perspectives on the characteristics of EFL teachers in face-to-face (f2f) learning. This question was addressed to get students' perspectives of effective teachers' characteristics from a general point of view. The statements made by the twenty-one students had been thematically tabulated accordingly, and as a result, general descriptions of effective teachers were voiced from the following excerpts.

(1) Effective teachers are those who are able to master the material, able to master the class, have broad insight, are creative and innovative, and have other positive characteristics. (S11)

(2) Good teachers should be able to explain things clearly and quickly so that their students can understand them and it doesn't take too much time. They should have a nice, kind personality, but they shouldn't be too distracted when it's time to teach. (S4)

(3) Teachers who have a passion for teaching, are able to make the students understand the lesson, master the material, master the class, and have broad insight. They should be creative and innovative, and they should have positive characters that can serve as role models for students at school. (S20)

(4) Teachers who are able to create fun learning. Teachers who do not put pressure on students… are cheerful, patient, fair, and understand students well. (S21)

(5) Disciplined, friendly, and fun to students. (S9)

(6) Generally, the so-called ideal teacher is a teacher who is knowledgeable, is able to master the class, has broad insight, is creative, innovative, and has positive characteristics that can make students feel comfortable in learning. (S14)

The statements indicated that effective teachers in face-to-face EFL learning were characterized by their roles in managing the classroom and creating positive and fun learning; their professional skills to cope with the current changes and innovations; their personal qualities of being nice, kind, fun, cheerful, fair, patient, disciplined, and friendly; and their pedagogical knowledge involving the creativity in teaching, and the ability in explaining and clarifying complex concepts.

4.2.1 Perspectives of effective teachers' characteristics in online EFL learning

The second question was addressed to elicit students' perspectives on effective teachers' characteristics in online EFL learning. Classified from the students' general perspectives, the interviews revealed the following statements:

(7) Many teachers expect students to understand the lesson, but they don't explain it well. In online classes, teachers just give assignments without explaining them. The teacher must guide the students until they understand the material. For example, the teacher might make his own video and give it to the students. (S6)

(8) I think it's important for teachers to assign regular homework via the learning app and maintain regular contact with students through Google Classroom or WhatsApp chat so that students understand the importance of the assignments they've been given. (S8)

(9) An English teacher must be an English lover. He must have a good knowledge of English. He must know various methods of teaching English. He must have the ability and skills to teach systematically using the most appropriate method. (S12)

(10) In an online classroom, teachers should be more active in giving explanations, and not be in a hurry when giving material. Teachers should be tolerant… they should know that each of us has a different condition. (S19)

(11) They should convey the material as clearly as possible, and they should not be in a rush in conveying the material. (S18)

(12) In my opinion, the characteristics of English teachers in online learning are teachers who can provide clear and easy-to-understand materials for their students. They should not be boring. They can give us videos to watch… creative teachers present their material in videos and animation videos. (S15)

Students' perspectives about effective teachers in online EFL learning requested the teacher's roles to stimulate students' interest in learning, help the students in the process of learning, manage the classroom, and create positive and fun learning. They also requested teachers' professional skills to identify and adjust the teaching to the students' conditions, cope with the current changes and innovations, and sensibly accept students' different backgrounds. Teachers' personal qualities were viewed from the teacher's characteristics of being a strategic thinker who is willing to elaborate the lesson and employ strategies for students, being patient and friendly to students. In addition, teachers' creativity in teaching, teachers' ability in explaining and clarifying complex concepts, and teachers' command over English knowledge were viewed to be the most chosen characteristics of teachers' pedagogical knowledge.

5. DISCUSSION

5.1 Reflections on Students' Perspectives

Students' perceptions of effective teacher characteristics in terms of teachers' roles, professional abilities, personal qualities, and pedagogical expertise were gathered from surveys and interviews conducted during a pandemic in which online schools were operational. Teachers' classroom management, professional skills, and pedagogical knowledge were the most important criteria for effective online learning management, according to the results of the questionnaires and interviews. To facilitate online learning, instructors must be well-versed in instructional management and techniques, according to the findings. Online teaching and learning necessitate roles, skills, and professional development strategies (Ní Shé et al., 2019). This is evident in curriculum, pedagogy, assessment, and participant engagement (Carrilo & Flores, 2020).

Student engagement is commonly used to describe the degree to which students actively participate in their online courses (Ma et al., 2015). Engaged students have been demonstrated in numerous studies to be more likely to have better academic achievement (Soffer & Cohen, 2019). Since the need for relatedness and interest is not met when online learning has no social and physical interaction with teachers and peers in an actual school setting (Wong, 2020), online teachers should draw their recognition on student engagement and operate targeted strategies. Teachers need to provide meaningful activities, practical guidance, and constructive feedback to reinforce engagement, to avoid the typical online learning barriers.

Students' perception of online learning is hindered by a dearth of communal engagement, technical impediments, and challenges in comprehending pedagogical objectives. Henceforth, it is imperative for course designers to meticulously deliberate upon the utilization of social networking and other technological tools in order to facilitate and enhance the process of student learning. Developing content in an online course is best practiced with collaborative activities, reflective activities, clear assessment criteria, and integration of technology (Niess & Gillow-Wiles, 2013). Online learning activities ought to possess qualities such as creativity, interactivity, relevance, student-centeredness, and a focus on group collaboration. Teachers must dedicate their time and energy to establishing efficient methods for delivering online instruction. Strategies encompass the deliberate process of devising plans, verifying the credibility of sources, overseeing and providing assistance, fostering dialogue and collaboration, developing subsequent tasks, utilizing diverse resources, fostering independence, and being cognizant of the impact of technology on instruction.

Due to the importance of social connection in language learning (Ma et al., 2020), online courses should be dynamic, engaging, and interactive; teachers should humanize the learning process so that students can easily adjust to the learning environment (Dhawan, 2020). Teachers should possess the ability to effectively teach in the classroom, ensuring a polite climate while demonstrating mastery in their subject matter. They should be able to elaborate on the information, show concern for student performance, exhibit creativity, and provide education that is tailored to individual student needs. In order to foster an engaging and enjoyable learning experience in their online classrooms, teachers have the option to utilize several tools such as videos, WhatsApp, Google Forms, Worksheets, YouTube, and Zoom for delivering the learning material.

This study found that students value fun and joyful learning in both traditional and online classrooms. The students suggested using videos in the classroom to make academic study less monotonous. Audio and video discussions can improve online learning by increasing learner participation, helping learners elaborate on their responses, improving communication and connection with peers, and making communication less time-consuming (Ching & Hsu, 2015). Videos enhance students' practical knowledge and bridge the gap between educational theory and practice (Carillo & Flores, 2020). Teachers can now easily access a wide range of resources, whether self-created or from the internet, to create videos for classroom learning.

In conventional face-to-face classrooms compared to online learning contexts, students emphasized the relevance of teachers' personal qualities in most of their remarks. Teachers' responsibilities, expectations, and traits are heavily influenced by their work environment. Therefore, it is understandable that in one school context, particular teacher attributes are highly valued, while in another, they are considered insignificant or even undesirable. To provide the greatest learning results for all students, a teacher may need to change their behavior. Teachers' actions toward students are influenced by their personalities (Göncz, 2017). Students prefer instructors who are extraverted, open, collaborative, and conscientious (Göncz et al., 2014) compared to the general population. The ability of students and teachers to interact, collaborate, and build relationships greatly impacted the cohesiveness of learning communities (Komninou, 2017), participants' co-construction of knowledge (Jaber et al., 2018; Jackson & Jones, 2019), and the effectiveness of online teaching and learning practices (Biasuttie, 2011). Successful online settings should change instructors' duties from teaching to enabling learning (Chigeza & Halbert 2014). Teachers should prioritize providing emotional support to students by ensuring they feel valued, respected, and loved throughout their educational journey. Additionally, their academic assistance should focus on students' perception of the teacher's efforts to facilitate their learning.

5.1 Post-Pandemic Reflections

Scaffolding seems to be required by students in online EFL learning as they require detailed explanations in doing the tasks. To appropriately scaffold students, teachers need to possess and show a range of emotional skills such as empathy and patience, knowing when and how to provide close support, and taking it away (Kirschner & Hendrick, 2020). Accordingly, the students' voices proposed that teachers draw effective strategies for their online instructions. Online instructions should be carefully developed. To promote independent learning and encourage active participation, teachers should carefully design, assess, and supervise instructional activities, while also fostering chances for discussion and collaboration. Additionally, they should implement follow-up tasks to ensure a productive learning experience. As stated by Baran et al. (2011), students' perceptions of their learning experience are strongly influenced by the quality of instruction they receive; hence, it is important to provide students with a wide range of interesting and personalized learning activities (Zhang & Lin, 2019). The findings from the survey and the interview in the current study suggested that effective teachers in online EFL learning should have extensive content knowledge, should be able to effectively promote student engagement, and should be able to control and manage their classroom environments.

The COVID-19 pandemic has raised awareness of online education even further (Ivone et al., 2020). After the pandemic, instructional methodologies were reassessed, and lessons learned from the past may influence new approaches to high-quality training (Adhya & Panda, 2022). Post-pandemic teacher education should mix face-to-face, online, and self-learning to improve health safety, teaching-learning experiences, and professional progress (Zhu, 2020; Zhu & Liu, 2020). Online teachers must connect with students, engage in ongoing discourse, and actively monitor student development to understand them (Velasquez et al., 2013). Teachers must provide a flexible, autonomous, and personalized online learning environment to motivate students beyond academics (Lai, 2017). To optimize the efficacy of online instructional materials, it is imperative to incorporate elements that foster active engagement and critical thinking among learners. This can be achieved by encouraging feedback, promoting questioning, and facilitating the expansion of course material. Furthermore, technological tools should be effectively used to support learning in both face-to-face and online contexts. Games, animations, films, wikis, podcasts, voice boards, virtual worlds, e-book readers, e-portfolios, and massive open online courses all require task-appropriate resources (Biasutti & El-Deghaidy 2014; Cullen et al., 2013). In post-pandemic education, instructors must grasp technology and comprehend their instructional options (Cullen et al., 2013).

Online education is becoming the standard in academics as the COVID-19 pandemic changes how we live, study, and work (Khalili, 2020). The pandemic forced social isolation, marking a turning point in online education (Khalili, 2020; LeBlanc, 2020; Moor, 2020). Many see online education as a complement to conventional in-person education due to concerns about students feeling estranged from the course material, colleagues, and instructors (Phirangee & Malec, 2017). Thus, EFL education after the pandemic should create successful online learning settings. Effective online learning environments need good pedagogy, relevant activities, and the correct tools and technology. Students should have the autonomy to learn at their preferred speed in online educational environments, while adhering to well-defined objectives and time limits. Students' needs, strengths, and interests, and their preferred e-learning techniques should be considered (Chambers et al., 2012; Tai et al., 2019). Formative assessment should concentrate on peer-to-peer review to engage students (Gikandi & Morrow, 2016) and increase learning (Uribe & Vaughan, 2017). Breakout or chat rooms may be used to assign students to work in groups online (Biasutti & El-

Deghaidy, 2014). Online education should take into consideration all of its components, including course content, students, instructors, and technology (Borba et al., 2018; Evens et al. 2017; Niess & Gillow-Wiles, 2014).

As the globe recovers from the current pandemic, we may witness a trend toward hybridized education and online learning (Adedoyin & Soykan, 2020). Since blended and hybrid courses are projected to become the norm, instructors who effectively integrate an open and collaborative online learning technique with strong personal relationships will greatly benefit students' educational experiences (Singh et al., 2021). Connecting with students helps them reach their intellectual potential (Pacansky-Brock et al., 2020). Teachers of online, hybrid, and blended courses should organize course resources so students may easily discover units, modules, and assignments (Singh et al., 2021). To provide meaningful and engaging learning experiences for students, instructors and academic administrators must prioritize faculty capacity building so they are familiar with online learning approaches, e-learning tools, and innovative technology to facilitate teaching and learning (Singh et al., 2021). An integrated strategy for teacher training, regardless of delivery modality, is essential to assist present and future educators in coping with crises like the COVID-19 pandemic (Zhu & Liu, 2020). To assist the present and future instructors to become more resilient to crises like the COVID-19 epidemic, it is vital to foster the creation of a comprehensive teacher education system, independent of instruction delivery type (Zhu & Liu, 2020).

6. CONCLUSION

Indonesian secondary school students characterized effective online EFL teachers as those who motivate students, assist them in learning, give appropriate comments on their mistakes, manage the classroom, and promote positive and pleasurable learning. They should be able to track students' progress, adapt classes to their learning methods, address modern advances, concentrate on students' interests, and accept their different backgrounds. In addition, they should be fair, strategic, patient, and pleasant. They have to be creative, able to explain complicated topics, utilize appropriate English for students' different abilities, and use online technology.

Post-pandemic EFL teaching practices should provide effective online learning environments with pedagogical approaches, meaningful tasks, and the right tools and technology. Students expect their teachers to be more competent in EFL pedagogy, face-to-face and online learning, which are proposed for post-pandemic education. This study recommends that teachers of EFL learning develop their pedagogical knowledge regarding online learning. Online teacher professional development programs would help teachers manage their online learning and create effective teaching in online learning. Therefore, online teacher professional development must be relevant, accessible, theoretically and pedagogically sound, scalable, and sustainable. Workshops, conferences, seminars, lectures, and other short-term training of the traditional paradigm of professional development should be rebuilt and updated for online EFL learning.

The scope of this research is limited to the students' perspectives. Therefore, there is a need for additional literature reviews and studies that can effectively combine and analyze empirical research on teacher professional development in the context of online teaching and learning. The focus should be on identifying and addressing the genuine concerns and challenges faced by both students and teachers in nowadays real-world contexts. In the present era following the pandemic, it is also imperative to conduct additional research on EFL learning in the context of hybrid learning, which combines face-to-face and online learning. The studies should aim to gather insights from teachers regarding the most effective pedagogical approach to adopt within the current educational landscape.

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A Critical Content Analysis of Writing Materials Covered in Indonesian High School English Textbooks

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Abstract

Despite many studies addressing writing materials in English language learning textbooks in the Indonesian context, few reported the conformity of the English writing materials in senior high school textbooks intended for the 2013 curriculum to the genre of written language paradigm. The present study critically analyzed the existing writing materials covered in Indonesian senior high school textbooks. The data sources for this research were three English textbooks designed for three levels of senior high school students in Indonesia. The writing materials were selected from the textbooks as the representatives of the analysis objects. The data were analyzed following content analysis by integrating Brown (2004) as the conceptual framework. The results reveal that the writing materials are consistent with the framework. The books cover all text genres, including academic, professional, and personal writing. However, not all framework-informed sub-categories of texts are reflected in the writing materials of the examined textbooks. In addition, the evaluated textbooks emphasize student exposure to intensive writing tasks (grammatical transformation, short-answer sentence completion, and picture-cued tasks) and extensive writing tasks (paragraph construction, guided question and answer, and paraphrasing). These results highlight the need to align textbooks with the curriculum genre of the written language paradigm and to balance intensive and extensive writing tasks to prepare students for real-life writing situations.

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1. INTRODUCTION

The most foundational principle of educational resources is the use of a textbook as one of the most critical sources throughout the teaching and learning process. Textbooks are indispensable to the school-based learning process and thus cannot be eliminated from the instructional process. Brown (2001) affirmed that a textbook is essential to the teaching and learning process as it assists teachers with classroom management and instruction. It is regarded as the primary source of instructional materials teachers use in the classroom. Teachers can use a textbook as a compass to navigate the teaching and learning process (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994).

A textbook material is a crucial component of a textbook, including an English language textbook. It is the foundation upon which language instruction and learning are based (Roberts, 1996). Also, they are considered the backbone of course design and instructional planning (Kramsch, 1987). Textbooks incorporate instructional material and activities or tasks to assist teachers in delivering lessons (Arslan, 2016) and to organize classroom and extracurricular activities (Setyono & Widodo, 2019). Therefore, teachers should be discerning in their selection of pertinent textbooks to provide students with the most exquisite materials or contents that meet the curriculum objectives and address other crucial factors.

Concerning the Indonesian 2013 National Curriculum, Indonesian students are required to possess critical skills that they can work with to become successful in the globalized world (Siregar et al., 2020). To aid Indonesian students in English learning in addition to imparting knowledge, the 2013 National Curriculum has included a variety of writing materials as the primary resources, and the accessible English textbooks utilize writing materials as the primary orientation. In brief, from the standpoint of a general objective, the presence of English textbooks has been consistent with the 2013 National Curriculum-centered target.

There have been an extensive number of studies exploring the writing materials in English textbooks in Indonesian contexts. However, research has not focused on the compatibility of the writing materials toward a genre of writing across the 2013 National Curriculum English textbooks. Therefore, to expand empirical research on the evaluation of English textbooks by portraying writing materials, it is necessary to conduct a critical analysis of the writing materials in English textbooks in Indonesian contexts. The research findings can serve as a catalyst for authors and publishers of language textbooks to design and develop relevant writing materials. Also, the study contributes to a greater understanding of the various types of writing materials found in EFL textbooks that have been adopted nationally. Thus, the study aims to critically analyze English textbooks' writing materials designed for senior high schools in Indonesia. The analyses are extended to the genre of writing in the paradigm of Brown's Genre of Written Language (Brown, 2004). The following research questions are used as the guidelines of this study:

1. To what extent do the writing materials in English textbooks used in Indonesian high schools correspond to the genre of written language informed by Brown's Genre of Written Language framework?

2. What types of writing task are presented in the writing materials in English textbooks used in Indonesian high schools?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This section examines the existing body of knowledge surrounding the topic related to our study. It delves into scholarly works that elaborate the pedagogical implications of English language teaching materials. Through the synthesis of significant knowledge from various studies, this section seeks to create a thorough foundation for the critical content analysis that is provided in this study.

2.1 English Textbooks

According to Ilieva (2018), English textbooks refer to the pedagogical and cultural artefacts that substantially increase students' English proficiency. They offer a systematic and comprehensive approach to language learning, presenting a variety of language activities and exercises that support students' language acquisition. Nunan (2003) asserted that textbooks are prepackaged, published books utilized by teachers and students as the primary basis for a language course, ranging from broadly committed to developing all language skills to those focused on a particular skill such as writing or other specific area.

Tomlinson (2012) asserted that a textbook contains both exercises and instructional materials. It aids teachers in providing instructional materials that motivate students and serves as a foundation for the long-term development of teaching methods. In the English language teaching context, textbooks play a crucial role in furnishing students with grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, function, and empathy in communication skills (writing, listening, speaking, and reading) to be able to communicate globally (Cunningsworth, 1995).

In Indonesian contexts, English textbooks play a crucial role in promoting the implementation of the English subject curriculum. English textbooks are students' primary source of English language input (Djatmika et al., 2022) to develop their English language proficiency. Given that textbooks are critical for interpreting the curriculum, the material is purposefully organized to align with the curriculum for which the textbooks are intended (Yang, 2013). As EFL students in Indonesia do not have access to an authentic English-speaking environment, textbooks act as the English input mediators (Dinh & Sharifian, 2017). The systematic synchronization of textbook contents with the school's curriculum emphasizes their critical role in guiding English teachers. Thus, recognizing this significance, it becomes essential to explore how the textbooks address writing.

2.2 Writing

According to Harmer (2006), writing is a method for generating language and expressing ideas, feelings, and opinions. It is a functional form of communication that allows students to create words of their devising. It requires active processing for understanding and production (Graham et al., 2013). Through writing, students are encouraged to communicate their thoughts and ideas in the form of relevant, readable, and understandable pieces of language (Saragih et al., 2021).

Several studies have highlighted the complexities of writing in foreign language learning. For example, Chen (2022) noted that writing requires a high level of language proficiency and the ability to apply linguistic knowledge to produce coherent and cohesive texts. Richards and Renandya (2002) suggested that writing involves not only language but also cultural knowledge and awareness of genre conventions, making it a complex and demanding task. Barker (2010) added that writing involves the cognitive processes of planning, organizing, and revising, making it a time-consuming and mentally taxing task. More specifically, writing involves the requirement to produce and arrange ideas using acceptable vocabulary choice, sentence structure, and paragraph organization and the transformation of such thoughts into comprehensible language.

To stimulate students' writing production, teachers must consider the genre of writing and use appropriate writing tasks and materials (Brown, 2001). First, teachers are required to determine the genre of writing carefully. This involves identifying the key features of different genres and providing models and examples to guide students' writing. In addition, the use of writing tasks should be thoroughly considered to help students plan and organize their writing effectively. Building a solid foundation for efficient writing instruction, the significance of taking writing genre, assignments, and resources into account corresponds with the following analysis of how these principles appear in the context of Indonesian modified curriculum and the frameworks directing writing materials, demonstrating a clear focus on guided writing throughout the studies.

2.3 Previous studies on writing materials in Indonesia

Most previous studies have demonstrated the need for proportional writing materials as required by the adapted curriculum in Indonesia. Contrastingly, the conformity of the writing materials to any specific frameworks is scantily exposed and insufficiently portrayed by the studies. To begin with, Hutagalung et al. (2020), who examined the presentations and linguistic elements of writing materials, discovered that all the writing materials are in the form of guided writing. In a similar vein, a study by Marphilinda and Karani (2020) reported that all writing tasks consisted of guided writing in which students were asked to compose responses in brief texts. They complied that the writing assignments in textbooks were covered equivalently as required by the curriculum.

Furthermore, the dominant presentation of guided writing in Indonesian EFL textbooks, respectively, was also disclosed by Pasaribu et al. (2021). They extended that upon the end of every chapter, students are required to complete writing tasks in the guise of a self-examination diary, requiring them to inscribe about specific education-oriented subjects. Another relevant study by Sari et al. (2021) analyzed the writing materials of a high-school textbook based on task types by adapting Nation's (2008) types of writing tasks. The findings indicated that the writing assignments aligned with the selected analytical framework. As informed, the writing materials consisted of experienced, shared, guided, and independent tasks.

These previous studies primarily analyzed the writing materials in terms of the proportion of writing tasks depicted in Indonesian EFL textbooks. Nonetheless, most studies did not investigate the alignment of the writing materials to any particular framework, except the study by Sari et al. (2021) who reported the affinity of the materials to a specific framework. Thus, to extend this scholarship, the present study attempts to contribute to a critical evaluation of writing contents depicted in EFL textbooks in the context of Indonesian high schools. Furthermore, the research is anticipated to make a valuable contribution towards fostering a discerning consciousness among authors of EFL textbooks and English educators about furnishing students with suitable writing resources for their forthcoming practical writing scenarios.

3. METHODS

The study aims to depict a detailed analysis of the writing materials in the 2013 National Curriculum English textbooks for secondary high schools in Indonesia. Indonesian high school consists of two levels, i.e. junior high school and senior high school, and each level consists of three grades. The junior high school students are between the ages of thirteen and fifteen. Conversely, the senior high school students fall between the age range of sixteen to eighteen years old.

The study was conducted utilizing a qualitative approach. The use of qualitative method allows an in-depth and extensive examination of the problem in question (Dörnyei & Griffee, 2010). In this regard, content analysis proposed by Krippendorff (2019) was conducted to analyze and interpret the contents of the textbooks.

3.1 Data Sources

The data for this study consist of the writing materials from three EFL textbooks used at three levels in Indonesian senior high schools. The materials in those textbooks are visualized through the use of multimodal resources as they include various modes such as written, visual, and interactive, as suggested by Kress (2010). All the textbooks were published by the Indonesian Ministry of Education and Culture in 2017 (first and second grades) and 2018 (third grade). The textbooks were chosen as the data source based on the following justifications:

(1) The textbooks are extensively used in high schools across the nation. This choice could improve readership validity, given that textbook users, including teachers and students, originate from diverse geographic regions in Indonesia;
(2) The textbooks serve as a curricular artefact for the current ELT curriculum. The analysis of the current curriculum materials utilized by both English teachers and students has the potential to enhance content validity;
(3) The textbooks have been deemed adequate by the government under the Decree of the Minister of Education and Culture of the Republic of Indonesia No. 148/P/2016, dated 1 July 2016, regarding the Stipulation on the Title of Textbook for High School/ Islamic High School;
(4) The textbooks were authored by EFL professors (senior lecturers) from different universities in Indonesia. They are regarded as pioneers in the fields of English language teaching and English as a foreign language as they have more than 30 years of experience in teaching English language pedagogy-related courses. In

addition, their research published in reputable journals indicates their expertise in the respected field.

3.2 Data Collection Procedure

The researchers performed an examination by looking through and categorizing the writing materials of the textbooks for subsequent scrutiny. According to Brown (2004), the data were selected based on the text and task types. Furthermore, the researchers disclosed the contents of every chapter of each textbook, to ascertain and scrutinize the requisite detailed information. Finally, the researchers conducted a thorough analysis of the topics presented in the textbooks, considering the titles, situations, chapters, pages, sources, and total number of occurrences for each topic. This allowed for a clear and distinct differentiation and elaboration of each topic.

3.3 Analysis Framework

The present study adopted the genre of written language proposed by Brown (2004) to examine the writing materials depicted in the nationally adopted English textbooks in Indonesia. It is a widely accepted and commonly used approach for identifying the features of different genres of written language (Na & Lee, 2019). The procedure of analysis was modified to adjust to the specific research questions and the nature of the data in this study. The modifications involved selecting the most relevant features from Brown's framework and adding/excluding new ones based on the research context, which allowed for more comprehensive and accurate analyses. In summary, the adapted framework used in the analyses was not a one-size-fits-all approach, but rather, it was customized to suit the research questions and the data. Table 1 displays the framework used to identify the dimensions of the genre of the written language of each book. Table 2 demonstrates the framework used to identify the dimensions of task types in each textbook.

Table 1. Analysis framework of writing genre.

Academic writing	• Papers and general subject reports • Essays, compositions • Academically focused journals • Short-answer test response • Technical reports (e.g., lab reports) • Theses, dissertations
Job-related writing	• Messages (e.g. phones messages) • Letters/ emails • Memos (e.g., interoffice) • Schedules, labels, signs • Advertisements, announcements • Manuals
Personal writing	• Letters, emails, greeting cards, invitations • Messages, notes • Calendar entries, shopping lists, reminders • Financial documents (e.g., checks, tax forms, loan applications) • Forms, questionnaires, medical reports, immigration documents • Diaries, personal journals • Fiction (e.g., short stories, poetry)

Table 2. Analysis framework of task types.

No	Task Types
1	Imitative Writing a. Writing letters, words, and punctuation • Copying • Listening cloze selection task • Picture-cued task • Form completion task • Converting numbers and abbreviations to words b. Spelling tasks and detecting phoneme-grapheme correspondence • Spelling tests • Picture-cued task • Multiple-choice techniques • Matching phonetic symbols
2	Intensive (Controlled) Writing a. Dictation and dicto-comp b. Grammatical transformation task c. Picture-cued sentence writing task • Short sentences • Picture description • Picture sequence description d. Vocabulary assessment task e. Ordering task f. Short-answer and sentence completion task • Limited response writing task
3	Responsive and extensive writing a. Paraphrasing b. Guided question and answer c. Paragraph construction task • Topic sentence writing • Topic development within a paragraph • Development of leading and supporting ideas across paragraphs

3.4 Data Analysis

The data were analyzed using an interactive model proposed by Miles and Huberman (1994). This model consists of four dynamic, iterative components: data collection, condensing, presentation, and conclusion drawing. During the data collection stage, data were collected in the form of thirty writing materials following the criteria in the framework. After a consensus was reached on the final collection of raw data, the data were further condensed or categorized based on many themes, including genre names, and task types along with each sub-themes. The themes and subthemes served as comparison indicators between the written materials and the framework to comprehend and evaluate their conformance.

Before presenting the data, we sent it to an expert in language teaching research for validation. This expert has an extensive experience in analyzing similar types of data. We selected this expert based on their reputation in the field and their familiarity with the research topic. The expert was provided with a detailed description of the study design, research questions, data collection process, and analysis methods. The expert was then asked to review the data and provide feedback on its validity and reliability. The expert’s feedback was based on their professional assessment and expertise and included an evaluation of the methodology used for data collection and the accuracy of the data and data analysis methods. The expert also provided suggestions for improvements and areas for further exploration. The feedback provided by the expert was used to further refine the analysis and ensure that the results were accurate and reliable. The expert validation process strengthens the trustworthiness of the study (Lindheim, 2022).

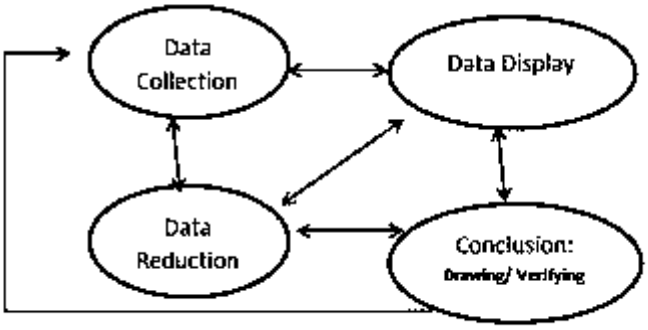


Figure 1. Interactive model data analysis.

Finally, the validated theme-based data were chosen for presentation, followed by extensive interpretations and critical and theoretical discussions. The results were summarized together with implications and recommendations.

4. RESULTS

Table 3 indicates the number of chapters featured in the three English textbooks for senior high schools in Indonesia. Also, it depicts the total number of writing materials that are featured in each textbook. As seen in Table 3, the first grade textbook consists of fifteen chapters. The second grade textbook includes eight chapters, and the third grade textbook covers eleven chapters.

Table 3. Number of writing materials in each textbook.

Grade	**Number of Chapters**	**Number of Writing Materials**
First	15	15
Second	8	7
Third	11	8

According to the findings, however, the writing materials are not included in each chapter of the selected textbooks. Specifically, each chapter of the first-grade textbook covers writing materials for several assignments. The second-grade textbook comprises eight chapters, but no writing materials are included. The textbook for the third grade has eleven chapters, but only eight of which address the writing materials. In the textbook of the second grade, the writing material is not covered in Chapter 7. Meanwhile, in the textbook of the third grade, the writing material is not covered in Chapter 1, Chapter 8, or Chapter 10.

Based on the findings, it can be concluded that the number of components of writing skills and the writing materials were inversely proportional to the student grade levels. In other words, the number of writing resources decreases as the level of the learner increases. In conclusion, the most plausible interpretation regarding the data is that the textbook authors have anticipated that first-grade students would require an excessive number of writing activities to strengthen their foundational writing skills. Therefore, they might believe that giving students numerous practice opportunities will aid their English language development, such that they require fewer practice opportunities in subsequent grade levels.

4.1 The Genre of Writing Covered in the Textbooks

Table 4 indicates the findings concerning the genre of writing materials covered in the English textbooks for senior high schools in Indonesia. The findings are elaborated based on the framework-informed themes found in each textbook. The themes are extended to personal writing, academic writing, and job-related writing.

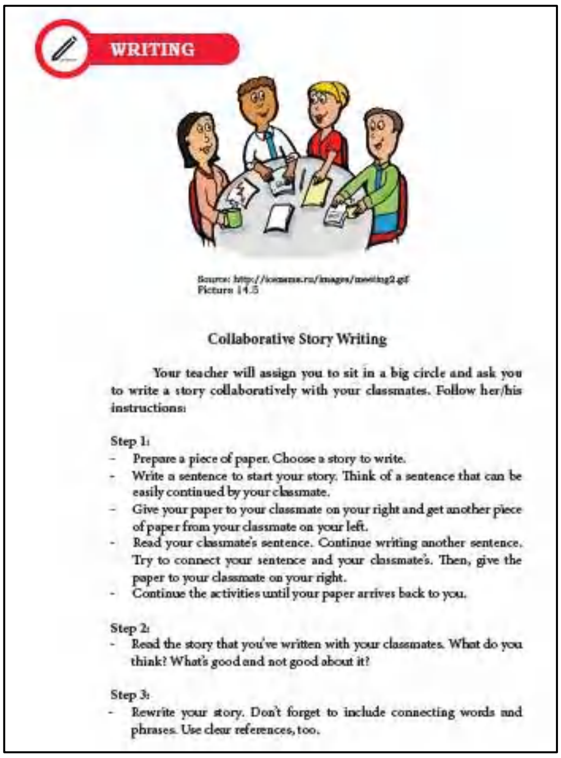
Table 4. Genre of writing materials covered in English textbooks.

Grade	Genre of Writing Materials
I	• Personal writing: Chapters 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15 • Job-related writing: Chapter 6
II	• Personal writing: Chapters 1, 2, 3, 5, 6 • Academic writing: Chapter 4, 8 • Job-related writing: Chapter 5
III	• Personal writing: Chapters 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 9, 11 • Job-related writing: Chapter 4

4.1.1 Personal writing

As depicted in Table 4, in the textbook of first grade, the personal writing is nuanced in most of the chapters. Personal writing, specifically, is covered in nine different chapters in the book. Exposing personal writing, Chapter one focuses on how to respond to an email. The personal writing in Chapter two requires students to write paragraphs as part of congratulatory cards. Similarly, Chapter three is considered personal writing as it instructs students to write about their holiday plans using expressions listed in the chapter. Chapter four is considered personal writing because it asks students to edit a text and rewrite a descriptive essay. Likewise, Chapter five is regarded as personal writing because it asks students to complete a descriptive essay structure.

Furthermore, personal writing is presented in Chapters seven. In this chapter, students are required to write an interview report. Chapter eight requests students to write a recount text based on their holiday. Regarding the function of the recount texts, which is to tell someone’s experience, it is then regarded as a part of personal writing. Similarly, the writing material in Chapter nine features personal writing as it requires students to write recount texts. Moreover, personal writing is featured in Chapters ten and eleven. Both writing tasks in these chapters focus on writing a biography of the students' idols. Since a biography is written descriptively, it is considered a part of the descriptive text. Then, Chapter twelve asks students to complete a story. Also, it suggests that students revise a jumbled text into a meaningful story, which is a part of personal writing. Similarly, Chapter thirteen contains personal writing in terms of a narrative text, which requires students to write a story by creating an outline and crafting the outline into paragraphs. Also, Chapter fourteen features personal writing or a narrative text. However, it requires students to write the story collaboratively. An example of the writing task in Chapter fourteen can be seen in Figure 2. Finally, Chapter fifteen features personal writing which invites students to portray their opinion toward a particular song in a written form. Moreover, students are asked to share the story behind their favourite songs.


WRITING

Source: http://[illegible].ru/images/meeting2.gif
Picture 14.5

Collaborative Story Writing

Your teacher will assign you to sit in a big circle and ask you to write a story collaboratively with your classmates. Follow her/his instructions:

Step 1:
- Prepare a piece of paper. Choose a story to write.
- Write a sentence to start your story. Think of a sentence that can be easily continued by your classmate.
- Give your paper to your classmate on your right and get another piece of paper from your classmate on your left.
- Read your classmate's sentence. Continue writing another sentence. Try to connect your sentence and your classmate's. Then, give the paper to your classmate on your right.
- Continue the activities until your paper arrives back to you.

Step 2:
- Read the story that you've written with your classmates. What do you think? What's good and not good about it?

Step 3:
- Rewrite your story. Don't forget to include connecting words and phrases. Use clear references, too.

Figure 2. Example of personal writing (first-grade textbook, Chapter 14, page 181).

In the textbook of second grade, personal writing also dominates the writing genre. Personal writing is found in five different chapters of the book. More specifically, the writing task in Chapter one focuses on writing dialogue using phrases of suggestions and offers. Likewise, the tasks in Chapters two and three are considered personal writing. In Chapter two, students are asked to create a dialogue of opinion about the given topic. Chapter three asks students to write a formal invitation. Both pieces of writing, however, do not meet any generic structures of the genre as informed in systemic functional linguistics. Also, both pieces do not provide any lexico-grammatical features, the characteristics that pertain to both the vocabulary (lexis) and the syntax (grammar) of a text.

Furthermore, the writing assignment in Chapter five of the book is considered personal writing. It offers two distinct writing tasks with varying activities. Students are encouraged to select one of the tasks. Task one asks students to write a personal letter to a friend about their adventure during a trip and a personal letter to thank their parents. On the other hand, task two requires students to write a letter about a birthday party to their uncle. Furthermore, the writing task of Chapter six is also regarded as personal writing. Concerning the task, students are expected to create a dialogue based on the given topics using cause-and-effect expressions. There are three different topics provided for students to write about. The topics are extended to the causes and effects of flooding, corruption, and bullying.

In the textbook of third grade, the genre of personal writing is presented in several chapters. With this regard, Chapter two features personal writing in that it only asks students to identify the use of "if clauses" in some texts. Chapter three features personal writing where students are required to work in groups to write a caption for given pictures. Chapter five encourages students to write a piece of news based on the given questions. Also, it asks students to write a news item text regarding the event that happens at school. Chapter six engages students to create a summary of news published in a newspaper. In addition, Chapter seven requires students to generate a news script from a newspaper into a radio broadcast. Chapter nine incorporates personal writing in the form of procedure text. In this regard, students are asked to write down commands, time sequences, and adverbials found in a procedure text. Subsequently, students are required to create a procedure text and rearrange jumbled sentences into paragraphs. Finally, Chapter eleven contains personal writing which requires students to write a song lyric and answer some questions regarding the song.

4.1.2 Academic writing

As seen in Table 4, academic writing is only presented in the second-grade textbook. In In this regard, academic writing is covered in tasks of Chapters four and eight. The task in Chapter four requires students to write an essay in the form of an analytical exposition text of recent issues in media. In Chapter eight, students need to write an essay comprising explanations towards a topic they chose. There are three topics provided, but students only need to choose one of them. An analytical exposition or explanation essay is defined as a part of academic writing based on Brown (2004). Furthermore, it is considered an academic text because its function is to explain a writer's views on an issue, using logical and in-depth analysis and persuade readers that something is the case by elaborating the thesis, arguments, and reiteration of the writer's position toward an issue (Aqeel & Farrah, 2019).

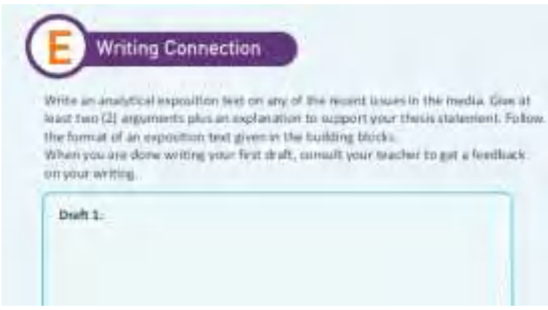
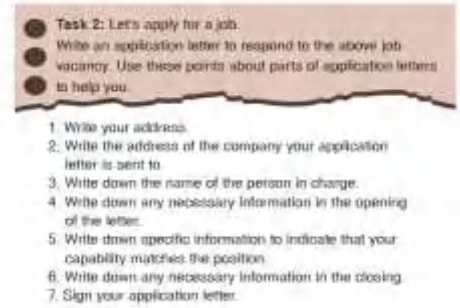


Figure 3. Example of academic writing (second-grade textbook, Chapter 4, page 56).

4.1.3 Job-related writing

Job-related writing is the least covered writing genre in the three textbooks. In the textbook of first grade, such a genre is only covered in Chapter six. This chapter focuses on editing and rewriting an announcement. In the textbook of second grade, job-related writing is incorporated in Chapter five, where the writing activity engages students in groups to create a postage stamp and a letter writing pad. Finally, in the textbook of third grade, job-related writing is featured in Chapter four. The job-related writing in this chapter highlights the writing of an application letter to respond to the available job vacancy in the book.


Task 2: Let's apply for a job.
Write an application letter to respond to the above job vacancy. Use these points about parts of application letters to help you.

1. Write your address.
2. Write the address of the company your application letter is sent to.
3. Write down the name of the person in charge.
4. Write down any necessary information in the opening of the letter.
5. Write down specific information to indicate that your capability matches the position.
6. Write down any necessary information in the closing.
7. Sign your application letter.

Figure 4. Example of job-related writing (third-grade textbook, Chapter 4, page 59).

4.2 Task Types Covered in the Textbooks

Table 5 provides an examination of the variety of writing assignments that are included in English textbooks that are specifically tailored for senior high schools in Indonesia. As seen in Table 5, it becomes evident that each textbook incorporates two distinct categories of writing assignments: responsive/extensive and intensive/ controlled. This demonstrates a well-rounded strategy for promoting language proficiency: by incorporating responsive tasks, students are encouraged to produce writing that is more expressive and free-form, while controlled tasks offer a structured setting for refining particular language abilities.

Table 5. Task types in the English textbooks.

Grade	Task Types
I	Responsive/ Extensive • Paragraph construction task: Chapters 2, 4, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 14, and 15 • Guided question and answer: Chapters 1, 3, 5, and 6 • Paraphrasing Chapter 6 Controlled/ Intensive • Grammatical transformation task: Chapters 4 and 12 • Short answer and sentence completion task: Chapter 5
II	Responsive/ Extensive • Paragraph construction task:

	Chapters 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 8 • Guided question and answer: Chapter 2
III	Responsive/ Extensive • Paragraph construction task: Chapters 5 • Guided question and answer: Chapters 4, 9, 11 • Paraphrasing: Chapters 6 and 7 Controlled/ Intensive • Short answer and sentence completion: Chapters 2 and 11 • Picture-cued (picture sequence description): Chapter 3 • Ordering task: Chapter 9

4.2.1 Responsive/Extensive

According to Brown (2004), a responsive writing task is a form of a writing exercise in which students are expected to examine a given text and compose a concise response that centers on the text content, meaning, and discourse conventions. Students can develop their critical reading and writing abilities, as well as their awareness of the rhetorical and linguistic characteristics of various genres and disciplines, through the completion of a responsive writing task.

The first category of responsive/extensive writing is the paragraph construction task. As illustrated in Table 5, this category of writing task is included in all textbooks. In the first-grade textbook, this is incorporated in eight different chapters. Chapter two is a paragraph construction task. It asks students to construct at least two sentences, the inside parts of the congratulatory cards. The cards consist of blank spaces, so students must use their creativity to complete them. Chapter four features three different tasks. The paragraph construction task is covered in task two and task three. Task two asks students to rewrite a description of Cuban Rondo, a waterfall situated in a city in East Java, Indonesia. The students are suggested to complete this activity by using vocabulary in a word web, a graphic organizer that helps a writer organize ideas. Such a task is classified as a paragraph construction task. The third task compels students to describe their favourite place they have visited several times. Accordingly, this task is a type of paragraph construction task.

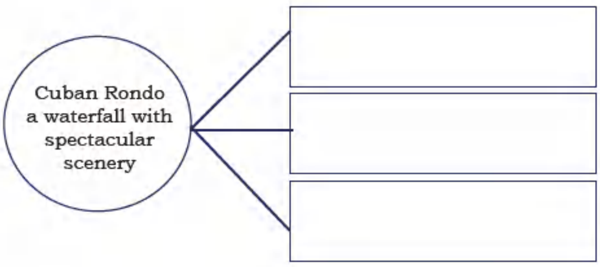


Figure 5. An example of a word web (first-grade textbook, Chapter 4, page 66).

In addition, Chapter seven consists of a task directing students to write an interview report in the form of a paragraph. Thus, students need to transform a conversation into paragraphs, and therefore, the task is regarded as a paragraph construction task. Furthermore, the task in Chapter eight asks students to write a recount text which tells about their holiday. Similarly, Chapter nine expects students to write a recount text based on the provided topics in the textbook.

Additionally, the paragraph construction task is also covered in Chapters ten and eleven, focusing on writing descriptive texts. In Chapter ten, students are encouraged to write a description of a person they admire. In addition, the task in Chapter eleven assigns students to write a biographical description of a famous person that the students admire. Moreover, tasks in Chapters twelve and thirteen underline the construction of paragraphs in a narrative text. In this case, Chapter twelve has three different tasks. The second task is considered a paragraph construction task as it requires students to write a complete story of a finger-sized character called 'Issumboshi'.

On the other hand, Chapter thirteen consists of two different tasks. Nonetheless, only the second task is regarded as a paragraph construction task. It assigns students to create a narrative text based on the provided story outline in the book. Chapter fourteen of the textbook also features the paragraph construction task. In this chapter, students are assigned to collaboratively write a story. Since the task does not specify the kind of story, students are allowed to write a story that is based on their own interests. Finally, in Chapter fifteen, students are asked to construct paragraphs by writing and sharing the story underlying their favourite songs.

The second-grade textbook consists of two writing tasks, i.e., paragraph construction tasks and guided question and answer tasks. As indicated in Table 5, the paragraph construction task dominates the guided question and answer tasks. Chapter one in the textbook of the second-grade features the paragraph construction task. It is a task requiring students to write a dialogue using phrases of 'suggestion and offers'. The task is not provided with any further direction to assist students. However, a colourful space for writing is available on the page where the task is given. Moreover, Chapter three features a task which asks students to write a formal invitation for a wedding party. In this task, students are not provided with further direction or instruction, but there is a blank space for the writing. Students need to use their creativity to construct the text. Thus, the task is regarded as a paragraph construction task.

Furthermore, in Chapter four, students are asked to construct an analytical exposition text on any recent media issues. In constructing this text, they need to visualize the generic structure of the text. In this regard, students must elaborate on at least two arguments supported by thesis statements. On the task page, students are provided with three reading blocks to prepare their drafts before submitting the final version of the text. Also, they are required to consult their teacher for feedback on their writing. In Chapter five, students are exposed to a writing task where students must choose one topic, as the book provides two options, before beginning the writing process. Students are also asked to use the proper letter-writing format they learned in the chapter. Without further direction, students are provided with a blank space to complete their text. Thus, this task is regarded as a paragraph construction task.

In Chapter six, the paragraph construction task requires students to write a dialogue or conversation. Students are given three topics regarding the causes and effects of particular social issues. The task does not give any further instruction, so students need to rely on their creativity and schemata in completing the task. Finally, the last part of the book, Chapter eight, also provides students with a writing task. In this task, students are directed to create an explanation text based on any topic given. As stated in the instruction, the task emphasizes that students need to follow the text organization of an explanation text. In addition, students must follow several writing stages, i.e., drafting, editing, revising, and reporting. Accordingly, the writing task in this chapter is regarded as a paragraph construction task.

In the third-grade grade textbook, concerning paragraph construction tasks, Chapter five of the textbook consists of two tasks. The first task asks students to write a piece of news item regarding the trending news they hear on TV or read in a newspaper. In this task, students are encouraged to provide detailed information about the news. On the other hand, the second task invites students to compose a news item task by referring to any exciting event around the school. At the end of the task, their writing will be posted in the school magazine. Although both tasks are delivered by referring to different sources of information, students are provided with clear instructions regarding the structure of the news item text. In the textbook of the third-grade, the paragraph construction task is only included in this chapter.

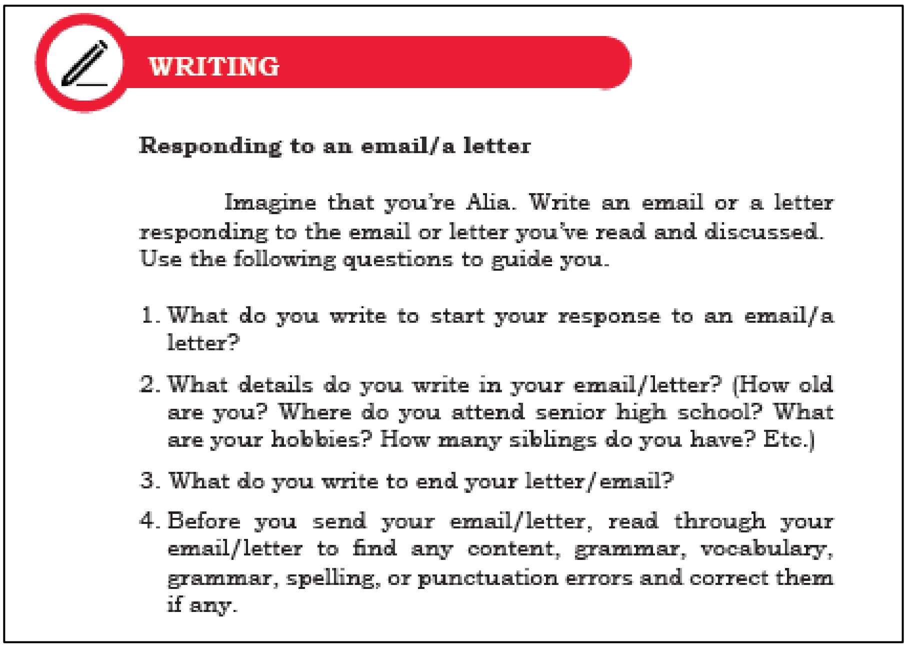
The second category of the responsive/extensive task is guided questions and answers. As displayed in Table 5, such a category is featured in several chapters of the textbooks. In the first-grade textbook, Chapter one consists of a task asking students to respond to an email or letter, and students are provided with questions to guide them. Furthermore, Chapter three consists of a task which requires students to write a paragraph about their holidays by using some expressions. In this task, students are provided with some questions to guide them in constructing their paragraphs.

In addition, there are three different tasks in Chapter five. However, only the third task is regarded as a guided question-and-answer task. It engages students to create a short descriptive text about an exciting place to visit. In completing the task, students are given some questions for guidance. Besides, Chapter six has two different tasks with different categories, and one of these tasks is a guided and answer task, where students are required to rewrite an announcement by following questions as their guidance.

In the second-grade textbook, this category of task is only presented in Chapter two. In conducting the task, students are provided with several questions informing the topics of the passage they will write. Students are asked to create a dialogue of their opinion regarding their chosen topic. Without further direction, students must produce a piece of writing on their own.

In the third-grade textbook, the guided question and answer task is included in three different chapters. Chapter four requires students to write an application letter to respond to a job vacancy. In this task, students should follow seven-step instructions in writing, that are provided in the writing directions. After completing the application letter, students should submit it to their teachers. Furthermore, students are expected to find another example of an application letter from the internet to be analyzed following the steps in the instructions.

Moreover, the writing task in Chapter nine requires students to analyze a procedure text they found on the internet. The analysis is based on several questions and instructions provided in the task directions. About this, students are challenged to figure out the purpose of the text, imperative sentences, time sequencers, and adverbials. Afterwards, students are required to create a procedure text based on their purposes. Finally, the last chapter of the textbook of the third-grade, Chapter eleven, encompasses two tasks, but only task two is regarded as the guided question and answer task. The task addresses students to sit in groups and analyze song lyrics by answering some questions provided in the book.



WRITING

Responding to an email/a letter

Imagine that you're Alia. Write an email or a letter responding to the email or letter you've read and discussed. Use the following questions to guide you.

1. What do you write to start your response to an email/a letter?
2. What details do you write in your email/letter? (How old are you? Where do you attend senior high school? What are your hobbies? How many siblings do you have? Etc.)
3. What do you write to end your letter/email?
4. Before you send your email/letter, read through your email/letter to find any content, grammar, vocabulary, grammar, spelling, or punctuation errors and correct them if any.

Figure 6. Guided question and answer (first-grade textbook, Chapter 1, page 18).

The third category of the responsive/extensive task is the paraphrasing task. It is only presented in textbooks of first and third grades. In the first-grade textbook, such a type is only found in Chapter six. This chapter features two different tasks. However, only task one is considered a paraphrasing task. It directs students to paraphrase an announcement that is not written correctly.

Finally, in the third-grade textbook, paraphrasing is incorporated in Chapters six and seven. The task in Chapter six is related to news item text. In this task, students are required to rewrite any news from a newspaper. Such is classified as a paraphrasing task. Also, the task in Chapter seven exposes students to news item text. The task engages students to rewrite a news item text into a news script for a radio broadcast. In addition, students are invited to play the role of a news anchor by reading the script. Although the task consists of a combination of two skills, the task, in terms of writing, is known as paraphrasing.

4.2.2 Controlled/Intensive

As depicted by Table 5, not all sub-categories of controlled/intensive tasks are presented in the textbooks. In addition, only first-grade and third-grade textbooks include such a category. The first category is the grammatical transformation task. In the first-grade textbook, it is provided in writing tasks of Chapters four and twelve. Task one in Chapter four asks students to locate and analyze some grammatical errors in a text. Additionally, the third task in Chapter twelve requires students to work with a jumbled text to create a meaningful story. However, the third-grade textbook does not comprise this sub-category.

The second category of the controlled/intensive task is the short answer and sentence completion task. In the first-grade textbook, it is only established in Chapter five. In this regard, the short-answer and sentence-completion tasks ask students to work and collaborate in pairs. In doing so, students are required to collectively complete a chart by inserting sentences to portray the generic structure of a descriptive task.

In the third-grade textbook, the short answer and sentence completion task appears in Chapter two and Chapter eleven. Chapter two of the textbook includes a single task. The task invites students to sit in groups and find a text which uses the 'if-clause' in the paragraphs. Students then need to identify and locate the clauses in the text and the types of conditional clauses. Their findings should be written on a display table provided in the task. Afterwards, students are asked to exchange their work with other groups to provide feedback. Additionally, Chapter eleven encompasses two tasks. Task one asks students to rewrite a song lyric. Mainly, students are directed to complete the lyrics by writing missing words from the lyrics.

Another sub-category, picture-cued task, is only covered in Chapter three of the third-grade textbook. There are two writing tasks in this chapter. First, students are provided with a picture, and they are invited to observe the picture and write an appropriate caption to provide information about the picture. In analyzing the picture, students are allowed to compose different kinds of captions as long as they are relevant. Second, the task requires students to work in groups to bring a picture to the class and make copies to be distributed to their classmates. Similarly, all students are asked to formulate a caption for the picture. Regarding the direction, both tasks are almost similar in that a picture is the key to the tasks.

Finally, the last sub-category of controlled/ intensive task, the ordering task is only featured in Chapter nine of the third-grade textbook. In this chapter, there are two different task types. Concerning the ordering task, the second task asks students to work in pairs to rearrange several sentences to form a procedural text.

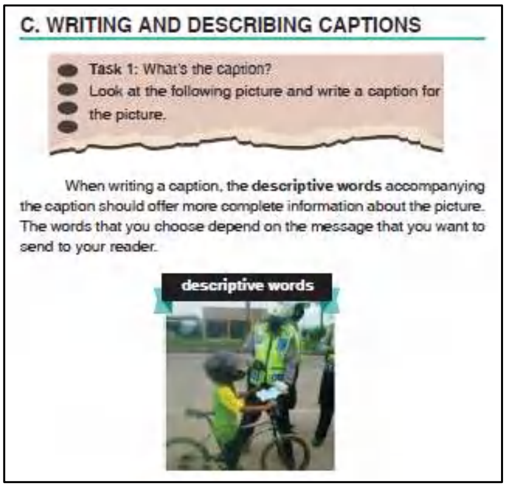


Figure 7. Picture-cued task (third-grade textbook, Chapter 3, page 39).

5. DISCUSSIONS

According to the results, the quantity of writing materials is inversely proportional to the student's grade level. The number of writing materials is expected to decrease as the level of the learner advances. The underlying assumption toward this finding is that stakeholders (the textbook authors) may predict that students at the lowest level would need adequate writing tasks to develop their writing skills. With this regard, they may assume that providing students with multiple chances to practice will facilitate their progress to the point where they will require fewer practice opportunities in later grade levels.

Concerning the purpose of the study to visualize the conformity of the genre representation in the evaluated textbooks, the writing materials align with the writing genre as informed by the employed framework by Brown (2004). The books present all categories of text genres extended to academic, job-related, and personal writing. Nonetheless, not all the sub-categories of text informed by the framework are represented in the writing materials of the evaluated textbooks. For instance, in academic writing, textbooks do not cover both academic journals and theses as writing materials. The presumption is that academic writing is unnecessary and beyond the comprehension of high school students since its language usage extends beyond grammatical and lexical requirements for sentence construction. In addition, it is imperative that academic writing adheres to a structured framework throughout its entirety. This includes the appropriate division of paragraphs, usage of cohesive and transitional elements, appropriate use of language, formal and objective tone, and citation styles (Morley-Warner, 2009). Due to its complexity, academic writing, such as theses or academic journals in English, should be presented at advanced levels as it is considered challenging and strenuous for even the majority of native speakers at the same school level (Al Fadda, 2012). In addition, the presence of different genres of texts other than those stipulated by the 2013 National Curriculum will make it more difficult for teachers to identify the texts' appropriateness for students at their current levels and how to map them to other curriculum-based resources in terms of their organizational and textual similarities (Djatmika et al., 2022).

Furthermore, regarding the categories of writing materials, as reflected in the 2013 National Curriculum, the categories of English texts for the senior high school level include short texts of interpersonal, transactional, and special functional discourses. In addition, the curriculum encompasses some functional text types, such as descriptive, recount, narrative, factual report, analytical exposition, news items, and procedure texts. Regarding the genre categories, the results manifest that the writing materials in the evaluated textbooks align with those in the curriculum.

Anchored from the research findings, the evaluated books present the writing materials in an unsystematic order. For instance, students' personal writing, which is considered the most manageable, emerges both before and after academic writing. The nuance of these writing text genres is in contrast to the comprehensible input theory (Krashen, 2004) elaborating that textbooks should provide English materials (in the context of this study, writing materials) in a systematic presentation so that students can more easily access the subsequent materials they will learn from English textbooks by utilizing the English skills they have acquired from understanding the current materials. If the textbooks aim to develop English proficiency in terms of interpersonal and transactional discourses, the sequence of the written texts is less helpful. In other words, the skills necessary for text structure and texture are imprecise; they are a bit incoherent and less chronological.

In terms of types of writing tasks, the evaluated textbooks primarily focus on exposing students to intensive and controlled as well as extensive and responsive writing tasks. Specifically, the first-grade textbook contains more extensive (responsive) task types than intensive (controlled) tasks. The textbook of the second grade only features extensive (responsive) task types. In addition, like the textbook of first grade, the textbook of the second grade features more extensive (responsive) task types than intensive (controlled) tasks. On the contrary, the imitative writing task type is excluded from all textbooks.

The selection of the task types in the evaluated textbooks is considered appropriate. The tasks range from simple to more complex ones. Although the tasks are not systematically arranged based on the difficulty level, the proportion of the task types is appropriate. Moreover, the tasks are designed authentically by involving topics pertinent to students' daily lives. This will beneficially accommodate students to practice their writing. This finding is in line with some previous studies highlighting that the use of authentic materials can improve comprehension, provide specific language, offer cultural context, increase motivation, and widen linguistic knowledge (Badri & Salehi, 2017; Kim, 2015; Mekheimer, 2011). In this case, Buendgens-Kosten (2014) mentioned that authentic materials increase language abilities and encourage several elements of language learning. Furthermore, authentic writing can stimulate the students' interest (Gilmore, 2007; Marzban & Davaji, 2015). Consequently, teachers are suggested to use authentic texts as actual writing materials instead of abridged, simplified versions in their language education programs to motivate students and pique their interest in what they write.

6. IMPLICATIONS

The findings of this study have some significant implications for both textbook authors and educators in Indonesia. Firstly, the study highlights the need for textbook authors to consider a wider range of text sub-categories when developing writing materials for English textbooks. While the analyzed textbooks covered all text genres, not all the framework-informed sub-categories were included. By addressing a broader range of text sub-categories, textbook authors can better meet students' diverse linguistic demands and preferences. Furthermore, exposure to a wide range of writing styles will not only expand students' vocabulary but also help them become more adept at navigating a variety of communicative circumstances. Moreover, these will help improve their language proficiency and foster their creativity, critical thinking, and analytical skills. Therefore, textbook authors should ensure that a wider range of text sub-categories are covered to provide students with a more comprehensive understanding of writing.

Conversely, the absence of some sub-categories in English textbooks provides a substantial impediment to students' overall language development since every text genre has a specific function in refining different facets of language skills. Furthermore, ignoring some sub-categories could unintentionally restrict students' capacity to read, understand, and write texts in particular circumstances, impeding their overall language development. Due to the interconnection of language abilities, learning a language requires a holistic strategy; otherwise, the language acquisition process may be incomplete.

Secondly, the study suggests that the current arrangement of writing materials in the evaluated textbooks is less efficient, and textbook authors should revise the arrangement of writing materials to make it more effective for students. Educators can also benefit from these findings by re-arranging the writing materials presented in the textbooks to optimize students' learning experiences. Finally, the study reveals that imitational writing tasks are not included in any of the evaluated textbooks, while intensive and extensive writing tasks are emphasized. This finding suggests that textbook authors and educators should consider incorporating imitational writing tasks, which can help students develop their writing skills by encouraging them to emulate the writing style of professional writers.

7. CONCLUSIONS

Due to the prominence of English textbooks as the most influential English input for Indonesian students, research on English textbook analysis is of the utmost relevance. Considering the preceding nature, this study was conducted to determine the conformity of the writing contents in the evaluated English textbooks to Brown's written text genre. In addition, the study was undertaken to inform the types of writing tasks. The analysis reveals that the writing materials are consistent with the employed framework. The books cover all text genres, including academic, professional, and personal writing. However, not all framework-informed sub-categories of texts are reflected in the writing materials of the examined textbooks. However, the reviewed textbooks have a less efficient arrangement of writing materials. Moreover, in terms of writing task types, the reviewed textbooks emphasize exposing students to intensive (controlled) and extensive (responsive) writing tasks. In contrast, imitational writing tasks, another type of task, are not included in any textbooks.

Furthermore, the limitation of the study arises as the study only examines the textbooks by employing a framework. It would have been more comprehensive if the study had involved another framework for visualizing the writing materials in the textbooks. Researchers can obtain a more complex and multifaceted view of the writing resources in the textbooks by utilizing a variety of frameworks. Different frameworks may highlight different facets of language and literacy, offering complimentary viewpoints that work together to produce a more thorough evaluation. Also, incorporating several frameworks will allow researchers to triangulate their findings which improve the validity and reliability of the study because cross-referencing findings from various frameworks can confirm recurring patterns or draw attention to inconsistencies, promoting a more thorough analysis of the information.

Therefore, future studies are suggested to evaluate textbooks by portraying the materials from different viewpoints, such as multimodality or linguistic features. Given that English textbooks serve as the key resources for English teachers and students to conduct English teaching and learning processes in schools, it is crucial to have current and ongoing analyses of English textbooks in the context of Indonesia. At last, future research can be developed to assess the efficacy of genre-based resources in fostering students' English writing skills. These studies can determine if genre-based materials are genuinely effective or if other elements contribute more to the genre's growth.

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Examining ELT-Knowledge-Based Learning Outcomes Within the National Curriculum Guidelines of Indonesian Islamic Higher Education

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Abstract
The study aims to critically analyse the clarity, observability, and measurability of ELT knowledge-based learning outcomes (LOs) as outlined in the current national curriculum guidelines for Indonesian Islamic higher education institutions. The researchers employed document analysis to assess 22 items of the LOs within the guidelines published in 2018 by the Ministry of Religious Affairs (MoRA) through the Directorate of Indonesian Islamic Higher Education. Then, the researchers applied the Bloom's revised taxonomy as the theoretical framework, converting LOs' illustrative verbs to Bloom's illustrative verbs to examine the quality of LOs to determine whether the LOs promote higher- or lower-order thinking skills. This study shows that a significant majority (95.45%) of the analysed LOs in the current national guidelines suffer from poor design (unclear, unobservable, and unmeasurable) due to the absence of Bloom's cognitive illustrative verbs. Collectively, these findings have important implications for educators and policymakers to pay more attention to the quality of their designed LOs. It suggests an urgent need for the Directorate of Indonesian Islamic Higher Education to revise its LOs because they risk affecting the quality, relevance, and effectiveness of their education in generating graduates who have global competitiveness. Poorly designed LOs promote only lower-order skills, which paralyse graduates' global competitiveness because they do not possess the

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knowledge required in the international arena. It is hoped that this study will serve as an inspiration to other countries and educational authorities facing similar challenges, encouraging them to be more meticulous in crafting well-designed LOs.

Keywords: Bloom's illustrative verbs, curriculum, English language teaching, Indonesian Islamic higher education, learning outcomes.

1. INTRODUCTION

Learning outcomes (LOs) refer to the statements of what students are supposed to demonstrate and comprehend at the end of a course (Brooks et al., 2014; Buckley & Michel, 2020; Dobbins et al., 2016; Kennedy, 2007; Suskie, 2018). They should be clearly stated, as they bridge pedagogical interchange between teachers and students (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2000). Interestingly, LOs have been placed at the centre of learning by most universities across the globe (Meda & Swart, 2018) as they can promote students' learning with higher-order thinking skills (Collins, 2014; Mitchell & Manzo, 2018), leading to effective teaching and learning. This is supported by evidence that the use of LOs has been widely adopted by hosts of higher education institutions across the world. This can be illustrated briefly by the case of the United Kingdom, which requires its higher education institutions to define their LOs clearly and to "align with the relevant qualification descriptor in the relevant framework for higher education qualifications" (Quality Assurance Agency, 2014, p. 33). In a similar case in America, Hart Research Associates (2016) has reported that the concept of learning outcomes has been applied by all members of the AACU (Association of American Colleges and Universities) within all their courses. Additionally, the adoption of LOs can be found within the Malaysian qualification framework (Malaysian Qualification Agency, 2017), and the Australian qualification framework (McInnis, 2010). Additionally, South Africa also adopted learning outcomes as the framework for their higher education qualifications ("The South African qualifications authority," 2012).

Following the aforementioned countries, Indonesia has also adopted the LOs concept (Sukirman, 2022b) within the Indonesian National Qualification Framework (known as KKNI, standing for *Kerangka Kualifikasi Nasional Indonesia*). This was officially regulated by the government through Presidential Decree No. 8, 2012. This endorsement officially encourages Indonesian higher education institutions to design their LOs based on the KKNI concept. It aims to generate well-qualified and certified higher education graduates with global recognition who have 21st century competencies (Sukirman, 2022a). Several national guidelines on how to design the KKNI-based learning outcomes were subsequently published. One of these is published by the Ministry of Religious Affairs (MoRA) through the Directorate of Islamic Higher Education, widely known as *Diktis*. In particular, the Diktis guideline explicitly covers learning outcomes for each of 52 study programmes within Islamic higher education institutions. One of these is English language teaching (ELT), covering learning outcomes related to attitudes and values (18 items), knowledge mastery (22 items), and skills (26 items). The Diktis national guideline plays an essential role in guiding ELT curriculum designers within Islamic higher education institutions to develop their KKNI-based learning outcomes.

The current national curriculum guidelines clearly state that the LOs are ideally designed by using the Bloom taxonomy as the most appropriate theoretical lens in formulating well-designed (clear, observable, and measurable) LOs. This notable learning taxonomy was originally proposed by Benjamin Bloom in 1956 (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2000). It proposes three classifications of learning domains, namely affective, cognitive and psychomotor (Hoque, 2016). Unfortunately, the debates in the literature suggest that the cognitive domain seemingly attracts scholars' interests more than the other two (Luebke & Lorié, 2013). In particular, the cognitive domain deals with complex cognitive functions, ranging from lower to higher learning thinking skills (Hoque, 2016; Luebke & Lorié, 2013). It was originally arranged in the form of a hierarchy with six categories of cognitive complexity, namely 'knowledge', 'comprehension', 'application', 'analysis', 'synthesis' and 'evaluation' (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2000; Hoque, 2016). Swart (2010) classifies the categories of knowledge and comprehension as the lower level, and 'application', 'analysis', 'synthesis' and 'evaluation' as the higher level.

Interestingly, the original cognitive taxonomy was then amended in 2001 by one of Bloom's original co-authors with the aim of simplifying learning design and assessment (Green, 2011). This is widely known as *BRT* standing for Bloom's revised taxonomy (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2000). Through this revision, the original cognitive taxonomy underwent several notable changes (Amer, 2006; Krathwohl, 2002; Tutkun et al., 2012). Firstly, the six terminological categories of the original version changed from nouns to verbs – from 'knowledge', 'comprehension', 'application', 'analysis', 'synthesis' and 'evaluation' to 'remembering', 'understanding', 'applying', 'analysing', 'evaluating' and 'creating' respectively (Amer, 2006; Anderson & Krathwohl, 2000; Krathwohl, 2002). The original taxonomy was also restructured by substituting the category of 'creating' for 'evaluating', as the highest order of thinking skills. Additionally, the revised taxonomy covers lists of illustrative verbs for each cognitive level, indicating what actions should be demonstrated by students. Such verbs will help teachers design clear, measurable, and observable learning outcomes (Biggs, 1999). For clarity, Table 1 presents the differences between the original and the revised taxonomy.

Table 1. The terminology differs in the two versions of Bloom's taxonomy.

No.	Original Version	Revised Version
1	Knowledge	Remembering
2	Comprehension	Understanding
3	Application	Applying
4	Analysis	Analysing
5	Synthesis	Evaluating
6	Evaluation	Creating

Practically, Bloom's revised taxonomy provides several advantages as a theoretical lens in developing and analysing learning outcomes. Armstrong (2010) explicitly points out the fundamental reasons for using Bloom's taxonomy. Firstly, learning outcomes are essential factors in promoting a pedagogical interchange in the teaching and learning process, through which both teachers and students understand the aim of that interchange. Secondly, learning outcomes should be well organised to make them clearer, helping students to know what they need to demonstrate. Thirdly, well-organised learning outcomes help teachers significantly "plan and deliver appropriate instruction, design valid assessment tasks and strategies, and ensure that instruction and assessment are aligned with the objectives" (Armstrong, 2010, p. 3). Particularly, the use of Bloom's illustrative verbs for different cognitive levels could show the clarity, observability, and measurability ofx the learning outcomes.

Considering the aforementioned advantages, Bloom's revised taxonomy could become an analytical tool to design well-formulated LOs, enabling students to grasp what they are expected to know, comprehend, and demonstrate by the end of their courses. Failing to design well-structured LOs can have negative impacts on the quality of graduates, departments and universities, hampering the students' ability to achieve the national educational goals of certain countries. In particular, poorly structured LOs fail to guide student learning, creating confusion or frustration as they do not understand what to know or demonstrate by the end of their programme. Also, they negatively contribute to teachers' performance in planning, organising, and assessing their teaching practice (Dobbins et al., 2016; Hadjianastasis, 2017). Such conditions risk a significant decline in the quality of graduates, as what they are expected to know, comprehend, and demonstrate are not clearly defined, leading to ineffective teaching and assessment.

The above-mentioned conditions indicate an urgent need to continuously examine the quality of LOs to anticipate the impact of poorly structured LOs. So far, there is a notable paucity of studies investigating the quality of LOs in an Indonesian Islamic higher education context, particularly their clarity, measurability and observability. What is documented in the literature is largely derived from studies of: (1) academics' perspectives on LOs (Dobbins et al., 2016; Hadjianastasis, 2017; Zlatkin-Troitschanskaia et al., 2016), (2) the use of LOs (Dobbins et al., 2016; Hussey & Smith, 2003), (3) students' perspectives on LOs (Aziza et al., 2012; Brooks et al., 2014), (4) the trouble with LOs (Hussey & Smith, 2002), and (5) measuring LOs (Caspersen et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2012). None of these analysed how far learning outcomes were measurable, clear, or observable – particularly the LOs within the current national curriculum guidelines for Indonesian Islamic higher education institutions.

After reviewing the existing literature, one related study in an Indonesian context has been identified, conducted by Solikhah and Budiharso (2019), examining the learning outcomes of ELT programmes in Indonesia. They report that the learning outcomes stated within five ELT curriculums in Central Java tended to be unfocused, overly general, and missing the professional outcomes expected in ELT programmes. However, this study lacks clarity regarding the indicators used in determining the learning outcomes, and thus suffers from a methodological weakness. Also, it lacks clarity in defining the university curriculum analysed – whether it was from an Islamic or a public university. It is essential to provide such information because it directly impacts the generalizability and applicability of the research findings. Without specifying the type of university curriculum analyzed, the conclusions may not be relevant to a broader educational context. Therefore, there are two significant differences between Solikhah and Budiharso's (2019) study and the present study. Firstly, the present study focuses only on the national guidelines for the Indonesian Islamic higher education curriculum, not the ELT curriculum from specific universities, as studied by Solikhah and Budiharso (2019). Secondly, the present study analyses in particular the clarity, observability and measurability of each learning outcome within the aforementioned guideline using Bloom's cognitive illustrative verbs; meanwhile, the previous one analysed the unfocused, overly general, and missing learning outcomes (without clear indicators).

Another similar study identified in the literature, conducted by Meda and Swart (2018), analysed the clarity, observability and measurability of every single LO item stated within the electrical engineering curriculum at the University of Technology, South Africa. The researchers applied Bloom's revised taxonomy as their theoretical framework, particularly the Bloom's illustrative verbs. They classified the LOs according to two broad categories: 'well designed' and 'poorly designed'. The poorly designed ones were classified into 'unclear', 'unobservable', and 'unmeasurable'. Interestingly, they report that 42% of the 600 LOs are considered as poorly structured, and these are classified into unclear (9%), unobservable (10%), and unmeasurable (23%). This indicates that almost a half of the analysed LOs do not promote student learning with higher-order thinking skills. Despite its contribution to the literature, this study seems to suffer from a lack of clarity in defining two of the poorly designed categories: 'unclear' and 'unobservable'. It seems that these categories overlap due to the ambiguity of the given terminology. LOs are considered unclear if students do not know what to do or demonstrate; meanwhile, they are considered unobservable if students are not required to demonstrate anything specific. Such definitions tend to be confusing, as the two refer to the inability of LOs to show what students are expected to demonstrate. The difference lies only in the statement of something specific in the 'unobservable' category; however, it can also refer to the unclear ones, as they do not cover anything specific – making them unclear. The two categories can be observed through the use of Bloom's illustrative verbs: the given terminology can seemingly be used interchangeably; thus, both should be defined in a significantly different way, for clarity purposes.

The above-mentioned literature review clearly shows a gap that needs to be addressed, which is to analyse the quality of ELT LOs within the current national curriculum guidelines for Indonesian Islamic higher education. While the Indonesian educational authorities, specifically the Directorate of Indonesian Islamic Higher Education, officially formulates the LOs, their quality remains uncertain. It is essential to evaluate their quality through research, as there is a risk of being misled by guidelines that might encompass poorly designed LOs (Meda & Swart, 2018). Unfortunately, there is limited studies which analyse the clarity, observability, and measurability of ELT knowledge-based learning outcomes (LOs) within the current national curriculum guidelines. To bridge the gap, this study utilises qualitative data to examine whether the structures of LOs enable student learning with higher-order thinking skills. In other words, it examines the clarity, observability and measurability of ELT LOs within the national guidelines for Indonesian Islamic higher education by employing Bloom's taxonomy. However, due to practical constraints, this paper cannot provide a comprehensive review of all learning outcomes within the national guideline. It analyses only the ELT learning outcomes related to cognitive domains – it is not the task of this study to examine those related to affective or psychomotor domains. Hopefully, this study could benefit not only the development of the Indonesian Islamic higher education curriculum but also curricula in other countries to formulate their high-quality learning outcomes, ensuring the sustainability of higher education curriculum quality. Additionally, this study could make an important contribution to the literature by showing how to analyse LOs' clarity, observability and measurability, and this could be applied in other countries facing similar aspirations or struggles. Finally, the specific questions which drive the research are:

1. What level of Bloom's illustrative verbs are mostly utilised in formulating the ELT LOs?
2. How clear, observable, and measurable are the ELT LOs?

2. METHODS

This section presents the research methods applied in analysing the ELT learning outcomes within the current national guideline of the Indonesian Islamic higher education curriculum. It begins by contextualising the chosen research design, followed by data sources, data collection, and data analysis, as shown under the following sub-headings.

2.1 Research Design

This study applies a document analysis that is considered as a powerful research design in answering the research questions. It is a research design commonly used in qualitative research, which involves a systematic examination and interpretation of written, printed, or electronic documents to extract valuable information and insights related to a specific research question or area of study (Bowen, 2009). The use of qualitative analysis is a well-established approach in conducting document analysis as it "enables researchers to generate rich textual data from the reviewed documents" (Meda & Swart, 2018, p. 404). Bowen (2009) defines document analysis as "a systematic procedure for reviewing or evaluating documents – both printed and electronic material" (p. 27). It aims at examining and interpreting information in written text(s) to obtain and understand data being studied, developing empirical knowledge. Furthermore, document analysis offers several advantages over other qualitative research designs (Bowen, 2009; Mogalakwe, 2006), including: reduced time requirements, as data collection from individuals is unnecessary; easy accessibility, as analysed documents are freely available on the internet; no need for ethical approvals; and cost savings, since there is no requirement to travel – one can work from their home or office to select relevant data within a chosen document.

2.2 Data Sources

The primary data of this study was collected within the current national curriculum guideline of Indonesian Islamic higher education institutions. This was officially published by the Indonesian Ministry of Religious Affairs (MoRA) through the Directorate of Islamic Higher Education in 2018 (Diktis, 2018), which is freely accessible on the internet (downloadable). In addition, this guideline specifically covers design of LOs based on national standards for all departments in Indonesian Islamic higher education institutions, including English education departments. In this case, all departments can adopt the LOs completely, or improvise based on their needs. In addition to English education department LOs, the guideline further classifies them into related attitudes and values (18 items), knowledge mastery (22 items), and skills

(26 items). Due to time constraints, this study focuses only on analysing those related to knowledge mastery (known as cognitive domains, based on Bloom's taxonomy). They were originally formulated in *Bahasa* (the Indonesian national language), requiring the researchers to carefully translate them into English by selecting appropriate dictions for the proper translation. For clarity, all analysed LOs are designed by Indonesian educational authorities through the Directorate of Islamic Higher Education. Neither ELT lecturers nor institutions designed the selected LOs.

2.3 Data Collection

For data collection, the researchers employed document analysis procedures (six steps) proposed by O'Leary (2004). Firstly, in the planning process, the researchers searched not only for any documents related to the guidelines for the KKNI-based ELT curriculum, but also all related studies to find out the existing gaps in ELT LOs. Literature related to Bloom's revised taxonomy was also reviewed in this step to decide the appropriate theoretical framework for this study. Surprisingly, the researchers found the national guideline documents and questioned the quality of the ELT LOs in terms of how well they were structured. Secondly, the researchers gathered the document being studied, downloading the national KKNI-based ELT curriculum guideline from the official website of the Directorate of Indonesian Islamic Higher Education. Each ELT LO within the document was translated for the analysis. For validity, the translation was confirmed by an expert who understands the context in order to anticipate biases and subjectivity, resulting in proper and appropriate translation. It was then printed to make it easier to annotate any related data within the document. Thirdly, the researchers comprehensively reviewed the national guideline by carefully identifying the use of Bloom's cognitive illustrative verbs within the ELT LOs to decide how well they were formulated. Any potential biases—both from the researchers and author (O'Leary, 2004)—should also be identified in this step, minimising their negative impacts on the data interpretation. Fourthly, in the step termed as 'interrogating', each ELT LO was extracted by annotating the keywords related to: (i) Bloom's illustrative verbs used; (ii) variables; (iii) sentence complexity; and (iv) specific teaching materials. Fifthly, inreflecting or refining process, the researchers reflected the previous steps from beginning to end several times to anticipate any issues that might create unclear analysis, misinterpretation, and/or missing data during the processes. The last step refers to analysing, where the researchers analysed the obtained data using Bloom's cognitive illustrative verbs based on the six cognitive categories of Bloom's taxonomy, as presented in Table 2.

2.4 Data Analysis

For data analysis, the application of the illustrative verbs becomes a fundamental indicator for the answers to both the first and second research questions, as the verbs promote observable and measurable behaviours (Krathwohl, 2002). In particular, the first research question data was analysed by identifying and listing all verbs applied by the twenty-two ELT LOs, then converting them into Bloom's cognitive illustrative verbs (see Table 2). This analysis shows which of Bloom's illustrative verbs were mostly utilised by the ELT LOs. Meanwhile, the second research question data was interpreted by using two broad categories (well-designed and poorly designed) adapted from Meda and Swart (2018). A well-designed LO refers to the use of a Bloom's illustrative verb, clearly showing what students are expected to know and demonstrate. It covers three indicators, i.e., (i) 'clear' if the LO's structure covers not many verbs and variables (simple and understandable), clearly stating what learning is being demonstrated by students – it is completely different compared to that applied by Meda and Swart (2018), (ii) 'observable' if LO uses Bloom's illustrative verbs to show what students need to know and demonstrate, and (iii) 'measurable' if it clearly shows how to measure the cognitive process. However, an LO that does not meet one of the indicators is then classified as a poorly designed LO, referring to an unclear, unobservable, and unmeasurable LO. A poorly designed LO makes it totally difficult to observe and measure what students are expected to be able to do at the end of their programme.

Table 2. Bloom's revised taxonomy (adapted from Krathwohl, 2002; Anderson & Krathwohl, 2000).

Cognitive process categories	**Description**	**Illustrative verb examples**
Remembering	Retrieving, recognising, and recalling relevant knowledge from long-term memory.	arrange, cite, copy, define, describe, discover, draw, duplicate, enumerate, examine, identify, indicate, label, list, listen, locate, match, memorise, name, observe, omit, order, outline, point, quote, read, recall, recite, recognise, record, relate, repeat, reproduce, retell, state, tell, trace, rewrite
Understanding	Constructing meaning from oral, written, and graphic messages through interpreting, exemplifying, classifying, summarising, inferring, comparing, and explaining.	ask, associate, cite, discover, classify, compare, contrast, convert, defend, demonstrate, describe, differentiate, discuss, distinguish, estimate, explain, express, extend, generalise, give example, identify, illustrate, indicate, infer, interpret, judge, locate, observe, order, report, paraphrase, predict, recognise, relate, report, represent, research, restate, review, show, trace, summarise, transform, translate
Applying	Carrying out or using a procedure through executing or implementing.	act, administer, apply, articulate, calculate, change, chart, choose, collect, complete, compute, construct, demonstrate, determine, develop, discover, employ, establish, examine, explain, illustrate, interpolate, interpret, interview, judge, list, manipulate, modify, use, calculate, operate, order, paint, practise, predict, prepare, produce, record, relate, report, restate, review, schedule, show, simulate, solve, apply, teach, transfer, translate, use, utilise, write
Analysing	Breaking material into constituent parts, determining how the parts relate to one another and to an overall structure or purpose through differentiating, organising, and attributing.	analyse, appraise, categorise, classify, compare, conclude, connect, contrast, correlate, criticise, debate, deduce, devise, differentiate, discriminate, distinguish, divide, estimate, evaluate, examine, explain, focus, identify, illustrate, infer, inspect, prioritise, question, relate, select, separate, subdivide, summarise, survey, test

Table 2 continued…

Evaluating	Making judgments based on criteria and standards through checking and critiquing.	argue, assess, attach, choose, compare, conclude, consider, contrast, convince, criticise, critique, debate, decide, defend, describe, determine, diagnose, discriminate, distinguish, justify, estimate, evaluate, find errors, interpret, judge, justify, measure, persuade, predict, rate, rank relate, recommend, reframe, review, revise, score, select, summarise, support, test, value
Creating	Putting elements together to form a coherent or functional whole; reorganising elements into a new pattern or structure through generating, planning, or producing.	combine, compile, comply, compose, construct, create, design, detect, develop, devise, facilitate, formulate, generalise, generate, hypothesise, imagine, infer, integrate, intervene, invent, justify, make, manage, modify, negotiate, organise, originate, plan, prepare, prescribe, produce, propose, rearrange, reconstruct, reorganise, report, revise, rewrite, role play, schematise, set up, simulate, solve, speculate, specify, structure, substitute, summarise, support, synthesise, write

Following Meda and Swart (2018), who conducted a document analysis of LOs within the electrical engineering curriculum at the University of Technology, South Africa, the researchers also applied inter-rater reliability (IRR) technique to ensure data reliability. IRR is a method used to gauge the extent to which various judges or raters concur in their evaluation judgments (Meda & Swart, 2018), reducing subjectivity in the analysis. In this case, besides one of the researchers, another rater was involved in assessing the clarity, observability, and measurability of the ELT LOs. The findings from the appointed rater were compared with those from the researcher to determine their level of agreement. Both sets of findings were then analysed using Cohen's Kappa formula and converted to five different interpretations (Landis & Koch, 1977); poor agreement (< 0); slight disagreement (0.0-0.20); fair agreement (0.21-0.40); moderate disagreement (0.41-0.60); substantial disagreement (0.61-0.80); and almost perfect agreement (0.81-1.00). The kappa coefficient indicated a high inter-rater agreement of 0.94 between two assessors regarding the clarity, observability, and measurability of the learning outcomes (LOs).

3. RESULTS

This section presents the analysis of the ELT learning outcomes within the current national guideline of the Indonesian Islamic higher education curriculum. It begins by presenting the findings for the first research question, referring to the Bloom's illustrative verbs used within the analysed ELT LOs related to cognitive domains. This is followed by the second research question findings, which deal with how clear, observable, and measurable the ELT LOs are structured.

3.1 The Use of Bloom's Illustrative Verbs

The first research question is "What Bloom's illustrative verbs are utilised within the cognitive-related ELT learning outcomes?" To address this research question, all illustrative verbs used by the twenty-two ELT LOs related to cognitive domains within the current national guideline of Indonesian Islamic higher education curriculum are analysed. The findings are presented in Figure 1.

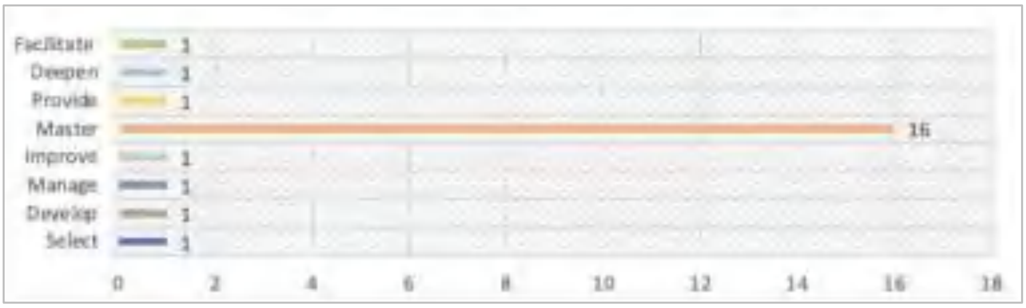

Figure 1. The illustrative verbs found within the ELT learning outcomes.

Figure 1 above presents the ranges of illustrative verbs found within the twenty-two ELT LOs related to cognitive domains. It is found that there are exactly eight different illustrative verbs used in the analysed LOs, namely 'select', 'develop', 'manage', 'improve', 'master', 'provide', 'deepen', and 'facilitate'. The verb used most often is the illustrative verb 'master', recurring 16 times. This frequency shows a significant difference compared to the other verbs, which are utilised only once for each. Another interesting finding refers to the number of illustrative verbs used in one LO; the overwhelming majority of LOs use only one illustrative verb each; meanwhile, only one LO uses two illustrative verbs. This seemingly meets one of the good LO standards, as one illustrative verb for one LO eases observability and measurability. Converting to the aforementioned list of Bloom's cognitive illustrative verbs, it is surprising that not all of the used verbs are included within the list. Four of the verbs not included in the list are 'master', 'provide', 'improve', and 'deepen', indicating that nineteen (86.36%) LOs within the guideline do not use Bloom's cognitive illustrative verbs. In contrast, only four of the used verbs are included within the list – 'select', 'develop', 'manage', and 'facilitate' – suggesting that only three out of twenty-two (13.64%) ELT LOs use Bloom's cognitive illustrative verbs. These verbs are classified into two different categories (analysing for 'select' and creating for 'develop', 'manage', and 'facilitate'), which belong to higher-order thinking skills in Bloom' revised taxonomy.

These results provide important insights into the low quality of cognitive-related ELT LOs within the current national guideline of Indonesian Islamic higher education curriculum. In this case, the majority of the ELT LOs are unobservable and unmeasurable due to the non-use of Bloom's cognitive illustrative verbs, negatively affecting the graduates' competencies. These findings are further explored in the second research question to assess the clarity, observability, and measurability of the twenty-two ELT LOs within the national curriculum guidelines.

3.2 The Quality of the ELT LOs?

The second research question is "How clear, observable, and measurable are the ELT LOs?" The quality of the ELT LOs was assessed through three categories, i.e. clarity, observability, and measurability. Figure 2 displays an overview of the quality of the cognitive-related ELT learning outcomes within the current national guideline of Indonesian Islamic higher education curriculum.

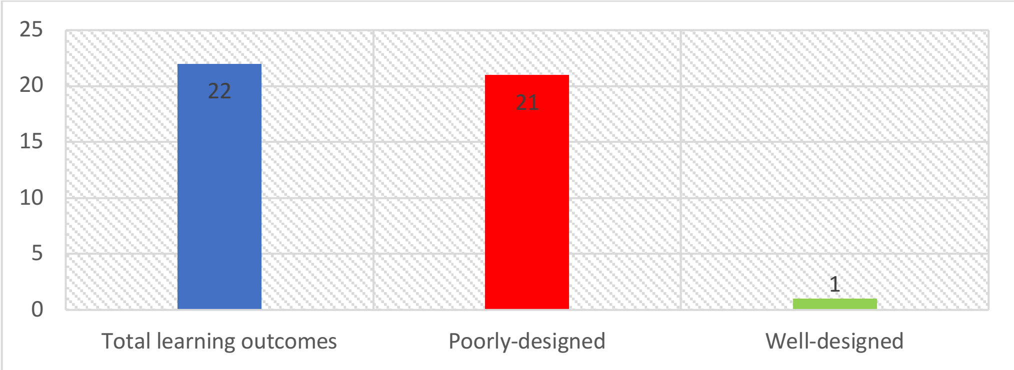

Figure 2. The overview of ELT learning outcomes within the national curriculum guidelines.

As presented in Figure 2, only one (4.55%) LO is rated as well-designed, clearly informing what students are supposed to do and demonstrate after accomplishing their courses. This can be illustrated briefly by the LO *memilih secara adekuat pendekatan dan model pembelajaran, bahan ajar, dan penilaian untuk kepentingan pembelajaran Bahasa Inggris* (Diktis, 2018, p. 235), which translates into English as "to adequately select learning approaches and models, teaching materials, and assessments for the benefit of English learning". This LO uses only one illustrative verb, which is 'select'. This relates to one of the higher levels of cognitive domains (analysing) within Bloom's revised taxonomy that promotes higher-order thinking skills. The use of the verb could inform students what to do and demonstrate with observable and measurable cognitive behaviours. Additionally, what is being learned is clearly demonstrated by this LO, with the keywords learning approaches and models, teaching materials, and assessments. Taken together, this LO has principally met the fundamental requirements of a clear, observable, and measurable LO, prompting the researchers to label it a well-designed LO. It demonstrates observable and measurable behaviour and what is being learned by students.

Another surprising finding displayed in Figure 2 is related to poorly designed learning outcomes. This finding suggests that the overwhelming majority of the analysed ELT LOs – twenty-one out of twenty-two (95.45%) – are rated as poorly designed. This finding is then extracted as illustrated in Figure 3.

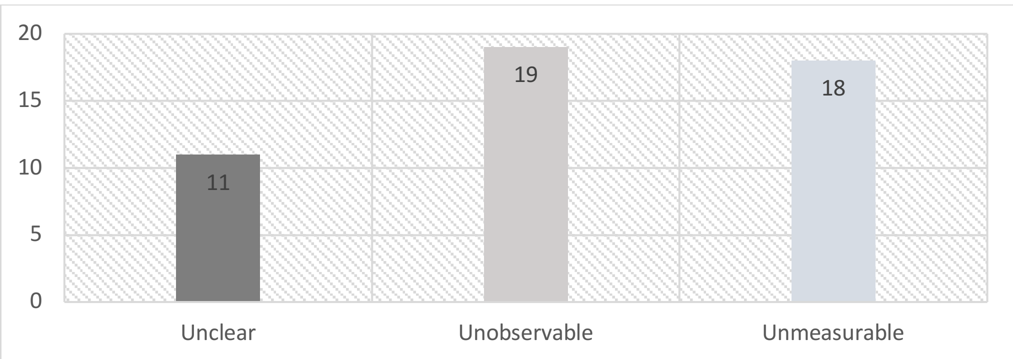

Figure 3. Poorly designed ELT learning outcomes within the national curriculum guidelines.

From Figure 3, the poorly designed ELT LOs are classified according to unclear, unobservable, and unmeasurable outcomes. The most striking finding to emerge from the data analysis displayed in Figure 3 is that the ELT LOs are mostly unobservable and unmeasurable, at 86.36% and 81.81% respectively, followed by unclear LOs with 50%. The most dramatic illustration of these is the LO *menguasai pengetahuan dan langkah-langkah dalam mengembangkan pemikiran kritis, logis, kreatif, inovatif, untuk memecahkan masalah pada tingkat individu dan kelompok dalam komunitas akademik dan non-akademik* (to master knowledge and steps in developing critical, logical, creative, innovative and systematic thinking as well as having intellectual curiosity to solve problems at the individual and group level in the academic and non-academic communities). This is rated not only as unclear but also as an unobservable and unmeasurable LO for several reasons. Firstly, it is extremely long (too wordy) and covers several variables and verbs, generating a vague LO. Secondly, it utilises non-Bloom's illustrative verbs, making it an unobservable LO. It is difficult to observe and measure 'master' as it cannot show how students master their learning or what students need to know or demonstrate. Lastly, this seemingly belongs to LO-related skills (psychomotor), by which students need to have skills in developing critical, logical, creative, innovative and systematic thinking. Simply, it does not deal with cognitive domains.

Particularly, it is found that some of the LOs are rated clear, but there is ambiguity in their observability and measurability. For instances, the LOs *menguasai teori belajar dan pembelajaran bahasa Inggris* (to master theories of learning and English learning) is clear as it uses one verb and does not cover too many variables, demonstrating what is being learnt (theories of learning and English learning). However, the verb "master" does not belong to Bloom's cognitive illustrative verbs, making it unobservable and unmeasurable. In this case, it does not require students to demonstrate any specific activities that can be clearly observed. Also, the entire concept is too general – it needs to specify which learning theories are major learning theories existing in the literature. This is also exemplified by the LO *meningkatkan kualitas pembelajaran berdasarkan penilaian proses dan penilaian hasil belajar Bahasa Inggris* (to improve learning quality based on an assessment of learning process and outcomes). This is also clear but unobservable and unmeasurable, since it does not use a Bloom's illustrative verb. Also, to measure 'improve' needs pre- and post-testing to see the improvement before and after the whole courses, which is not an ideal method of measuring LOs.

The findings also suggest that an ELT LO is rated clear and observable but unmeasurable. This is true in the case of the LO *memfasilitasi pengembangan potensi kebahasaan peserta didik secara optimal* (to facilitate the development of students' linguistic potency optimally). The use of simple language and the verb 'facilitate' as one of Bloom's illustrative verbs makes this LO clear and observable. Unfortunately, the phrase "the development of students' linguistic potency" is too general, offering no way to measure the outcomes. It is also more related to a psychomotor outcome than a cognitive one. Furthermore, another notable finding referring to the LO is unclear but observable and measurable. This can be illustrated briefly by the LO *mengembangkan kurikulum untuk mata pelajaran bahasa Inggris sesuai dengan bidang tugas dan mengelola kurikulum tingkat satuan pendidikan* (to develop a curriculum for an English subject based on the field and manage a curriculum at the educational unit level). This LO is observable due to the use of a Bloom's illustrative verb ('develop'). It is also measurable, by which learning is clearly demonstrated by specifying a specific curriculum (English subjects). Unfortunately, the use of two clauses with two verbs ('develop' and 'manage') makes this LO unclear, generating an ambiguous outcome.

These findings provide fundamental insights into the poorly designed ELT LOs within the current national guideline of the Indonesian Islamic higher education curriculum. The ignorance of Bloom's illustrative verbs in structuring learning outcomes could generate unclear, unobservable, and unmeasurable learning outcomes as illustrated in this study. Poorly designed learning outcomes could lead to ineffective instruction, as students do not know what they need to do; and teachers also do not know how to deliver and measure their instruction tasks. Such issues will be discussed further in the following section.

4. DISCUSSION

As mentioned previously, this study aims at examining the clarity, observability, and measurability of cognitive-related ELT LOs within the national guidelines of the Indonesian Islamic higher education curriculum. With respect to the first research question, it is found that most of the ELT LOs utilise non-Bloom's cognitive illustrative verbs, notably 'master', recurring 16 times. Such findings clearly indicate that the LOs are not clearly contextualised based on Bloom's taxonomy. They also indicate that the awareness of the use of Bloom's illustrative verbs by some Indonesian scholars in designing LOs remains low, driving them to use lower-level Bloom's illustrative verbs. Another speculation from these findings relates to class sizes in most Indonesian Islamic higher education institutions. In this case, the presence of larger class sizes could potentially account for why learning outcomes often encourage lower-level thinking skills rather than higher-order ones. Then, the findings of the second research question are somewhat unexpected given the fact that the overwhelming majority of the ELT LOs are unclear, unobservable, and unmeasurable (poorly designed). What emerges from the results reported here is that the ELT LOs proposed by the Directorate of Islamic Higher Education could not promote student learning with higher-order thinking skills. Additionally, what is surprising is that the given examples of ELT LOs within the national curriculum guidelines are not structured based on Bloom's taxonomy. This result contradicts the previous technical guideline, which stipulates Bloom's taxonomy as the framework from which to decide the depth of learning within learning outcomes (see Diktis, 2018). This guideline was also published in 2018 by the Ministry of Religious Affairs (MoRA) through the Directorate of Islamic Higher Education. Such inconsistency is, of course, very unfortunate because it might give negative impacts on ELT graduates in Islamic higher education institutions across Indonesia. In particular, the poorly designed ELT LOs within the national curriculum guidelines potentially become "bad" examples for ELT curriculum designers within Islamic higher education institutions across Indonesia in structuring their institutional LOs.

Connecting to the global interdisciplinary context, the findings of this study corroborate the study of Meda and Swart (2018), which also finds unclear, unobservable, and unmeasurable LOs within the electrical engineering curriculum in the University of Technology, South Africa. Regardless of the different contexts, these two studies share similar findings with regard to the low quality of LOs obtained from the electrical engineering department in South Africa and the English education departments in Indonesian Islamic higher education. These suggest that some countries might also experience similar problems and struggles to those of Indonesian Islamic higher education in designing their higher education LOs, as also experienced by South Africa. Such struggles are further compounded by the ambition of elite countries to create world-class universities (Hou et al., 2012) by offering excellent learning opportunities for students with higher-order thinking skills. These leave small countries even further behind in developing their higher education curricula, particularly their learning outcomes.

Going back to the Indonesian context, this study is in agreement with one previously carried out by Solikhah and Budiharso (2019), which reported that the learning outcomes stated within five ELT curricula in Central Java were unfocused, overly general, and missing the expected professional outcomes of ELT programmes. Regardless of the limitations, both studies indicate that poorly designed ELT LOs can be found not only within Indonesian Islamic but also general higher education institutions. Such issues highlight one of Indonesian higher education complexities (see also Azra, 2008) in following the rat race of global higher education in generating graduates with higher-order thinking skills. In other words, the ELT LOs within the national curriculum guidelines mostly deal with 'remembering' and 'understanding' level, referring to lower-order thinking skills. This evidence shows a significant gap compared to other countries, such as South Africa (Meda & Swart, 2018), Romania (Swart & Daneti, 2019), Korea and Singapore (Lee, et al., 2015), which focus on developing their graduates' higher-order thinking skills (Ganapathy et al., 2017; Lu et al., 2021; Suleman et al., 2021). In addition, considering the poor quality of ELT LOs found by this study, it requires extra efforts and struggles for ELT departments in Indonesian Islamic higher education institutions to globalise their graduates with global competencies, as one of the main goals of the current Indonesian qualification framework. Massive work remains to be carried out to deal with these issues.

To join the inexorable global challenge, higher education worldwide should design well-structured LOs. In particular, Indonesian Islamic higher education needs to be meticulous in structuring well-designed ELT LOs, especially those within the national curriculum guidelines used as references for all English education majors in Indonesian Islamic higher education. The LOs need to be clear, observable, and measurable (Cowan, 2009). Ignoring such principles will generate poorly designed LOs, which lead to ineffective teaching and learning processes due to the ambiguity of what students should demonstrate and how teachers assess students' learning (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2000; Brooks et al., 2014; Buckley & Michel, 2020; Chance & Peck, 2015; Dobbins et al., 2016; Suskie, 2018). To negate the ambiguity, the use of a Bloom's illustrative verb is a must in structuring an LO (Meda & Swart, 2018). In this case, it is suggested using only a single Bloom's illustrative verb for each learning outcome (Buckley & Michel, 2020; Chance & Peck, 2015; Meda & Swart, 2018).

In addition to the use of Bloom's illustrative verbs, curriculum designers or teachers should meticulously select appropriate illustrative verbs that promote higher-order thinking skills instead of the lower ones. In this case, higher-order thinking verbs encourage students to experience deep learning that requires them to apply their reasoning skills (Fiegel, 2013). This process contradicts the use of lower-order thinking verbs, which involve only simple recall of information skills (Anderson &

Krathwohl, 2000). Furthermore, it should be noted that not all verbs can accurately demonstrate observable and measurable cognitive behaviour – for example 'understand' and 'know' – it is suggested that even such verbs need to be avoided (Ağçama & Babanoğlu, 2020). The most dramatic illustration of this relates to the verb 'master', the verb most recurring in the ELT LOs found in this study. This verb is tantamount to the verb 'understand', and this verb is not included in the list of Bloom's cognitive illustrative verbs. The use of this verb should be avoided in writing learning outcomes as it is vague, blurring what students are expected to demonstrate or how teachers assess it (Chance & Peck, 2015). Surprisingly, although it is suggested that they be avoided, many educators still often use unobservable verbs such as 'appreciate', 'understand', 'familiarise' and 'know' (Kennedy, 2007). Such phenomena lead to the assumption that some scholars are still not fully cognisant of the positive impacts of using Bloom's illustrative verbs in designing LOs, as shown in this study.

5. CONCLUSION

This study set out to evaluate how clear, observable and measurable ELT LOs are within the current national guidelines of Indonesian Islamic higher education. The findings show that the overwhelming majority of the ELT LOs do not use Bloom's illustrative verbs, generating unclear, unobservable, and unmeasurable (poorly designed) LOs. These findings are very alarming. In line with the current national technical guideline, they should provide well-designed LO examples, not poorly designed ones. This might bring negative impacts on the quality of cross-national LOs set by ELT departments in Indonesian Islamic higher education. Taken together, these findings propose a principal theoretical implication, which suggests a role for Bloom's illustrative verbs in generating clear, observable, and measurable LOs. In this case, the use of Bloom's illustrative verbs could positively impact the constructive alignment between teaching and assessment. Hopefully, this study might also inspire other countries (educational authorities) with similar struggles and backgrounds to be more meticulous in structuring examples of well-designed learning outcomes.

These could be representative of an emerging trend in evaluating the clarity, observability, and measurability of ELT LOs in the global context, particularly in the Indonesian Islamic higher education context. Furthermore, this study has been one of the first attempts to thoroughly provide some tentative initial evidence regarding the quality of cognitive-related ELT LOs within the analysed document, which is mostly poorly designed. In this matter, it might lay the groundwork for future research into evaluating all of the learning outcomes within the current national guidelines of Indonesian Islamic higher education.

The issues that are not addressed in this study deal with the analysis of ELT LOs related to affective and psychomotor domains within the current national curriculum guideline. In other words, this study is not specifically designed to evaluate the quality of ELT LOs related to affective and psychomotor domains. It is, therefore, hoped that this study might help others with similar interests to design studies that specifically focus on examining the quality of ELT LOs related to the other domains. In addition, what is now needed is a cross-national study involving large samples of ELT LOs designed by ELT departments across Indonesian Islamic higher education institutions.

It is crucial to see how the poorly designed ELT LOs within the current national curriculum guideline affect the quality of ELT LOs at institutional levels. Finally, evaluating LOs for other departments from different faculties within the guideline would also be a fruitful and promising area for future work.

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Academic Writing Apprehension in Higher Education: A Systematic Review

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Abstract
Considering the crucial skill required in formal education, specifically in higher education, academic writing is a part of every academic writer's life. However, some writers often feel that they have insufficient knowledge of source use and academic writing. Responding to this issue, this systematic review aims to untangle factors encountered by the writers while having academic writing and the solution to cope with the problems. A literature search supported by Publish or Perish application explored academic articles published in Scopus and Web of Science databases from 2014 to 2022. Employing the PRISMA method, 19 academic articles in qualitative, quantitative, and mixed-method designs were selected to explore the issue. Exploring the selected articles, this systematic review resulted in the following findings: (1) the factors influencing students' writing apprehension include unfamiliarity with academic tone and style, beliefs about writing, cognitive and behavioral anxiety, and insufficient support for writing; and (2) to cope with this writing apprehension,

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students may seek help from others, improve their writing strategies, and effectively manage writing feedback. Furthermore, faculty members should provide more appropriate teaching techniques and opportunities for students to share ideas with their peers to reduce writing anxiety and apprehension. The implications for pedagogical practices and future research directions are further discussed.

Keywords: Academic writing, English, systematic review, writing apprehension.

1. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, writing has become a topic of interest for many researchers. This interest may stem from the fact that writing is a complex process involving several steps: pre-writing, drafting, getting feedback, revising, editing, and finally submitting (Paltridge & Starfield, 2007). Consequently, mastering this skill needs special attention. Furthermore, it serves various purposes, with academic writing being one of the most significant, especially for academicians or students. Writing for academic purposes differs from writing for leisure or personal enjoyment (S. Bailey, 2011), as it demands greater accuracy and objectivity. For instance, university students are required to write a thesis as part of their academic requirements. Accordingly, academic writing skill becomes necessary for them to succeed in their studies (Hyland, 2013). However, despite its importance, many students struggle with writing academically. Hyland (2013) further added that academic writing is quite challenging, specifically for a second or foreign-language writer, as different educational backgrounds, writing systems, learning experiences, motivation levels, expectations, and target needs result in different writing skills.

As a crucial ability, writing is not always an easy endeavor. The writers must call for various cognitive functions (Jalaluddin et al., 2015) to help them write effectively. To achieve an effective writing process, writers must set their goals, enact the process of idea generation and organization, and translate and revise those into their language (Demirel & Aydin, 2019). However, during the writing process, writers tend to have certain cognitive and affective problems (Bastug et al., 2017), mostly referred to as writer's block or writer's apprehension. Writing apprehension is associated with individuals who tend to avoid writing as they have high anxiety when asked to write (Daly & Miller, 1975; Fischer & Meyers, 2017; Limpo, 2018). Studies on writing apprehension have been conducted in recent years. For example, Aunurahman et al. (2017) uncovered that a negative perception of academic writing potentially brings writing apprehension to students.

Furthermore, Altınmakas and Bayyurt (2019) revealed that university students often encountered writing anxiety due to poor writing instruction and experience, negative beliefs about academic writing, or high faculty's demand and expectation of their academic performance, similarly found by Sakitri (2020). Ahmed and Güss (2022) explored the causes and solutions to cope with writer's block. They uncovered that writer's block is mainly caused by motivational and psychological factors, and it can potentially be reduced by writing on different topics or discussing ideas with others. Considering the prior studies, a review on previous studies focusing on the causes and solutions to cope with writing apprehension may complete the literature and contribute positively to the field of academic writing, specifically in higher education. Although the causes and how to cope with the writers' apprehension were already discussed in detail by previous studies, the specific information about dealing with specific problems is insufficient. In this regard, this study attempts to review and understand the factors affecting the students' writing apprehension in academic writing and how to cope with this writing apprehension. To explore this issue, this study follows two research questions as follow:

1. What factors affect writing apprehension commonly encountered by university students in writing academic writing?
2. How can writers do to cope with writing apprehension?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

At the end of their studies, students must write a thesis as an inseparable part of the coursework to obtain an undergraduate degree (Ministry of Education and Culture of Republic of Indonesia, 2020). To accomplish this task, the students should think of what they have to write (a research topic) and how they report it so that their theses meet international standards of academic writing. The issue they investigate should fulfill certain criteria, such as whether the topic is relevant to their scientific field, whether it contributes to scientific development, and whether it has a novelty. Then, they must write their theses according to a particular structure, such as introduction, literature review, methodology, findings, discussion, and conclusion (Fleming & Kowalsky, 2021; Ormrod, 2022). In addition, they must have effective time management, understand institution policies and procedures, work with research advisors, and understand the committee's roles and responsibilities (Fleming & Kowalsky, 2021). Therefore, they frequently feel worried when they engage in the process of thesis writing.

Several studies have revealed the causes of writers' apprehension (Ahmed & Güss, 2022; Bastug et al., 2017; Chen & Wang, 2022). For example, a study conducted by Bastug et al. (2017) reported the cause of writer's block or writer's apprehension, such as limitation of subject and time, problems in the process of writing, the anxiety of being controlled and assessed, fear of being criticized, a lack of information about writing, and vocabulary problems. These causes can be observed at the beginning and during the writing process (Zorbaz, 2015). Another study also mentions that the primary causes of writers' apprehensions are psychological causes such as life stress, general anxiety, depression, and burnout (Ahmed & Güss, 2022).

Paltridge and Starfield (2007) reported four factors causing students to struggle writing in a second language: psycho-affective or emotional issues, behavioral issues, rhetorical issues, and social issues. Firstly, psycho-affective or emotional issues reveal that students tend to have low confidence in writing. Thinking they are incompetent in writing also blocks them from starting writing. Limpo (2018) confirmed that students with a greater concern for writing tend to have poorer writing performance. Also, their perfectionist thinking prevents them from finishing the writing, especially when the due date is close. Then they also point out that the lecturer's negative feedback affects the students' writing performance, although many other students believe that the lecturer's feedback is beneficial (Hyland, 2013; Ma, 2019).

Students have several reasons to engage in individual consultations with their lecturers. Firstly, such consultations allow the students to have their writing critically reviewed, have their questions answered and explained, and receive suggestions for improvement (Ma, 2019). Secondly, behavioral issues of the students show that some students believe they can only write when they want. Consequently, they often delay writing for other activities. Nonetheless, these behaviors are proven to be ineffective because writing as frequently as possible is advisable. The frequent practices make their writing ability better. Furthermore, starting the writing process early yields better results. Therefore, students should seize every opportunity to write and make time for it (McMullan, 2018). Lastly, social issues show that human needs social support. Students often lack peer feedback and encouragement in their writing endeavors. However, receiving frequent critiques and feedback on their work leads to improvements in their writing skills. Mochizuki (2019) confirms that peer feedback benefits both the recipient and the provider, enhancing the overall writing performance of the students. Furthermore, this practice fosters positive social relationships among the students.

3. METHODS

3.1 Research design

A systematic review model was used in the nomological network stage, which was used to explore what factors could contribute to writing apprehension and the solutions that have been made to overcome writing apprehension.

3.2 Search Strategy

One of the researchers conducted a library metadata search using the Publish or Perish 8.4.4 application to obtain data from Scopus and Web of Science databases. The researchera focused the search on relevant previous research from peer-reviewed journal articles over a decade. The researchers used four keywords in obtaining metadata: writing apprehension, writer's block, academic writing, and challenge. Then, the researchers stored the data in the form of a RIS/RefManager. The data were then imported into the Mendeley Desktop 1.19 application. Then the researchers updated the data on the application.

3.3 Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

The researchers exported the data from Mendeley Desktop with the…. The RIS file extension was then imported by the Covidence Systematic Review website-based application. Two other researchers conducted the inclusion and exclusion stages of 273 articles (see Figure 1). Then, a screening stage was carried out on titles and abstracts, which resulted in 108 articles being assessed for eligibility. The framework for conducting an eligibility assessment included a research focus (factors and solutions), which was then carried out on quality assessments in articles with the assessment framework offered by Jesson et al. (2011). Finally, based on the eligibility assessment stage, 19 articles were reread, which were used in the analysis stage.

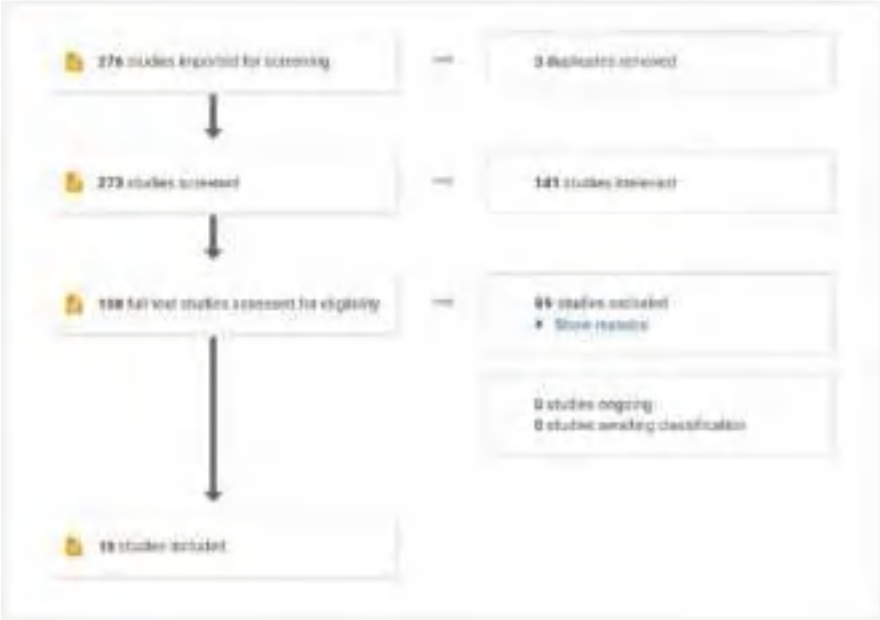

Figure 1. PRISMA diagram.

3.4 Data Analysis

The researchers used ATLAS. ti 9.1.3 program to code on data analysis (FA= factors affecting, PS= proposed solution). In the first stage, the research team extracted relevant data based on Table 1. Then, the two researchers separately read the full-length article, identified keywords, provided highlights covering the stages of extracting the reviewed studies context, synthesizing the previous findings based on the open coding, applying coding following the focus of the systematic review (factors affecting writing apprehension and proposed solution) and reviewing and discussing the obtained data. The analysis of the resulting data was then put together. Following this, the research team conducted a review and engaged in discussions to refine and consolidate the findings derived from the data analysis process.

4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Characteristics of the Studies

In this part, we report the emergent context of the reviewed studies. Among 19 studies, the present study included Asia (n = 10), America (n = 6), Europe (n = 2), and Africa (n = 1). Students who engage with academic writing in a variety of subjects were included in the study, from undergraduate (n = 12), graduate (n = 2), postgraduate (n = 4), and mixed level of graduate and doctoral (n = 1) levels. Quantitative designs were primarily used in the studies (n = 8). The next most frequent research designs were qualitative designs (n = 6), and mixed-method (n = 5) were found to be the last. The majority of the sample size of the data ranged from 600-1000 participants (n = 13), between 11-110 participants (n = 3), less than 10 participants (n = 2), and two groups (*n* = 1). Various studies have hours, weeks, months, semesters, years, and unknown duration.

Table 1. Context of the reviewed studies.

No.	First author	Year	Country	Sample	Level	Duration	Method
1.	Sanders-orio	2014	South Florida	738 participants	Undergraduate	Unknown	Survey & Test
2.	Lonka	2014	Finlandia	669 participants	Postgraduate	Unknown	Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)
3.	Maher	2014	USA	35 participants	Postgraduate	Unknown	Document Analysis & Interview
4.	Jee	2016	South Korea	61 students	Undergraduate	Two years period	Survey & Statistical Analysis
5.	Oliver	2016	South African	Two groups of students	Undergraduate	Unknown	Exploratory Factor Analysis
6.	Marandi	2017	Iran	84 students	Undergraduate	Unknown	Quasi-Experimental Design
7.	Jeyaraj	2018	Malaysia	Six participants	Postgraduate	Six months of full-time	Qualitative Design
8.	Gardner	2018	USA	A subgroup of six participants	Graduate & Postgraduate	Unknown	Retrospective Mixed-Methods Analysis
9.	Fry	2019	Idaho	4 students & 1 consultant	Graduate Students	A semester	Qualitative Design
10.	Bailey	2019	Korea	78 participants	Undergraduate	Six weeks program	Quantitative Survey Correlation
11	Park	2020	Korea	Thirty students	Undergraduate	Twice a week for one academic semester	Quantitative Experimental
12.	Torres	2020	United States	25 learners	Undergraduate	Unknown	Qualitative Design
13.	Langum	2020	Norwegian	Twenty-four participants	Undergraduate	Unknown	Narrative Inquiry
14.	Waer	2021	Egypt, Arab	103 students	Undergraduate	Twelve weeks	Experimental Design

Table 1 continued…

15.	Lin	2021	Hong Kong	82 students	Postgraduate	Unknown	Mixed-Method Quantitative and Qualitative Data (Survey & Interview)
16.	Fajaryani	2021	Indonesia	12 students	Undergraduate	Unknown	A Qualitative Case Study
17.	Van der Rijst	2022	Omani	757 participants	Undergraduate	Unknown	Mixed-Methods (Case Study Research Approach with A Survey and Interview
18.	Strickland	2022	United States	20 participants	Graduate	Six weeks 2-hour weekly workshops	Mixed Method (Survey & Reflection-Open Ended Questions)
19.	Almaawali	2022	Oman	43 students	Undergraduate	A semester (13 weeks)	A Case Study

4.2 Factors Affecting Writer's Writing Apprehension

4.2.1 Students struggle with academic tone and style in writing

The first factor involved in writing apprehension is the struggle of students to achieve clarity in academic writing. Students from non-native backgrounds have problems when writing in the target language. They have a significant challenge of limited vocabulary (van der Rijst et al., 2022), low linguistics competence (Jeyaraj, 2018), and a lack of familiarity with the audience and formal style of writing (Fry et al., 2019). Moreover, students from non-native backgrounds also face transfer errors when switching back and forth in writing (Maher et al., 2014; Torres et al., 2020). Torres et al. (2020) mention that non-native students' low writing proficiency and dominant use of informal language influence their writing performance. As they have low writing proficiency levels, students are unsure of the purpose of paraphrasing and do not understand academic integrity and ethical behavior (Jeyaraj, 2018; van der Rijst et al., 2022). Consequently, issues related to plagiarism also arise. Students resort to directly copying texts from sources or incorrectly paraphrasing, leading to plagiarism.

4.2.2 Students' beliefs about writing: low self-efficacy

Students tend to hold various beliefs about themselves regarding writing. The negative perception of writing could increase their anxiety and avoidance of writing (Lu & Kim, 2021). Therefore, low self-efficacy emerges as a factor contributing to writing apprehension, as indicated in the reviewed studies. An example of the correlation between writing self-efficacy and writing performance can be found in

Sanders-Reio et al. (2014). Participants who enjoy writing less and have low writing self-efficacy tend to attain lesser academic achievement. Moreover, people's behavior is influenced by self-efficacy or beliefs about their abilities (Olivier & Olivier, 2016). Negative thoughts about their writing and low self-confidence in expressing ideas are factors in high writing apprehension (Olivier & Olivier, 2016; Strickland et al., 2022; Torres et al., 2020). Overcoming these problems is not easy. Thus, this study will also explore targeting an efficient strategy in other parts.

4.2.3 Students face anxiety in writing

The previous section discussed how beliefs can enhance or hinder students' writing performance. While individual students hold their own beliefs, it is important to acknowledge that contextual factors also exert influence. Many studies reviewed that students' discomfort and anxiety are prominent issues associated with writing apprehension. Higher discomfort and anxiety about writing engendered the students to produce writing text with reduced efficiency and performance (Limpo, 2018). The findings from ten out of twenty studies mentioned that the students were facing the issue of anxiety in writing. Two types of anxiety were found in the reviewed studies: cognitive and behavioral. Cognitive anxiety refers to the mental aspect of anxiety, including expectation, a preoccupation with performance, and concerning others' perceptions. In contrast, behavioral anxiety refers to defense strategies that respond to cognitive anxiety, such as avoiding writing (D. Bailey, 2019).

4.2.4 Cognitive anxiety: dysfunctional emotions

Students often experience dysfunctional emotions such as stress, anxiety, exhaustion, and lack of interest (dysphoria or negative mood). This was the case with the participants in the study conducted by Lonka et al. (2014), Olivier and Olivier (2016), Gardner et al. (2018), Waer (2021), Al Maawali (2022), Strickland et al. (2022), and van der Rijst et al. (2022). These studies reported that students faced constant problems such as stress, anxiety, exhaustion, and lack of interest (negative mood) in starting writing that may implicate issues in finishing texts. Negative experiences in academic writing may cause the students to develop a fear of failure, inability to write, doubt in their writing ability, and in the worst case, total writer's block (Gardner et al., 2018; Lonka et al., 2014; Olivier & Olivier, 2016). In the study by Gardner et al. (2018), six students experienced anxiety about writing from their previous educational background, native language, and self-perception as writers. One student named Daniela admitted that her anxiety prevented her from doing more than the bare minimum regarding writing. Moreover, Al Maawali (2022) found that the fear of expressing ideas in writing often resulted in repeated deletions, leading students to become victims of writer's block.

4.2.5 Cognitive anxiety: fear of error and fear of getting judged

Fear of evaluations contributes the most to students' anxiety (Park, 2020). In a case study conducted by Al Maawali (2022), it was found that in the first few weeks of writing, all students experienced fear of making errors and fear of being judged by their teacher. Interestingly, teacher support negatively influenced the student's performance. Teachers did not act as apprentice writers like the students, so they had short social relationships. Students' fear of making errors and being judged was occurred when they needed to share their writing with others (Fry et al., 2019; Gardner et al., 2018) and when their work was being evaluated or assessed (Olivier & Olivier, 2016). Furthermore, the student's desire to stay true to the data caused the fear of making errors. The students faced difficulties interpreting the social context in which the data emerged (Langum & Sullivan, 2020).

4.2.6 Cognitive anxiety: fear of having a poor grade

The students feared of getting poor grades as various aspects of writing compositions needed to be evaluated (D. Bailey, 2019). The fact is that writers' apprehension and performance reinforce each other. Notwithstanding, writing apprehension may still influence students' attitudes but does not necessarily influence the students' poor marks (Olivier & Olivier, 2016).

4.2.7 Cognitive anxiety: impatience in writing

Studies that show the students' habit of avoiding the editing process on their writing task can be found in Fry et al. (2019) and Strickland et al. (2022). Editing their writing could significantly improve the quality of their work. However, students feel that the writing process is too slow, and there is not enough time to draft and revise their work (Strickland et al., 2022).

4.2.8 Behavioral anxiety: perfectionism in writing

Two beliefs and thinking patterns are associated with writer's block: the fear of being judged and adherence to rigid rules (belief about acceptable writing practice). Students' perfectionism in writing is caused by believing that the audience will negatively judge their writing (Strickland et al., 2022). This review corroborates that anxiety during writing could contribute to a negative attitude.

4.2.9 Students's low writing skills

Many common writing problems are experienced by students, including issues such as insufficient word use, inappropriate word choice, syntactic error, disorganization, and lack of ideas (Fajaryani et al., 2021; Lin & Morrison, 2021; Park, 2020; Torres et al., 2020). The student's language competencies constrain them to work on their writing, so they rarely write and consider writing skills less critical. Therefore, effective solutions should be considered to strengthen the students writing and thinking skills.

4.2.10 Students receive insufficient support

Writing classes should provide meaningful writing experiences intended to develop students writing confidence within a supportive classroom environment. The writing experiences should support the students' writing growth, development, and value rather than solely focusing on their errors (Mascle, 2013). However, the reviewed studies found that the students often received insufficient support from instructors (Jee, 2016; Waer, 2021) or fellow friends (Jeyaraj, 2018). Writing requires interaction involving social networks, institutional contexts, and peer relations (Jeyaraj, 2018). Nonetheless, not all students can find all the support. The instructor's availability was limited due to the time constraint and workload. Therefore, the instructors' feedback and individual scaffolding somehow become another reason students have a high writing apprehension (Waer, 2021). Hence, a supportive, in-depth learning environment was needed where the instructors provided sufficient time to practice writing and give feedback (Jee, 2016). However, another issue of the instructor's support also arises. Al Maawali (2022) states that face-to-face writing instructions formed high apprehension. Students tend to lower their writing apprehension when their class is integrated into the asynchronous discussion. This brings us to find a course program with sufficient support and characteristics.

4.3 Coping with Writing Apprehension

4.3.1 Seeking helps from others

Writing apprehension is quite challenging, specifically for university students who need to write various academic writing genres to be able to graduate. One of many ways to cope with this writing apprehension is by discussing the writing ideas and how to write them effectively with friends (Fajaryani et al., 2021; Jeyaraj, 2018). Students may get inspiration and solve their writing problems by discussing them with others. Jeyaraj (2018) reports that students' participation in the scholarly community develops their views of academic writing and improves their writing strategy to learn how to write from the community. Furthermore, students may feel 'blindness' in writing when discussion and dialogue exchange about writing is lacking (Starke-Meyerring, 2011). It indicates that participating in the community, interacting with its members, and sharing ideas in writing help students solve their problems in writing and improve their writing strategies.

This phenomenon also strengthens the use of writing groups among university students. Students' participation in peer writing groups provides opportunities for the students to share ideas for writing and receive continued assistance in the writing process (Li & Vandermensbrugghe, 2011). Furthermore, students may increase their awareness of language use and reader awareness since they act as both writers and readers in the writing groups (D. Bailey, 2019). In peer writing groups, students may learn from each other and reduce their anxiety when they learn from someone superior. van der Rijst et al. (2022) also emphasize the importance of groups in learning writing. In groups, students can discuss ideas for writing, solve their problems, and write more effectively. Collaborative writing is also necessary to solve writing problems (Olivier & Olivier, 2016). They reveal that drafting writing and giving motivation in collaborative writing can reduce students' writing apprehension.

Students may cope with writing apprehension by seeking other help, for instance, a writing specialist (Gardner et al., 2018). A writing specialist can advise students on how to write more effectively with their coaching-like teaching style. The students there show their improvement in writing after visiting a writing specialist several times. In Gardner et al.'s (2018) study, the students were asked to write down what came to their mind without further thinking and edited the writing later. The students then revealed that their writing skills improved as their practice writing frequently and became accustomed to writing. Additionally, they can seek more information they need in books or dictionaries (Lin & Morrison, 2021). Gaining more insights into their writing problems will help them understand the problem and how to cope with it.

4.3.2 Writing feedback

Studies reported that writing feedback is essential in improving students' writing performances and reducing writer's block. Park (2020) and van der Rijst et al. (2022) revealed that weekly teacher and peer feedback might help students improve their writing to have higher self-efficacy. It indicates that writing feedback can give encouragement, correction, and more insights into writing that positively impact the students' writer's block. In van der Rijst et al.'s (2022) study, they benefited from writing feedback to avoid plagiarism. Specifically for peer feedback, students can independently think about their writing mistakes and how to correct them, leading to improvement (Gardner et al., 2018). Additionally, Olivier and Olivier (2016) emphasized that positive writing feedback contributes to reduced writer's block among students. It somehow encourages students to write more and practice their writing skills so that they 'forget' their anxiety in writing.

Another writing feedback that is popular in this digital era is computer-mediated writing feedback. It can mediate teacher and peer feedback to be more doable for the students. Marandi and Seyyedrezaie (2017) found that face-to-face instruction in writing leads to higher writing apprehension. The students were reported to be more anxious when they should receive their feedback face-to-face. Furthermore, their study also highlighted that using Google Drive-integrated writing instruction could reduce students' writer's block since they can receive their teacher's feedback and see the other students' teacher feedback. It also emphasized that this computer-mediated writing instruction helps students reduce their anxiety since they can participate in a learning environment as anonymous students.

Writing feedback can also be automatically provided with artificial intelligence (AI) support in some writing applications, such as Grammarly and Pigai. This feedback is the most favorable among introvert students since they do not need to interact with others to achieve this automated writing evaluation (AWE) feedback. Waer (2021) reported that AWE feedback provides immediate writing feedback and options for revising their writing which is probably unavailable in regular writing feedback due to the teachers' workload. Furthermore, prior studies (Cotos, 2011; Hojeij, 2022; Ranalli, 2021; Wilken, 2018) proved that AWE positively impacts students' writing by pointing out errors and mistakes. However, since AWE is provided by a non-human application, students need to be critical and cautious in responding to the feedback since some AWE-based applications potentially provide inaccurate writing feedback (Ranalli, 2021).

4.3.3 Effective writing strategy

Another way to avoid writer's block is by planning the writing process carefully and strategically (Lin & Morrison, 2021). By applying a writing strategy, the writing process can be conducted more efficiently and reduce writer's block. Fajaryani et al. (2021) revealed that students apply some writing strategies in coping with writer's block: (1) cognitive strategies consisting of brainstorming and making outlines and (2) metacognitive strategies consisting of self-editing and revision. In their study, the students first brainstorm ideas for the argumentative task's topic, write sentences they are familiar with, and continue discussing the topic. Furthermore, the students also somehow write more frequently to identify their mistakes. Then, they check their writing several times and self-edit the writing. These findings indicate that students' independence to identify and revise mistakes is important in reducing writer's block. Additionally, Lin and Morrison (2021) revealed that students read published academic papers as their writing models. This reading exposes students to the rhetorical structure of academic papers and how to write them rhetorically. Also, some students used machine translation (MT) to make their writing more grammatically accurate, which means that technical support is needed to reduce their writing apprehension.

4.3.4 Appropriate teaching strategy

Olivier and Olivier (2016) suggest that the student-centered teacher method can reduce students' writer's block. This suggests that teachers must select a teaching method that provides opportunities for students to actively engage in the learning process. Also, their study explained that students need more specific writing instruction to write more appropriately. Teachers also need to encourage students' positive attitudes toward writing, as Zhang and Lu (2022) reported that a positive attitude is one key to successful learning. Additionally, Al Maawali (2022) emphasized that teachers need to take the role of an apprentice writer to become 'closer' to their student's level of knowledge and skills in writing. Then, teachers can provide more writing exposure for their students (Jee, 2016). They, for instance, can provide individual tutoring for students to reduce students' writer's block. Teachers may also give the students chances to join writing workshops to get more exposure to the writing models and potentially get positive feedback from the workshops (Gardner et al., 2018). Another way is explaining writing models by giving slides accompanied by writing tasks that help students reduce their writer's block, as van der Rijst et al. (2022) found. It somehow provides appropriate and interesting learning media so that students' interest in the learning materials will increase. Their findings strengthen Kvinge's (2018) findings that providing presentation slides positively impacts the students' learning.

5. DISCUSSION

The findings of this review suggest that several factors influence students' writing anxiety. These elements can be roughly grouped into the academic tone and style issues, students' self-efficacy, writing beliefs, writing anxiety, poor writing abilities, and a lack of peer and teacher assistance. It is essential to comprehend the consequences of these elements for successful tactics and treatments to reduce writing apprehension and enhance students' writing ability.

First, non-native speakers' academic tone and style difficulties emphasize the significance of offering language support and specialized teaching in academic writing practices (Yahia & Egbert, 2023). It might entail providing explicit instruction in academic terminology, grammar, and syntax and tips on summarizing, paraphrasing, and properly citing sources to prevent plagiarism. Additionally, including cultural and linguistic diversity in writing lessons may aid students in navigating the challenging requirements of academic writing (Strauss, 2017; Suryani et al., 2013). Also, it has been demonstrated that asking for assistance from others—such as friends, writing clubs, and writing professionals—can help students improve their academic tone and style (Cui et al., 2022). Students can get over their writing "blindness" and develop their writing methods by participating in conversations and collaborative writing.

Second, writing apprehension is influenced by students' low writing self-efficacy and negative writing beliefs. Goal-setting, self-monitoring, and self-reflection exercises are a few treatments that instructors can use to help students become more self-sufficient writers (Chung et al., 2021; Wilson et al., 2022). Additionally, low writing self-efficacy and negative beliefs can be handled by effective writing techniques such as cognitive and metacognitive strategies, writing models, and machine translation (Golparvar & Khafi, 2021; Teng & Yue, 2022). These techniques assist students in developing a more favorable belief of their writing abilities and reducing their writing anxiety.

Third, writing apprehension is significantly influenced by writing anxiety, both cognitive and behavioral anxiety. Teachers could use various techniques such as stress-reduction methods, mindfulness exercises, and cognitive-behavioral methods to challenge students' negative writing thoughts and beliefs to help students manage their writing anxiety (Burns et al., 2022; Hazlett-Stevens et al., 2019). Additionally, lowering anxiety and fostering writing development may depend on the supportive and non-threatening learning environment in the classroom where students are comfortable sharing their writing and getting helpful feedback (Monteiro et al., 2021). Furthermore, computer-mediated writing feedback has become popular among students, specifically those anxious about receiving feedback in person (e.g., Google Drive or AI-powered writing programs) (Fan & Xu, 2020; Sherafati et al., 2020; Zhao, 2022). However, they need to be critical and cautious in accepting AI-based feedback since it might not be accurate.

The findings also reveal low writing skills and insufficient instructor support contribute to writing apprehension. Thus, implementing comprehensive writing instruction that covers various aspects of the writing process, such as planning, drafting, revising, and editing, is crucial. Moreover, the importance of employing appropriate teaching strategies in reducing writing apprehension cannot be overlooked. Student-centered teaching methods, positive attitudes toward writing, and increased exposure are critical components of effective writing instruction (Belyaeva, 2022). Additionally, providing students with opportunities to practice and refine their writing skills through regular writing assignments and meaningful feedback can help build their writing competence and confidence (Yu & Liu, 2021). On the other hand, faculty can establish a policy and facility to involve instructors in providing effective feedback and scaffolding, implementing peer review activities, and establishing writing centers or support services that offer individualized assistance to students (Gallagher et al., 2020; Werner, 2013).

Addressing writing apprehension among students is vital for their academic success and personal growth. By understanding the contributing factors, such as struggles with academic tone and style, self-efficacy, anxiety, low writing skills, and insufficient support, educators and institutions can develop effective strategies and interventions to improve students' writing abilities. Fostering an inclusive and supportive environment that embraces cultural and linguistic diversity, encourages self-reflection, and reduces anxiety is paramount in cultivating confident, skilled writers. Educators and institutions should consider implementing strategies that promote collaboration, provide constructive feedback, and create supportive learning environments to help students overcome writing apprehension and succeed in their academic endeavors. Moreover, future studies may explore alternative strategies to provide students with opportunities for collaboration and support, such as online platforms or tutoring programs. Also, they may investigate ways to improve the accuracy of AI-based writing feedback and examine how different feedback modalities can be effectively combined to optimize writing instruction. Last, it is advisable to continue this current study by exploring possible variables and their interplay in reducing writing apprehension among university students.

6. CONCLUSION

This systematic review concludes that several factors cause students to experience writing apprehension. Understanding these factors brings opportunities to mitigate the improvement of the student's writing performance. According to this review, the factors include (1) difficulties with academic tone and style in writing, (2) beliefs about writing, such as low self-efficacy, (3) anxiety related to writing, (4) inadequate writing skills, and (5) insufficient support for students. The factors involved in writing apprehension tend to direct the students to have poor writing performance. These findings corroborate the conclusion of Autman and Kelly (2017) about numerous causes of writing apprehension. In addition, some solutions were also found in the reviewed studies, such as (1) discussing ideas with others, (2) receiving writing feedback, (3) adopting effective writing strategies, and (4) implementing appropriate teaching strategies. Such solutions would enable students to improve their writing performance and reduce apprehension. Moreover, by implementing a course program that effectively supports writing performance, writers are expected to express their ideas and use specific language choices meaningfully. Based on the observations from the reviewed studies, it is essential to design courses responsive to solving the issue of students' writing apprehension. We recommend courses that offer ample support and adopt strategies to reduce students' writing apprehension and improve their performance. Moreover, a discussion forum could foster student communication and share resolutions about their writing.

Despite its implications, several limitations of this article need to be noted. First, the articles were only selected from Scopus and Web of Science databases; it may not cover the issue in all related articles. Thus, a future systematic review with more extensive data and various databases may be worthwhile. Second, the findings of this article were based on the previous articles' findings, so a research-based article confirming the results of writing apprehension and coping strategies will be interestingly accompanied and tested by the current findings. Last, this article focuses on higher education students and may not cover the context at other education levels. A similar study in elementary or secondary levels of education may be needed to broaden the study of writing apprehension and academic writing.

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Students' and Lecturers' Experiences in Courses Provided for the English Thesis Defense Examinations

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Abstract

Thesis Defense Examination (TDE) is an assessment that most undergraduate students around the world have to pass in order to graduate from universities. Some students can pass the examination satisfactorily, while others fail due to their poor performance. In the EFL general context, the issue of poor performance of undergraduate students in the TDE conducted in English is a piece of common knowledge among lecturers as the examiners and students as the examinees. Within the Indonesian context, this study aims at investigating students and lecturers' experiences in Research Methodology (RM) (focusing on written competence) and Seminar on ELT (SoELT) (focusing on oral competence) courses, where the case was taken from the English Education Department of a public university located in Banda Aceh, Indonesia. By using a purposive sampling technique, we involved five students who have passed RM and SoELT, two lecturers who teach RM, and two lecturers who teach SoELT as the participants in this qualitative research. Interviews were employed to gather the data to address the investigation. We consulted

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Hyland (2004) for the analysis of the teaching and learning of written competence, and Alptekin (2002) to analyze the teaching and learning of oral competence in classroom activities. The results of the analysis show that there are matches and mismatches between what was experienced by the students and what the lecturers experienced. We also found that some activities in the courses hindered students from being competent in their performance in TDE.

Keywords: English, lecturers, oral competence, students, thesis defense examination, writing competence.

1. INTRODUCTION

The term Thesis Defense Examination (TDE) we use in our study is the oral examination conducted by final-year undergraduate students to present and defend their research in front of a board of examiners. TDE is known differently in universities in other countries. In the USA, it is called institutionalized pedagogical activity (Hasan, 1994). Common names for the TDE are also known as viva voce in the UK and public defense in most European countries. In Indonesia, the TDE is a term widely used for the final examination of a thesis written by undergraduate and master degree students. In addition, Samad and Adnan (2018) use the term script oral examination for the TDE of the undergraduate level. Within Australian education context, most universities implement written examinations of the students' thesis rather than oral examinations.

TDE (the term we use in our study) has been considered a genre in itself. Thus, TDE has interrelated elements that form the genre; the goal, steps/structure, members, terminologies, and assessment criteria (Swales, 1990). Genre is a goaled- and staged-oriented activity (Butt et al., 2003). This suggests that TDE can be considered as a genre if it also has a goal and stages. The goal of TDE is for examinees to graduate from their universities and this event has some stages (moves) that members have to go through, for example preliminary, opening, defense proper, in-camera, and closing (Samad et al., 2017).

In addition, the segments of the TDE may differ from one university to another and from one country to another (Maingueneau, 2002) depending on the culture of the TDE of each university. TDE is an event generally conducted in front of a panel of examiners. There are commonly three to four examiners who attend/participate in this event to assess examinees on their arguments in the thesis. The other members are commonly the examinee(s) and audience(s). Moreover, according to Swales (1990, p. 26), genre acquires some specific lexis where community members share the technical terminology that are understood by one another, for example, the terms 'defense', 'presentation', 'in-camera segment', and 'research'. In this oral examination, the examiners assess the examinees' knowledge of thesis writing including their writing, communication, and research competence. To conclude from the elements of the TDE genre, there are important matters that examinees have to pay attention to: the goal of TDE, the stages of oral presentation in TDE that they have to pass, knowledge of the field research and TDE terminologies, the members attending the TDE, and the expectation of the examiners toward the examinees through the assessment criteria.

Students as the examinees in TDE need to be prepared with the aspects of the TDE genre before they gave presentations in TDE. We assume here that this preparation provided in the Research Methodology (RM) and Seminar on ELT (SoELT) courses helps the students to have good performance in TDE; thus, an investigation into students' and lecturers' experiences in the courses preparing the students for the examination is necessary.

Studies on TDE have been carried out by many researchers with different focuses. For example, there are those who focused on the assessment of TDE (e.g., Carter, 2008; García-Peñalvo et al., 2020; Guloy et al., 2020; Kiley & Mullins, 2004), the anxiety in TDE (e.g., Cooksey & McDonald, 2019; Samad et al., 2022; Susanto et al., 2015), the rhetorical pattern of TDE (e.g., Samad & Adnan, 2018; Swales, 2004), the purpose of TDE (e.g., Jack, 2002; Kiley, 2009; Maingueneau, 2002), the students' strategic competence in TDE (e.g., Herlambang, 2023; Samad, 2016), the use of Genre Approach to prepare students for TDE (e.g., Samad & Adnan, 2017), students' socio-psychological experience in TDE (e.g., Stubb et al., 2011), students' achievement and well-being experience in TDE (e.g., Sverdlik et al., 2018), and students' delay experience in TDE (e.g. van de Schoot et al., 2013). Of all the studies related to TDE and particularly to the experience in TDE in the literature, the studies that involve the experiences of students and lecturers in the courses preparing students for taking TDEs are very rare. Therefore, to fill the gap in the literature, our study focused on the experiences of both students and lecturers in the courses provided to prepare the students for the TDEs held in the English Education Department (EED) of Universitas Syiah Kuala (USK), which is a public university in Aceh Province, Indonesia. Our justification for this gap is that if the students and lecturers have different experiences in both courses, the aim of the courses to help the students perform well in TDE is hard to achieve. The findings of this study can be a reflection for the lecturers to improve the activities in the classrooms in order to help students prepare better for TDE events. To inquire about the experiences of both students and lecturers in the courses, we have created the following research questions:

1. What are the experiences of students and lecturers in RM and SoELT courses?
2. How do students' and lecturers' experiences relate to students' preparation for TDE?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

TDE is a final oral examination undertaken by most university students in their final year, and it aims to assess their knowledge of research topics related to the study program they pursue. Samad et al. (2019) name this examination as Script Defense Examination (SDE) for undergraduate level and Thesis Defense Examination (TDE) for graduate level. In European countries, TDE is called public defense, while in the United Kingdom, the term viva voce is used (Hasan, 1994). Therefore, different terms are used in different countries for this examination. At the EED of USK, before following TDE in the final semester, the undergraduate students have the opportunity to prepare themselves to write their thesis and to do a presentation by enrolling in two different courses as discussed in the next section of this paper.

2.1 RM and SoELT Courses at the EED of USK

The courses provided by the EED of USK for its students to prepare for TDEs are RM and SoELT. In RM, the students learn research procedure from finding a problem to be investigated to the analysis of data. They also learn how to write a thesis from the title to the reference list. In SoELT, the students learn how to step-by-step present the research results that they have written in their thesis. Both courses are required for the students to perform competently in TDE. RM is offered in the fifth semester; meanwhile, SoELT is available in the sixth semester.

2.2 English Written Ability to Prepare Undergraduate Thesis

TDE is conducted after students write their thesis which contains some sections: from the cover section to the appendices section. A thesis is required to be written structurally and consequently to address the goal of a thesis which is to inform readers (in this case supervisors, examiners, and other researchers) of the research that has been accomplished by the students. Special terminologies in the research area are also used in their thesis as it is a component of a particular genre (Swales, 1990). Moreover, a thesis is academic in nature, and it needs to be written in an academic style. Therefore, writing ability is important for the students to master. The students in the context of our research major in English education. They are required to write their thesis in English as a foreign language; thus, English writing ability is of paramount importance. Since a thesis has its own goal, structure, and language features, a thesis is a genre itself. According to Hyland (2007), there are elemental genres (such as procedures, recounts, and narratives) and macro genres (such as lab reports and newspaper editorials). Elemental genres are also known as micro-genres (Samad, 2016). Meanwhile, macro genres are formed by the combination of elemental genres. In our research, we consider a thesis as a macro genre that consists of some elemental genres. For example, an argumentative approach is used to strengthen the argument for conducting research, and this argument is expressed in the introduction chapter; a procedure is used to write the steps of conducting research in the methodology chapter; and a discussion is applied to discuss the results of research in results and discussion chapter.

In the EED of USK, the students enroll in RM to help them write their thesis academically. Since a thesis is a macro genre, a genre-based pedagogy is applicable in this course because it helps students "produce effective and relevant texts" (Hyland, 2007, p. 148). In our investigation of the teaching and learning of the RM, we adopted the characteristics of genre pedagogy by Hyland (2004), including explicit, systematic, needs-based, supportive, empowering, critical, and consciousness-raising. These characteristics are required to be implemented in the course to prepare the students to write a thesis. The first one is explicit, which means that lecturers are aware of the knowledge that students need to learn so as to aid the students' acquisition of skills in writing a thesis. Besides, we have systematic as the second characteristic, in which the lecturers facilitate the students with a coherent framework to focus on the language and context of a thesis. Needs-based characteristics comes third, where the lecturers make sure that the objectives and contents of the teaching and learning are determined by what the students need to achieve. The next characteristic is supportive which places the lecturers in the central role to scaffold the students' learning and creativity in the classroom. Genre pedagogy is also empowering, where the lecturers are able to present to the students the patterns in a certain text, in this case, the patterns of a thesis. Moreover, the lecturers provide valuable and important resources for students to understand how to write a thesis as well as be aware of the challenges of writing a thesis. Finally, consciousness-raising advances the lecturers' awareness of a thesis so as to positively prepare the students to write a thesis. All of these characteristics, if implemented by the lecturers, would help the students improve their ability to write a thesis. In our study, our investigation of the teaching of the RM relies on the characteristics of genre pedagogy.

2.3 English Oral Competence to Perform TDE Presentation

Competence in communication means that speakers and listeners can communicate with and understand each other. The speakers will be competent in speaking if their prior knowledge fits within the course under discussion. According to Samad et al. (2019), the success of communication depends on the speakers' understanding of the context and their ability to conduct a conversation. In relation to the competence in the TDE, examiners and examinees as members of intercommunication need to understand the field of research being discussed. In other words, both the examiners and examinees must have adequate knowledge about the topic.

In the Indonesian universities, the students whose major is English education are required to present their research in English at TDE. Similarly, the TDE conducted at the EED of USK obliges the students to give presentations in English; this means that they need to have sufficient spoken English proficiency. They are assessed in terms of their understanding of their research content and their oral performance (Samad & Adnan, 2017). English is also needed when they interact with the examiners. In TDE, the students, who have studied for approximately four years at the department, are expected to have sufficient ability to use general English to be able to competently communicate their experience and knowledge (Samad & Fitriani, 2016) related to their research.

To be successful in TDE, the students are required to have a wide range of competence in using a target language. According to Alptekin (2002), speakers will perform competently in speaking by mastering four competency areas: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. By having grammatical competence, the speakers will have knowledge of how to utter sentences in an appropriate grammatical structure. Chomsky (2006) points out that a speaker who is competent in using a language has mastered the rules of the system, which includes sound and meaning in sentences. Shumin (2002) argues that students who learn English as a foreign language must have an understanding of how words are used in sentences and how they are used in certain ways. A minimum understanding of grammar and vocabulary may influence their ability to perform well in communication, which later impacts their ability to deliver messages in a communication. According to Shumin (2002), students need to have the ability to maintain and terminate communication by using proper grammatical and lexical resources. In TDE, being responsive and attentive during an interaction with the examiners is important for avoiding boredom in communication and misunderstanding of the information exchanged in the presentation. A good understanding of grammatical structures can help the students do these in TDE. By having grammatical competence, the speakers are able to reduce or control hesitation in communication (Boonkit, 2010).

Furthermore, it is the case that in TDE that students need to know what is expected by examiners. Therefore, they are required to understand the rules that govern appropriate timing and speech acts. Alptekin (2002) argues that speakers require an understanding of how the language is used in a particular culture; hence sociolinguistic competence is needed. In this study, the students are expected to understand the culture of TDE; therefore, they have to know the academic culture. TDE culture is associated with the process of the examination in sequence stages and also with the academic language including the terms used in the event. These are two of the aspects of TDE genre as a communicative event (Swales, 2004). Therefore, SoELT course should assist the students to be competent in the TDE genre to achieve effective interaction between the students and examiners based on the culture of TDE.

Speakers' understanding of the context of the discussion in the TDE is crucial; therefore, the speakers need to be competent in this discourse. Alptekin (2002) emphasizes that students can understand the ideas in a conversation when they are familiar with the context of the conversation, which will help them be competent in the discourse. For example, in the context of TDE, the students are expected to develop their understanding of the rules of cohesion and coherence that create meaningful communication. Turn-taking in communication between students and examiners happens if both parties have understood the communication rules (Shumin, 2002).

In addition to the three competencies that have been mentioned, strategic competence is also needed by the students in order to keep TDE running smoothly. Alptekin (2002) reports that students who have adequate strategic competence can maintain an interesting interaction, where they have the ability to deliver and express ideas and arguments (Burns & Joyce, 1997; Harvey, 2006). The students may have the ability to manipulate the language to meet their communication goals. By having this strategic competence, the students understand how to increase the examiners' willingness to listen to their presentations and to convince the examiners of the message being delivered. In TDE, this competence is required (Dönyei & Thurrell, 1991) particularly when the students need to use English as foreign language. It is important for non-native speakers of English to master this competence because it relates to the strategy of using the language. As far as communication is concerned, this strategy refers to the ability to understand appropriate timing, which includes when and how to lead the conversation and terminate the discussion (Shumin, 2002). The ability to present a thesis with full confidence within the specified time limit can be an example of strategic competence.

The grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competencies suggested by Alptekin (2002) discussed above are important to be included in the teaching of SoELT to help students increase their oral English performance, particularly in TDE. We assume that lack of information and introduction of the above competencies in SoELT could affect the students' preparation for TDE. Thus, a deep investigation into this matter is of paramount importance.

3. METHODS

This is a qualitative case study investigating the students' and the lecturers' experiences in the courses provided for preparing the students for TDE. This method was selected to dig deeper into the research problem from different angles. Consequently, the result could reach a rich and meaningful picture of a complete situation (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005).

It is often that qualitative researchers choose to sample non-randomly because they want to investigate from one particular sample (purposeful). To select purposive participants from the EED, we have set some criteria. The students that we chose were those who have passed RM and SoELT, and those who got a TOEFL certificate scoring 475 or above. The lecturers should have the following criteria; they are registered as the lecturers at the department, hold at least a master's degree certificate, have experience as the examiners of TDE, and have taught RM and SoELT courses for some semesters. For our study, four lecturers as the examiners in TDE (hereby called LRM1 and LRM2 who teach RM; LSE1 and LSE2 who teach SoELT); and five student-examinees (hereby called SUE1, SUE2, SUE3, SUE4, SUE5) were involved in this study. The number of participants included in this study was considered adequate as Dworkin (2012) says that small size is enough for a qualitative study to gather in-depth insight into a phenomenon being studied.

For the data collection, an open-ended interview was employed. The interview is believed to be very useful for gathering important information in terms of people's beliefs and perspectives about facts (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). Ten initial interview questions, followed by a number of follow-up questions arising during interview, were given to both the students and lecturers to inquire about their experiences in RM and SoELT. An audio recorder was used to record the conversations between the researchers and the research participants in the interviews. The interview was conducted in-person with each participant using the Indonesian language and then translated into English for the purpose of presenting the excerpts in the result section of this paper.

The data was analyzed in four steps as suggested by Creswell (2009) after the interview recordings were transcribed. The first step was the organization of details about the case; the specific 'fact' about the case was arranged in a logical (chronological) order. We listed chronologically all the activities that occurred in RM and SoELT courses based on the lecturers' and students' experiences. The next step was the categorization of data to identify the categories that can help cluster the data into meaningful groups. In this case, we classified the data from the participants pertaining to the teaching and learning of RM and SoELT and their relations to competence in written and spoken English based on Hyland (2004) and Alptekin (2002), respectively. The third was the interpretation of single instances. Specific occurrences and other bits of data from the interview were examined for the single meaning they might have in relation to the case being investigated. The fourth was the identification of patterns. The data and their interpretations were scrutinized for underlying themes and other patterns that characterized the case more broadly than a single piece of information can reveal. The last one was the synthesis and generalization. An overall portrait of the case was constructed. Conclusions were drawn that may have implications beyond the specific case that was studied.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section presents the findings regarding the preparational courses for TDE. To discover whether the preparation courses help the students prepare for TDE, the concepts of written ability and oral competencies are used. The assumption is that the students will be able to perform competently in a specific genre if the competencies are adequately taught in the courses.

4.1 Teaching and Learning Activities in RM Based on Lecturers' Experience

In the RM, the students should be introduced to the writing of the cover, title, abstract, keywords, introduction, literature review, research methodology, result, discussion, conclusion, and reference section of their thesis. Based on the results of the interview, this study found that one lecturer of this course taught the students how to design a power-point presentation. He claimed that this is required because the students mostly used power-point slides in the real TDE; the quality and the impressiveness of that presentation are given marks. As quoted from LRM1:

(1) For RM, we commonly taught the students how to design a power-point presentation, covering information about the research content. (LRM1)

This lecturer focuses on power-point design because the presentation slides are also assessed by the examiners in the real TDE. We argue here that creating a power point slides are also important, but the students have to finish writing their theses first before they can create the slides. When they were undertaking this course, none of them had started writing a thesis yet. So, how could they create a PowerPoint? In relation to genre pedagogy mentioned by Hyland (2004), we assume here that the teaching of the RM by LRM1 was not explicit because the lecturer was not aware of the students' need to acquire thesis writing skills; not systematic, because LRM1 did not provide the students with a coherent framework to write a thesis; not needs-based because LRM1 did not suit teaching materials with the students' need to write a thesis; supportive to be the central role in guiding students' activity in creating PowerPoint slides, but not to write a thesis; not empowering because LRM1 did not give access to the students to know the patterns of writing a thesis; not critical because the resources that LRM1 gave to the students did not help them write a thesis; and not consciousness-raising because LRM1 did not advise students on how to write a thesis. Overall, the teaching that was conducted by LRM1 did not reflect the characteristics of genre pedagogy in relation to preparing the students to write a thesis as the objective of the course.

Another lecturer, LRM2, focused on teaching the students about writing paragraphs, such as identifying important elements in writing paragraphs and writing short paragraphs in an academic style, as quoted from LRM2:

(2) I taught them some important elements of academic writing. For the practice, I gave them a task to write about Universitas Syiah Kuala. The students were expected to describe the parking and the procedure for paying tuition fees. (LRM2)

The quotation above indicates that LRM2 prepared the students with writing skills, such as introducing important elements in writing a paragraph. He also encouraged the students to understand the writing elements through writing topics around them. Academic writing, which was taught by LRM2, was important for the students, particularly for those who are going to write a thesis because a thesis is academic in nature. Unlike LRM1, LRM2 provided the students with scaffolding instruction to increase their English written skills. However, if we look at the topic, LRM2 did not focus on the writing of thesis elements, which was the goal of this course. The selection of the topic of "the parking and the procedure of paying tuition fees" did not have a relation to the scope that the students had to write in their thesis. The genre pedagogy characteristics of explicit, systematic, needs-based, supportive, empowering, critical, and consciousness-raising as mentioned by Hyland (2004) did not appear in LRM2's teaching because the main objective of the teaching, which was to increase students' English written competence in writing a thesis, could not be achieved.

From the discussion of the teaching focus in the RM in this section, it can be summed up from LRM1 and LRM2 that in teaching this course, some lecturers did not teach the students in accordance with the course objective, which was the thesis writing. The activities mentioned by the two lecturers above are important; however, the activities done in the course needed to achieve the goal. LRM1 taught the students to create PowerPoint slides for presentations; this activity could somehow guide students to write some points in their slides with correct grammar. However, this activity could not help the students write a thesis sequentially. Similarly, the activities conducted in LRM2's classroom only helped the students to write academic texts on different topics, but not to write a thesis or a thesis proposal.

4.2 Teaching and Learning Activities in RM Based on Students' Experience

Based on our analysis of the data, the essential information on research writing in this course was found to be inadequate. Some students did not have this information in this course. This was experienced by one of the students, SUE5, who stated:

(3) We were not taught how to write a thesis in detail. In this course, we focused on how to design teaching materials for our teaching practices. (SUE5)

The quotation above shows that the students were not prepared to write a thesis, but they focused on preparing the teaching materials for their teaching practice at an appointed school. In fact, the preparation of the teaching materials is usually done in a course called Micro Teaching, not in the RM classroom. This study assumes that the material taught by the lecturer as mentioned by SUE5 was not appropriate. Moreover, SUE2 informed that she did not know how to conduct research. In her quotation, she said:

(4) We did not know how to conduct research because we were not introduced to a format or a structure of the thesis writing even though we were asked to write a minor thesis. (SUE2)

This student tried to explain two things: one is a normal thesis, and another is a minor thesis. Moreover, SUE4 experienced the same thing as can be seen in her response:

(5) The lecturer asked us to write a minor thesis and present it in front of the classroom. (SUE4)

Meanwhile, SUE1 and SUE3 responded that they were taught how to write academic writing in RM course, as quoted from them respectively:

(6) We were shown some materials on how to write academic writing. The lecturer also taught us about coherence and cohesion. (SUE1)

(7) I remember that the lecturer taught us how to write academic texts, where we need to refer to some scholars when we argue or define something. Referencing style is also included in the teaching. (SUE3)

The responses given by the students have indicated that there were various activities done in the classrooms. Some activities such as writing academic text and a minor thesis were correlated to the objective of the course, while some others such as designing teaching materials were not related to the course objective. We conclude here that the characteristics of genre pedagogy were very slightly implemented in the teaching of RM at the EED of USK based on the students' experience.

4.3 Teaching and Learning Activities in SoELT Based on Lecturers' Experience

The focus of SoELT is to improve the students' presentation skills for performing in a TDE and conferences. As mentioned by Alptekin (2002), to be competent speakers in communicative events including a presentation, students need to have grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence, as also claimed by Samad and Adnan (2018). The results of the interview show whether the lecturers include these competencies in their teaching of the course.

Introducing presentation skills in SoELT is important. According to a lecturer, LSE1, during his teaching in this course, he focused mainly on presentation skills including opening, delivering, and concluding presentations. As quoted from LSE1:

(8) In SoELT, I taught the students how to open and deliver important points in the presentation, as well as how to close it. (LSE1)

From his response, LSE1 taught the students to present their research. In the presentation, before delivering the research contents, the students learned how to open the presentation. LSE1 also taught the students the important points they need for delivery when they present their research. Similar to the opening of the presentation, LSE1 also taught the students the way to close the presentation. These presentation steps are helpful for the students to perform competently in a TDE. This lecturer encouraged the students to practice their research presentation skills by applying the steps. In addition to the steps, LSE1 also asked the students to select their own topic of interest for the presentation practice. As he further said:

(9) I asked the students to select one topic of interest to be presented in the course. I gave them the freedom to find their own topics unless they had any difficulties, whereupon I gave them alternative topics. (LSE1)

LSE1 assumed that by choosing their own topic of interest, the students would be eager to talk about it in a presentation. This eagerness might encourage them to talk more in the presentation practice. However, the students may be confused in choosing an interesting topic. In this case, LSE1 nominated some topics that the students may choose. Whether it was their own topic or a topic from him, the students still needed to practice the presentation in the classroom. With a frequent practice in the classroom, the students were expected to make improvements in their presentation skills, which is important for performing in a TDE.

Based on LSE2, the presentation practice in the SoELT classroom was designed like a real TDE, where one student acted as the presenter, while some other students acted as the examiners, and the rest of the students formed the audience. Some questions were asked by the appointed examiners, as stated further by LSE2:

(10) I asked some students to sit in the front. I asked one of them to make a presentation. Some students were appointed to ask questions. These students had to listen carefully to the presenters in order to ask questions. The rest of the students acted as the audience/listeners. A timekeeper was also appointed during this practice. We created this course to be like a real TDE. I focused on developing the students' speaking skills to present their research results because I assumed that the students had been taught the content of the research in the RM which they undertook in a previous semester. (LSE2)

By assigning students to SoELT classroom to act as presenters, examiners, and audience, the students could learn real-like TDE situations. Firstly, the students were informed about the members of a TDE and the roles of each member in the event; secondly, the students were informed about how to present their research in front of examiners, for example, how to open, deliver, or close the presentation. We found out from the analysis that one thing was missing from the teaching, which was the information about the assessment criteria used by the examiners to assess the performance of the students. In a TDE, the assessment criteria are used to determine the level of students' understanding of their research topics and it is one of the elements of the TDE genre (Swales, 1990). Information about assessment criteria is important to make the students aware of what will be asked in TDE; however, this information was missing.

The responses from both lecturers showed that they have prepared students with presentation skills. LSE1 focused on general presentation, while LSE2 specifically focused on a defense-proper segment of TDE. If we relate to their preparation for TDE, LSE2 prepared the students better than LSE1 because LSE2 directed the students' presentation to the real-like TDE, while LSE1 did not focus on TDE presentation. We conclude from LSE2's responses that he included the teaching of grammatical competence where the students learned how to deliver their presentation using appropriate sentences in an appropriate grammatical structure, sociolinguistic linguistic competence where the students learned the language used in TDE culture, discourse competence that taught the students the communication rules between examiners and an examinee in a TDE such as the opening, delivering, and concluding the presentation, and strategic competence which is important for the students to know how to interactively deliver and express ideas and argument. LSE2's teaching in SoELT included the competencies remarked by Alptekin (2002), which are important for the students to increase their oral presentation skills to perform in TDE.

4.4 Teaching and Learning Activities in SoELT Based on the Students' Experience

Two participants from this university, SUE1 and SUE4, said that the lecturer in their classroom asked the students to make a presentation about any interesting topic. SUE1 acknowledged:

(11) We were asked in the course to make presentations, one by one, of a proposal or paper, as an individual task. We also had a group task to do a presentation on the course. These tasks were then submitted in writing to the lecturer. (SUE1)

From this quote, it is understood that for the individual task, each student had to present his/her research topic to the class, which they had written in the form of a proposal. For the group task, the students had to write and present the results of their group discussion to the other groups in the class. Similarly, SUE4 shared her experience in SoELT by saying:

(12) In SoELT classroom, we were asked to explain what we had written in our proposal in front of the classroom and the other students asked questions. The lecturer did not ask questions at all. (SUE4)

This quotation indicates that the lecturer only encouraged the students to speak up about their research proposal/topic. They learned how to do presentations by watching their peers. In preparing the students to be more focused on the need to perform competently in the TDE, the lecturer also assigned the students to do an oral presentation based on a given topic. SUE2 stated that:

(13) In SoELT class, the lecturer gave us a topic and that topic was expanded and presented individually, but the students were not taught the stages of presentation. (SUE2)

A similar process was also experienced by another examinee, SUE5, whose lecturer gave the students one topic that was then discussed in a group, as quoted from SUE5:

(14) In the course, we were given presentation materials and a topic title which were from the sections of proposals and we were divided into groups. Those groups whose topic was about action research had to present and discuss that topic. (SUE5)

In this course, each group discussed a different section of the proposal; one group discussed the research methodology and another group discussed the literature review. These different topics were determined by the lecturer. This means that the students were given opportunities to practice making presentations in front of the class. Providing opportunities for the students to practice doing presentations is a good way to teach SoELT. However, in the group presentation, it seemed that the students did not do a whole research presentation; instead, they only presented one part of the proposal. This practice was actually not enough to make the students familiar with doing a full presentation.

Presenting a senior's research proposal, or the thesis of a past student (an alumnus' thesis), was the third practice of oral presentation in some SoELT classrooms at this university. According to SUE3, in the classroom she attended, the lecturer encouraged the students to find an alumnus' proposal or one chapter of a past student's thesis to be presented in front of their colleagues in the course. SUE3 noted:

(15) In this course, the students were encouraged to find a proposal from one of their seniors, or a chapter from a previously presented thesis, and present it to the class. (SUE3)

Based on the quotation above, it is good that the lecturer encouraged the students to be confident in making a presentation of someone else's thesis. The research proposals or theses that the students used to do presentations in the class were the ones that had been approved because they had fulfilled the criteria required by the department. The structure of their presentation was based on the structure and the content of that proposal.

Another student, SUE2, also reported that the students in SoELT were asked by the lecturer to present an alumnus' proposal. However, the lecturer assigned this task only at the end of the semester. SUE2 said that she did not have enough knowledge about presentation skills because in the previous classroom meetings, the lecturer never guided or asked her and her peers to practice TDE presentations as quoted from SUE2:

(16) Only at the end of the semester, the lecturer asked us to find a senior's research proposal and to design a PowerPoint presentation. All of us were shocked because we had never been asked to do so it previously. In regular meetings, we did not discuss an alumnus' research proposal but rather discussed teaching materials. (SUE2)

From this quotation, it can be seen that the lecturer in the course discussed how to prepare materials for teaching English, such as materials for teaching speaking, reading, writing, listening, and grammar. This practice helped the students only to understand how to select and design materials and strategies to teach students but did not help them to prepare for better presentation performance in the TDE. The teaching material was not suitable for teaching the course. Moreover, the lecturer suddenly changed the materials by asking the students to find a senior's research proposal to be presented in the classroom. It is inappropriate for a lecturer to firstly not teach according to the focus of the course and secondly change the teaching materials only at the end of the course.

The research presentation conducted by the students was a free presentation in the classroom, which means that the students were not given instruction or the format of a presentation to follow. For example, the presentation should start from the background and then be followed by other information in the thesis. SUE5 stated that:

(17) Based on my experience, we were not given a research format where we had to start with the information of the research background, research problem, hypothesis, and so on. (SUE5)

SUE5's response indicates that the students were not introduced to the systematicity of presentation that they should follow for the elements of a proposal or a thesis. In this case, the students may start with presenting the research problem rather than the research background because they did not know the right order of the presentation.

From the above discussions of the activities in SoELT classrooms, we can assume that most lecturers focused on the students' oral presentation as the goal of the course. It means that the lecturers demanded their students to increase their oral presentation skills which, in fact, suited the objective of the course. However, if we look at the competencies required by the students to perform well in an oral presentation as suggested by Alptekin (2002), the students' responses show that most lecturers did not include grammatical competence in their teaching where they actually need to teach students how to utter sentences and special terms used in TDE in an appropriate grammatical structure. Moreover, sociolinguistic competence was not included in the teaching because, from the responses given by the students, we know that the lecturers did not teach the students the rules and stages of presentation in TDE and the expectation of examiners in students' presentation in TDE; in short, the lecturers did not explain the students the culture of TDE.

In addition, the SoELT lecturers participating in this study did not include in their teaching discourse competence where the students needed to know the context of the discussion in TDE between the lecturers as the examiners and the students as the examinees. We assume so because the lecturers did not create real-like TDE presentations in the classrooms. Finally, strategic competence was also missing in the teaching of SoELT. Based on the responses given by the students, they were not taught the strategy to maintain an interesting interaction and to deliver and express ideas and arguments. The lecturers seemed to achieve a small part of the goal of the course, which was to make students able to present research, but the students' understanding of the competencies of oral presentation particularly in TDE was still inadequate. Consequently, this condition led the students to being less confident to defend their thesis in TDE because they were unsure whether or not they were doing it correctly for the research presentation in the TDE.

5. DISCUSSION

The summary on the lecturers' and students' experiences of the teaching and learning activities in RM and SoELT have indicated the matches and mismatches as can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1. Matches and mismatches of teaching and learning activities in RM and SoELT.

	RM course	
Lecturers' experience	1	Design a power-point presentation covering information about the research content.
	2	Identify important elements in writing paragraphs. Write short paragraphs in an academic style.
Students' experience	1	Design teaching materials for teaching practices.
	2	Write a minor thesis and present it in front of the classroom.
	3	Write academic writing.
	SoELT course	
Lecturers' experience	1	Open, deliver, and close a general presentation.
	2	Select one topic of interest for a general presentation.
	3	Present a real-like TDE presentation.
	4	Present research results.
Students' experience	1	Present own research proposal or research paper.
	2	Present a given section of a proposal.
	3	Present a senior's proposal.

Based on Table 1, general matched information in both courses is presented in Table 1. For example, the lecturers and students said that they taught and learned about writing a proposal in RM and in SoELT, the students practiced a research presentation. Nevertheless, what some lecturers taught in RM was not closely related to the objective, that is to help the students improve their written competence in writing a thesis/a proposal. For example, LRM1 taught the students how to design PowerPoint slides for presentations. In the classroom, she gave marks to students based on their attractive slides. Another lecturer, LRM2, focused on writing paragraphs with familiar topics around the students' lives, for example, writing about parking at campus. The students needed to obtain knowledge, rather than just organizing the slides and writing paragraphs. They need to have an in-depth understanding of thesis writing skills as a macro genre (Hyland, 2007) related to their research writing, which consists of elemental genres: the introduction, the literature review, the research method, the results, the discussions, and the conclusion. This understanding, based on genre pedagogy by Hyland (2004), should be explicitly fulfilled by the lecturers in the classroom. In addition, there were also some activities mentioned by the students that were not mentioned by the lecturers, for example, designing teaching materials (which were absolutely not related to the objective of the course) and writing a minor thesis. This indicates that there was a mismatch between the materials provided and the expectations of the course and a mismatch between the lecturers' and students' perspectives on the activities in the classroom. Consequently, the objective of the course, which was a written competence, could not be fully achieved by the students. This would also lead to the students' poor performance in TDE because their written competence was also assessed in the examination (Samad & Adnan, 2018; Samad et al., 2017).

In SoELT, the lecturers taught the students presentation skills but the contradictory responses were found among them. LSE1 stated that he taught the students presentation skills such as strategies to open, deliver, and close a general presentation, not focusing on the TDE presentation. Another lecturer, LSE2, said that he focused on a real-like TDE presentation. Here we notice the mismatch in terms of teaching materials and focus given by different lecturers in the same course. According to the students, they all had a proposal presentation about their research topic or seniors' research topic. There was an indication that the lecturers did not have a standardized syllabus, which resulted in teaching different materials. The mismatches in standardized syllabi and learning focus could also be the reasons for the students' poor performance in TDE. Moreover, the lecturers of SoELT needed to teach oral competencies suggested by Alptekin (2002), particularly oral competencies in TDE. Moreover, the real-like (life) TDE that some lecturers included in the activities should include all elements of the TDE genre as mentioned by Swales (1990). Because different institutions/departments have different stages of TDE (Maingueneau, 2002) depending on the culture of TDE in each institution/department, it is important for the lecturers in the corresponding institution to introduce the stages of TDE to the students and practice a real-like TDE in the classroom. From the mismatches, the importance of involving feedback from both lecturers and students in all teaching and learning activities needs to be highlighted (Perera et al., 2008).

6. CONCLUSION

The students at USK have an opportunity to prepare themselves for TDE by enrolling in two courses: RM which aims at improving students' written competence in writing thesis and thesis proposal, and SoELT aiming at improving the students' oral competence, particularly in research presentation. Based on the analysis of data from the interviews with the lecturers and students, we found that some lecturers did not fully help the students achieve the objective of the courses and they did not have a standardized syllabus to teach in the classroom. Consequently, the students could not fully prepare themselves for TDE, and this would lead to their poor performance in the examination. A better teaching plan should be made so that the objectives of both courses can be achieved and the students can be well prepared for TDE.

This study is limited to investigating the students' preparation for the English TDE by looking at lecturers' and students' experiences in teaching and learning of RM and SoELT courses at the English Education Department of USK. Further studies are suggested to conduct a classroom observation and also observation of the TDE events and observe how the preparations in the classrooms affect students' performance in the TDE, particularly in different universities of different countries.

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EFL Students' Responses towards Rosen's 'Sad Book': An Attitudinal Occurrence and Aesthetic Stance

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Abstract

The vocabulary choice and language used in expressing sadness vary in different cultures, even in the smallest scale of cultural group, i.e., family. There have not been many studies done to explore Indonesian EFL students' word choices and expressions related to expressing sadness and empathy. The purpose of this study was to explore how the 11 EFL second-year university students in Basic Reading and Writing class expressed sadness as written in their personal reflective writings. The data was analyzed using mixed methods to obtain valid and reliable results. These second-year university students were assigned to read a picture book, 'Sad Book', or to watch and listen to the video version as a part of an activity in class. Their reflective writings were analyzed using content analysis to identify the corpus used by the students and using the appraisal framework to capture the variety of their attitudinal linguistic occurrence in expressing sadness and empathy. The findings illustrate that the highest attitudinal marker in expressing sadness is 'affect', followed by 'judgment' and 'appreciation'. The use of the picture book, 'Sad Book', assists the EFL students to be more engaged in their reflective writing and thus the highest marker of 'affect' exists due to their ability to project their aesthetic stance. Implications for English language learning for adult learners are addressed at the end of this article.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Grief has always been one of the accumulations of human emotions. The depth of the human emotion dynamics is like a black hole. Emotions are difficult to investigate because they are multifaceted and multi-layered (Alonso-Llácer et al., 2020). Speakers or writers have different ways of expressing emotions, especially sadness. Some describe their feelings clearly and eloquently, while others do not. These differences can occur in almost all areas of life due to differences in the way humans are raised, and in the way life values are taught in their society. Thus, to illustrate, the devastating impacts of COVID-19 over the past three years have caused a massive disruption to mankind. The immediate experience of loss and tragedy of losing loved ones in a very short time has caused a huge sense of grief to anyone, regardless of their age and socio-economic status. The effort to be positive and empathetic during this trying time is very challenging to be made.

Studies on mental health have been done in the past three years as a response to the psychological effects of COVID-19 eruption (Asanov et al., 2021; Lischer et al., 2022) including in Indonesia (Wiguna et al., 2020). The struggles to overcome grief and sadness were evident. The head of the Indonesian Psychiatrists Association mentioned that feeling sad and depressed should never be oppressed and ignored. Families, schools, and institutions had the capacity and opportunity to help students channel the emotional build-up to help maintain their well-being and mental health. Schools also have the responsibility to help their students navigate their emotions (News Desk, 2020). One technique to assist students to be in touch with their emotions is through reflective writing because students are given the opportunity to share their inner thoughts about the topic they are discussing through reflective writing (Avarzamani & Farahian, 2019; Sudirman et al., 2021).

The results of the students' reflective writing can give at least two important views. Firstly, the reflective writing done by EFL students can portray their word choices and attitudinal occurrences when using the target language, i.e., English. Secondly, the writing can give a detailed description of how students deal with the challenges and opportunities from their personal perspectives; and thus, provide a significant portrayal of the students' learning processes. In conclusion, teachers can use reflective writing to monitor the students' English language use and their psychological conditions.

However, studies suggest that EFL students face barriers in expressing their ideas, thoughts, and opinions in their reflective writing. Firstly, due to the abstract nature of reflective activities, one of the possible barriers refers to the teachers' inability to provide their EFL students with means to assist them in constructing the reflections (Salahi & Farahian, 2021). Secondly, writing reflections in the target language creates a multi-layered barrier for EFL students. Besides having to deal with the abstract nature of reflective activities, the EFL students have to make sure that the English sentences are well written, the word choices portray their feelings and emotions, and at the same time, they can demonstrate their higher-order thinking skills (Avarzamani & Farahian, 2019). For many EFL students, producing well-written and well-composed reflective writing in English as well as expressing emotions in English is not an easy task, particularly if they are not facilitated with some kind of teaching tool, such as literary or reading text to trigger their vocabulary knowledge and writing ability in English. Stories from literary or reading texts relevant to the topic of reflection can help EFL students develop their metacognitive awareness (Shen, 2009). Carefully chosen reading texts can provide the students with appropriate vocabulary and expressions that they can use as examples in expressing their thoughts and emotions.

It is evident that there has been extensive research investigating how written reflections can provide a sufficient amount of information on the students' inner thoughts, ideas, and struggles. The complexities of emotions ranging from sadness to happiness, the understanding of self towards one's emotional turbulence, the cultural differences on how to view the act of expressing emotions, along with the vast number of English vocabularies that can be used to represent one's emotions influence the language users' ability to express themselves both in spoken form or written form (Dylman & Bjärtå, 2019; Tanaka et al., 2010). Due to these multi-layered conditions, investigations on how reflective writing can assist EFL students in expressing their sadness and the word choices that they use in expressing it are necessary to be done in order to see the EFL students' English language proficiency. However, there is a limited number of investigations on how a carefully chosen reading text can give inspiration to EFL students to express their thoughts about sadness in their reflective writing. Additionally, research on how the chosen reading texts that they read affect their attitudinal occurrences is still limited. Therefore, this research aims to investigate two problems:

1. What are the EFL students' attitudinal linguistic utterances that portray their ways of expressing sadness?
2. How do the EFL students perceive sadness seen from an aesthetic stance?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Appraisal Analysis in EFL Reflective Writing

Appraisal theory, a part of the Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), has been around for more than decades. This theory believes that emotion plays a major role in the need to express emotion in the form of language. Interpersonal meaning becomes one of the key aspects of analyzing the meanings of the words spoken or written by the speakers or writers in the interactions and negotiations in social relations (Martin & White, 2005). Oteíza (2017) emphasized that appraisal "has to do with the negotiation of meanings among real or potential interlocutors" (p. 457). The negotiation of meaning and meaning-making are actions that are based upon the concept of solidarity (a sense of unity and mutual support from other people).

The framework of the appraisal analysis includes attitude, engagement, and graduation. Attitude refers to how people evaluate, judge, and appreciate their feelings. It involves the positive and negative emotions that the speaker or writer expresses in their speech or written work. Engagement focuses on how the individual posits himself or herself in the current situation. The individual's locutions can determine how much engagement he or she is involved in. Graduation refers to how feelings are amplified and blurred (Wei et al., 2015).

The main purpose of the appraisal framework is to provide a sufficient amount of linguistics resources that have been systematically and comprehensively described and to provide a clear display of social experience values. Therefore, richer and more detailed descriptions of the emotional dynamics experienced by an individual can be obtained. These descriptions then can portray how subjective or internal notions (person) engage with the external notions (society). Ellsworth (2013) further described that appraisals can show "novelty, valence, certainty, goal conduciveness, agency, and control…" (p. 125). In other words, an appraisal framework can give a portrayal of an individual's emotional experiences in different situations.

SFL shows that language learning can be a very complex process because emotions play a major role in how EFL students use the target language both in their speech and writing. The quality of a writing composition regarding expressing personal ideas or opinions in reflective writing can be seen from the way the writers use word choices and expressions. Unfortunately, many EFL students lack of ability to appropriately choose words or expressions either in spoken or written form. These students, to some extent, face a barrier in their efforts to express feelings, judgments, and appreciation. They also face challenges in expressing their attitudes in various linguistic forms. However, this situation could partially be resolved through the mediation of a reading source read by the students while trying to revise their writing (Mori, 2017). Another study by Pasaribu and Dewi (2021) was done to find out the types of attitudinal occurrences in Indonesian EFL university students' reflective writing regarding their experience attending online learning during COVID-19. The study found that the students' reflections portrayed the affect marker as the dominant marker because the students were able to present the interpersonal connection between their feelings and their current situation.

2.2 EFL Reader Response

Rosenblatt's Reader Response Theory (RRT) describes that when reading, readers tend to experience emotional attachments to the stories. Rosenblatt (1978) stated that the "emphasis on feeling and creativity might especially have been expected to establish a unique role for the reader" (p. 4). Moreover, she adds that when reading, the "reader's attention turned toward a qualitative synthesis, cognitive and affective, that can be experienced conjointly" (p. 93). These quotes reveal the inner engagement between cognitive and affective aspects that occurred within the reader's mind and emotions. Therefore, there is a clear transaction between the author, the reader, and the text. These transactions appear from two different stances of reader response, i.e., aesthetic and efferent stances. In the aesthetic stance, readers are immersed in the story and thus can have a sense of connection with how the characters feel and think. In the efferent stance, readers are invited to engage with the words, the sentences, and other information found in the text. In other words, readers are "reading to study it, not to experience it" (Spiegel, 1998, p. 42).

Mart (2019) stated that literature discussions using reader response theory enable the readers to have in-depth conversations. These types of conversations can assist readers in finding meaning between the story and real-life situations. In the EFL context, the ongoing transactions of constructing, re-constructing, making meaning, and re-making meaning among the readers or within the readers themselves can be evident during and post-reading activities (Iskhak et al., 2020). In their research, Rifqi et al. (2022) revealed that by implementing reader response activities in responding to the short story 'The Gift of Imagi', the EFL students were able to use their creative imagination to recreate the story. Thus, the reader response technique helped the students become more creative in their writing. A study done by Widiati et al. (2023) also provided a clear correlation between the quality of the readers' responses and the choice of reading texts. The research indicates that the pleasure of reading is somewhat influenced by the choice of reading texts. The more pleasurable and emotionally engaging the reading texts that the readers choose, the more emotionally engaging the responses will be.

2.3 EFL Learners' Expressing Sadness in Self-Reflective Writings

Sadness is one of the basic emotional aspects of human life, and with that in mind, it is one of the core emotions that is felt and experienced daily. Despite its common human nature, how humans express their sadness and other emotions can vary, depending on their cultures, life values, and family values (Chen et al., 2012; Losonczy, 2004; Tanaka et al., 2010). Due to the heterogenic ways of expressing sadness, there are several ways to explore deeper, particularly how speakers or writers express their emotions, such as through interviews (Langley & Meziani, 2020) and reflective journal writing (Avarzamani & Farahian, 2019). In the pedagogical context, expressing sadness can be evoked through literary activities such as literature discussions or activities and reflective writing.

Some studies show that expressing thoughts on different platforms can be challenging for EFL learners but not impossible. Chamcharatsri (2013) found that L2 learners in general may find expressing emotions a difficult task due to the complex emotions that need to be expressed in a different language. The study further concluded that despite the complexities of expressing emotions, L2 learners could use literary activities such as poetry writings to explore the target language and the mother tongue from the aspects of culture, language, and emotions. Liao (2018) investigated the EFL adult learners' experiences in a poetry class. Even though, in the end, adult learners have positive perceptions of poetry writing, expressing emotions became the biggest challenge due to the struggles in choosing the appropriate words that express their emotions. These two studies provided evidence of the benefit of using literature activities such as poetry writing to assist EFL students in expressing their emotions.

Lin et al. (2016) conducted a study to investigate the use of reflective writing to assist medical students in relating their experiences with their positive emotions and sadness. The result indicated that using reflective writing helped and encouraged the medical students to express their affective sides like sadness. Meanwhile, Spier (2022) conducted a study on how adult English Language Learners or ELLs narrative writing in the form of self-reflection as assignments in the classrooms can be sources of information to investigate the students' vocabulary knowledge, reading, and writing proficiency, as well as how these elements affect the students' sentimental expressions and word choices in their self-reflections. The researcher concluded that in writing their self-reflections, the ELLs used basic to complex emotions from time to time. Although the participants of these two studies were from different departments, the results proved that reflective writing could become a means for students to evoke their affective sides and help them to express their emotions better.

3. METHODS

This mixed-method study used two types of data, i.e., quantitative and qualitative data. The quantitative data were used to portray the rank of the attitudinal markers from the lowest to the highest percentage. The ranks were useful for the researchers to view the tendency of the attitudinal markers found in the EFL students' reflective writings. The detected tendency from the attitudinal marker rank was subsequently used as the base to analyze how the rank was influenced by the choice of topics and reading texts. Meanwhile, the qualitative data was obtained from the qualitative content analysis. This type of analysis enables the researcher to arrange the themes systemically (Schreier, 2012). The obtained data from the students' linguistic discourse were analyzed systematically by using qualitative content analysis, in which the researchers quantified the frequency of the investigated categories and used the result to make the descriptive analysis (Gläser-Zikuda et al., 2020).

3.1 Participants

The participants were 11 second-year EFL university students (nine females, two males) ranging from 18-20 years old. All of them were in one Basic Reading and Writing class and attended a virtual book club held by the university. As a part of the compulsory activity in the Basic Reading and Writing class, these students had read Rosen's 'Sad Book' many times and discussed the content with their friends in the discussion groups. The story evolved around the real experience of the author, Michael Rosen, who had to deal with the loss of his son and mother. They shared their inner thoughts about the story and what they felt about the story. The book reading and discussion were done in the course of two weeks and were done outside the class hours in the virtual book club session. These EFL students were purposively chosen to participate in this research. The researchers chose the participants based on the students' writing quality which fit the criteria of good grammar (minor mistakes) and good organization of ideas.

3.2 Source of Data

The source of data was the 11 reflections written by the 11 students who took one Basic Reading and Writing class and attended a virtual book club held by the university. In order to ensure the quality of the data, these students were given a set of guided questions that can be used to help them in organizing their ideas for their reflective writing. The guided questions/instructions were as follows:

1) Based on your personal experiences, define what sadness is. Feel free to make your own definition;
2) Which image/picture/sentence(s) that you can relate to? Why?

These 11 reflective writings were used to obtain information on the EFL students' attitudinal occurrences and aesthetic stances.

3.3 Data Collection Procedure

The data were collected from the students' reflective writing. The writings were written after the students completed the two-week book discussions that were done outside the class hours in the virtual book club. Prior to the writing activity, the students were assigned to different groups to read 'Sad Book' together and/ or individually in one Basic Reading and Writing class. After reading, they were instructed to meet up with their group members to discuss the content of the book. Their main goal was to discuss what sadness means to each of them, how they would describe sadness, and how the author's story affected them.

They were allowed to quote the sentences from the book or to choose a picture from the book that represents their definition of sadness. The criteria of the chosen reflective writings were as follows:

1) the reflection should be written in good English (minimum grammatical mistakes);
2) the writing should provide a clear description of their definition of sadness; and
3) the writing portrays the EFL students' emotional connection with the story.

The reflections were submitted to the university's Learning Management System (LMS) two weeks after reading and discussion activities.

3.4 Data Analysis Procedure

The data were analyzed using content analysis to explore deeper about the students' attitudinal occurrences. Content analysis was chosen because by using content analysis, a researcher can find important missing links in human communication and the responses (Neuendorf, 2002). Both the obtained numerical and written data were collected. After the data were collected, the students' works were categorized, clustered, and analyzed using the Excel tool to code them based on the attitudinal occurrences of the appraisal framework, i.e., 'affect', 'judgment', and 'appreciation'. The data on the students' attitudinal occurrences were used as the base to discuss the EFL students' aesthetic stance.

4. RESULTS

This section displays two results for the two research questions. The first part of this section presents the calculation results of the identification of the attitudinal resources that consist of 'affect', 'judgment', and 'appreciation'. These results were used to answer the first research question. The second part of this section discusses the emerging themes and aesthetic stance from the students' descriptions. The data were used to answer the second research question.

4.1 Appraisal Analysis Result

The appraisal analysis results were used to discuss the first research question: 'What are the EFL students' attitudinal linguistic utterances that portray their ways of expressing sadness?' The result of the appraisal analysis was obtained from the 11 journals written by 11 EFL students who were purposively chosen. The EFL students used a total of 54 attitudinal resources from 11 selected journals. Table 1 portrays the distribution of the three attitudinal resources. All of the EFL students were found to use all of the three attitudinal resources. From the 54 attitudinal resources, 'affect' placed the highest (63%), followed by 'appreciation' (20%), and 'judgment '(17%).

Table 1. Attitudinal resources.

Attitudinal resource	Percentage
Affect	63%
Appreciation	20%
Judgment	17%

4.1.1 Affect markers

The affect category placed the highest since the students were asked to describe what sadness was in their perspectives. Furthermore, the discussion on sadness triggered their emotion and revealed their innermost feelings toward sadness. Table 2 displays the number of occurrences in the 'affect' markers.

Table 2. Affect markers.

Resource	Category	Positive/ negative	Number of occurrences	Percentage
Affect	Dis/inclination	Positive	5	15%
		Negative	17	50%
	Un/happiness	Positive	0	0%
		Negative	2	6%
	In/security	Positive	3	9%
		Negative	2	6%
	Dis/satisfaction	Positive	0	0%
		Negative	5	15%
Total			34	100%

Based on the calculation of the affect category, none of the 11 journals touched upon happiness and satisfaction. This was expected since the topic was about sadness. The highest percentage of occurrence was disinclination. Fifty percent of the total affect occurrences dealt with how the students expressed their ideas about sadness. They showed their reluctance and lack of enthusiasm when talking about sadness. However, there was a 15% inclination. Table 3 provided some samples of the EFL students' expressions that fell under the affect markers.

Table 3. Samples of the affect markers.

Resource	Category	Positive/ negative	Narrative number	Sample
Affect	Dis/inclination	Positive	(1)	I like [+inclination] to live an honest life, don't pretend to be happy when not happy.
		Negative	(2)	I don't want to [-inclination] be sad. I can relate to the words I just want to think about it on my own. Because it is mine. And no one else's.
	Un/happiness	Positive		-
		Negative	(3)	For me, sadness is when you feel hated by rock, grass, air, water, animals, plants, and yourself for something that you cannot [-happiness] change.

Table 3 continued…

	In/security	Positive	(4)	I chose this picture because being sad is not always on the gray side. It is at the intersection between happiness and sadness [+security].
		Negative	(5)	This is the visualization of my backstage. Overload of information, the problem keeps coming, perfectionist keeps haunting [-security].
	Dis/satisfaction	Positive		-
		Negative	(6)	Sometimes being sad can make you like a crazy person and some people will not understand it [-satisfaction].

The EFL students described their concept of sadness by sharing their personal experiences in dealing with sadness. The positive inclination was found in the word 'like'. In the category un/happiness, there was no evidence of the positive aspect of sadness. In the in/security category, two poles of description were found. One participant shared her insecurity by describing her current situation where she was overwhelmed by the things that she experienced. On the contrary, one student tried to show the positive side of being sad, and it gave him a sense of security. The dissatisfaction category had only negative occurrences in which five occurrences showed dissatisfaction towards the students' personal experience when feeling sad.

4.1.2 Appreciation markers

The appreciation category was the second highest occurrence with 20% in total. The EFL students tended to show appreciation towards their experience which enabled them to have a better understanding of grief and sadness. Moreover, they showed their ability to give a positive valuation. This was evident from the number of occurrences under the appreciation markers found in Table 4.

Table 4. Appreciation markers.

Resource	Category	Subcategory	Positive/ negative	Number of occurrences	Percentage
Appreciation	Reaction	Impact	Positive	0	0%
			Negative	2	18%
		Quality	Positive	0	0%
			Negative	0	0%
	Composition	Balance	Positive	0	0%
			Negative	0	0%
		Complexity	Positive	0	0%
			Negative	1	9%
	Valuation	-	Positive	8	73%
		-	Negative	0	0%
Total				11	100%

The highest percentage for the appreciation markers was the positive valuation category (73%). Positive valuation refers to the language occurrence in giving opinions towards a subject, situation, or condition. The reflective writings indicated that the positive valuation was a popular way for the EFL students to appreciate the existence of sadness. The samples of the EFL students' appreciation can be seen in Table 5.

Table 5. Samples of the appreciation markers.

Resource	Category	Subcategory	Positive/ negative	Narrative number	Sample
Appreciation	Reaction	Impact	Positive		-
			Negative	(7)	I can feel his pain [-impact], the illustration, and the words in this book I can feel it (I can relate it).
		Quality	Positive	-	-
			Negative	-	-
	Composition	Balance	Positive	-	-
			Negative	-	-
		Complexity	Positive	-	-
			Negative	(8)	Being sad is not always on the gray side [-complexity]. It is at the intersection between happiness and sadness.
	Valuation		Positive	(9)	Do not get depressed with sadness and make all life unfocused or lose hope or enthusiasm to live. In this life, we should be grateful [+valuation]. Don't be depressed by sadness.
			Negative	-	-

A sample of the positive valuation could be seen in how one EFL student described how she felt about being sad. She described that being sad is a part of life, but it would be better if people would not focus too much on sadness. In other words, she highlighted how she felt about sadness. Her complex emotion towards sadness was portrayed in how she composed her sentence by comparing happiness and sadness.

4.1.3 Judgment markers

The judgment category placed the lowest rank with 17% of occurrences. In the discussion part, there would be some insights on why judgment had the lowest percentage. However, this indicates that the EFL students did not focus on judging the sadness itself. On the contrary, they were more focused on how they dealt with sadness, defined sadness, and searched for ways to understand and overcome sadness. The number of occurrences of judgment markers can be seen in Table 6.

Table 6. Judgment markers.

Resource	Category	Positive/ negative	Number of occurrences	Percentage
Judgment	Normality	Positive	0	0%
		Negative	0	0%
	Capacity	Positive	1	8%
		Negative	2	17%
	Tenacity	Positive	1	8%
		Negative	1	8%
	Veracity	Positive	1	8%
		Negative	3	25%

Table 6 continued…

	Propriety	Positive	0	0%
		Negative	3	25%
Total			12	100%

Out of the 5 categories in the judgment markers, the negative propriety and negative veracity were the two highest (25% each). This indicated that the EFL students tended to compare and contrast between their personal judgment and others'. The samples in Table 7 provided a glimpse of how the students expressed their judgments.

Table 7. Samples of the judgment markers.

Resource	**Category**	**Positive/ negative**	**Narrative number**	**Sample**
Judgment	Normality	Positive		-
		Negative		-
	Capacity	Positive	(10)	Sadness is everywhere and anyone has it [+capacity].
		Negative	(11)	Because in my country, children shouldn't be sad, they have to live full of joy [-capacity].
	Tenacity	Positive	(12)	From this story too, I think that it's okay not to be okay [+tenacity]. We don't need to hide our feelings (just laugh if it's funny, cry if you are sad).
		Negative	(13)	It's not just me, but some people decide to hide their problems and fake a smile, rather than talk about it. So, for me, sadness is when you feel sad or have problems but cannot talk about it to anyone [-tenacity].
	Veracity	Positive	(14)	If you are scared to tell them, just remember that you have God who is always beside you.
		Negative	(15)	Basically, in Indonesia, it's not a taboo for women to cry, but it's still taboo for men to cry or be sad [-veracity].
	Propriety	Positive		-
		Negative	(16)	It's not just me, but some people decide to hide their problems and fake a smile [-propriety], rather than talk about it. I know it's bad. So bad.

What is interesting from the analysis result in the judgment markers was that the EFL students did not show extreme judgments. They did not show excessive anger towards the concept of sadness and their experiences when they felt sad. What was shown in the judgment markers was mainly how they positioned themselves when they had to deal with sadness. The big theme of this marker was the fact that the students felt trapped because they wanted to be free from the feeling of sadness, but felt afraid to share their problems with other people. It can be said that they had mixed feelings about their emotions. They wanted to feel better emotionally but were worried about sharing their personal problems. They wanted to feel better emotionally but were scared to talk about their feelings. This showed that they were dealing with a mix of complicated emotions when it came to sadness.

4.2 The Students' Aesthetic Stance Result

The students' responses towards the story in 'Sad Book' conveyed how the aesthetic stance exists in their written responses. The aesthetic stance was portrayed from the two main elements, i.e., the students' psychological projection and their text-to-world relationship. The obtained data on the EFL students' aesthetic stance were used to answer the second question, i.e., "How do the EFL students perceive sadness from the aesthetic stance?"

4.2.1 Psychological projection

The first result is related to the students' psychological projection. The students' different family and social backgrounds, family values, and life principles gave different yet interesting aesthetic stances. The psychological projection reveals how students vary in defining the concept of sadness based on their life principles and life values and the main character's way of coping with sadness. Some EFL students gave a more positive valuation on how to define sadness. Their positive psychological projection was seen from how Student 18 valued spirituality in defining the concept of sadness;

(1) "God will accompany [+valuation] all of us. And if we are sad or happy, it should also be brought to prayer because God's miracles are real in our lives". (S18)

Student 19 gave a more realistic psychological projection by saying:

(2) "If you are sad, you must move on [+valuation] and must be able to accept [-valuation] the reality". (S19)

She focused more on having the act of accepting fate and reality and moving on. Thus, she defines sadness by defining it from a positive perspective. Another student gave a different psychological projection on how to define sadness. He wrote that:

(3) "Smile apparently can hide so many different emotions, including sadness. It's amazing [+valuation], really". (S20)

Even though he projected smiling to hide his sadness, he was more amazed at how he could use the action of smiling to give him comfort.

Some other students' aesthetic stances were psychologically projected from a negative point of view. In other words, they defined sadness by emphasizing the negative aspect of it. One EFL student said:

(4) "I try to put on the best smile even though I feel pain [-inclination] and very sad". (S21)

Even though she stated that she was trying to put a smile on her face, she still emphasized the painful feeling that she endured whenever she felt sad. Student 22 projected and defined sadness from her feeling of being hated by another party for something that she cannot change:

(5) "Sadness is when you feel hated [-inclination] by rock, grass, air, water, animals, plants, and yourself for something that you cannot change". (S22)

Another student defined sadness as how dissatisfied he felt about himself regardless of the positive support system that he had around him:

(6) "I am dissatisfied [-satisfaction] with myself because I just want to think about sadness on my own even though I have friends and family". (S23)

4.2.2 Text-to-world relationship

Aesthetic stance is also evident in how readers can connect the essence of a story that they read and the concept of sadness. The students used their personal experiences as the basis to describe what sadness is. In her effort to define sadness, Student 24 described how sadness was viewed in her surroundings. She said that:

(7) "In my country, children shouldn't be sad. They have to live full of joy. They are situated to see the world as a beautiful place. At that age, they should have fun, smile, and laugh. That is the most important thing to be experienced as a child". (S24)

In other words, she felt that sadness was viewed as somewhat taboo because children were entitled to experience happiness, not sadness. Similar to Student 24, Student 26 showed sentiment toward the concept of sadness. She said that:

(8) "It's difficult for me to open up whenever I feel sad. I feel that sadness is mine and mine only". (S26)

Student 26 felt that sadness was not supposed to be discussed in public since it was a private matter that needed to be resolved privately.

Contrary to Student 24, Student 25 argued that talking about sadness, especially to children was important. She believed that children were entitled to experience sadness. However, as an adult, she found it hard to explain what sadness was to children:

(9) "This children's book talks about sadness. But I find it difficult to explain sadness to children, although I agree that it's okay for children to experience sadness". (S25)

5. DISCUSSION

From the three attitudinal occurrences result, the highest percentage was the affect category (63%), followed by appreciation (20%), and judgment (17%). In the affect category, all affect markers (dis/inclination, un/happiness, in/security, and dis/satisfaction) were evident, with dis/inclination as the highest percentage. The EFL students' definition of sadness and their feelings towards the story entitled 'Sad Book' produced a very high disinclination. It was found that the 17 disinclination expressions mainly projected the students' reluctance in thinking, speaking, and conversing about sadness (e.g.. "I don't want to [-inclination] be sad. I can relate with the words I just want to think about it on my own. Because it is mine. And no one else's".) These students felt that they were inclined to keep the sadness to themselves and tended to avoid talking about it. Even though these students came from various cultural backgrounds, the universal concept of sadness enabled them to have mutual understanding with one another (Tanaka et al., 2010). However, some other students chose not to delve into the sadness. These students preferred to see sadness from a positive perspective. One student even wrote that she liked living an honest life, thus being pretentious is not a life choice (e.g., "I like [+inclination] to live an honest life, don't pretend to be happy when not happy"). The word choice 'like' somehow portrayed the students' "conscious desires for incentives or cognitive goals" (Barrett et al., 2016, p. 137). In other words, her conscience played a significant role in defining what sadness is. The unhappiness/security, and dissatisfaction markers also appeared in the students' written responses in their reflective writing, but not as high as dis/inclination.

The obtained data also portrayed how the EFL students tried their best to be positive regardless of the sad feeling that arose when reading the story or defining sadness. In the appreciation category, the students gave more appreciation to Michael, the main character of the book, in his effort to cope with the loss of his mother and son. Even though the students gave their appreciation to Michael's effort, they still tried to put themselves in his shoes by imagining how he would have felt. Thus, the language use analyzed based on the appreciation category was very rich and intimate. This result was in line with how Oteíza (2017) viewed appraisal, it "always involves the negotiation of solidarity" (p. 458). The non-existence of the sub-category 'quality and balance' indicated that in writing the responses, they did not give much attention to normalizing the feeling of sadness or Michael's grieving process. They also did not give much attention to the quality of their responses. The main reason for this to happen was that in writing the responses, the students wanted to show their genuine responses. Therefore, the students relied heavily on their intuition and their current feelings towards the concept of sadness, their version of sadness, and Michael's sadness during the writing. The 'here and now' mentality was very clearly seen when the responses were investigated from the aspect of the appreciation category. In other words, the immediate responses showed a tug and pull between the conscious and the unconscious state of mind (Scherer et al., 2001).

The lowest category was the judgment category. In this category, the subcategory of 'veracity and propriety' had an equal number of occurrences. The negative 'veracity' and negative 'propriety' that were found in the students' responses indicated how they positioned themselves in society. Some considered expressing or discussing sadness was not socially accepted, while some other students focused more on their right to speak up about sadness. The propriety category is a part of the social sanction type which refers to how ethical a human can be in society (Martin & White, 2005). The negative veracity, which is also a part of the social sanction type, refers to the level of truthfulness a human being can be. Therefore, because these students' judgments were highly influenced by their society, the way they expressed ideas and thoughts was affected by their psychological well-being and ability to adjust themselves to society (Ngo & Unsworth, 2015).

These results indicated that expressing opinions and defining concepts of a particular emotion can portray the EFL students' complex thoughts and considerations in their reflective writings. These students can explore the concept of sadness and have deep thoughts about it with the help of the reading text, 'Sad Book'. The way Rosen (2004) described his honest feelings on the loss of his son Eddie and his mother in the story awoken the EFL students' personal experiences in dealing with the sad moments in their lives. The attitudinal occurrences of the affect, appreciation, and judgment categories seen in their reflective writing were indications of the dynamicity of the students' understanding of sadness, awareness of their social parameter of sadness, and ability to cope with sadness. In other words, these reflective writings can become the window to see each student's ecology of the learning process, i.e., how they try to express their thoughts and opinions about sadness from different contexts and socio-cultural backgrounds, implicitly describe their awareness of their environment, and do all of these while using the target language, that is English.

Besides portraying the EFL students' evaluative language, the attitudinal occurrences provided yet another interesting phenomenon, i.e., the ways the EFL students perceived sadness. The personal spaces to explore the meanings of sadness and connect it with their everyday life experiences gave a sense of liberation and ease in their writing, which was shown by how high the affect markers were (63%). The meaning-making of the context gave the EFL students room to have both personal and social spaces in their effort to understand their personal life journey (Jackson & Barnett, 2020). Besides the personal spaces, the story from 'Sad Book' assisted the EFL students in demonstrating the high affect markers in their reflective writing. The use of literature can provide an immense opportunity for the readers to increase their vocabulary knowledge provided that through reading, readers or students can absorb multiple language skills and language elements. However, it is a fact that reading can be a means to assist readers to delve into their inner thoughts, feelings, and emotions. All the while, readers unconsciously react and respond to the story that takes place in the literary work. The responses, be they verbal or written, can be used as a means to reflect how they view a certain topic discussed in the story (Abednia et al., 2013).

These responses are highly influenced by the EFL students' current psychological conditions. The psychological condition that the students were currently in while reading the book triggered many different responses. Many preferred to define what sadness was based on their personal experiences. They also shared the lessons learned on how to cope with sadness. The task of defining sadness was quite easy to do because the EFL students obtained some insights from the story in 'Sad Book'. Caracciolo and van Duuren (2015) stated that "the analysis of readers' life stories may offer important insights into how literary reading can have an impact on the readers" (p. 517). In other words, readers give different responses to the story in the reading due to their different life values and lifestyles.

In the appreciation category, the EFL students provided different reactions of sadness. Some other responses were more realistic and objective. These reactions were acceptable and predictable. dos Santos et al. (2018) described that readers engage with the stories through "the conflicts and problems they face in life or the plot" (p. 783). One student used her personal experiences in trying to understand the concept of sadness (e.g., "I can feel his pain [-impact], the illustration, and the word in this book I can feel it (I can relate it)"). The responses also provided a portrayal of the practical behaviors and solutions for coping with sadness. Thus, the responses were spontaneous yet honest (Magnet & Tremblay-Dion, 2018).

Some other students' responses provided a glimpse of their efforts to connect with how they understand the concept of sadness and how they were brought up in their cultures. This text-to-world relationship played a significant role in investigating the readers' emotional attachment to the theme of the story, i.e., sadness. Some students were able to have a deep connection with the author's sadness. Student 14 wrote that she could feel the author's pain and sadness from the words and the illustrations. This is clear evidence of the readers' ability to be emotionally connected with the story that they read (Whiteley, 2011). They were also able to have a sense of self while reading; thus, there were emotional interactions between the readers and the story. This notion was evident in the EFL students' way of using a sense of self in describing and defining what sadness is.

From the discussion, it is evident that there is a strong connection between the EFL students' attitudinal occurrences, their aesthetic stance, and their quality of reflective writing. The students' lexical choices in discussing their concept of sadness and their emotional connection with the main character in 'Sad Book' were more intimate and honest because of their reference to how they feel, see, and experience sadness. Moreover, the openness and fluidity in expressing their opinions about sadness were mainly triggered by Michael's story from 'Sad Book'. Many of the EFL students mirrored some expressions from how Michael expressed his sadness and his opinion about sadness. Therefore, the students were able to practice how to express ideas using natural English expressions.

Finally, this study proposes some implications that can be applicable in the context of pedagogy. First, the appraisal analysis result was deemed to give a portray of the EFL students' lexical choices in defining and describing sadness. In other words, the lexical choices chosen by the students when expressing emotions can assist teachers/educators in assessing the EFL students' current level of English language proficiency, vocabulary level, and emotional connections with English adjective words (Perret, 2000). Second, the result of this research provided clear evidence of the benefits of using literary work to assist EFL students to be more engaged with reading. The students were able to produce richer, more intimate, and more in-depth reflective writing because the book triggered them to be more reflective (Caracciolo & Van Duuren, 2015).

6. CONCLUSION

The appraisal analysis provided a clear portrayal of how the EFL students defined what sadness is, how they had emotional interactions with Michael in 'Sad Book', the main character, and how they had a sense of self in the process of understanding the concept of sadness. The variety of definitions and responses to sadness revealed that the EFL students had different ways of viewing and responding to the concept of sadness. These different views and responses could provide a glimpse of how complex language use is. Despite the small number of participants, the research results indicated two main points. First, the lexical choices of the EFL students' reflective writings are highly influenced by the reading text. The students were able to use richer, more intimate, and dynamic expressions of emotions because they modeled them from the reading. Additionally, the levels of the affect, appreciation, and judgment markers can vary depending on the connectivity between the given reading text and the topic of reflection. Second, the use of picture books or novels in general provides the EFL students inspiration to create an aesthetic stance that is personal and intimate. The EFL students' effort to create the psychological projection and text-to-world relationship is supported by the provision of reading texts that are topic-appropriate.

There are several limitations to this study. Firstly, the small number of participants limited the researchers' effort to produce an overview of the attitudinal occurrence in general. Secondly, the lack of knowledge on how to write reflective writing from both the students and teachers influenced the depth of the reflective writing. Hence, future researchers can do more research on the connection between attitudinal occurrences and literary works by employing a larger number of participants from different educational levels and by preparing the students with adequate knowledge and ability to write their reflections.

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The Roots of Demotivation in Studying English: Sociocultural Values among Students in a Rural Area

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Abstract

This confessional ethnographic study strives to reveal the sociocultural values that are suspected as trigger factors of students' demotivation in studying English. The study was conducted in a junior secondary school in the Miendogunu Village, Buton, Sulawesi, one of the rural areas in Indonesia. There were 32 participants in this study (21 students, nine parents, an English teacher, and the school principal). This research relied on data gathered through in-depth interviews and observation. The data analysis covered taxonomic analysis, componential analysis, and thematic analysis, specifically aimed at discerning inter-domain connections and how those connections relate to the larger cultural landscape. The results revealed three interrelated themes, namely: ethnocentric stereotype (the tendency to look down on English because it is a foreign culture), the skeptical view (doubt toward the worth of English), and slow living lifestyle (a lifestyle that encourages a slower approach to aspects of everyday life). These three sociocultural values are investigated as the trigger factors that have turned the EFL students' halfhearted toward English. A complementary strategy focused on changing students' mindsets is needed; they need to be aware that English, nowadays, is the language of technology and has become an added and preferable qualification for employability. To a certain degree, it is important to impart awareness to the villagers regarding the significance of preserving their indigenous culture. However, a cautious approach is necessary, as isolating themselves entirely from external cultural influences may be deemed an unwise course of action.

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1. INTRODUCTION

It is common knowledge that culture greatly affects how people perceive the world and shapes their perspectives. Culture encompasses the implicit and explicit beliefs, values, attitudes, and behaviors of a social group passed on through interactions between people (Beldo, 2010). Cultural issues have recently taken center stage for language instruction researchers worldwide (Ahmad, 2015; Conn et al., 2019; Mohammed, 2020; Rahaman et al., 2019). Meanwhile, in the context of English as a foreign language (EFL), sociocultural value is particularly prominent as opposed to other factors that have a significant influence on learners' attitudes toward learning English all over the world, such as teachers' qualifications, learning environments, and the status of English as a foreign language (Poedjiastutie et al., 2021).

Sociocultural theory holds that rather than taking place in a vacuum, learning is influenced by the social, historical, economic, political, and cultural facets of its setting (Vygotsky, 2000), and it aims to understand learners' cultural backgrounds in light of how they encode and comprehend the world around them (Alfred, 2003; Perez, 2004). According to Sellami-Sellami (2021), students who join a language school bring their own culture with them; they become living examples of the culture they share with others. Most academics concur that values influence language learning; when sociocultural value is competitive and favorable, it cultivates intrinsic motivation for learning a second/foreign language and creates a positive attitude (Ahmad, 2015; Kmiotek & Boski, 2017; Liton, 2016; Mohammed, 2020). It means that students' cultural values might act as a barrier, making it difficult for teachers to gauge their students' learning. The cultural issue influences students' learning; occasionally, cultural background fosters students' learning in advance but may also present challenges to learning. To assist students in bridging the cultural divide, Kuo and Lai (2006) advised foreign language teachers to pay closer attention to the variety of cultural practices, identify key cultural components in each domain when developing language curricula, and use appropriate teaching methods in learning activities. Hence, it is crucial to highlight the cultural and traditional values of the students' homelands, as these values have a significant impact on their motivation to learn a foreign language because they are broad convictions about how one should behave (Levontin & Bardi, 2019; Pazyura, 2016).

As a multicultural country, Indonesia has a number of traditional and sociocultural values inherited from generation to generation. Some of the values were predicted to trigger demotivation and negative attitudes in EFL students in learning English. However, so far, studies are scarce on this issue in the Indonesian context. A study on the sociocultural challenges of English teaching in remote areas of Indonesia was known to only be conducted by Poedjiastutie et al. (2021) in Pemana Island, East Nusa Tenggara. This study aims to fill this knowledge gap focused on a single community, namely students and their cultural environment, the Miendogunu Village. Miendogunu (meaning mountain people) is an ethnic group located in a mountainous area in the center of Buton Island, Indonesia. This hinterland village is still out of touch with modern facilities; no cellular sign, internet, or electricity was available. The local government is now to bring the village community closer to educational facilities by building an elementary school in 1997 and a junior secondary school in 2014.

Based on a preliminary study, the schoolteachers admitted that the students had low motivation to learn English. Hence, English has lower grades than other subjects, such as History, Mathematics, Art, Sport, and many others. Compared to the English academic achievements of students from the rural areas around their school, they were consistently significantly weak. The average score achieved in the subject ranges from 30.00 to 45.00 on a scale from 0.00 to 100.00, according to the Buton regency's criteria for completing the English subject (65.00). This is typical when English is taught and learned in Indonesia's rural and remote regions. Previous studies carried out in Indonesia's remote and rural areas (e.g., Anwar et al., 2020; Saiful & Triyono, 2018) claimed that low student achievement in English lessons had been attributed to students' demotivation to learn English and a lack of parental support, a lack of learning facilities, and a shortage of English teachers. Instead of these contributing reasons, however, it is hypothetical that the Miendogunu have different values and perspectives on English as a foreign culture. The present paper aims to shed light on the sociocultural values possessed by the people of Miendogunu Buton, Indonesia, which are thought to affect the students' desire to learn English. Regarding this, sociocultural values are the concealed guiding principles by which EFL learners organize their conduct while studying English. To guide the inquiry, a research question is established: "What are potential students' viewpoints that originate from their sociocultural values that have sparked their demotivation in studying English?"

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Sociocultural Barriers in EFL Teaching and Learning

It is widely recognized that people behave and think in ways typically influenced by the culture in which they were reared, regardless of where they live (Kuo & Lai, 2006). Kidd and Teagle (2012) stated that culture is a collection of formal and distinctive values in all societies and communities worldwide. These values dictate the normative behavior that society must practice by fostering social cohesion. Sociocultural values, according to Anılan et al. (2019), can be defined as the entirety of the material and spiritual elements that cover the social, cultural, economic, and scientific values of a nation, as well as the entirety of the beliefs that contain the fundamental characteristics that set humans apart from other living things. Dehghani et al. (2011) defined sociocultural values as the ideas and permanent convictions that people have long held and that society receives as the basis for their behaviors. Vygotsky (2000), the founder of cultural-historical psychology, stated that the circumstances and surroundings affect people's learning behaviors; people's behaviors, mental and spiritual development, and emotional and physiological beings are all influenced by an age-old tradition and sociocultural environment. In their classic and seminal work, Gardner and Lambert (1972) asserted that a positive attitude enhances second language learning, whereas a negative attitude does not serve the purpose. Hence, Sivan (1986) affirmed that people's specific objectives, interests in teaching and learning, and values come from the sociocultural environment.

There is a plethora of research tackling the issue of sociocultural barriers, specifically on the teaching and learning English as a second or foreign language. Such studies have focused on traditional and sociocultural milieus, which turn the students into demotivated learners. For example, Pazyura (2016) analyzes the influence of sociocultural factors on students' motivation to learn English in different countries. This research reveals the main problems in oral English teaching practice and illustrates the relationship between oral English teaching and cross-cultural communication competence. Liton (2016) strove to single out the barriers and obstacles in terms of academic, course curriculum system, and sociocultural issues that impact students' learning English at Jazan University, Saudi Arabia. The research discloses that most intervening voices reflect students' negative stance towards learning English due to cross-cultural factors, lack of motivation, and EFL teaching method and curriculum strategic defects.

In the context of Saudi Arabia, Ahmad (2015) tended to ascertain several traditional and sociocultural barriers to English language learning, namely, the lax approach to teaching English in Saudi schools, the relaxed attitude of Saudi students toward learning, the inadequacy of competitive and learning environments both at home and in the classroom, and the hiring of some unskilled schoolteachers were investigated as some of the significant obstacles to learning English in this country.

In the Indonesian context, a study on the sociocultural challenges of English teaching in remote areas was only conducted by Poedjiastutie et al. (2021) in Pemana Island, East Nusa Tenggara. According to the study, the sociocultural difficulties of teaching English in the rural setting include the society's economic position, local attitudes about the English subject, and the curriculum's mismatch with the community's needs. Although the earlier studies have provided some insight into the subject, more research on the shortcomings and inadequacies of these studies is still required. By addressing these gaps and limitations, this research seeks to expand on the findings of earlier studies and ultimately contribute to a more thorough understanding of the subject at hand.

2.2 Psychological Barriers in Second/Foreign Language Learning

The term 'psychological barrier' in pedagogy refers to anything that interferes with, limits, or ultimately lessens the efficacy of instruction, education, and human growth (Hoy, 2016). Domyreva (2019) claimed that students' psychological problems affect how well they perform in their learning activities and prevent them from meeting their cognitive and other demands, which creates psychological hurdles in the educational process. Among the psychological barriers to a second or foreign language, negative attitudes and demotivation are of which has attracted the attention of researchers recently (e.g., Boonchuayrod & Getkham, 2019; Getie, 2020; Minalla, 2022; Oroujlou & Vahedi, 2011)

2.2.1 Negative attitude

According to Bohner and Wanke (2002), attitude is the propensity of a person to react favorably or unfavorably to something (a concept, an item, a person, a circumstance). Getie (2020) stated that negative and positive attitudes significantly influence the success of language learning; students with a good attitude toward learning are eager to learn and, as a result, will be motivated to complete their studies. It means that a positive outlook on language acquisition is a great way to start. However, negative attitude prevents students from succeeding in their academic endeavors since those with negative learning attitudes could experience anxiety, easily get bored, and find it difficult to appreciate their learning (Oroujlou & Vahedi, 2011).

One psychological variable originating from the sociocultural domain that might result in a negative attitude toward learning a second or foreign language is ethnocentrism (Samia, 2015; Shakeebaee et al., 2017). American sociologist William G. Sumner used ethnocentrism for the first time in his book, 'Folkways'. According to Sumner (2016), ethnocentrism is a way of thinking in which one sees one's group as the center of the universe and holds it up as the standard to measure and evaluate all other groups. Ethnocentrism frequently results in pride, vanity, and the idea that one's group is superior, or more correct or normal than all others—particularly about the traits that distinguish each ethnicity's cultural identity, such as language, behavior, customs, and religion (McCornack & Ortiz, 2017). Ethnocentrism is considered to be manifested in various social interactions, one of which is affecting the learning of a second/foreign language (Shakeebaee et al., 2017).

Researchers have developed suggestions for dealing with the ethnocentric issue in second or foreign language instruction. For example, to reduce ethnocentrism, Cadd (2008) highlighted the cultural similarities and differences between native and other cultures. Amari (2015) stated that enhancing students' intercultural competency can serve as a substitute for reducing ethnocentrism. Other recommendations to address ethnocentrism include promoting intellectual understanding of knowledge of a second or foreign language and culture (Putnam, 2011) and altering second or foreign language teaching techniques by stressing cultural education (Abid, 2017).

2.2.2 Demotivation

Demotivation is the opposite of motivation; it is thought to have a detrimental impact on learning and lower motivation levels. Demotivation is the term for a drop in motivation level brought on by outside forces that sap students' motivation (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). It implies that any factors are considered demotivators if they lower learners' motivation. Dörnyei (2001) affirmed that motivation is the main determinant factor in learning a foreign language and categorized the following main demotivating factors in second or foreign language learning, namely: the teacher, inadequate school facilities, reduced self-confidence, negative attitude, compulsory nature of second or foreign language study, interference of another foreign language being studied, negative attitude towards second or foreign language community, attitudes of group members, and course book.

Little or no contact with native English speakers can be one of the demotivators in second or foreign language learning. Ho (2002) observed that in many EFL situations in Asia, it might be difficult to motivate students, particularly in rural locations where students may struggle to perceive the value of studying English since they have limited contact with native English speakers. The same issue with motivating rural students who feel they will never come into contact with English speakers occurred in Mexico (Izquierdo et al., 2021) and Columbia (Holguín & Morales, 2016). A similar problem is common in Indonesia, where many residential areas are inaccessible and rarely visited by foreigners due to a lack of access roads connecting them to other locations.

Murray et al. (2023) identified skepticism toward new ideas as an obstacle and demotivation factor to English learning in countryside China. The skeptical point of view in this concern can be designated as a tendency to diminish the importance of English. According to Coliva and Pritchard (2021), skepticism is an all-encompassing attitude of doubt or questioning toward one or more apparent examples of knowledge that are asserted to be nothing more than dogma or belief. Skepticism occurs because of the limitations of the mind (Greco, 2011; Popkin, 2003). du Plessis and Mestry (2019) affirmed that probably the tendency to undervalue the worth of English because the learners are skeptical that English will not enhance the quality of their lives, and they find that learning is not sustained at home, which creates them demotivated to study English.

The relevance between learning English and the learners' daily lives becomes one of the causal factors of their demotivation to learn English. This is closely related to the affective filter hypotheses proposed by Krashen (2003). The affective filter is a barrier to second-language learning or acquisition brought on by unfavorable emotional (affective) reactions to one's environment. According to the affective filter hypothesis, feelings like self-doubt, worry, and boredom might hinder learning a second language. These negative emotions, i.e., demotivation, prevent efficient language input processing. In contrast, it is evident that motivation is one of the affective variables that can influence language learning; it appears as a predictor of performance in a foreign language, as stated in a remarkable number of articles, for example, Yadav and BaniAta (2012), Afrough et al. (2014), Alshenqeeti (2018), Iftanti et al. (2023).

3. METHODS

3.1 Research Design

This study was qualitative and employed an ethnographic study design. Since this research reports the researcher's fieldwork experiences, it refers to a confessional ethnography (Denzin, 2013; LeCompte et al., 1993; Maanen, 2011). It consists of extended participant observation periods and ethnographic in-depth interviews, in which the researcher investigates and interprets the sociocultural values reflected by the participants' behaviors and attitudes alleged to be the source of demotivation toward English learning. To better comprehend what the participants' behaviors and activities meant to them, the researcher took on the role of an active participant-observer and thoroughly immersed himself in the research environment. Through this immersion, the researcher gains a glimpse into the study subjects' daily activities at school and in their surroundings.

3.2 Participants

This research was conducted in a junior secondary school in the village of Miendogunu during the 2021/2022 academic year. A total of 21 students were enrolled at this school, consisting of 14 male students and seven female students, with ages ranging from 14 to 19. This school is overseen by a total of five teachers, with one of them also serving as the principal. All 21 students comprised the research participants, including nine parents (two women and seven men, ranging in age from 40 to 65 years), an English teacher (a 36-year-old man), and the principal of the school (a 40-year-old man). Thus, a total of 32 individuals participated in this study.

3.3 Data Collection

Observation and interviews were employed to collect data since this research is in a paradigm of psychology and sociology, as scientific disciplines have in common that it does not separate people's behavior from the situation in which it is exposed (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). The investigation lasted for six months (from June to December 2021); this gives the researcher long-term access to this culture-sharing group and enough time to build a detailed record of the participants' behavior and beliefs. The interviews were conducted face-to-face. During the interview process, the researcher recorded each conversation with the participants. Field notes were used to recall the details of the observation

The type of interviews utilized in this study was unstructured interviews, also known as non-directive interviews (Creswell & Creswell, 2022). This means that the researcher did not employ interview rules that had been carefully and methodically set up to get information from participants. This approach was adopted to go more into the topic being studied. The interviewer's inquiries for the students were to find out what they think of English, its advantages, and what they believed in English teaching and learning. Parents were asked about the worth of their children learning English and any kind of support they may have provided for their children's English language learning. The English teacher was asked to share his experience while serving at this school, particularly concerning the students' attitudes, engagement, and achievement in English lessons, as well as the EFL teaching method he applies during classroom practices and students' responses to the assignments. The school principal was requested to talk about his experiences working there, mainly how he saw the community's interest and attitude in education, as well as the attitudes and involvement of the students in the teaching and learning process. The questions posed to the participants evolved in line with the flow of their responses.

The interview with students was conducted in the school area during the break, while the interview with parents, the English teacher, and the school principal was conducted by visiting them from house to house. The interview procedure could run between 30 and 60 minutes, depending on the situation. If the questions posed to the participants at that time were not answered, the interview was continued in the following meeting. The interview took place casually in a relaxed environment, much like a normal conversation. To build an atmosphere of intimacy with the participants, the interviews with students and parents were conducted using the Pancana language (the local language of the villagers).

3.4 Data Analysis

The interview data was manually transcribed and verbatim transcribed. It records every word from an audio file in the text precisely as it was originally uttered, including word, pause, shutter, and filler words. This is preferable. The data were analyzed using domain analysis to identify components or elements of cultural meaning (Spradley, 2016). The steps of analysis cover: (1) taxonomic analysis, which involves a search for the way cultural domains are organized, (2) componential analysis, which involves a search for the attributes of terms in each domain, (3) theme analysis, which searches for the relationship among domains and how they are linked to the cultural scene as a whole.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The present research reveals three sociocultural values that trigger students' demotivation in studying English. The identified themes were ethnocentric stereotypes, skeptical views, and a slow lifestyle. When presenting the findings, codes were used to identify the respondents: S-1 to S-21 stood for Students 1 through 21, P-1 to P-9 for Parents 1 through 9; and ET and SP for English Teacher and School Principal, respectively.

4.1 Ethnocentrism

As expressed in the interview, the students were not interested in learning English because it is the language of foreign countries, and they believe that everything from a foreign culture is harmful and inappropriate for them. They were also discouraged from learning English as they were certain that their mother tongue was superior to English. This way of thinking can be described as ethnocentrism. According to numerous works (Samia, 2015; Shakeebaee et al., 2017), ethnocentrism is one of the psychological factors emerging from the sociocultural domain that may lead to a negative attitude toward learning a second or foreign language.

The following excerpt samples reflect ethnocentrism, which hinders students' motivation to learn English.

(1) We have our language, which emm I think is better than other languages and I'm proud of my mother tongue. As an outsider's language, English is not appropriate for us to learn. If I have to learn the language in school, it is just because it has become one of the subjects we have to learn. (S-3)

(2) I believe that our mother tongue, I mean [pause] is much more I mean more vital than the language of foreigners including English. It is not appropriate for the people of this village to learn the language. So, I am uhh…not interested in learning English. (S-17)

(3) Any foreign cultures [pause] eem must be evil for us to bring into our daily life habits, and English is one of them. I am not interested in learning English because it is the language of foreigners. (S-14)

The three excerpts contain two points: the student's mother tongue is more vital and better than any other language, and foreign culture is evil to bring into their daily life. The students' points of view toward the English language reflect a strong sense of loyalty to their mother tongue. According to Riley (1980), a strong commitment to one's native language could be connected with ethnocentrism. The students' point of view toward English aligns with their parents' ideas, as expressed in the following excerpts.

(4) Anything related to our culture mm…more vital than the culture of outsiders. As the language of foreigners, English is not suitable for our children to learn because imitating the culture of foreigners is mm… not a wise behavior. (P-7)

(5) As part of school subjects, we let our children learn English or any other foreign languages [pause] but we insist they not easily be attracted to foreign languages. They might forget their own language. (P-3)

As expressed in the excerpts, it is hard for them to accept English because it is the language of foreigners. This conservative way of thinking is contrary to most non-native English speakers who consider the ability to speak English a symbol of highbrow, which makes them feel somewhat elevated, to some degree (Rahaman et al., 2019). Today, English is increasingly acknowledged as a crucial language for international communication that provides access to the necessary information and tools to advance the nation's technical, scientific, and economic development (Riazi, 2005). Nevertheless, as depicted in the excerpts, the students are not instrumentally motivated to learn English as they believe they will not benefit from it. They participate in English education because it is required in the school curriculum. It is not easy to motivate students to study English when they do not perceive an immediate need. Drawing on the theory of 'possible L2 selves', Yashima (2009) made the case that people who are aware of how they relate to the world are more likely to be motivated to study and communicate in English because they can probably vividly picture their English-using selves.

Ethnocentrism would impede students from taking advantage of English's status as an international language. On the other hand, the original language and culture will be retained and undisturbed by outside cultural influences. Khati (2013) believed that the widespread usage of English in Nepal has endangered the indigenous tongue. Likewise, Latin and Greek disappeared from the school and university curricula after English was taught in schools (Crystal, 2003). Rahaman et al. (2019) made a similar point in the same case, claiming that British policy has affected Bangladeshi culture, which has been vital in transforming Bangladesh into a modern nation by emulating Western culture.

4.2 The Skeptical View

The participants believe that English is not useful in their lives. The tendency to devalue the worth of English can be described as the syndrome of skeptical view (Coliva & Pritchard, 2021). The inclination to look down on the value of English happens, as they believe that many people are successful in their work without the capability to speak English, as expressed in the following interview excerpts.

(6) Everyone in this village emm successful in their work, and they do not speak English. So, I think English is not a prerequisite to being successful in life. I think there are so many successful people without English speaking proficiency. (S-6)

The skeptical point of view also occurs because they think that speaking only in their local language (monolingual) is enough; they fail to see learning English as being crucial. This kind of extreme skepticism occurs because of the limitations of the mind (Greco, 2011; Popkin, 2003). This circumstance is expressed in the following excerpts.

(7) For daily communication, we have our language. I have never seen people speak English in this area not either in other villages. So, mm… [pause] I think learning English is pointless as I will never use the language in communication. (S-9)

(8) I think we should learn something important and useful. I do not emm [pause] understand the purpose of learning English. So, I am not interested emm to learning English. It is not important for my life. (S-7)

Parents' remarks, as shown in (9), are consistent with what their children are saying. They believe that learning English is not necessary for the residents of this hinterland village since it will be useless. Even if their children are fluent in English, they will never use it for everyday conversations.

(9) English may be umm-yeah worthy to learn, but in our lives in this village umm it is almost of no use. English is the language of outsiders and the speakers of the language will never come here to visit us and we also umm-umm will never go abroad. I think learning English is not a necessity in our lives. (P-6)

They tend to deny the importance of English in worldwide relations and modern civilization based on their mere beliefs. This happened, perhaps, because they had been living in an isolated hinterland area with rare contact with the outside world. This supports du Plessis and Mestry's (2019) and Murray et al. (2023) findings that hurdles to English acquisition include skepticism against innovative notions and the notion that learning English will not improve one's quality of life.

Excerpt (9) is the evidence that in learning English, there is no support that the students get from home. Parents believe that studying English will not improve their children's lives. This strengthens the claims made by Holguín and Morales (2016) that students are not receiving adequate parental support to learn English since so many parents do not think it is worthwhile to educate their children on anything other than the fundamentals of reading, writing, and math.

The results of the interview with an English teacher support the opinions of students and parents as shown in the interview segment that follows.

(10) What can I say is the students have no- umm enthusiasm for learning English. When they are given an assignment-umm only a small number of them will complete it umm on time, most of them are late for various reasons, for example, umm, forgetting, being sick, umm helping their parents in the fields, and so on. Whatever teaching method I apply umm only a small part of them would actively participate, and the others just stay silent, and-umm waiting for the lesson to be over. They show a negative attitude toward learning English. (ET)

The results of the observations performed during the teaching and learning process corroborate what the English instructor has disclosed. The students all remain silent and show confusion when the teacher asks them about the topic they just studied. This environment contrasts starkly with other classrooms where these students participate in active behavior (such as social sciences and the arts).

4.3 Slow-Living Lifestyle

The land of the Miendogunu village is fertile and has a friendly climate. It offers the inhabitants a sufficient food supply to suit their daily needs. Gardening yields an abundance of crops, while the nearby forests yield various that can be gathered at any time, such as leaves, roots, fruits, honey, tree bark, shoots, and many others.

In short, the surrounding nature pampers the residents of this village as it provides their necessities of life that can be gained without difficulty and without waiting for a long time. The ease with which they can fulfill their life's needs has triggered a lack of respect for time and a relaxed lifestyle. Lubis (2012), in his work *Manusia Indonesia* (Indonesian People), put forward some of the vices of Indonesians; he believed that in particular geographical contexts, cultural scope, and ethnic groups of Indonesians, people are found to act slowly and like to be lazy. These are signs of a slow-living lifestyle, a way of life that encourages a slower attitude and a relaxed or leisurely pace in daily life, as described by Parkins and Geoffrey (2006) and Tam (2008).

Ahmad (2015) is certain that one of the reasons why students do poorly in English lessons may be that the participant interview results, described in the following extracts, provide evidence of a slow-living lifestyle.

(11) The subjects I like best are those umm that make me not work- to work in a rush, and the subjects that still allow me emm to relax. I don't like to work in a rush because it makes me stressed. (S-7)

Other students have voiced the same viewpoint, as shown in the following excerpts.

(12) The subjects I like best are those that can make me relax and emm relax, for example, Sports and Art. I don't like English because I have to memorize the meaning of confusing words and do so strange grammar assignments. I hate the subject emm which makes me emm have no time to relax. (S-18)

(13) Uh I don't like learning English and other subjects that make me emm to work very hard and to work in a rush. The problem is that emm our teachers do not let us do things emm slowly. We have to be fast emm and in a hurry and that is what I hate. It makes me mad. (S-3)

The students' comments resonate with the school principal's comment as expressed in the following excerpt.

(14) Nature pampers them because emm it is easy for the villagers to get what they need without straining and emm without waiting for a long, long time. They can take foodstuff easily from the nature around them. Honey, leaves, fruits, and grain are easy to get. (SP)

The ease with which the natural world satisfies their daily needs has consequences for a lifestyle that promotes an activity at a leisurely or relaxed pace, a slower approach to parts of daily life. It validates the claims made by Ahmad (2015) in the context of Saudi Arabia, who identified a relaxing personality as a sociocultural hindrance to learning English.

The results of interviews with students show the same way of thinking and perspective on time as illustrated in the following quotations.

(15) The problem is our teachers set a deadline to finish our assignment. I like to work not in a rush to do my school assignments because unfinished assignments will be completed in the next few days. (S-21)

(16) The problem is that we have to be punctual in finishing our assignments. There is not enough time for us. (S-14)

These statements are strengthened by the English teacher's comment, as expressed in the subsequent excerpt.

(17) The students show mm disobedience behavior, for example, lateness to class, mm postponing or rejecting doing finishing their assignment. I mean mm not only for English class but for most of the class. (T)

The English teacher's opinion resonates with the school principal's comments as articulated in the following excerpt.

(18) In general, the students still lack respect for time. I mean it is hard for us to enforce time discipline here. If we emm apply discipline and a system of punishment, eventually many students will leave this school. We here have to work hard at persuading students to be serious in I mean going to school. Just imagine, in the last 6 six months there were at least emm seven students who dropped out of this school because they had no desire anymore to go to school. We have made various efforts to persuade them to return to school, but all have been in vain. (SP)

The results of observation strengthen the results of interviews that demonstrate thought patterns and perspectives on time. Young and old inhabitants are frequently observed chatting while smoking, drinking coffee, playing games, or playing their traditional musical instruments in the house halls after everyone from the neighboring village has left for work in the morning. They returned in the afternoon and went on when residents in other villages were still working. This phenomenon proves that the ways people of different cultural backgrounds make use of time are dissimilar. For example, for the average American, time is very important; they continually set deadlines based on time. Time is something that can be gained, spent, kept, filled, killed, saved, used, wasted, lost, and planned (Gebhard, 2017).

Meanwhile, Nydell (2018) states that the Arabs' perspective on time is moving from the past to the present, and they move with it. Social gatherings and appointments do not usually start or end simultaneously. In many cases, arriving late for an appointment is permissible if a time has been specified. The results of the observations and interviews indicate that the Miendogunu people have a unique perspective on and use of time. Due to their slow-living philosophy, they have developed the habit of idling, doing things slowly, and moving slowly.

5. CONCLUSION

The current study aims to investigate the sociocultural factors that have contributed to students' demotivation to study English. The study discovered three interconnected themes: the ethnocentric stereotype (the propensity to devalue English simply because it is an aspect of a foreign culture), the skeptical view (doubt about the importance of English), and the slow living lifestyle (a way of life that promotes taking things more slowly in daily life). The mindset that English is not useful in their lives is shaped because they have lived in an isolated hinterland village without access to electricity, cellular networks, and the internet, which causes them to be left behind regarding information and technology. Perhaps a complementary strategy is needed to bring about change in students' mindsets; they need to be made aware that English, nowadays, has become an added and preferable qualification for employability and vital for economic opportunities at the national and international levels. To some extent, the villagers need to be given awareness that maintaining local culture is important, but closing themselves off from outside culture is an unwise decision.

The local government and policymakers need to take appropriate steps to overcome the lack of facilities in this remote area so that the community knows how to benefit from technological development. The existence of the internet in this hinterland area will give people access to information and technology and will become a means of learning for schoolchildren. Internet exposure to Western or foreign cultures may help students feel less ethnocentrism while simultaneously stimulating their interest in other cultures and giving them a place to learn about various facets of other civilizations. This could potentially lead to greater knowledge and awareness about the similarities and differences between foreign and local cultures.

Furthermore, the students also need to be made aware that time is the only asset that cannot be changed, purchased, or stored. They need to be accustomed to using time-on-task effectively. For this purpose, teachers can stimulate students by rewarding those who can complete assignments before the predetermined deadline. To improve English learning outcomes, English teachers must conduct action research by applying appropriate teaching strategies to English learning activities to help students bridge the culture gap. The strategies recommended by Kuo and Lai (2006) for teaching a second or foreign language within a cultural framework are beneficial to adopt for this purpose. The strategies that can be adopted include providing culturally relevant materials, applying role play as a sociocultural approach, and viewing students as cultural resources. Then, for future study, it is recommended to investigate how to reduce the impact of ethnocentric, skeptical points of view and slow-living styles in learning English.

Finally, the mindset and perspective of the local community will change over time, making the findings of this research only valid today and not for the future due to the frequent contact of the local community with the outside world as well as the development of information and communication technology that can reach this area. One day, when information and technology have reached this place, a further study could be conducted to explore the influence of information and technology on the perceptions of local and schoolchildren towards English language learning.

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Prominent Linguistic Features of Pedagogical Texts to Provide Consideration for Authentic Text Simplification

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Abstract
Teaching materials are significant items that are unique and specific. Therefore, the selections should be relevant to students' proficiency. This research aimed (1) to disclose lexical density, readability, nominalizations, and modifiers in pedagogical texts as teaching materials, (2) to reveal the linguistic features functional roles on text for pedagogical demand, and (3) to attempt to suggest consideration for simplification on authentic text. This research employed qualitative content analysis. The data sources were 18 pedagogical texts from senior high school textbooks by the Indonesian Ministry of Education. Human instruments and a text analyser for the automatic computation were utilized for the analysis under Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) pilots. This research disclosed the appropriate text lexical density for senior high school students is a fairly difficult construction. Then, nominalizations within the texts are unpreventable and process nominalization is frequently used. The nominalization and the modifiers affect sentence complexities; the nominalizations function to condense information, collocate words, create cohesiveness, interfere with conciseness, and use as trans-categorization while modifiers are to add explicitness to nouns. The simplification considerations are by utilizing lexical density and readability algorithm, de-nominalization, measuring modifiers, and splitting substance of modifiers to increase text accessibility.

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Keywords: Lexical density, modifiers, nominalization, pedagogical texts, simplification.

1. INTRODUCTION

Reading materials are considered unique and specific because they are only fit for typical purposes to certain learners in some contexts (Prastowo, 2011). In this case, selecting the right text for Second/Foreign Language Teaching (S/FLT) has always been substantial. There is a wide range of text sources, one of which can be taken from authentic sources that production is fundamentally for the public, including education (Johansson, 2006; Simonsen, 2019). Novels, newspapers, magazines, articles, handbooks, recipes, and so on are a variety of authentic texts suggested to be adopted and adapted for language teaching (Crossley et al., 2007). Nevertheless, direct adoption and adaptation in Indonesian educational contexts require a critical review due to the students' uneven language abilities (Tomlinson, 2012). Authentic texts represent a real language nuance with deeper and more difficult lexical selection and complex strings of sentences (Sheang, 2020). This is considered difficult for some learners (Crossley et al., 2012). In this case, it is necessary to simplify the authentic texts before using them in class.

Numerous assumptions for simplified text adoptions in EFL class are found from those who refused and accepted the text versions. The first, simplified texts, which are unlike authentic texts, are highlighted as more artificial mostly leaving their original socio-cultural purposes, and presented in shorter sentences (Johansson, 2006; Crossley et al., 2007; Simonsen, 2019). The application of these may suffer learners as a result of unclear information left by the simplification process. The texts are limited contextually because of the linguistic feature removal. It denies learners the opportunity to interact with and acquire the natural forms of the target language (Crossley et al., 2007). In this case, the authentic texts are more adequate for EFL teaching than the simplified ones.

Contrary to popular belief, text simplification in education is emphasized to create unambiguous language without changing the represented meaning (Crossley et al., 2007). The simplification, or so-called pedagogical texts, has the purpose of adjusting the language based on students' demands without making new knowledge, however improving the accessibility of what has been provided on its origin (Aamotsbakken, 2008). The term *simplified* is not theoretically identical *to shorten* (Brunato et al., 2015; Petersen & Ostendorf, 2007) but rather to make it easier for the target readers to while its actual meaning is retained (Collantes et al., 2015; Sheang, 2020). This text version is indeed a valuable aid because the accuracy can reflect learners' language knowledge. The materials allow them to explore and extend their existing knowledge (Crossley et al., 2007). Concerning EFL learners' comprehension and reading speed, the simplification yielded better literary than those in authentic text versions (Javourey-Drevet et al., 2022; Margarido et al., 2008). Saggion et al. (2011) added that simplifications on texts with higher difficulties are beneficial to low-level learners, people with disabilities, and teachers with customized teaching resources.

In Indonesia, simplified texts have been applied by public textbook publishers and the Indonesian Ministry of Education and Cultures by compiling texts through simplification of their authentic formats. The process is either simplified on levels of words, sentences, or contents from its original sources (Crossley et al., 2007; Javourey-Drevet et al., 2022; Margarido et al., 2008). This process occurs as a result of internal textual qualities such as high-level dictions, natural language complexity, lexical variances, and so on with regard to students' proficiency (Crossley et al., 2007; Javourey-Drevet et al., 2022; Kirana, 2016; Margarido et al., 2008). When comparing both versions, some distinctions have been identified; the first is a shift in sentence structure as a result of the nominalization process, which transforms verbs into nouns. This process enhances abstraction and opens up a space for extra information in a phrase, making it lexically dense and challenging to read because of professional language constructs (Mueller, 2015; Wei & Yu, 2019). Then, the addition of adjectives and nouns to head nouns (modifiers) increases the specificity of a phrase with lexical variations that indeed affect the readability of sentences or text (Hengeveld & Mackenzie, 2015). To reduce lexically dense sentences, these elements are considered applicable to monitor text difficulties and accessibilities.

Some scholars have conducted studies on both text versions, such as objectifying the analysis of linguistic features (syntax, discourse structure, CELEX word frequency, word familiarity, word meaningfulness, number of words, syntactic complexity, hypernymy, LSA givenness, motional preposition, syntax similarity, noun overlap, logical operator, cohesion, and polysemy) (Crossley et al., 2007, 2012; Petersen & Ostendorf, 2007), considering the effect of the simplified texts for EFL's text comprehension (Crossley et al., 2012, 2014; Safari & Montazeri, 2017), discovering readability formula (Greenfield, 2004), procedures and strategies of simplifying authentic texts based on words and sentences (Dmitrieva & Tiedemann, 2021), and justifying text authenticity (Yudono, 2022). However, fewer details have been found about linguistic features on lexical density, readability, nominalization, and modifiers. The absence of investigation of these elements limits us to an intuitive simplification process, which could potentially pose a risk to students' EFL learning. The investigation of these linguistic domains is considered significant as the results assist teachers and material developers in creating adequate reading materials. Still, it theoretically adds to the study of linguistics by demonstrating how to distinguish and evaluate the features lexicogrammatically and functionally in the same registers.

Therefore, this research aimed to cover the features by using SFL as a core tenet with the following research questions:

1. How are the distributions of lexical density, readability, nominalization, and modifiers in pedagogical texts in EFL textbooks for Indonesian senior high students?
2. What functional roles do nominalization and modifiers contribute to pedagogical texts in EFL textbooks?
3. What linguistics features should the teacher consider to simplify authentic text for teaching materials?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Simplified Text for Pedagogical Purposes

Text simplification is a way to prepare pedagogical texts for students by highlighting key linguistic concepts, for instance, the use of pronouns, modals, verbs, and other elements. Text simplification is a procedure that decreases a text's lexical and syntactic complexity while retaining the content's original meaning and information (Collantes et al., 2015). The goal is to generate and modify a large number of new lexical inputs for learners as well as to control for combinations of those inputs or propositional inputs (Crossley et al., 2007). A variety of languages are used to simplify texts for EFL and L2 readers (Crossley et al., 2014). The material can be rewritten in a simpler form or as a condensed version of the actual texts to make it more accessible to a broader audience, such as learners or non-native readers (Collantes et al., 2015; Crossley et al., 2014). These are definitely for the sake of students' educational demands.

Additionally, simplified texts lack the coherence of authentic texts and can be produced by employing readability formulae by changing the words, clauses, lexical density, and subtracting connectives from sentences (Crossley et al., 2014). Methods of simplifying a text are to follow guidelines suggested by readability formulas like Fry Readability Graph by Forgan and Mangrum and the reading ease formula by Flesch (1977, as cited in Crossley et al., 2014). The formulas measure the word frequency, syntactic similarity, and content overlap. But it must be made clear that the readability result is only a prediction of how accessible the text would be, with the actual conclusion only being able to be expressed following a test obliged to students.

Most of the time, simplified texts closely mirror what language learners already know and comprehend and provide them with the opportunity to extend their understanding (Crossley et al., 2014). This makes them effective tools for language teaching. However, it must be stated clearly that overt language simplification may lose the author's inherent goals and intentions. As a result, the researchers who were opposed to using simplified materials in class were less acceptable. They are noted as being more artificial and presenting content in shorter phrases that have been streamlined from their original socio-cultural aims (Crossley et al., 2007; Johansson, 2006; Simonsen, 2019). Then, in order to prevent students from encountering a missing piece in their reading, teachers and material creators must be vigilant when reducing the language.

2.2 The SFL for Text Simplification

Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) is a linguistic approach to linguistics that reflects on language production as the system of social semiotics. The SFL considers the language product as a unit system of what audients interact with and interpret functionally. A 'text' as a product in SFL refers to anything related to language in any medium, which creates sense to someone with the characterization of language functioning in contexts (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). Language is a resource to make meanings (not just a set of rules), and the process of making meaning in contexts (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014; Karakaya, 2017). Two types of language resources (lexical and grammatical) allow the users to understand the most meaningful sentences according to the characteristics of contexts.

Two essential sections in SFL should be acknowledged; those are included in context and lexicogrammar levels. At the contextual level in SFL, there are situational and cultural contexts of particular texts that can be recognized from their genres and registers. The genre is bolded on the context of culture. Martin (2008, as cited in To, 2018) defines that genre as a staged, intentional-oriented, meaningful activity in which speakers or writers are included as members of that culture. The genre itself can be realized through the register which is the context situation where the discourses are produced (To, 2018). Meanwhile, in lexicogrammar, meaning is understood via word organization, word groups, and clauses (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014; To, 2018). A clause is a central unit to process in lexicogrammar with various kinds mapped into an integrated grammatical structure (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). Lexical and grammatical meaning selections determine the ideational meaning, while modality, moods, and evaluative language show interpersonal meaning, and thematic as well as informational structure (lexical density) and text periodicity (readability) are interconnected with the textual meaning.

In addition, SFL proposes that language development begins with simpler realization, prototypical or more congruent forms and shows an update or trend to a more sophisticated, metaphorical, or nominalization (Christie, 2012; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014; Karakaya, 2017). The most appropriate language representation depends on the context or goal of the assignment. Language production is formed by the functions required for the contexts or the registers. For example, if the target learners are children, the textbooks prepared must be more concrete and contain more repetitions. On the other hand, when adults are the target learners, the texts can be produced with more abstract nominalization and various technical terminologies, including modifiers (Karakaya, 2017). It is because they already could progress in various forms of language with certain language levels.

Text simplification is emphasized to create clear language features in text so that can be easily understood by non-native readers (Crossley et al., 2007). Nominalization and modifiers in SFL can be counted as those linguistic features. The existence of nominalizations can create challenges for readers for several reasons, in the process of nominalizing an active actor of a sentence can remove true meaning leading to a loss for readers (Fang, 2005) due to the abstraction in semantic and grammar representation for some readers are difficult (Mueller, 2015). However, nominalization has such textual functions to elaborate with text simplification that is embodied in the following aspects; conciseness, language formality, objectiveness, and cohesion (Wei & Yu, 2019). Additionally, modifiers can lead to unclearness for phrases and even more clauses. Regarding this, simplification treatment by the omission of particular modifiers is then measured through its modifier's effects on semantic and lexicogrammar. Nastase et al. (2018) modifiers can be static or dynamic or removed. Therefore, high usage of nominalization and modifiers allows the writer to pack more information with lexical density and text readability increased (Mueller, 2015).

3. METHOD

This research used qualitative content analysis with small quantifications. According to Mayring (2000), qualitative content analysis is a research technique that attempts to infer the content of texts and interpret them within the context (meaning representation and format). Content analysis, as a base, is a potential research technique to analyse findings, and analysis of the manifest and latent content of the materials (books or films) through classification, tabulation, and evaluation of the core symbols and themes (Krippendorff, 2004; Mayring, 2000). In this research, content analysis was used to examine linguistic features of the texts; lexical density, readability, nominalization, and modifiers.

3.1 Data Sources

The data sources were from three students' EFL textbooks that the Indonesian Ministry of Education, Culture, Research and Technology (*Kementrian Pendidikan, Kebudayaan, Riset dan Teknologi*) uploaded and published in 2017-2018. Three students' textbooks were entitled *Bahasa Inggris* [English] *(SMA/MA/SMK/MAK)* [senior high levels] for grades X, XI, and XII. The data sources were purposively selected based on research objectives under simplified authentic texts following Campbell's (1979) simplifying text considerations (words/phrases, sentences, and contents) on the linguistic features. See the representative section of data checking in Figure 1 (modifiers):

Original version: Niagara Falls is a group of three waterfalls at the southern end of Niagara Gorge, spanning the border, between the province of Ontario in Canada and the state of New York in the United States. The largest of the three is Horseshoe Falls, also known as the Canadian Falls which straddles the international border of the two countries. The smaller American Falls and Bridal Veil Falls lie within the United States. (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Niagara_Falls)
Textbook version: Niagara Falls is the collective name for three waterfalls that cross the international border between the Canadian province of Ontario and the USA state of New York. They form the southern end of Niagara George. From the largest to smallest, the three waterfalls are the Horseshoe Falls lie on the Canadian side, and the American Falls on the American side.

Figure 1. The representative section of data checking.

There are typical points realized from the text section: the first, lexical selection [spanning the broader] changed into [crossing the international border], having a decrease in phrasal level under a reduced clause construct that acts as modifiers. The second, clausal and phrasal modifiers reconstructed in a more readable version by removing a redundance ranking clause [three waterfalls at the southern end of Niagara George, spanning the border, between…] into packaged information form in downranking clause [three waterfalls that across…], maintaining text difficulty levels. Based on Campbell (1979), this section had been simplified on the phrasal and clausal level. With the same identification, overall, 18 texts were selected, those are considered articles, news, novels, folklore, or those practically related to authentic discourse adoption and adaptation for teaching purposes.

3.2 Technique of Data Collection, Phases of Analysis, and Unit of Analysis

The technique of data collection was document analysis (Arikunto, 2010; Mayring, 2000). Non-participant observation, repetitive reading, and note-taking were some of the methods used to collect data from those documents (EFL textbooks). The note-taking in content analysis on linguistic features is significant, particularly for data categorization and analysis (Pribady, 2019). Bogdan and Biken (1982, as cited in Latif, 2015) emphasize that these methods are mainly performed with humans as primary instruments. Therefore, the researchers stood and acted as research planners, data collectors, data analysts, and report makers.

The categorization and analysis were done manually under SFL theory as proposed by Halliday and Matthiessen (2014) with supplementary theories (in Table 1) regarding the lexical density, nominalization, and modifiers (Castello, 2008; Droga & Thomson, 2012; Flesch, 2006; Hengeveld & Mackenzie, 2015; To, 2018; Yue et al., 2018). Furthermore, an automatic computation with https://www.online-utility.org/ was done for readability prediction. See the following phases of data analysis adopted from Mayring (2000) and Bengtsson (2016):

Figure 2. The phases of data analysis.

In SFL perspectives, lexical density, grammatical intricacy, and nominalization as a part of grammatical metaphor are ideal features of the language (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). Nevertheless, both spoken and written language features are different; in that spoken language is characterized by grammatical intricacy while written language is more about lexical density determination. As the objectives of this research were to analyse EFL textbooks, grammatical intricacy was not taken into account. In addition, readability and modifiers in simplified texts were also analysed because both features are essential for text simplification, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Unit analysis under SFL perspectives.

Features	Units	Instruments
Lexical Density (LD)	Formula: $LD = \frac{\Sigma \text{ Lexical Words (LW)}}{\Sigma \text{ Rank Clause (RC)}}$	Manual Analysis

Table 1 continued…

<table>
<tr><td></td><td>Indexing:
<table><tr><td>Index</td><td>Categories</td></tr><tr><td>3.0-4.0</td><td>Low (L)</td></tr><tr><td>4.1-5.0</td><td>Moderate (M)</td></tr><tr><td>5.1-6.0+</td><td>High (H)</td></tr></table></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>Readability</td><td>Readability Proportion by Flesch (2006):
Easy- 6th to 7th grade (70-80%)
Standard- 8th to 9th grade (60-70%)
Fairly Diff.- 10th to 12th grade (50-60%)
Diff.- Collegian (50 to 0%)</td><td>Automatic Computation</td></tr>
<tr><td>Nominalization</td><td><table><tr><td>Semantic</td><td>Grammatical</td><td>Lexicogrammar</td></tr><tr><td>Quality to Entity</td><td>Epithet to thing</td><td>Adj. to noun</td></tr><tr><td>Process to Entity</td><td>Event, Aux. to thing</td><td>Verb to noun</td></tr><tr><td>Entity Expansion</td><td>Head Modifiers</td><td>Zero nominalization</td></tr></table></td><td>Manual Analysis</td></tr>
<tr><td>Modifiers</td><td>Categories of modifiers
Premodifiers
Noun (‘learners’ output’, ‘soul structure’, etc)
Adjectives (‘optimal solution’, ‘negative effect’, etc.)
Postmodifiers
Prepositional (‘in any field’, ‘of people’, ‘access to’, etc.)
Relative clause (‘The resistance that inflames desire’)</td><td>Manual Analysis</td></tr>
</table>

The SFL considers both lexicogrammar (lexical-syntax) and semantics of the language. Consequently, this study deployed both; focusing on structures of nominalization and modifiers that further affect the sentence semantically.

4. RESULTS

4.1 The Distributions of Lexical Density, Readability, Nominalizations and Modifiers

The distributions of linguistic features in the presentations are to give a depiction of how consequential the items are to the language constructions and meaning representations of the texts for simplification. Initially, this is to define a leading factor in the organization of artificial and complex language, moreover assisting in how to maintain the authentic value of the discourses (texts) which might deny students' textual interaction. Table 2 presents the linguistic distributions of the investigated texts:

Table 2. Micro linguistics feature, lexical density, and readability distribution.

Text	LW				Σ LW	Σ W	Clauses		LD		R		Nom	Mod
	N	V	Adj	Adv			RC	EC	In	Ca	Prop (%)	Ca		
X-T1	136	36	31	11	214	413	40	8	5.4	H	54	F. Dif.	4.6	21.4
X-T2	174	37	43	6	260	485	46	4	5.7	H	54	F. Dif.	7.4	23
X-T3	202	47	18	10	277	512	45	1	6.0	H	36	Dif.	3.9	14.1
X-T4	212	67	23	12	314	583	62	2	5.1	H	56	F. Dif.	3.6	6.8
X-T5	149	121	43	10	323	678	95	3	3.4	L	73	E	1.5	11.1
X-T6	104	57	31	9	201	411	47	3	4.3	M	75	E	2.4	12.0
XI-T1	77	23	27	6	133	262	23	1	5.8	H	48	Dif.	6.8	21.8

Table 2 continued…

XI-T2	168	160	67	41	436	1013	145	2	3.1	L	87	E	2.1	8.4
XI-T3	150	102	64	30	346	760	78	4	4.5	M	57	F. Dif.	6.0	9.2
XI-T4	235	145	78	37	495	1158	145	3	3.4	L	76	E.	1.4	6.2
XI-T5	236	147	80	35	498	1011	129	3	3.9	L	80	E.	0.9	7.4
XI-T6	211	60	44	14	329	678	56	4	5.9	H	39	Dif.	6.9	12.1
XII-T1	52	14	10	5	81	163	15	2	5.4	H	56	F. Dif.	4.2	22.2
XII-T2	34	6	10	1	51	98	8		6.4	H	41	Dif.	7.1	21.5
XII-T3	56	28	15	4	103	212	19	3	5.5	H	47	Dif.	9.4	26.2
XII-T4	31	21	14	2	68	139	16		4.3	M	73	E.	4.3	22.0
XII-T5	135	66	36	18	255	572	62		4.3	M	71	E.	2.7	14.9
XII-T6	171	83	33	16	303	587	62	1	4.9	M	65	St.	2.5	9.5
Total	2533	1220	667	267	4687	9735	1093	44	Prop. Nom. = Frequency: Σ W x 100%					
%	54	26	14	6	48	-	96.2	3.8	Prop. Mod. = Frequency: Σ L x 100%					

Table 2 displays the prominent items for lexical density computation and the lexical density itself, along with readability proportion as a benchmark for text appropriateness. Of the entire texts, only five texts (X-T1, X-T2, X-T4, XI-T3, and XII-T1) were considered adequate for senior high school students by both the adopted theories of lexical density and readability. Then, nouns become the most common occurrence type for the lexical item feature because they are graded as open-class words that can be transformed or modified for legitimate purposes (e.g., challenging students for text density). Unfortunately, the nominalization and modifier proportions are both reserved due to their inability to be compared with the original texts. However, it was confidently discovered that higher occurrences have a significant influence on the text's compactness about the total number of lexical. Therefore, both nominalizations and modifiers are crucial from a linguistic perspective for text simplification.

4.2 The Functional Roles of Nominalization and Modifiers on Texts

4.2.1 Functional roles of nominalizations

a. Condensing information by objectification and abstraction

The occurrences of nominalization show this process can condense information, whereby the sentence can be reduced in length without changing its meaning drastically or its grammatical accuracy. According to SFL, 'process' (a verb) is a core system of clauses. In contrast, nominalizing a verb condenses the information expressed by a whole clause (from sentence to phrasal) and leads to abstraction and objectification. See the following Datum XI-T1S7:

(1) Incongruent form: [The construction of the Jakarta metropolitan area's new 21-kilometer-long-Antasari–Depok–Bogor-toll-road kicked off on Thursday]
Congruent form: [Governments construct the Jakarta Metropolitan area's new 21-kilometers-long-Antasari-Depok-Bogor-toll-road on Thursday]

The process shows an elimination of certain elements (such as the grammarian's construct S+V) by the occurrence of nominalizations, which further indeed invites particular elements accordingly as replacements. The clause in congruent form (with Subject) is reduced to phrase form after transformation to an entity. See the illustration in Figure 3.

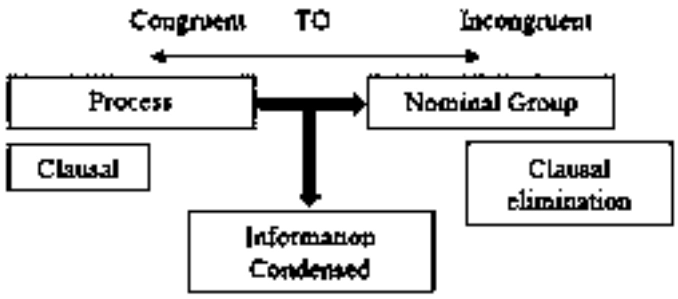

Figure 3. (De) Nominalization process.

The illustration of Datum XI-T1S7 shows that the incongruent type of nominalization promotes action over agency. The lack of context (subject in the grammarian's construct) may lead readers to wonder who carried out the action [construction]. It narrows the reader's understanding of what or who is genuinely involved in the transaction. The congruent form [construct], on the other hand, clearly shows agency involvement to the verb with a full clausal/sentence structure. In this sense, the incongruent form might be perplexing, but it can also be apt when the primary objective of the sentence is precisely about the action or process, which is known as objectification by abstract lexical selection.

b. Creating phrasal collocations

It is found that some of these word transformations (from verb or adjective to noun) create particular collocation patterns, such as those with certain prepositions (of, with, for, and so forth). The reason is that its roles have become equal to all original nouns in terms of parts of speech that identify any class of people, places, names of activities, and so on. This common collocation is ideal for an additional detail with post-modification.

Table 3. Collocation with a preposition.

Post modifier with preposition in nominalization	Collocative preposition	Frequency	Examples
	from	5	Tourist from…
	to	16	Access to, …
	for	8	Decision for…
	at	4	Trip at, looking at…
	of	22	Development of, liability of…
	in	8	Living in…
	with	5	Communication with, connection with…
	on	6	Stamp on…

Table 3 depicts that nominalization can be post-modified by prepositions to build collocational phrases that contain more lexical items and variations. This type of result is a habitual juxtaposition of nominalization using a static-morphological process. The words, proven for the static construction, have a similar frequency of word collocations.

c. Creating cohesiveness

The other functional role of nominalization is as a cohesive device. It is used to link relevant information in a sentence, or between or among sentences in a text. See the datum XI-T3S19 in (2):

(2) Nominalization: [It is estimated that hundreds of children miss school every day due to the <u>fear</u> of being mistreated by other students] [and in some extreme cases they choose to home school,] [or in severe circumstances they stop studying altogether.] [Children should not be living in constant <u>fear</u>.] [They shouldn't be <u>afraid</u>.]

The instance given shows that nominalization is used as cohesion, that is, to connect sentences grammatically and semantically. The zero-nominalization the 'fear' indicates a connection to the second zero-nominalization 'fear' and also the adjective 'afraid'. The occurrence of nominalization as a cohesive device indicates that the paragraph is still discussing the same ideas, and thus it will assist readers in comprehending the text more easily with reference. The topic is expanded in more detail, but it is unified as a whole by the term cohesive design.

d. Interfering sentence directness

Besides the fact that nominalization can function to create denser sentences, it can also interfere with the writing directness by making the sentence unnecessarily redundant. Nominalization, the process of changing an adjective or verb into a noun, may require the use of prepositions and articles or even extra verbs compulsory. It is depicted in datum XII-T1S3 in (3).

(3) Incongruent: [Captions can <u>consist</u> of a few words of <u>description</u> or several sentences.]
Congruent: [Captions are <u>described</u> in a few words or several sentences.]

The incongruent form (nominalization) can make a sentence longer and wordier because of more words incorporated. In nominalization (incongruent) form in (3), we can see verb consists is required to replace the entitizing verb description, and it is compulsory to make the sentence acceptable and grammatically correct.

e. Trans-categorizations as death metaphor

What is more, trans-categorization is the other functional role of nominalization in pedagogical texts. It means particular ideas can only be expressed as nominalization. Therefore, the de-nominalization to its congruent form will affect the whole semantics/meaning of the sentences. See the following datum X-T4S4 in (4).

(4) Incongruent: [She was awarded the title of Indonesian National Hero on 2 May 1964 by the Indonesian <u>government</u>.]

There is no other way to express 'government' for that sentence, and if the writer forces to unpackage this nominalization with 'govern', its congruent form, it will also change the natural nuance of a sentence entirely. The trans-categorization stands on either subject or object in a sentence or text, as a topic discussion, and is unchangeable to verbal sentences. It is different from objectification/im-personalization as forementioned in the earlier function. The difference is the objectification transformation still allows to return of its original agent to the sentence or replaces it back to its grammarian language system (subject+verb), while the trans-categorization does not.

4.2.2 Functional roles of modifiers

a. Phrasal simplification

If the resulting semantic implications are given by extending context in a sentence, pre-modifiers can be independently used in that context. This is because the pre-modifier's function is to give supplementary words more simply. The pedagogical text writers or material developers tend to shorten the length of the noun phrase to which they add pre-modifiers, they enrich its attribute. See the following datum XII-T4S5 in (5) and the reconstruction:

(5) Pre-Modifiers: [Second, switch to the louse detection comb.]
Reconstruction: [Second, switch to the comb which used to detect the louse.]

The reduction implies the writer can deliver information using limited coding, and spaces, and creating compact packaged information. The modifiers which have ideally written with post-modifiers will be turned out simpler while it is in the form of pre-modification. These findings show the pre-modifier and post-modifier can be interchangeable in attributing nouns.

b. Phrasal explication

Contrastively to premodifiers, the postmodifiers' roles are to present additional information in longer and more explicit ways. The explicitness, using the grammatical items that were lost in pre-modifiers, appears in post-modifiers. Information is stated clearly with the related verb, preposition, and relative pronoun. It inserts specific descriptions that lead to a specific extent once or several times in sentences. See the datum realization XI-T2S42 in (6).

(6) Realization: [There were great black waves;] [great black waves were swelling up like mountain;] [mountain has crown] [crown made up from white foam] [crown is on their head].

We can see throughout the realization that with the help of post-modifiers, we can arrange more concepts in fewer clauses, giving some extent to nominal or noun phrases. Nonetheless, as lexical and content word variation leads to a denser sentence or package, this typical sentence is becoming more difficult for some readers in terms of accessibility and readability. Readers must be more observant to understand what is linked to what is in a sentence. Contrastingly, while the post-modifiers are fragmented into several clauses, they become clearer with more clauses; however, they can become artificial or unnatural in daily language grammar.

c. Ambiguity reduction

The other role of post-modifiers is to avoid ambiguity from intended information. See the datum XI-T3S23 in (7) with its genitive construction:

(7) Post Modifier: [Orangutans, [which literally means the man of the forest,] are the largest arboreal animal on the planet.]
Genitive: […Forest's man.]

The phrase with post modifiers above is easier to understand as 'what is it' than 'whom is it'. Writers have avoided using phrases that draw impreciseness, instead, they use the ones with post-modifiers to create more understandable phrases and the post-modifier construction seems to be easier to reduce that ambiguity existence.

4.3 Suggestive Considerations for Text Simplifications

4.3.1 Lexical density and readability algorithm as the set off for simplification

Before assigning a reading material to a class, it is important to calculate the lexical density and readability proportion. Although students are the primary factor to measure, this is certainly something to consider when determining how accessible and acceptable the text is for them. Teachers can reduce the likelihood of students failing during activities by using lexical and readability prediction (see Table 4).

Table 4. Lexical density and readability proportion.

Texts	Lexical Density (LD)	Categories	Readability (%)	Categories
X-T1	5.4	High	54	Fairly Diff.
X-T2	5.7	High	54	Fairly Diff.
X-T3	6.0	High	36	Diff.
X-T4	5.1	High	56	Fairly Diff.
X-T5	3.4	Low	73	Easy
X-T6	4.3	Low	75	Easy
XI-T1	5.8	High	48	Diff.
XI-T2	3.1	Low	87	Easy
XI-T3	4.5	Moderate	61	Standard
XI-T4	3.4	Low	76	Easy
XI-T5	3.9	Low	80	Easy
XI-T6	5.9	High	39	Diff.
XII-T1	5.4	High	56	Fairly Diff.
XII-T2	6.4	High	41	Diff.
XII-T3	5.5	High	54	Fairly Diff.
XII-T4	4.3	Moderate	73	Easy
XII-T5	4.3	Moderate	71	Easy
XII-T6	4.9	Moderate	65	Standard

Based on the findings, some texts are predicted to be quite manageable for readers due to artificial language; however, some other texts are complex to comprehend. The LD index that could be used as the underlying portion for senior high students is between 5.0 and 5.7 LD, or high lexical density. This index is quintessential to text readability prediction with Flesch's reading ease theory, providing students with a fairly difficult text. This LD index is equal to 50 to 60% readability and is expected to be adequate for a senior high level. It is important to remember that the language for senior high students must not be overtly simplified by artificially creating it, but the sentences for text must resemble natural language nuance, regardless of when or where those languages were produced.

4.3.2 Nominalization substitution to limit overuse and compactness of the transformation

Nominalization can make for complex writing due to expansion that occurs because of nominalizing words. It provides room for obligatory words to replace missing verbs or even supplemental content words that can be pre-modified by other words (adjective or noun) or post-modified by its fixed collocation (preposition), appositive, and/or other clauses. Using the verb hidden within nominalization can force authors and writers to write in more clear ways with more passages. This is probably difficult for non-native readers if they are not in the area of expertise due to unfamiliarity. Therefore, transitioning from nominalization to its congruent form can make sentences clearer, more concise, and specific, but also more interpersonal. See the data XI-T4S29 in (8).

(8) Incongruent form: [<u>Education</u>, by <u>definition</u>, means <u>guiding</u> student lives in a strong foundation <u>of good character</u>,] [so that they would be civilized humans of <u>highest</u> moral fibre, thus laying the foundation <u>of a great nation</u> without <u>distinction</u> <u>of religion, ethnicity, customs, economic and social status</u>.]

Congruent form: [Education is defined to guide students to live in a strong foundation of a good character,] [so they would be civilized humans of high moral fibre]. [They will lay on the foundation of a great nation and] [will not distinct of any religion, ethnicity, customs, economic and social status.]

The difficulty and accessibility of the two constructions above can be attested from the lexical density index and readability proportion. The sentence has a high lexical density of 13.0 LD (26 lexical words divided by two rank clauses). This index is out of reach of students' proficiency as an approximation (5.0–5.7). However, by rearranging it back to its congruent form, the sentence's lexical density has significantly decreased, dropping to only 6.25 LD (25 lexical words divided by 4 rank clauses). Furthermore, it increases the readability prediction of the sentence. See the automatic readability in Table 5.

Table 5. Nominalization readability.

Number of characters (without spaces)	234.00
Number of words	43.00
Number of sentences	2.00
Lexical Density	**60.47**
Average number of characters per word	5.44
Average number of syllables per word	1.88
Average number of words per sentence	21.50
Flesch Reading Ease	**25.65**

Table 6. De-nominalization readability.

Number of characters (without spaces)	227.00
Number of words	48.00

Table 6 continued…

Number of sentences	3.00
Lexical Density	**52.08**
Average number of characters per word	4.73
Average number of syllables per word	1.73
Average number of words per sentence	16.00
Flesch Reading Ease	**44.31**

It demonstrates that de-nominalizing the incongruent form to its congruent form dramatically increases the proportion of the sentence, from 26% readability on the incongruent form to 44% readability prediction. With such treatment of nominalization, it is beneficial for simplification purposes. Because of the proportion, the congruent form remains slightly challenging for them, implying that the sentence is not artificial but more readable and accessible with clauses.

4.3.3 Noticing critical appraisal of modifiers to include or discard

All types of modifiers manifested to lexicogrammar and semantic with static meaning. Therefore, the modifier's recognition and existence in authentic sentences are crucial for text simplification. It is because some pre-modifiers are restrictive and some others are not restrictive because too much content/meaning will be lost of its discarding. In addition, it is recommended to use a simple pattern of modifiers; pre-modifiers (pre-adj.+N or pre-N+N), or post-modifiers (N+preposition/single clause) in pedagogical sentences. The reason for this is that there will be more lexical diversity and information the more modifiers are added to the head noun. Because of the heavy substance of the modified noun, this will affect text readability and accessibility and may confuse readers. See the datum XII-T2S1 in (9).

(9) Modifiers: [The construction of the Jakarta metropolitan area's new 21-kilometer-long Antasari–Depok–Bogor-toll-road kicked off on Thursday] [as the government boosted efforts to support the capital city's expansion.]

We can see from the preceding representative example that an overtly post-modified head noun can make a nominal phrase longer and contain more messages. It is also definitely complete to specify which noun is about; however, it becomes challenging, decreasing readability, as well as increasing the density of a sentence due to lexical variations.

4.3.4 Splitting over-weight modifiers

Writers use a complex sentence structure in which two or more clauses are combined into one complete sentence. With such complexity, it is possibly increasing the difficulty of a text's readability for certain readers. But it does not mean that longer or more complex sentences are bad (both are interchangeable); there will be a situation where this type of writing is necessary. Following this research, it can be realized that complex sentences can be created with the use of clausal post-modifiers. These clauses primarily serve to provide detail to a noun to make it more explicit. Withstanding the analysis, material developers considered providing students with various constructions, including simple-complex sentences. It attempted to give students a depiction of what a real foreign language is about. Nevertheless, as indicated by the LD index and readability, some complex constructions are a warning because they might not fit the students. Therefore, in terms of simplification, the researcher suggests splitting some sentences into two or more sentences or using a less inclusive sentence. An inclusive language frequently requires more words; the capaciousness of inclusion usually demands capacious sentences, which of course leads to complexity.

5. DISCUSSION

5.1 Lexical Density and Readability Algorithm

As far as the Lexical Density (LD) processing in the examined texts, the analysis began with identifying particular parts of speech (lexical items; noun, verb, adjective and adverb, functional words; preposition, determiner, relative pronoun, etc) and types of clauses (rank or down-rank clauses). The result confirms Halliday's formulation that the average LD for written text is approximately 3.0 to 6.0 scales and this depends on the text's formality level (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014; To, 2018). The lexical density indexing has corresponded with sentence complexity and compactness with more lexical items or texts that contain less close to professional and academic language.

The LD by Halliday and Matthiessen (2014) and the readability proportion by Flesch (2006) are both associated with this research. It has been demonstrated that the increasing text densities affect the prediction of text readability. In respect to the findings, lexical density and readability proportion indicated some texts are inadequate for senior high school students, it is either not-challenging due to short clauses or less-features, otherwise, overtly challenging because of some over-weight lexical items. The adequate texts for senior high school students are 5.0 to 5.7 LD on high categorization and these equal to 50% to 60% readability with fairly difficult language presentation. Therefore, it is confidently stated that the readability prediction would be affected by text information since the readability percentage would theoretically change consequently.

The nominalization in the examined texts was found with transformations from quality to entity and process to entity with derivational or without derivational (zero-nominalization). Despite the fact that pedagogical texts require readability and accessibility for readers, in this research, the nominalizations are still unpreventable in usage in simplified texts, particularly when senior high students as target readers. This result is in line with Halliday and Matthiessen's (2014) determination that some students might be (in)-capable of encountering grammatical metaphors, one of which is nominalization.

Additionally, the two types of Halliday and Matthiessen (2014)'s modifiers; pre-modifiers and post-modifiers, were discovered in the form of phrases and clauses. According to the results, to add a specific aspect to a head noun in typical texts, material developers utilize pre-modifier adjectives more frequently. These adjectives are acknowledged to be attributive for noun/noun phases in which they cannot stand alone as a subject or object, as opposed to a noun as modifiers to other noun/noun phrases. Fundamentally, the previous findings in the categories confirmed that pre-modifiers in sentences with adjectives are more common than those with nouns (Gómez, 2009).

Furthermore, the nominalization functions in the results are to condense information, increase abstraction and objectification, create collocation, function as cohesive devices, and interfere with conciseness, or become a trans-categorization. These findings are supported by the previous grammatical metaphor results and literature (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014; Mueller, 2015; Wei & Yu, 2019), particularly on the nominalization of functional roles and effects. First, the nominalizations condense information within sentences referring to the ability to package a message in a sentence without losing any of its meaning and grammatical accuracy. In SFL by c, condensing information is to state information in a compact manner, which nominalization can use for this purpose. Regarding the research findings, nominalizations eliminate such an active clause and become phrases or nominal groups. With this system, certain features can be added as either compulsory or supplementary meanwhile at the same time particular elements are elided.

The second is that nominalization can increase an abstraction in a sentence because the process is hidden in a nominal group. Not only that, but nominalization also disguises the sense of agency by prioritizing the action rather than who does the action (objectification). According to Fang (2005), this nominalization can lead readers to lose the related meaning of what it represents in the absence of active actors. This research accepts that the idea of language construction might confuse readers about who was initially involved in the activities, however, it can be apt when the general information to deliver is about the action.

In lexicogrammar, nominalization can create such a fixed-collocation pattern. This emphasises supplementary detail to nouns. Nominalization can contain variative lexical items and obtain larger information, but the meaning becomes compact and static. Moreover, the scholars emphasized that nominalization can be utilized as a cohesive device (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014; Mueller, 2015; Wei & Yu, 2019). That function is also found that the nominalizations are used as a linkage in sentences to notify readers to connect to the information. The cohesive device with nominalization is used to minimize the synonymy of lexical items to prevent the inaccessibility of sentences due to lexical variations.

Furthermore, the other effect of nominalization is found to interfere with writing conciseness by creating sentence denser; however, nominalizations also create redundancy such as the occurrence of prepositions, articles, and even extra verb compulsory (Mueller, 2015; Wei & Yu, 2019). Then, nominalization is also functioned as word trans-categorizations. It is in line with Halliday and Matthiessen (2014) that nominalization cannot be unpackaged or as a dead-grammatical metaphor. This type of SFL denotes a phenomenon with the characteristics of metaphorical expression that faded gradually (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). This expression was found unable to make an implicit comparison due to the absence of a congruent form (verbal form). However, the result shows this type has significance in conveying new information/concepts in texts, including sample text types.

On the other hand, modifiers in pedagogical texts are to extend the semantics of the head noun in which they embedded. Based on the findings, the modifier types are lexicogrammatically different in sentence length of both modifiers' types based on their position. The lexicogrammar of pre-modifiers, by material developers, is by presenting information in limited coding, spaces, and concisely while post-modifiers in sentences can attribute larger information for readers. Furthermore, both premodifiers and postmodifiers are interchangeable and pre-modifiers can be presented in post-modifier form, and vice versa. However, post-modifiers can reduce ambiguity attributed to the genitive form that modifies the head noun. The results are in line with the previous studies that they can decrease the readability prediction of sentences if they are constructed denser with more additional descriptions to head nouns (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014; Karakaya, 2017), especially with various lexical items in sentences.

5.2 Simplification Considerations

There are several considerations the teachers or material developers can take to simplify text from authentic sources. First, in the simplification set off, this research has contrasted results with previous related findings of text simplification by Crossley et al. (2012). The previous results highlighted that material developers are not required to rely on mathematical algorithms, however, do so intuitively. The reason was that intuitive text simplification led to texts that were predominantly more cohesive and less sophisticated as the text level decreased, and differences across levels revealed an unexpected trend (Crossley et al., 2012). Nevertheless, the result suggests contrastively using mathematic algorithms as a hit road of simplification. The reason for this is that teachers and material developers need a fixed-measurement to simplify texts with a specific accessibility stance and prediction.

Utilizing mathematical approximation can minimize unpredictable language simplification becoming overly artificial which affects readers' linkage to the information. The natural aims of texts must also be omitted, as their socio-cultural content is reduced (Crossley et al., 2007; Johansson, 2006; Simonsen, 2019). According to Tomlinson (2011), teaching materials or texts should expose students to language in its natural context. It means the text simplification should not be too artificial. Then, proclaiming that texts, in a pedagogical sense in this research, tend to be communicative rather than formal and professional, the LD found is confidently suggestible because the indexing can maintain text difficulty levels.

Secondly, the teachers need to be attentive to the use of nominalization in sentences. Its congruent (verbal) form could make sentences clearer, more concise, and simpler as readability and LD can be adjusted to a certain rate. With respect to the approximation results, nominalization can maximize information with only one clause presentation with a lexically dense sentence. Fang (2005) supports that a nominalized process of an entity can conceal the existence of actors while also leading readers astray in their reading. Tomlinson's principles (2011) suggest that material for pedagogical purposes must assist students to feel at ease and develop their confidence. Not only that, teachers and material developers are also required to be concerned about modifiers because their extensive usage can lead to unclear phrases or clauses. In this regard, material developers and teachers could perform simplification treatment by omitting specific modifiers, and then measure its effects on semantics and lexicography. Nastase et al. (2018) for text simplification can be labelled as crucial (restrictive), not-crucial (unrestrictive), and grammatical. The ideas are in line with the research findings that modifiers can either be removable or discardable. The results recommend to use of a simple pattern of modifiers; pre-modifiers (pre-adj. + N or pre-N + N) or post-modifiers (N + preposition/ single clause) in pedagogical sentences.

To reiterate the word 'simplification' is not theoretically identical 'to shortening' (Brunato et al., 2015; Petersen & Ostendorf, 2007), however, it is used to create languages readable without changing the meaning of text (Crossley et al., 2007). Following the findings, material developers can consider providing students with various language constructions (complex and/or simple sentences interchangeably). It attempts to give students a depiction of what a real foreign language is about. Nevertheless, teachers and material developers need to split some over-weight modifiers for the adjustment of text readability and compactness purposes. According to Tomlinson (2011), teachers can push students slightly beyond their proficiency, nevertheless, they still cannot make students resentful. Thus, when the authentic sentence is overtly complex with continuous modifiers, splitting them can be the solution to increase the readability of texts and reduce possible risks that come from students.

6. CONCLUSION

The existence of linguistic features in sentences has affected the text's readability, posing obvious obstacles for students. Lexical Density, Readability, Nominalization, and Modifiers under SFL theory can be used to predict information tightness, readability rate, phrasal or clausal complexities, and possible semantic shifting. This research found the features to be crucial for developing teaching materials from authentic sources whilst simplifying them to meet students' proficiency in the target language, as proposed by this research both LD and readability of texts must be at a fairly difficult level. Then, the nominalizations' functions are to present sentences in a compact arrangement, to create fixed collocations to detail the entity, and to be used as cohesion. Nevertheless, the nominalization existence may affect sentence redundancy by interfering the conciseness. On the other hand, modifiers are interchangeable in presenting information with two constructions: simple or explicit forms of a phrase or clauses, and one of each type can reduce ambiguity.

There are some considerations for text simplification to fit the students' pedagogical demands, those are utilizing a mathematical algorithm (the LD and the readability), unpacking nominalization, measuring the critical appraisal of modifiers based on lexicogrammar and semantic attribution, and splitting some heavy substances of modifiers for reasonable length in sentences. Therefore, before adopting texts for educational purposes, teachers and material developers should evaluate specific linguistic aspects, the manifestation is to increase the accessibility of texts. The recent findings have the potential for that purpose to moderately simplify and reconstruct the language of a text, particularly in preparing texts for educational purposes.

This research has limitations that only focus theoretically on lexical density, readability, nominalization, and modifiers in small investigated corpora. Then, it directed to new inquiries for future research on the same registers to add topic investigation on lexical variations (including synonymy), find larger corpora that can give direct comparison on linguistic features (such as nominalization with its congruent are juxtaposed that later affect text density), fully recognize types of nominalizations, and do both theoretical and practical investigation for more decent consideration for the utility of simplified texts.

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Language Attitudes toward Global Englishes: Is Thai Accented English Our Identity?

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Abstract

This study examines language attitudes toward Global Englishes (GE) among employees of multinational companies in Thailand's Chonburi and Rayong provinces. Sequential mixed-method research is applied. The survey questionnaires were first distributed and a total of 120 participants responded. The participants were employees in multinational companies and used English as their primary working language. The analysis of questionnaires revealed a prevailing inclination towards native speakerism while acknowledging the importance of GE in the global workplace. Participants demonstrated proficiency in communicating with both native and non-native English speakers. An in-depth interview approach is used with 10 informants for confirming or disconfirming the survey results. However, interviews highlight a complex attitude towards GE, particularly among high-ranking individuals who strongly adhere to standard English ideology. Nonetheless, a significant number of participants recommended introducing GE concepts to Thai students as a valuable step towards familiarizing them with diverse English varieties. This recognition of the need to prepare the next generation for a globalized world is encouraging. The prevalence of native speakerism underscores the urgency of addressing language attitudes and promoting linguistic inclusivity within the global workplace. By fostering on cultural awareness and embracing linguistic diversity, we can create a more inclusive environment that appreciates and values different English accents and expressions. This study highlights the ongoing importance of these efforts

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in promoting a comprehensive understanding of GE and nurturing a global mindset among individuals and institutions alike.

Keywords: Accents, Global Englishes, language attitudes, standard ideology.

1. INTRODUCTION

Globalization has brought about a paradigm shift, making English the predominant working language in international settings, giving rise to 'Global Englishes' (GE). Attitudes towards GE among English users in multinational work environments vary, with some aiming for native-like accents and accuracy, while others adopt a simplified version assuming effective communication through context. Despite these differences, overall company functioning remains unaffected (Cogo & Yanaprasart, 2018).

With globalization transforming English into the dominant language of international communication (Rose & Galloway, 2019), GE has gained increasing attention. This evolving form of English emphasizes clarity, conciseness, and contextual cues over rigid grammatical structures. In multinational work environments, attitudes towards GE among English users vary, with some individuals striving to imitate British or American accents and emphasizing grammatical accuracy, while others prefer a simplified version of English, assuming effective communication can be achieved through context alone (Baker, 1992). Interestingly, these divergent attitudes and behaviors have not significantly impeded overall company functioning (Hiranburana, 2017; Im, 2021). Despite numerous studies on English as a global lingua franca and its implications for English Language Teaching (ELT) in Thailand, a research gap remains regarding Thai nationals' attitudes towards GE in workplace settings. While some studies have explored Thai English majors' attitudes towards different English varieties in educational contexts (Jindapitak, 2015, 2019; Jindapitak et al., 2022a, 2022b; McKenzie et al., 2016), sociolinguistic research on Thai individuals' social evaluations of GE, particularly in the workplace, is still at an early stage. Global research has revealed the presence of stereotypical perceptions towards different forms of English, with more mainstream (native-like) English varieties generally receiving favorable evaluations (Jenkins, 2015; Lindemann, 2005; McKenzie et al., 2016). However, specific attitudes and perspectives of Thai individuals towards GE in the workplace remain relatively unexplored.

In Thailand, English proficiency is crucial for employment prospects and global engagement. However, research gaps persist in understanding Thai individuals' attitudes towards GE in workplaces. This study aimed to fill this gap by exploring Thai participants' attitudes and practices towards GE in multinational work environments, informing language education policies and intercultural communication practices. The study sought to answer the following questions:

1. What are the participants' current GE practices in the workplace?
2. What are the English users' attitudes toward the use of GE in their global work context?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Language Attitudes

Language attitudes play a pivotal role in influencing both language reception and production. They are learned dispositions that shape individuals' thoughts, emotions, and behaviors toward language use (Allport, 1954). Eagly and Chaiken (1993) refer to attitudes as psychological tendencies expressed through evaluations of entities with varying degrees of favor or disfavor. Oppenheim (1982) further elucidates that attitudes encompass cognitive and behavioral aspects, emphasizing the state of readiness in individuals to notice, perceive, select, feel, remember, and react to specific issues or topics in both real and abstract verbal forms.

Attitudes play a pivotal role in language reception and production, shaping our communicative competence. Language attitudes influence our reactions and responses to people who speak different languages, as well as our language choices and messages conveyed to specific interlocutors.

2.2 Language Attitude Components

Language attitudes consist of cognitive, affective, and behavioral components (de Boer et al., 2011; Garrett, 2010; Oppenheim, 1982). Cognitive attitudes involve beliefs, opinions, and knowledge about certain issues. They can trigger or be triggered by affective or perceptual reactions and may be expressed verbally or nonverbally. Affective attitudes pertain to emotional responses toward stimuli, such as objects, persons, or situations. These affective responses may be triggered by cognitive attitudes, and in turn, conative attitudes may prompt individuals to act in certain ways, such as attempting to correct grammatical errors. Behavioral attitudes relate to a person's tendency to act in specific ways, reflecting the interplay between cognitive and affective components. The interplay among these three attitude components significantly influences individuals, as positive or negative attitudes, along with approving or disapproving sentiments, profoundly impact language choices and linguistic behaviors within a community.

Attitudes towards one's native language or a foreign language, influenced by societal prestige, also play a crucial role in shaping one's identity and behavior in various social circles (Thamrin, 2018). These multifaceted language attitudes are influenced by beliefs, deep values, and social stereotypes, showcasing the complexity and significance of attitudes in shaping linguistic behaviors.

Language attitudes in global work contexts vary widely among English users. Some professionals adhere to native-speaker norms, while others embrace linguistic diversity and adapt to various forms of English (Galloway & Rose, 2015). Understanding language attitudes is critical for effective intercultural communication, particularly in settings where individuals from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds interact.

2.3 Language Ideologies and Language Use in Thailand

Language ideologies in Thailand have historically favored native-speaker norms in English language teaching, emphasizing linguistic correctness (Garrett et al., 2003).

This ideology persists despite linguistic diversification. English teaching often revolves around American or British norms, leading to favoring or disfavoring certain accents and engendering attitudes of preference or aversion towards linguistic standards and correctness (Boonsuk et al., 2021; Tripasai, 2019). However, globalization provides English users in Thailand with opportunities to acquire language varieties from diverse sources and incorporate them into their language practices. This implies that language users in Thailand are no longer limited to a single standard but can embrace linguistic diversity and adapt to various linguistic influences within their bilingual lexicons.

In conclusion, this literature review emphasizes the importance of Global Englishes (GE) in multinational work environments, the role of language attitudes in communication as well as language ideologies and use in Thailand. Further research on Thai nationals' attitudes towards GE in the workplace is needed. Understanding language attitudes is crucial for effective intercultural communication in global settings, and globalization provides opportunities for embracing linguistic diversity in Thailand.

3. METHODS

This study investigates English language users' practices and attitudes towards linguistic diversity using questionnaires and interviews (Garrett, 2010). Participants include employees at officer, supervisor, and middle manager levels, with Bachelor's degrees and over three years of international work experience. The research design adopted a traditional sequential explanatory mixed-methods approach, combining quantitative and qualitative data collection for a deeper understanding of language attitudes (Dawadi et al., 2021).

The quantitative phase involves data collection from a diverse population of English users in five companies across different provinces, providing insights into workplace practices and GE awareness. The subsequent qualitative phase utilizes purposeful confirming and disconfirming sampling to explore specific findings (Creswell, 2011). In-depth interviews examined attitudes towards GE, confirming or disconfirming the quantitative results.

3.1 Quantitative Approach

3.1.1 Subjects

The quantitative approach was employed to address research question one: 'What are the participants' current GE practices in the workplace?' The study included a total of 120 participants from five companies situated in industrial areas of Rayong and Chonburi provinces in Thailand. The sample size represented a finite population, specifically consisting of English users working at the administration level within these workplaces. These five companies were multinational, with three of them being entities under a US corporation, one being German, and the remaining one being Thai-owned. English was utilized as the primary language for communication with other entities, foreign counterparts, and colleagues, both in written and verbal forms.

The sample size of 120 individuals allowed the study to achieve a margin of error (confidence interval) of ± 7.5% (Conroy, 2016). This margin of error provided the study with the ability to determine specific language attitudes prevalent within the workplace context.

Table 1. Research site information.

Company name	Company's industry	Corporate origin	Thailand site location
A	Automotive	German	Rayong
B	Electronics	USA	Rayong
C	Automotive	USA	Rayong Pinthong, Chonburi Lamchabang, Chonburi Banpo, Chonburi
D	Automotive	USA	Rayong
E	Industrial Packaging	Thai	Rayong

3.1.2 Questionnaires

The language attitudes questionnaire utilized a bilingual structure, featuring both English and Thai languages, and was adapted from a previous study conducted by Chan (2018). Chan's original research aimed to explore gender attitudes toward English varieties among female and male secondary school students in Hong Kong. The original questionnaire comprised ten factors and employed Principle Component Analysis (PCA).

In Chan's questionnaire, which was also adapted for this study, ten themes focused on attitudes toward language use practices, perceptions of English varieties, preferred teaching models, and the learning of local native speaker (NS) pronunciation. These ten theme factors included aspects such as preference for NS English varieties, exposure to NS English accents in multimedia, the legitimacy of standard English varieties, and exposure to NS English accents in the workplace or study environment (Chan, 2018).

However, for the present study, the questionnaire was modified to contain seven theme factors, with a primary focus on English language usage in the work context within a multinational workforce. The themes examined attitudes toward English varieties, perceptions about language ideology, and participants' perceived abilities. The adaptation allowed for a comprehensive investigation of language attitudes specifically in the workplace and workforce context.

We sought the expertise of three experts, including two educators and one HR manager, to ensure the content validity of the questionnaire. They reviewed the questionnaire to assess its appropriateness and accuracy. For the full survey questionnaires, please refer to Appendix A.

3.1.3 Quantitative data analysis

The questionnaires concisely collected personal data, including only the participants' name-surname, current position, and frequency of using English in their daily work. To ensure anonymity and facilitate data analysis, each returned questionnaire was labeled with a pseudonym using alphabets A, B, C, D, and E, followed by an ordinal number representing each company. This labeling system served the purpose of quantitative statistical data analysis and later aided in the selection process for key informants in the qualitative approach.

The survey data was analyzed using SPSS (version 16). Statistical measures such as the mean and standard deviation of each factor were calculated to understand the participants' responses. Additionally, frequency distribution was analyzed to summarize the survey data and identify any outliers or extreme values in individual questionnaire statements. This comprehensive analysis allowed for a better understanding of the survey results.

3.2 Qualitative approach

3.2.1 Subjects

To gain a deeper understanding of the preceding results, a confirming and disconfirming sampling strategy was employed. Two groups were explored, each exhibiting contrasting attitudes. The first group demonstrated a strong preference for NS (Native Speaker) varieties, scoring highest in Factor 1 (preference for NS English varieties) and lowest in Factor 4 (acceptance of speaking a local accent) in the quantitative results. The second group displayed a preference for NNS (Non-Native Speaker) varieties, scoring lowest in Factor 1 and highest in Factor 4 in the quantitative results. The selection procedure ensured equal representation from each company for both groups. This purposeful sampling approach allowed the researcher to refine and test the initial quantitative findings.

The final list of key informants was compiled, and they were contacted after obtaining official permission from the Human Resources manager for the interviews. Details of the subjects' information and sampling selection are presented in Table 2, providing the key informant selection list.

Table 2. Key informant selection list.

Respondent number	NS preference and pseudonym	Respondent number	NNS preferences and pseudonym
b 40	BT	a 7	AK
c 68	CS	b 40	BC
c 72	CA	c 94	CP
d 118	DN	c 96	CT
		d 108	DC
		d 115	DM

3.2.2 Data collection procedures

For an ethical consideration, key informants were notified of their interview appointments, and the protocol interview questions were sent to both the informants and the Human Resource manager for acknowledgment. Consent letters, which clearly stated anonymity and confidentiality, the participant's right to discontinue during the interview, were signed before the interview sessions. The interviews were conducted in the Thai language at the informants' workplaces, in private and quiet meeting rooms. Each interview session was scheduled for 30-45 minutes, and the informants consented to audio recording.

The semi-structured interviews were designed to explore various aspects of key informants' cognitive, affective, and behavioral attitudes toward the use of GE in their work context. The six protocol questions were originally written in Thai to ensure better comprehension during the interviews and were later translated into English as follows:

1. Have you ever heard of Global Englishes? What do you think of its meaning?
2. Can you share your experience learning English during school time or college time with Thai and Foreign Teachers? How do you like them?
3. How does the teacher's teaching influence your English ability at work?
4. At work, who are your foreign counterparts, customers, and suppliers? Please share. What kind of work activities are between you and your counterparts? What do you notice about the communication, in terms of accents and other English language uses?
5. If you want to achieve your working goals, what do you prefer between Standard English and GE, and why?
6. What is your suggestion for teaching our future students to become a workforce, if we should teach Standard English or GE?

3.2.3 Qualitative data analysis

During the analysis and interpretation process, the Thai interview sound data were transcribed. Manual data analysis was used for coding. The generic inductive approach was employed for methodological flexibility (Liu, 2016), especially when translation was a limitation. Coding involves finding patterns in repetitive affect, recognition, and behavior, and adapting researcher-generated constructs for pattern detection (Saldana, 2013). The analysis steps included organizing the data, reading through the transcripts to understand the tone, and applying coding using English translations of Thai phrases. Categories and patterns were identified for key interpretations, and final themes were formulated from the consolidated patterns of each informant, as reported in the research results.

4. RESULTS

4.1 Quantitative FIndings

A total of 125 sets of questionnaires were provided to the Human Resources departments of each company, with 120 responses returned, resulting in a 96% response rate. The participants' job functions varied, and all of them reported using English in their daily work lives. The collected personal data included only the participants' name-surname, current position, and frequency of using English in their daily work. Table 3 presents the participants' data and response rate. Due to the varying number of job positions, they were reported as job group functions, and the frequency of English use in daily work is presented in Table 4.

Table 3. Participants' data and response rate.

Company name	Gender		Number of respondents	Response rate
	Female	Male		
A	14	2	16	12.80%

Table 3 continued…

B	18	10	28	22.40%
C	30	30	60	48.00%
D	12	3	15	12.00%
E	1	0	1	0.80%
Total	75	45	120	

Table 4. Participants' job position/function.

Job group function	**Company A**	**Company B**	**Company C**	**Company D**	**Company E**
Human Resources	2	1	8	1	1
Engineering	2	7	14	4	0
Production	3	5	8	3	0
Finance/Accounting	0	1	4	0	0
Supply Chain Management	8	12	16	5	0
R & D	0	0	2	1	0
Quality Assurance	1	0	6	1	0
Information Technology	0	2	2	0	0
Total	16	28	60	15	1

Descriptive statistics present the quantitative results for each theme factor and overall, with the analysis and interpretation of factor components shown in Table 5.

4.1.1 Native-speaker standard preference and practice

The participants demonstrated a relative preference and emphasis on native-speaker (NS) standards, as evident in Factor 1 (x~=3.79, sd=0.89). The results consistently show that participants did not feel negatively towards NS standards and accents, as indicated in Factor 3 (x~=2.34, sd=1.15). While they may perceive speaking with an NS accent as challenging, they believe that emulating native speakers is the correct approach when using English.

4.1.2 Global Englishes awareness

The results from Factors 2, 4, and 7 demonstrate participants' high level of GE awareness, as they acknowledged being well-informed about non-native speaker (NNS) varieties and the English varieties used in their daily work life and workplace. In Factor 2, participants displayed awareness of NNS varieties in the workplace, with some recognizing the use of Chinese-English or Thai-English accents (x~=3.95, sd=0.87). Factor 4 reveals that participants strongly agreed they were confident in speaking English with a Thai accent when communicating with both NS and NNS colleagues, and they took pride in their Thai identity (x~=3.66, sd=1.03). Additionally, the results consistently indicate that participants predominantly used English with NNS rather than NS, as highlighted in Factor 7 (x~=3.26, sd=1.05).

4.1.3 Perceived current English ability

The results of Factor 5 indicate that participants perceived their English ability to be at an acceptable level, enabling them to understand English conversations spoken by both native speakers (NS) and non-native speakers (NNS) in specific situations, such as meetings or conference calls (x~=3.39, sd=1.02).

4.1.4 Perception of learning non-standard English

The survey results for Factor 6, along with its two items, indicate that participants show some reluctance in accepting the idea of learning non-standard English. However, they did not acknowledge that learning and practicing listening to non-native speaker (NNS) accents could potentially replace the current model of standard English learning (x~=2.99, sd=1.21).

Table 5. Factor results and interpretation.

Factor	Theme	No. of statements	Mean	SD	Interpretation
1	Preference for NS English varieties	3	3.79	0.8947	Agree
2	Recognition of 'non-standard' English varieties	2	3.95	0.8734	Agree
3	Negative perception of speaking with an NS English accent	3	2.34	1.1578	Disagree
4	Acceptance of speaking a local accent	3	3.66	1.0270	Agree
5	Perceived ability to understand English speech	2	3.39	1.0169	Not sure
6	Perception of learning non-standard English	2	2.99	1.2083	Disagree
7	Experience in communicating with NS and NNS speaker	2	3.26	1.0549	Not sure

4.2 Qualitative Findings

By employing rapport talk, the strategy for gathering personal data from informants proved effective in establishing a relationship before conducting interviews. Thai individuals customarily start learning English in the 5th grade during secondary education. Table 6 presents demographic information for key informants, and Table 7 offers an overview of their English language background. Researcher-generated key theme patterns are reported in items 4.2.1 to 4.2.7.

Table 6. Key informant demographic data.

No.	Pseudonym	Company	Job title	Year of services	Gender	
					Female	Male
1.	DN	D	Supply management	5	√	
2.	CP	C	Production Engineer	3		√
3.	CT	C	Manufacturing Engineer	5		√
4.	BC	B	Material Planning Manager	19	√	
5.	BT	B	Accountant	15	√	
6.	AK	A	Cost Controller	4		
7.	CA	C	Quality Engineer	6	√	
8.	DM	D	Human Resources Officer	2	√	
9.	DC	D	Design Engineer	1	√	
10.	CS	C	R&D (Launch Manager)	8		√

Table 7. Informants' English language background.

No	Pseudonym	Years of English studied		Extra English course experience	English instructor	
		School	University		Native speaker	Thai
1	DN	8	4	Short courses in Thailand		√
2	CP	8	4	none	√	√
3	CT	8	4	none	√	√
4	BC	8	4	none		√
5	BT	8	0	none		√
6	AK	8	0	none	√	√
7	CA	8	4	4 years in the US		√
8	DM	8	4	none	√	√
9	DC	8	4	none	√	√
10	CS	8	4	Short courses in Thailand		√

4.2.1 Awareness of Global Englishes (GE)

Among the ten key informants, it was found that nine of them had never heard of the term 'GE' before. Upon explanation, they stated that GE refers to English used for international communication with individuals from diverse linguistic backgrounds. Some informants also described it as an interlanguage, an international language, or an official language. Interestingly, only one informant, CT, confidently responded that he had prior knowledge of the term 'GE'.

(1) GE is English used by people in each zone or region with their particular accents for example, Thai people will have an English-Thai accent, and Japanese will have an English-Japanese accent, like as Indian and Indonesian. [CT]

4.2.2 Attitudes towards Thai and native teachers

Several informants expressed their admiration for Thai teachers, as they were a source of inspiration and motivation during their school years. These teachers played a crucial role in teaching them the fundamentals of English, including basic language skills, grammar, and vocabulary memorization. They recalled learning English through songs, which further enhanced their language-learning experience.

(2) I have a Thai teacher, who used to live in the USA, and she teaches me to pronounce correctly. If we do not pronounce it right, the meaning can be different. [CA]

(3) During my secondary school, I was not good at English subject. My mother sent me to a special English class, the Thai teacher teaches vocabulary memorized, and learning vocabulary from songs and movies, makes me understand English subjects better. And it has changed my attitude toward learning English. [DM]

(4) During my junior high school, I took a special tutorial class, my Thai teacher was the best because she was so energetic; she speaks a very good English accent and it was very impressive. [BC]

Among the informants, there were varying preferences for English language learning. Some preferred learning with native teachers, while others were content as long as the teaching and learning process was enjoyable. On the other hand, some expressed a dislike for learning English altogether. Notably, many informants positively acknowledged that native teachers possessed effective teaching techniques.

They particularly enjoyed conversation classes with native teachers, as it helped alleviate anxiety and reduce stress. They believed that these classes improved their listening and speaking skills.

(5) I have a negative attitude toward studying English in Thailand. Until I was in university, one of my English courses was taught by a British instructor and that helped me with my English presentation in an internship course. I like learning English with an NS instructor rather than a Thai instructor. [CT]

(6) In my university, I like studying English with an NS teacher. I studied an English Conservation course; it is very useful and I can use it in real work now. [CP]

(7) I can study English with an instructor who can make learning fun and not too stressful. I think learning too much grammar with a Thai instructor makes me tense. [AK]

4.2.3 Perceived work ability influenced by Thai and native teachers

Many informants expressed that the practical utility of their email writing skills was shaped by their interactions with Thai teachers during their school years, with a specific emphasis on grammar learning. The influence of these past experiences played a significant role in how they perceived the relevance of their email writing skills in a work context.

(8) My ability to email writing is from Thai instructors because I learned grammar from them. It may not be 100% accurate but I believe my writing should be understandable. [AK]

A few informants expressed that they found little practical use for the extensive grammar and pronunciation lessons they had learned in real work situations. Additionally, two key informants felt that their English proficiency improved significantly when they learned through conversations with native teachers, and they were able to apply these skills effectively in their work.

(9) Thai instructors focus on grammar teaching. This does not make me use English naturally, I have to translate Thai to English in my head, and it makes me speak English slowly. [DC]

(10) NS instructor influences my work ability when I have to do presentations and communicate with foreigners. I feel that the Thai instructor imparted too much grammar so I will not use that much grammar. [CP]

Some informants mentioned that taking extra courses with native or foreign teachers helped improve their proficiency in English. However, one informant perceived that the application of their learning to the work environment is influenced more by practicing English skills rather than the teachers themselves.

(11) I went to the US when I was 20+ years old. I have studied basic English from each level for 4 years. That makes me prefer an NS instructor because I learned content, songs, blogs or articles, some history content, and conversation. The teaching made me learn and can use it in my work today. [CA]

(12) Despite that Thai instructor is my inspiration for learning English and that is 50%, another 50% is my own passion. I like English vocabulary, listening to English songs and English proverbs, so I make my English better that way. [CS]

4.2.4 Work context of interlocutors

The informants primarily used the English language to communicate with individuals from various nationalities, including Indian, Chinese, Japanese, American, Korean, Malaysian, and Brazilian. Some informants mentioned that conversing with Americans was straightforward because they did not always require complete sentences to understand each other.

(13) When I talk to my counterparts, I do not need to speak a complete sentence, they could already know what I want. Especially, when I talked to the American colleague, we had a very easy talking; I didn't need to speak a complete sentence. [CP]

(14) My work involves with many foreigners. The easiest listening is an American accent. They are NS, they pronounce and give simple accentuation. [DM]

Several informants confirmed that they find it easier to talk and listen to Asians because they tend to speak slowly. One informant mentioned that she felt relaxed communicating with Chinese, Japanese, or Korean (see 15). However, many agree that Indian English stands out as the most complex in terms of sound and accent. Additionally, they found it challenging to understand Koreans and senior Japanese speakers.

(15) I work with Indian, Chinese, Japanese, and some Korean customers. I notice their accents and sentence structure; Indians speak long sentences like British and American, and I always ask them to repeat. But I feel more relaxed talking to Chinese, Japanese, and Korean because they speak a word-by-word form. [CT]

(16) As a cost controller, I have weekly conference calls with many entities; Japanese, Indian, Chinese, Singapore, Vietnam, German, and Korean. I talk the most with Japanese and German. It is much easier to talk to Japanese because we both are not good and we speak slowly. [AK]

(17) It is difficult to understand Korean and Indian, I have to keep saying, again please, through the whole conversation. [CP]

Interestingly, a few informants mentioned the linguo-cultural aspect of using English. One informant referred to communication behaviors, such as using a screamer or frantic tone or adopting a dry communication style. Another informant pointed out differences in courtesy practices when using English.

(18) Currently, I work with Japanese, Taiwanese, and American. I feel the difference is cultural communication. I see that Italians use frantic sounds, making loud noises and banging the table. But the loud sound was over and ended peacefully after the meeting. Americans will be more soft and polite in the meeting. [DN]

(19) I work with Indians and Chinese. I adjust myself to the different accents, work content, and negotiation. But one thing is communication etiquette. I believe we should show courtesy. Chinese shows a little courtesy and dry communication. Rather, Indian counterparts are easier to work with. [BC]

Several informants expressed their awareness of the variations in accents, spoken sounds, and pronunciation among interlocutors. They viewed accents as a representation of national uniqueness and individual traits, and they embraced these differences positively. Understanding the significance of effective work communication, they demonstrated a proactive approach by immediately asking for clarification if they encountered any words pronounced with an unfamiliar accent.

(20) My direct boss is a Vietnamese. I also have many bosses who are Brazilian, Chinese, and Indian. My boss uses perfect English as he was educated in the USA. I see that Chinese uses perfect grammar too. Brazilian speaks slowly like Thai people. [CS]

4.2.5 Reactions toward GE and native English accent differences

Out of all the informants, only one key informant had the opportunity to study abroad for four years and work part-time in a restaurant, which exposed her to various accent varieties. Interestingly, all the informants demonstrated positive attitudes and reactions towards the differences in their interlocutors' accents. Some informants accepted these variations as a unique and individual trait of their interlocutors, while others chose to take notes and ask questions later on for better understanding. Overall, most of the key informants showed no negative reactions to the accent varieties they encountered during their interactions.

(21) I do some emails and I have to listen to several meetings with my American boss and a financial controller from Hong Kong. I do feel like to listen and to test my listening skills. [BT]

(22) I do not feel against the accent differences, rather I accept the differences are gracefulness. I just need to learn. [DC]

(23) I react to the accent differences by remembering and practicing the words they said to me so I can understand them in the future. [CA]

(24) I feel the accent differences are gracefulness. I feel impressed with those who can speak English regardless of their own accents or their own wording style. It is their charm. [DM]

(25) I do not feel resist the differences, in contrast, I will ask if I do not understand and repeat our understanding to our interlocutor. We can ask immediately or note down for asking later on. [CS]

4.2.6 Preferences for using Standard English or Global English at work

The study revealed an interesting division among the ten key informants. Half of them expressed a preference for a native-like accent and the use of standard English in their workplace interactions, while the other half felt more comfortable embracing their own identity and Thai-English accent. Notably, those with a strong preference for native-like accents also associated high proficiency in standard English with being well-educated and belonging to an upper-class group of English users. One informant proudly stated that maintaining a native-like accent and using correct grammar is a matter of personal pride for him. He explained:

(26) When I see anyone who speaks correct English, I respect him and feel that he is so well-prepared. I feel like I want to be just like him and I hope that others will feel admiring at me the same way. [CS]

This group of participants admitted that the higher the proficiency, the better they understand. Using standard English helps better communication in a diverse workplace. Some informants viewed that being native-like would ease listening for interlocutors. In a similar situation, the informants revealed a social stereotype attitude toward being trustworthy in the work community by using standard English or native-like accents.

(27) My personal like is to speak like NS but I need a lot more practice. I want my NS or non-NS colleagues to understand me easily at work. [DC]

(28) I push myself hard to speak like a native speaker because the better we use standard English; the more people understand you. [DM]

(29) I would prefer being an NS-like because I want to be able to listen and communicate with others. I also like to use correct grammar. [CA]

(30) It depends on the scope of work. If I need to officially present my work, I tend to be more on standard English. If it is a discussion meeting with Japan and Korea office then I mixed my Thai in the meeting. [CT]

On the contrary, the other half held the perspective that English is primarily a communication tool, and as long as it is communicative, understandable, and pronounced comprehensibly, it suffices. They never felt embarrassed about their pronunciation. Some informants shared that in their workplace, the Thai-English accent is prevalent, even among management-level employees. One informant mentioned that many individuals use a blended accent known as 'Thinglish' (a combination of Thai and English). Another informant recounted her personal experience, recalling a memory from the past.

(31) There is no harm in using English in Thai norms as long as it is communicative and it can deliver meanings that we can proceed with our work. [DN]

(32) I really want to use English in Thai style which helps me achieve my work goals. [BC]

(33) I want to be myself. I will speak Thai-English accented. I cannot make the /th/, /r/, /l/ or /s/ sound. [AK]

(34) My workplace culture is Thai-English accent. My executive management uses a Thai-English accent and they speak very simple English. I use English my Thai way, and I do not feel embarrassed. [CP]

(35) I think it is communication, we communicate effectively for mutual understanding. But I will use my accent to show my traits and identity. [BT]

4.2.7 Perceived toward future English language teaching

The findings indicate that five informants expressed the view that working exclusively with native speakers (NS) in real-life situations might not always be feasible. They suggested that introducing students to various accents and lingua franca could be beneficial. According to them, each country and accent carries its own unique identity, and every nationality possesses individual charm and a rich array of linguo-cultural variations. They believed that teaching Global English (GE) could enhance learners' awareness of accent differences and promote a more inclusive and adaptable approach to language use.

(36) I think it is not possible for every person will speak the same standard English accent; each nationality will have its uniqueness and accent. [DN]

(37) We used to learn from NS English audio in the classroom at school. Now, I think we should learn GE because it is what we will use in real life. We should have learned Japanese-English or Chinese-English. [AK]

(38) We should teach them GE. We should teach them to practice conversation workshops or have them do a project like I used to do with the Indian team. [BC]

(39) We should groom undergraduates to serve a workforce market, and I would like them to learn GE. We should make them familiar with English from any accents and learn communicative English. [DM]

(40) We should teach them GE because the gracefulness of each country is different. Their intercultural communication is also different. [DC]

However, four informants show ambivalence towards the suggestion of teaching GE or standard English to students. Some gave suggestions based on their English learning experience and their own proficiency, while another one felt ambivalence between speaking in GE way and an accurate standard English writing.

(41) Based on my low English proficiency, I think we should teach student to make their own styles. Teaching anything that students think saves their time and memory of their own. [CP]

(42) We do not need to teach students to be NS-like or even understand all GE-related. We can teach them to be a survivor at work. We can tell them to learn from experiences. [CA]

(43) We should use English in our own style but we have to make it communicative. Yet, we should write accurate grammar because it can cause misinterpretation. [BT]

(44) I think we should get them to change their attitudes towards learning English. Yet they do not need to be an NS, it is up to their preferences. [CS]

Only one informant suggested that teaching standard American English is appropriate because it has been an integral part of English teaching and learning for a long period of time.

(45) For students, I would suggest we teach standard British or American English because it is the moderate way to teach, not too slow or too fast and too difficult or too easy. [CT]

5. DISCUSSION

The quantitative survey focused on factors that are specific to examine the current GE practices of Thai employees. Despite working predominantly with non-native English speakers, the findings revealed a prevailing preference for standard English, suggesting a strong adherence to standard language ideologies (see Lippi-Green, 2011). However, qualitative interviews provided insights into positive attitudes toward linguistic diversity in the global work context, indicating a growing openness among participants.

The participants exhibited a duality in their language attitudes: a preference for standard English when interacting with NS and an understanding of the importance of adapting to both GE and NNS environments. This phenomenon aligns with previous research in Thailand and highlights the impact of globalization on language use in the workplace (Boonsuk et al., 2021; Galloway, 2013; Prabjandee et al., 2020; Tripasai, 2019).

The conflicting results can be attributed to participants' internalized language ideologies, where historical associations with prestige contribute to the preference for Standard English. Simultaneously, the positive attitudes towards linguistic diversity may be a response to increased global interactions and a recognition of the value of understanding different English varieties and accents (Im, 2021). The study underscores the significance of GE in global work contexts, emphasizing that successful communication goes beyond native-like norms. It necessitates an adaptive approach that acknowledges linguistic diversity and promotes effective intercultural communication in multinational settings.

To address the implications of these findings, the study suggests a paradigm shift in English language teaching. Educational reforms should emphasize the value of Global English and equip students with the skills to navigate diverse linguistic landscapes in international work environments (Lin, 2020). Practical recommendations include incorporating multimedia resources to expose students to various English accents and variations. Facilitating virtual classroom collaborations with schools or classrooms from different countries can encourage communication with English speakers from diverse linguistic backgrounds. Additionally, organizing debates and discussions on global topics in English can foster intercultural communication skills.

6. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this study sheds light on the evolving attitudes towards GE in a globalized work environment among Thai participants. The observed language ambivalence reflects a growing acceptance of linguistic diversity, necessitating a more adaptive approach to language use. The research is particularly relevant in today's increasingly globalized and integrated world, where Thai people are more exposed to the use of English in various contexts.

Thoroughly applied research methods have revealed a strong inclination of the Thai workforce towards native-speakerism, ideology, and standards, while also showing some awareness of the concept of GE. The discussion section has explored various avenues for reflection to challenge the myth of native speakerism and alter perceptions regarding accent varieties and GE.

By embracing the recommendations for English language teaching and addressing the study's limitations, educators can better prepare students and the workforce to effectively communicate and collaborate in the globalized world. As the world continues to embrace globalization, this study lays the groundwork for further research in this nascent field, encouraging a deeper understanding of language attitudes and the significance of GE in intercultural communication and global interactions.

The study acknowledges the limitations of self-reports, which may be subject to bias, such as social desirability bias. To enhance future research, incorporating other data collection methods like observation or experimental designs and employing more comprehensive sampling methods would improve the generalizability of findings.

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APPENDIX

Quantitative Data Analysis of Factors Identification for Attitude Components

No.	Factors		Mean	SD
1	**Preference for NS English varieties (Affective)**			
	1.	I should grammatically speak correct standard English	3.92	0.90
	2.	I focus on pronouncing the correct sound of *' th'* or '*f* / *v*' or clusters of consonants '*r* / *l*'	3.71	0.75
	3.	A native-like pronunciation of English is a mark of high English proficiency.	3.73	0.99
		Total	3.79	0.64
2	**Recognition of 'non-standard' English varieties (Recognition)**			
	4.	I understand non-standard English varieties such as Indian English, Singapore-English, Thai-English, and Chinese English.	3.77	0.88
	5.	I recognize that my colleagues, customers, or suppliers such as Indian, Chinese, Korean, Japanese, French, and German are non-native speakers.	4.11	0.83
		Total	3.94	0.70
3	**(Negative) perceptions of speaking with an NS English accent (Affective)**			
	6.	A Thai person who speaks like a native speaker is a 'show off.'	1.83	1.04
	7.	I feel shy about trying to imitate native speakers' pronunciation in front of local people.	2.28	1.07
	8.	I think that difficult accent by native-speakers largely affects my work performance.	2.91	1.08
		Total	2.34	0.76
4	**Acceptance of speaking a local accent (Behavioral)**			
	9.	I am confident in using my Thai-English with my Native-speaker and Non-native speaker colleagues or customers or suppliers.	3.46	0.98
	10.	I don't mind if people can identify me as a Thai from my accent.	3.97	0.94
	11.	It is not necessary to imitate native English speakers' accents as long as our English is intelligible.	3.54	1.07
		Total	3.66	0.74
5	**Perceived ability to understand English speech (Behavioral)**			
	12.	In the conference calls with native speakers, I likely understand very little because they always speak very fast.	3.25	1.00
	13.	In the meeting in English, I likely do not have a problem listening to Thai people speak English.	3.53	1.01
		Total	3.39	0.76
6	**Perceptions of learning non-standard English (Recognition)**			
	14.	Thai-English pronunciation can replace the existing teaching model.	2.55	0.94
	15.	I should practice listening to the non-native speakers' accents as it supports my work**.**	**3.42**	**1.28**
		Total	2.98	0.85
7	**Experience in communicating with NS and NNS speakers (Affective)**			
	16.	Listening to the non-native speaker's accent is easier than the native speaker's accent.	2.75	0.97
	17.	At work, I encounter non-native English accents more than native English accents.	3.75	0.88
		Total	3.25	0.75

Note: 5=Strongly agree, 4= Agree, 3= Not sure, 2= Disagree, 1=Strongly disagree

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Exploring English Lecturers' Self-Efficacy in the Use of Educational Technology in Post COVID-19 Pandemic

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Abstract

This study examines the levels of self-efficacy and factors influencing the self-efficacy on the use of educational technology among English lecturers in Islamic higher education institutions in East Java, Indonesia, in the post-COVID-19 pandemic. There are two research questions addressed: 1) What levels of self-efficacy do the lecturers exhibit on the pedagogical skills and actual use of educational technology in the post–COVID–19 pandemic? 2) What factors influence the lecturers' self-efficacy on the use of educational technology in the post–COVID–19 pandemic? Utilizing a survey research design, data were collected using an adapted version of the Professional Self-Efficacy Scale for Information and Communication Technology Teachers (PSES) questionnaire. The data from 37 participants were then analyzed using descriptive statistics. The result showed that the lecturers' self-efficacy in their pedagogical skills and the actual use of educational technology was moderate, and they will continue integrating educational technology in their classrooms in the post–COVID–19 era. Moreover, the qualitative data indicated that the lecturers had moderate skills in using technology with limited educational technology tools. Age,

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gender, qualifications, and teaching experience emerged as factors influencing the lecturers' self-efficacy on the use of educational technology in classrooms. The findings highlighted the need for English lecturers in Islamic higher education institutions to broaden their skills in using educational technology for learning. Policymakers need to design appropriate strategies to enhance lecturers' pedagogical practices in using educational technology for online learning to ensure effective and efficient teaching in the post-COVID-19 pandemic.

Keywords: Educational technology, English lecturers, higher education, Indonesia, post-COVID-19 pandemic, self-efficacy.

1. INTRODUCTION

Numerous studies have investigated the positive effects of educational technology on students' motivation, performance, learning engagement (Christopoulos & Sprangers, 2021; Undheim, 2022), digital peer assessment (Topping, 2021), and the quality of the lecturers' instruction and corrective feedback (Klimova & Pikhart, 2022). Despite the positive findings, its integration into teaching practices continues to pose challenges, leading to its elusive and ambiguous integration process (Gümüş & Kukul, 2022; Skantz-Åberg et al., 2022) which involves complex considerations such as selecting appropriate technologies, effectively incorporating them into the curriculum, and ensuring alignment with students' acceptance and usage patterns. This complexity of integrating educational technology emphasizes the significance of lecturers' educational technology self-efficacy.

Furthermore, the incorporation of educational technology can present challenges for lecturers, especially those with more teaching experience (Petko et al., 2018). Petko et al. (2018) reported in their study that lecturers with less teaching experience implement and experiment with educational technologies more readily than those with more experience. This could be attributed to the increased exposure of younger lecturers to technology in their personal lives, as they are frequently digital natives or millennials (Choi & Young, 2021). Additionally, more experienced lecturers may be reluctant to implement new technologies due to a preference for traditional teaching methods or limited exposure to newer educational technologies earlier in their careers. Targeted training and resources should be provided to enhance the technological skills and confidence of more experienced lecturers in order to support the integration of educational technology across all levels of teaching experience (Baroudi et al., 2022; Cutri et al., 2020; Zhu et al., 2020).

Another challenge regarding the integration of technology is the potential negative effects on student interactions, engagements, and motivations, such as detachment from face-to-face interactions, reduced effort to access online resources, and technical difficulties (Almekhlafi & Almeqdadi, 2010; Dennen, 2008; Kebritchi et al., 2017; Schindler et al., 2017). Such challenges can, in fact, be overcome by providing clear guidelines and expectations as well as by implementing strategies to increase the students' intrinsic motivation (Khan et al., 2022). Additionally, they also reported that the students' preferences for traditional face-to-face learning were influenced by the lecturers' familiarity and proficiency with the educational technology. This study's finding highlights the significance of lecturers utilizing technology that aligns with the students' expectations and comfort levels. Therefore, enhancing lecturers' self-efficacy through training, support, and access to resources is necessary, particularly to enable them to incorporate technology effectively, enhance the overall educational experience for both lecturers and students (Wright & Akgunduz, 2018), and develop the students' technology literacy and education quality (Joo et al., 2018; Sun & Mei, 2022). Subsequently, when lecturers have a strong sense of self-efficacy, they are more likely to have a positive attitude toward technology use and to be willing to experiment with new tools and methods (Horvitz et al., 2015), which then contributes to an improvement in the technology literacy and a more effective integration of the educational technology in classroom practices.

The COVID-19 pandemic has highlighted the difficulties and contradictions of integrating educational technology into online teaching for lecturers (Greenhow et al., 2021). These tensions have resulted in a variety of student experiences, including decreased synchronous interaction, modifications to assessment procedures, and adjustments in the workloads from lecturers. Boonmoh et al. (2021) emphasized the significance of lecturers' technological proficiency, as it has a direct bearing on the students' technological literacy both inside and outside the classroom. During the pandemic, lecturers have made efforts to improve their use of educational technology, including requesting assistance from IT personnel, accessing online tutorials, and utilizing social media for digital literacy. In addition, lecturers have actively sought resources from teaching and learning centers, engaging in online tutorials focusing on pedagogy and inclusive education. Their learning extends beyond formal channels, as they draw insights from instructional designers, participate in instructor communities of practice, and leverage the expertise offered by professional organizations. Collectively, these diverse learning avenues significantly contribute to enhancing the lecturers' knowledge and skills in the realm of online teaching and learning (Martin et al., 2022; Romero-Hall & Cherrez, 2022).

Despite the improvement of their digital competence, some lecturers continue to hold limited beliefs in technological innovation, leading to a passive engagement with the digital educational environment (Vaskov et al., 2021). Baroudi et al. (2022), as well as Lailiyah and Cahyono (2017), found that lecturers' self-efficacy is a significant factor in determining the effectiveness of the use of educational technology in the classroom. As higher education institutions resume face-to-face classes following the pandemic, lecturers confront a quandary regarding the use of educational technology. While some may revert to traditional teaching methods, many lecturers have leveraged their initial technological experiences to create blended learning or technology-enhanced teaching and learning approaches that prioritize flexibility, empowerment, professionalization, and strategic decision-making (Rapanta et al., 2021). This raises the question of whether lecturers' self-efficacy in using educational technology obtained through online learning will positively influence their future ability to bridge the gap between online and face-to-face teaching (Bajaj et al., 2021; Raza et al., 2021).

Despite reasonable and persistent lecturers, some researchers have discovered indications that the trajectory of increasing online teaching will continue and grow (Dhawan, 2020; Dumont et al., 2021; Rapanta et al., 2021). In the context of Indonesia, a number of studies have been conducted to illustrate the lecturers' self-efficacy in utilizing educational technology in their classrooms during the pandemic (Rayuwati, 2020) in the ELT context (Şen & Durak, 2022). Understanding how self-efficacy can be developed and sustained in the post-COVID-19 pandemic is crucial for lecturers navigating the changing learning landscape. However, there is a lack of research on the lecturers' self-efficacy in facing another shift from online back to classroom instruction in the post-pandemic era. Therefore, there needs to be more research on how lecturers in Indonesian higher education, particularly Islamic higher education adapt to the post-COVID-19 pandemic environment, and what factors influence their self-efficacy on the use of educational technology. This study aims to address this research gap by investigating the lecturers' levels of self-efficacy and the factors influencing their self-efficacy on the use of educational technology in the post-COVID-19 pandemic. By providing insights into the support required for lecturers' teaching practice, this study contributes to the understanding of the role of self-efficacy in enhancing the lecturers' pedagogical skills in the use of educational technology in the post-pandemic learning situation. The research questions for this study were as follows:

1. What levels of self-efficacy do the lecturers exhibit on the pedagogical skills and actual use of educational technology in the post-COVID-19 pandemic?
2. What factors influence the lecturers' self-efficacy on the use of educational technology in the post-COVID-19 pandemic?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This section focuses on the discussion of self-efficacy and factors influencing the lecturers' self-efficacy on the use of educational technology among lecturers. Bandura's (1995) concept of self-efficacy influences the beliefs and abilities of individuals to adapt to altering instructional environments. In addition, training and support, beliefs in technological innovation, and alignment with the students' acceptance and utilization patterns contribute to the successful integration of educational technology (Baroudi et al., 2022; Gümüş & Kukul, 2022; Khan et al., 2022).

2.1 Self-Efficacy in Changing Situation

In many studies on self-efficacy, Bandura's (1995) concept was considerably used (Hatlevik, 2017; Krause et al., 2017; Poulou et al., 2019; Scherer & Siddiq, 2015). Self-efficacy refers to an individual's belief in their ability to perform a task or achieve a goal (Bandura, 2006). According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy is also related to a person's ability to adapt to different situations, which can result in different behaviors in the same situation. Bandura (1995) further suggested that self-efficacy affects how people think, feel, behave, and motivate themselves. Individuals with high self-efficacy can overcome challenges, while those with low self-efficacy may exhibit worry, doubt, fragility, and feelings of insufficiency when faced with complex problems or expectations.

The conception of how self-efficacy has a significant contribution to how people decide, do, feel, react, and respond to what happens around them especially related to their profession has been proved by a lot of research (Gbemu et al., 2020; Šabić et al., 2022). Furthermore, Bandura (1997) posited that successful individuals possess robust positive efficacy beliefs encompassing cognitive, motivational, emotional, and selection processes. Self-efficacy protects against negative emotions, adverse experiences, and health issues, rendering transitions under changing circumstances more tolerable. Jerusalem and Mittag (1995, as cited in Bandura, 1995) suggested that perceived efficacy can be altered through various experiences with problem-solving, challenging situations, and novel conditions. This notion is particularly relevant in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic, which compelled lecturers to swiftly adapt to online teaching, underscoring the critical role of self-efficacy in effectively utilizing educational technology. Several studies have investigated self-efficacy in this context (Farkhani et al., 2022; Hatlevik, 2017; Hatlevik & Bjarnø, 2021). Numerous other studies have even specifically examined self-efficacy in technology integration in education, in the context of English Language Teaching (ELT) (Lailiyah & Cahyono, 2017; Şen & Durak, 2022; Silviyanti & Yusuf, 2015). These studies suggested that self-efficacy was critical to the successful integration of technology into teaching and learning in ELT. It is crucial to investigate how the lecturers' level of self-efficacy in pedagogical skills and actual use of educational technology.

2.2 Factors Influencing the Lecturers' Self-efficacy in the Use of Educational Technology

Some factors contribute to the lecturers' self-efficacy in both pedagogical skills and the actual use of educational technology in the classroom. Horvitz et al. (2015) mentioned that factors, such as tenure, discipline, rank, and gender, play a role in lecturers' self-efficacy in using educational technology. They stated that the educators' self-efficacy in using technology in their classrooms is determined by their gender. Stein and Lajmi (2019) also reported that male teachers showed better technological skills and positive efficacy when dealing with technology. Age is also reported to be one of the factors that influence teachers' pedagogical skills and self-efficacy in integrating educational technology into their teaching (Hanham et al., 2021; Shi & Jiang, 2022; Syafi'i & Anam, 2022). More senior lecturers experiment with technology less than younger lecturers, and if they must use technology, they will likely use only the technology they are familiar with. Sun and Mei (2022) stated that young lecturers who experience using technology in their personal lives have more positive efficacy in using educational technology in their teaching practice.

Furthermore, several research reported that there is no significant contribution of the length of teaching experience to the teachers' use of technology in the classroom (Chai et al., 2013; Roussinos & Jimogiannis, 2019). The findings suggested that the length of teaching experience does not influence the lecturers' self-efficacy in using educational technology in the classroom. The more influencing factor is the lecturers' exposure to technology and their intention to integrate technology in the classroom. Another factor that needs to be considered when discussing the pedagogical skills and actual use of educational technology is the education qualification. Horvitz et al. (2015) reported that lecturers with lower education qualifications had more confidence in using the technology than their counterparts who had higher education qualifications. They stated that the lecturers who hold master's degrees use more variety of platforms of technology. They showed more confidence in using more complex educational technology than the ones who hold doctoral degrees.

3. METHODS

3.1 Research Design and Participants

This survey study utilized a questionnaire to collect both quantitative and qualitative data. The survey design was considered an appropriate method to gather insights from participants regarding the level of self-efficacy on the pedagogical skills and actual use of educational technology, and the factors influencing the lecturers' self-efficacy on the use of educational technology in the post-COVID-19 era. The questionnaire included questions that explored lecturers' self-efficacy levels concerning the pedagogical skills and actual use of educational technology as well as information about the teaching practice in the post-COVID-19 Pandemic. Table 1 shows the question distribution in the questionnaire.

Table 1. Questions' distribution in the questionnaire.

Instruments	No. of questions	Aspects of questions
Questionnaire	Part 1 (1-6)	Demographic information
	Part 2 (7 -11)	Pedagogical skills
	Part 3 (12-16)	Actual use of educational technology
	Part 4 (17-20)	Information on teaching practice in post-COVID-19 pandemic

The investigation was conducted in seven Islamic higher education institutions in different geographical regions of East Java, Indonesia. This study complied with the Institutional Review Board (IRB) guidelines and regulations at the State University of Malang. Participants were recruited from Islamic Higher Educational Institutions in East Java with the approval of the IRB. This location was chosen based on the preliminary observations, which showed that most institutions used asynchronous learning media during the COVID-19 pandemic due to a lack of internet facilities, lecturers' financial issues, and students' inability to provide enough internet quota to support learning. However, senior lecturers who tended to avoid utilizing new educational technology during the pandemic were excited when the administration declared a return to face-to-face learning, indicating a need to explore the effectiveness of different teaching modalities.

As listed in Table 2, there were a total of 37 participants. Every institution had at least 2 participants. The highest number of participants was from Institut Agama Islam Negeri Madura, which had eight participants.

Table 2. Islamic higher educational institutions in East Java.

Islamic higher education	Geographical region	No. of participants	Total no. of participants
Institute Agama Islam Negeri Madura	Pamekasan	8 participants	37 participants
Universitas Islam Negeri Sunan Ampel	Surabaya	5 participants	
Universitas Islam Negeri KH Akmad Siddiq	Jember	7 participants	
Universitas Islam Negeri Maulana Malik Ibrahim	Malang	6 participants	
Universitas Islam Negeri Sayyid Ali Rahmatullah	Tulungagung	5 participants	
Institute Agama Islam Negeri Kediri	Kediri	4 participants	
Institute Agama Islam Negeri Ponorogo	Ponorogo	2 participants	

These 37 participants had comprehensive demographic information, enhancing the reliability and robustness of the data. Despite the relatively small number of participants, the detailed demographic information provided valuable insights into the self-efficacy of English lecturers in using educational technology in the post-COVID-19 pandemic era. Table 3 shows a diverse sample population of English faculty members, covering different age groups, teaching experience levels, and educational attainments. Thus, the study's validity is maintained. However, it is important to note that the generalizability of these findings to a larger population, such as all English lecturers in Indonesia or other regions, may be limited due to the specific characteristics and context of the participants in this study. The findings provide valuable insights within the scope of the study, but further research involving a larger and more diverse population is needed to enhance the generalizability of the results.

Table 3. The demographic characteristics of the English faculty members as the research participants.

Demographic characteristic		**n**	**%**	**Total**
Sex	Male	17	46	37
	Female	20	54	
Age	25-30 years	2	5.40	37
	30-35 years	11	29.72	
	35 -40 years	9	24.32	
	40-45 years	5	13.51	
	45-50 years	7	18.91	
	50-60 years	3	8.10	
Teaching experience	1-5 years	8	21.62	37
	5-10 years	10	27.02	
	10-15 years	10	27.02	
	15-20 years	5	13.51	
	More than 20 years	3	8.10	
	Not answered	1	2.70	
Highest educational attainment	Master (s2)	32	86.48	37
	Doctoral (s3)	5	18.50	

3.2 Instrument Development

Professional Self-Efficacy Scale for Information and Communication Technology Teachers (PSES) (Banoglu et al., 2015) was adapted by sorting and eliminating the questions that did not suit the research questions. The validity test using SPSS 2.0 shows that all questionnaire items excluded the general information questions were valid, and the Cronbach Alpha value was .948, which shows satisfactory internal consistency. The self-efficacy level of pedagogical skills and actual use of educational technology was assessed in parts 2 and 3 of the questionnaire which used a 5-point Likert scale from 1 as strongly disagree to 5 as strongly agree. Part 4 included four open questions to reveal the factors influencing the lecturers' self-efficacy on the use of educational technology in the post-COVID-19 pandemic. Table 4 shows the result of the validity test of the instrument.

Table 4. Summary of validity testing of the instrument.

Item number	r_{xy}	r_{table} **(N = 10)**	**Conclusion**
1	0.807	0.632	Valid
2	0.854	0.632	Valid

Table 4 continued…

3	0.748	0.632	Valid
4	0.809	0.632	Valid
5	0.879	0.632	Valid
6	0.850	0.632	Valid
7	0.873	0.632	Valid
8	0.830	0.632	Valid
9	0.805	0.632	Valid
10	0.817	0.632	Valid

The questionnaire was distributed to the targeted participants through WhatsApp groups and private messages to English-teaching lecturers at Islamic higher education institutions in East Java. The data collection was closed two weeks after the distribution to allow lecturers to complete and disseminate the questionnaire.

3.3 Data Analysis Procedure

IBM SPSS Statistics version 2.0 was used to analyze the data, including frequencies, percentages, and standard deviation. In addition, content analysis was utilized to evaluate the open-ended questions. Table 5 highlights the lecturers' educational technology self-efficacy interval and criteria; meanwhile, Table 6 shows the interval and criteria for lecturers' pedagogical skills and actual use as suggested by Banoglu et al. (2015).

Table 5. Interval and criteria of lecturer's self-efficacy in using educational technology post COVID-19 pandemic.

Scales	Interval	Criteria	Descriptor
Self-efficacy	4.96 - 5.00	High	The lecturer has very good self-efficacy in using technology in education
	3.38 - 4.95	Moderate	The lecturer has sufficient self-efficacy in using technology in education
	1.00 - 3.37	Low	The lecturer has insufficient self-efficacy in using technology in education

Table 6. Interval and criteria of lecturers' pedagogical skill and actual use of ICT.

Subscales	Interval	Criteria	Descriptor
Pedagogical skill	4.96 – 5.00	High	The lecturer has very good pedagogical skills in using technology in education.
	3.38 – 4.95	Moderate	The lecturer has sufficient pedagogical skills in using technology in education.
	1.00 – 3.37	Low	The lecturer has insufficient pedagogical skills in using technology in education.
Actual use of educational technology	4.87 – 5.00	High	Lecturers use technology in education in their classroom practice very often.
	3.38 – 4.86	Moderate	Lecturers sometimes use technology in education in their classroom practice.
	1.00 – 3.37	Low	Lecturers rarely use technology in education in their classroom practice.

The qualitative data analysis involved content analysis of the open-ended questionnaire responses. The content analysis allowed for the systematic categorization and interpretation of the data to identify patterns and themes. It provided a deeper understanding of the factors influencing the participants' pedagogical skills and actual use of educational technology.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Lecturers' Level of Self-Efficacy in Pedagogical Skills and Actual Use of Educational Technology in the Post-COVID-19 Pandemic

This study assessed the lecturers' self-efficacy in pedagogical skills and actual use of educational technology in the post-COVID-19 pandemic, as shown in Table 7. In terms of pedagogical skill variables, the findings indicated that lecturers had high self-efficacy in integrating educational technology into their instruction. However, a small percentage of respondents (24.3%) expressed uncertainty regarding the development of students' language skills through the use of educational technology, despite their belief in its ability to facilitate learning, promote collaboration, and provide online individual consultation.

Table 7. Variables of lecturers' educational technology self-efficacy.

Variables	Statement	Frequency (%)				
		SA	A	N	DA	SDA
Pedagogical skill	I can develop students' language skills by using educational technology to learn	40.5	35.1	24.3	0	0
	I can foster student learning motivation by using educational technology.	45.9	35.1	16.2	2.7	0
	I can help students collaborate online by using educational technology	37.8	37.8	21.9	5.4	0
	I can provide individual learning consultations to students online by using educational technology.	54.1	32.4	2.7	8.1	2.7
	By using educational technology, I can evaluate the student learning online (formative and summative assessments).	37.8	37.8	18.9	0	5.4
Actual use of educational technology	I can use online educational technology platforms (synchronous and asynchronous learning platforms like Zoom, Google Meet, Flipgrid, quizzes, Canva, Padlet, Kahoot, Module, Edmodo, etc.) to motivate students to participate in lectures actively	37.8	35.1	18.9	8.1	0
	I can use online education technology platforms (synchronous and asynchronous learning platforms like Zoom, Google Meet, Flipgrid, Quizzis, Canva, Padlet, Kahoot, Module, Edmodo, etc.) to guide students so they can achieve their lecture goals very well	29.7	40.5	24.3	5.4	0
	I can use online education technology platforms (synchronous and asynchronous learning platforms like Zoom, Google Meet, Flipgrid, Quizzis, Canva, Padlet, Kahoot, Module, Edmodo, etc.) to do an evaluation	32.4	45.9	13.5	5.4	2.7

Table 7 continued…

	I can use appropriate digital documents (e.g., spreadsheets, and e-portfolios) to manage student assignment data.	43.2	37.8	10.8	5.4	2.7
	I can find and use additional educational technology tools (e.g., apps, and platforms) to support my course online.	48.6	32.4	13.5	5.4	0

One interesting finding in the self-efficacy of actual use of educational technology variable was that a higher percentage of respondents strongly agreed that they could use appropriate educational technology to manage the students' assignment data and to find and use additional educational technology tools to support their course online rather than the percentage of respondents who strongly agreed to use the educational technology to guide students in achieving their lecture goals and evaluate their learning. This finding indicated that using educational technology platforms in these contexts was valuable and effective, particularly in supporting teaching and learning. At the same time, this finding also suggested room for improvement in using educational technology for motivating students and doing evaluations.

Overall, the effectiveness of educational technology in enhancing the students' language abilities was evaluated based on the lecturers' opinions and perceptions. The findings presented in Table 7 revealed that respondents held a range of opinions. Even though some lecturers expressed strong agreement or agreement that educational technology could improve language skills, a sizeable proportion remained unconvinced. This suggests a lack of agreement among lecturers regarding the efficacy of educational technology in enhancing language skills. It is important to note that the focus of Table 7 was on the lecturers' self-efficacy in using educational technology rather than the direct measurement of technology's effectiveness on language skills. Therefore, the table only provides insight into the lecturers' confidence and belief in their ability to use technology effectively rather than conclusive evidence of its influence on language skill improvement.

However, previous studies have yielded contradictory findings regarding the effectiveness of educational technology. For example, Kusuma (2021) discovered positive efficacy among lecturers using educational technology in their English lessons, indicating their recognition of the potential of technology platforms in supporting teaching and learning in a variety of contexts. This was consistent with this present study's findings, as the majority of respondents in this study also demonstrated positive efficacy in their use of educational technology.

However, this present study also revealed that a substantial proportion of lecturers remained neutral in response to certain statements, indicating that there was space for improvement in their utilization of more advanced educational technology tools and platforms. This echoes Kusuma's (2022) emphasis on the need for ongoing professional development activities and training to enhance instructors' abilities to use these technologies more effectively. These findings also demonstrated the importance of providing lecturers with ongoing support and training to help them further develop their technological skills and confidence. By addressing the neutral responses and expanding upon the lecturers' positive efficacy, it is possible to optimize the integration of educational technology in English instruction and create more effective learning environments.

Notably, future research should investigate the actual impact of educational technology on the students' language abilities by taking into account both lecturers' and students' perspectives. This will contribute to a greater comprehension of the efficacy and potential difficulties associated with the use of educational technology in language instruction. In conclusion, the findings presented in Table 7 suggested that while there was a general acceptance and positive attitude toward using educational technology platforms and tools, there was still a need for further exploration and development in this area. Therefore, lecturers should be encouraged to participate in professional development programs to enhance their skills and knowledge in using educational technology more effectively, which could lead to students' better outcomes.

4.1.1 The lecturers' self-efficacy on pedagogical skills in using educational technology in the post-COVID-19 pandemic

Table 8 provides an overview of the lecturers' self-efficacy on pedagogical abilities in utilizing educational technology, as measured by a self-report questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of statements about various pedagogical skills pertinent to the use of technology in education. On a Likert scale, participants assessed their agreement with each statement, providing valuable insight into their pedagogical abilities. The mean score of 4.16 indicated that the lecturers' self-efficacy in pedagogical skills in using educational technology was, on average, moderate. Several lecturers exhibited exceptional competence in this area. Notably, only 27% of lecturers scored in the 'high' category, indicating the need to improve the pedagogical skills of the majority of lecturers to attain a higher level of proficiency in the use of educational technology.

Table 8. The lecturers' self-efficacy on pedagogical skills in using educational technology.

n	Mean score	Frequency		
		High	Moderate	Low
37	4.16	27%	59.5%	13.5%

In the survey questionnaire, participants were asked how technological complexity affects the utility of educational technology. The study discovered that technological complexity diminished perceived usefulness. This was crucial because it demonstrated that while technology may enhance pedagogy, it must be user-friendly for teachers. Therefore, policymakers should design and implement educational technology that is users' friendly.

The analysis of the survey data acquired for this study led to the conclusion that enabling conditions, such as supportive resources, play a significant role in promoting the use of educational technology. Participants were questioned regarding the availability of resources, such as technical support and training, and how these factors affected their use of educational technology. Examining the responses and identifying the trends revealed that lecturers with access to sufficient resources were more likely to utilize educational technology effectively.

Comparing these findings to those of prior research, similar conclusions have been derived about the significance of facilitating conditions in promoting the use of educational technology. Consistently, research has demonstrated that providing lecturers with the necessary resources, support, and training had a positive effect on their pedagogical abilities and technology utilization in educational settings. The findings of this study were consistent with those of previous research, highlighting the need for policymakers and institutions to invest in providing lecturers with the necessary resources and support to improve their proficiency in utilizing educational technology (Al-Mamary et al., 2022).

4.1.2 The lecturers' self-efficacy on actual use of educational technology in the post-COVID-19 pandemic

Table 9 provides valuable insight into the lecturers' self-efficacy on the actual use of educational technology by lecturers in the classroom. The mean score of 4.07 indicated a moderate level of technology integration, casting light on the extent to which technology was utilized in the classroom. Notably, this finding was especially significant in the context of the post-pandemic era, in which online education has become widespread. Examining the frequency of technology use, the data showed that 27% of participants reported using educational technology very frequently, 57% reported using it occasionally, and 16% reported using it infrequently. These results highlighted the need for additional training and support for teachers who utilize technology infrequently in the classroom. It emphasized the significance of equipping lecturers with the skills and resources necessary to effectively incorporate educational technology into their teaching, thereby ensuring that students have optimal learning experiences.

Table 9. The lecturers' self-efficacy on actual use of educational technology in their classroom practice.

n	Mean score	Frequency		
		High	Moderate	Low
37	4.07	27%	57%	16%

This finding is consistent with prior research that emphasized the significance of instructors' self-efficacy in integrating technology into their classroom practices (Wright & Akgunduz, 2018). Educators with a high level of self-efficacy in utilizing technology were more likely to have a positive attitude toward its use and more open to exploring new tools and approaches. As a consequence, they were more likely to develop higher levels of technology literacy and integrate technology into their teaching effectively. The significance of providing lecturers with opportunities to develop their self-efficacy through training, support, and access to resources was highlighted by these results. Investing in initiatives that develop lecturers' self-efficacy and provide them with the required training and resources can therefore contribute to the successful integration of educational technology in higher education settings.

4.2 The Factors Contributing to the Lecturers' Self-efficacy on the Use of Educational Technology in the Post-COVID-19 Pandemic

This study revealed that even after the COVID-19 pandemic when online learning was no longer mandatory, the usage of educational technology among lecturers was still influenced by demographic characteristics. Consistent with the findings of Horvitz et al. (2015), factors such as tenure, discipline, rank, and sex played a role in lecturers' self-efficacy in using educational technology. To gain further insights into the practical utilization of educational technology, the questionnaire used in this study included open-ended questions in Part 4. The responses to these questions provided valuable information about lecturers' self-efficacy on the use of educational technology in the post-COVID-19 era. They shed light on their motivations and reasons for incorporating technology into their teaching practices. By exploring the practical implementation of educational technology, this study offered a deeper understanding of how lecturers' self-efficacy in navigating and leveraging these technological tools in their classrooms were

4.2.1 Age factor

The demographic data of age revealed that twenty-two respondents were under 40 years old and the other fifteen lecturers were above 40 years old. Most lecturers under 35 years old said that they used various platforms for synchronous and asynchronous learning. One of them explained as follows:

(1) R1-Q18: "I conduct synchronous teaching using platforms such as Zoom, MS, Teams, Webex and asynchronously using Edmodo and Moodle".

Another lecturer praised the educational technology, highlighting its potential for innovation and facilitation of the learning process. This claim emphasizes the distinct opportunities offered by technology to improve and transform the learning experience. He claimed as follows:

(2) R15-Q18: "Technology in education provides ample space for me to innovate learning and mediate the learning process, which cannot be done in face-to-face classes".

This study's findings supported the idea that age was a significant factor influencing the use of educational technology by lecturers. Younger instructors, who were frequently digital residents or millennials, demonstrated greater comfort and proficiency with educational technology than their senior counterparts. Their adaptability to new technologies and extensive interaction with technology, in general, contributed to their efficient use of synchronous and modern educational tools. In contrast, senior instructors tended to use fewer educational technologies and were more limited to passive applications. This finding is consistent with previous research that has identified age as a factor influencing teachers' use of technology in the classroom (Shi & Jiang, 2022; Syafi'i & Anam, 2022). In addition, the study discovered that lecturers' experiences with educational technology positively influenced their intention to use technology, corroborating previous research on the relationship between technological self-efficacy and intention to use technology (Joo et al., 2018; Sun & Mei, 2022).

4.2.2 Sex factor

Twenty females and seventeen males comprised the participants in this study making a comparable gender distribution. In the aftermath of the COVID-19 pandemic, the respondents' responses to the open-ended questions about their self-efficacy on the use of educational technology revealed a propensity for actual use. This study also revealed a slight difference in self-efficacy regarding the use of educational technology, particularly when teachers decided to implement a novel, complex technology. As mentioned in the following excerpt, female lecturers tended to utilize the readily available technologies they favored prior to the pandemic, such as PowerPoint slideshows and videos, as well as WhatsApp and Telegram.

(3) R7-Q19: "I use PowerPoint presentation as learning media, I also use social media such as WhatsApp, Telegram, Facebook, Instagram, Twitter, and TikTok as learning media".

On the other hand, male lecturers showed their effort to use a more complicated technology in their teaching in an asynchronous or synchronous mode. This included the use of Moodle, Edmodo, and Webex. One of the male lecturers said in the following excerpt.

(4) R11-Q19: "I use various educational technologies online and offline such as Webex, Zoom, social media, and presentation tools".

Consistent with prior research demonstrating sex differences in lecturers' attitudes and experiences with educational technology, these findings confirmed the existence of such distinctions. Stein and Lajmi (2019) discovered that when confronted with challenging tasks, female lecturers demonstrated less persistence and were more likely to attribute failure to their own lack of capability than male lecturers. Durndell et al. (2000) also demonstrated that males had more computer experience and more positive attitudes than females. Hanham et al. (2021) found that females scored higher than males in terms of facilitating conditions, corroborating these sex differences in experiences and attitudes toward technology. Collectively, these studies demonstrated the need for additional research into the sex-related factors that may influence the adoption and utilization of educational technology among lecturers.

4.2.3 Qualification factor

The participants of this study had different qualifications. Out of the 37 participants, 32 had a master's degree and 5 others had a doctoral degree. From the results of the open-ended questionnaire, all of them stated to had experience using technology in education during the COVID-19 pandemic. They perceived to have sufficient pedagogical knowledge in using the technology, and this was reflected in their self-efficacy in the use of technology. Most of them also stated that they were more likely to continue using the technology in the post-pandemic era either through offline or hybrid learning. However, the variety of technology in education they would use was diverse. Most of the participants who hold master's degrees had used various technologies in education, for example, Learning Management Systems (LMS) (Edmodo, Google Classroom, Moodle), social media (WhatsApp, Facebook, Twitter, Instagram), and presentation tool (PowerPoint slideshow and video). They also mentioned about how technology helped them in the teaching process as in the following excerpt:

(5) R3-Q19: "Technology helped me manage the classroom instruction and the assessments".

They also mentioned that they had to keep up with technology because their students were already in the 4.0 world. Unlike the participants who hold doctoral degrees but did not choose to use online learning platforms such as Microsoft Team, Zoom, and Webex, the participants who hold master's degrees would continue using the platforms.

(6) R25-Q21: "I would continue using online platforms because it helps students to learn the material better since I usually record the meeting and they can watch the recording later".

The lecturers' responses, exemplified in the excerpt, are consistent with the findings of Horvitz et al. (2015), which indicated that lecturers with lower qualifications may be more confident in their use of technology than those with higher qualifications. However, their confidence tended to be dependent on the technology platform they have selected and utilized for offline education. In this instance, the lecturer's confidence in using online platforms originated from the belief that recording meetings for later viewing aids students' learning. This finding suggested that lecturers' technological confidence can vary based on their qualifications and preferences for specific technological tools or platforms. The factors that contribute to these variations and their implications for the effective integration of technology in education require additional research.

4.2.4 Teaching experience factor

Consistent with previous research findings about the age factor, the findings of this study indicated that lecturers with less than 20 years of teaching experience utilized a greater variety of educational technology than their more experienced counterparts. This is corroborated by the following quote from one of the participants:

(7) R5-Q21: "Technology makes it easy for lecturers to explore material more creatively and innovatively and also refers to the principles of effectiveness and efficiency".

Younger lecturers with less teaching experience were more likely to implement and experiment with various instructional technologies, according to the findings of this study. In contrast, lecturers with more years of teaching experience may be less likely to implement new technologies due to a preference for traditional teaching methods or a lack of exposure to newer educational technologies earlier in their careers. It is crucial to consider lecturers' teaching experience (Petko et al., 2018) when designing professional development programs and support systems for integrating educational technology into instructional practices. By providing targeted training and resources, educational institutions can enhance the technological skills and confidence of more experienced lecturers, thereby promoting a more extensive and efficient use of technology across all levels of teaching experience.

(8) R22-Q21: "Technology can help make learning more engaging, practical, and flexible. The learning process does not have to be done in the classroom. In addition, students can also be made more independent by providing access to additional material from learning in the classroom".

It is essential to note, however, that the findings do not imply that lecturers with more than 20 years of teaching experience did not use technology in their classrooms.

Instead, they utilized offline-capable technologies, such as presentation tools like PowerPoint slideshows and videos, as well as social media platforms with which they were already familiar, such as WhatsApp, Facebook, Instagram, and Twitter. This indicated that these experienced lecturers were familiar with and had integrated technology into their daily lives.

In general, this study showed that English lecturers with less than 20 years of teaching experience had better self-efficacy in using various educational technologies compared to those who had more teaching experience as similarly found by Petko et al. (2018). It was presumably because they had more experience in engaging with technology. A similar finding was also reported by Roussinos and Jimoyiannis (2019) who suggested that was significant correlation existed between years of teaching experience and the use of technology in education. In other words, less teaching experienced lecturers may have an advantage of using various educational technologies due to their exposure and familiarity with the technology. However, lecturers with more teaching experiences may have a deeper understanding of how to integrate technology effectively into their teaching, having encountered and overcome various technological challenges. Therefore, it is important to recognize that self-efficacy in technology use was not solely based on teaching experience but rather a combination of various factors that contribute to an individual's ability to effectively use technology in education.

5. CONCLUSION

There is a significant conclusion that can be drawn from the result and discussion. Most of the lecturers perceived themselves to have moderate self-efficacy in pedagogical skills and actual use of educational technology in the classroom. They believed that using educational technology helped them manage the lessons, the students, and the assessment. Therefore, they will continue using educational technology in various platforms in the post-COVID-19 era. There is a slightly similar finding about the lecturers' self-efficacy in the actual use of educational technology, where most of the lecturers moderately used educational technology. They still used educational technology in their classroom, but their options for educational technology tools were diverse. Those who believed to have very good pedagogical skills used the technology very often in their classroom practices, and their choice of technology varied. It was also supported by the result of the open-ended questionnaire about their experiences in using educational technology in their classroom practices in the post-COVID-19 pandemic. Most of the lecturers mentioned that they would continue using educational technology in their classrooms because they believed that integrating technology into their classrooms made their teaching more effective. Some even mentioned that the use of technology in education fostered innovation from both the lecturers and students, and it enhanced the students' motivation because of its flexibility. However, due to their moderate self-efficacy in their pedagogical skills, the educational technology they preferred to use was limited to the ones they used during online learning during the COVID-19 Pandemic. There is room for improvement for lecturers who perceive themselves to have a moderate level of pedagogical skills, particularly by participating in the professional development designed to meet the needs of the lecturers to enhance their digital literacy. Another implication is for the stakeholders or policymakers to design and conduct appropriate training on technology for the lecturers.

Age, gender, teaching experience, and education qualification were factors influencing the lecturers' self-efficacy on the use of educational technology in the post-COVID-19 era. However, their contribution was varied. Younger lecturers who were exposed to technology more frequently tended to have more positive efficacy on the use of more complex and various technologies. Female lecturers were likely to use ready-to-use technology and avoided complicated tools. Lecturers with more years of teaching experience preferred to have conventional classes with less technology involved, which can also be linked to age factors. Lecturers who hold doctoral degrees opted to use technology with less complexity. Subsequently, it is better noted that lecturers' self-efficacy in using technology in the classroom was not dependent on a single factor but a combination of factors even the ones that were not discussed in this study such as geography. Therefore, the technological training design should consider these influencing factors to effectively enhance the lecturers' self-efficacy in using educational technology.

The results of the measurements of self-efficacy in using educational technology in the post-COVID-19 pandemic may fluctuate over time because the survey was only conducted for two weeks. Moreover, the study's respondents were limited to English lecturers in Islamic higher educational institutions in East Java, Indonesia. Due to the differences in academic environments, cultures, institutional backgrounds, and educational policies, the study's findings may not be generalizable to a broader educational context. Future research should be conducted to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the lecturers' self-efficacy on pedagogical skills and actual use of educational technology and factors influencing the lecturers' self-efficacy on the use of educational technology in the classroom.

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'Getting Stuck': A Study of Indonesian EFL Learners' Self-Efficacy, Emotional Intelligence, and Speaking Achievement

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Abstract

The problems of speaking mastery faced by EFL students in higher education are various. The frequency of making mistakes in completing specific tasks is because of poor communication skills. Students have minimum chances resulting lack of practice that affects their successful performance. Self-efficacy and emotional intelligence were determined to be two essential components to developing and improving learners' speaking abilities. This study is purposed to investigate the correlation between self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, and the achievement of students' English speaking. This study used a quantitative correlational design. The data are gathered by using a self-efficacy scale expanded from the General Self-Efficacy Skill (GSE), emotional intelligence was measured with the emotional intelligence scale adapted from the Emotional Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ), while the speaking achievement was administered to 100 students in public speaking class. The students performed a seven-minute speech and scored based on the content, proficiency, and delivery method. The data on self-efficacy and emotional intelligence were analyzed by using multiple correlations and multiple regressions. The finding shows a significant correlation between

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self-efficacy and students' speaking achievement (F=9.510; p=0.003<0.05), while the effect size of self-efficacy on students' speaking achievement is 0.102 or 10,2 %. However, there is no correlation between emotional intelligence and speaking achievement (F=2.861; p=0.094>0.05). Due to the absence of a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and speaking achievement then this makes the effect size of the emotional intelligence on speaking achievement very small which is 3.3%. Then, the best model to describe students' achievement is by using self-efficacy variables and eliminating emotional intelligence variables (t=3.084; Sig. 0.003<0.05). This study contributes to all speaking teachers being able to reveal the students' self-efficacy and emotional intelligence toward learning speaking.

Keywords: ELF learners, self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, speaking achievement.

1. INTRODUCTION

Speaking mastery has been regularly studied in relation to the effects of numerous issues encountered by the learners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in higher education. Teaching English speaking is quite challenging in English Language Teaching (ELT) regarding input-poor contexts. Learners are not exposed to English as the target language outside of the class, but they might practice it in classroom activities. Learners are anxious and quiet in speaking class due to the fear of making mistakes to do individual tasks with limited time (Anggraeni et al., 2020). If it is connected to self-criticizing related to mistakes in grammar or pronunciation (Aslan & Şahin, 2020), the students have difficulties in expressing their ideas and thoughts caused by minimum communication ability, cannot choose or use the appropriate words, idioms, structures and phrases (Ugla et al., 2012). Indeed, they also have few opportunities to practice speaking English as a foreign language (Alotumi, 2021; Uztosun, 2020). It causes a lack of practice, lowers their motivation, and impacts their achievement (Mandasari & Aminatun, 2020). Speaking achievement should be based on the classroom participation developed by the teachers to promote a supportive and non-threatening learning process (Aslan & Şahin, 2020). According to Celce-Murcia et al. (2014), speaking can be performed based on several activities; those are discussion, conversation, role play, audiotaped journal, drilling, and speech. As this study focuses on the speech performed by university students, they should create a way on how they could speak fluently by starting with an excellent one-minute opening speech (Santoso, 2017). Following today's trend that learning needs to involve technology, the speech is video-recorded by using information and communication technology (Djiwandono, 2019), then, it is posted on social media so that teachers and classmates can evaluate their speaking performance (Santoso & Mandarani, 2021), and students can evaluate their peers through virtual learning (Alberth et al., 2018).

However, speaking ability is a combination of cognitive, physical, socio-cultural, and speaker inquiry information that occurs in a real-life time and context (Goh & Burns, 2012). Yet, even though much research is quite helpful in the teaching and learning process, especially in improving speaking achievement these decades

(Gani et al., 2015; Kanaker & Ghani, 2018; Muslem & Yulianti, 2015; Sahardin et al., 2019), the learners' achievements are however still below expectation (Alsyouf & Al Kayed, 2021). According to an informal interview, we found a few learners who prepared the speaking performance confidently. They put some supporting materials for presenting a speech and added appropriate visual aids, for instance, texts, pictures, and short videos compiled altogether in the PowerPoint. This preparation helps them improve their performance better confidently. Furthermore, they also ensure and manage their emotion to finish the speech at the right time which impact on their achievement. It is a kind of belief influenced by the enthusiasm for improving initiative activities, so-called self-efficacy (Demir et al., 2015). However, although, this activity could influence their performance better, not many students do this. In addition to online learning sessions, students may require additional work to perfect their speaking skills as a result of their English exposure and practice which affects their lack of confidence (Ellis, 2008). According to our best practice of teaching experience to the students of the English Education study program at the biggest private university in Sidoarjo, Indonesia, to gain speaking achievement during the pandemic COVID-19 outbreak, a student has to perform in online meetings where other students can see their classmates' faces. In doing a speaking performance, the student looks at the camera or sometimes the screen while other classmates can see him or her on screen. From the performance, it appears that the eyes move left and right, some others look up or down without any specific reasons.

The students somehow directly stop speaking because they forget what to say next. After several seconds of pause, they resume the new things that may or may not have a relationship with the previous topic they presented. It seems that they plan the material and memorize every single word before presenting which makes it difficult to wake up after losing their memorization. In the end, the result of their speaking presentation on the screen shows problems with self-efficacy in speaking. Students may become tongue-tied or unable to find words, resulting in poor speaking performance. As a result, self-efficacy is viewed as a source of tension and despair that plays an important role in speaking because of its ability to relieve anxiety and negative ideas (Tahmassian & Moghadam, 2011) that correlate to the learners' English proficiency.

On the other hand, in the middle of delivering the presentation, many students tend to get stuck, for instance, they forget about the following materials to say in front of the audience. Most of them focus on memorizing the long script instead of improvising from the outline they have made through PowerPoint. So, they pause their performance due to the nervous feeling several times. These chronological problems affect their emotional intelligence. They have difficulty managing their emotion when delivering the presentation. Emotional intelligence in EFL students tends to boost such confidence related to the ability to plan and execute the steps; from opening speech, body of the speech, and closing; which are important for a successful performance. Learners who can recognize, control, and analyze their emotions may be more capable in their communication skills (Afshar & Rahimi, 2014). Concerning that matter, psychological issues such as lack of prior knowledge of the subject and low self-esteem are sources of students' inability to talk and fear of speaking in front of others. These fear and anxiety emerge when the students get their turns to deliver a certain topic, they worry about spelling and grammatical errors, mispronouncing specific words, and being evaluated by their peers or the lecturer (Aslan & Şahin, 2020). The theoretical framework revealed a significant lack of research on the correlation between self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, and students' speaking achievement. Many studies on self-efficacy and emotional intelligence in education are utilized to predict instructors' effectiveness in teaching based on our best understanding (Shead et al., 2016).

Although the literature in this area abounds with studies investigating the correlation between self-efficacy and emotional intelligence in EFL learning, limited studies in the Indonesian context examine the relationship between the two variables and the components of EFL learners' speaking achievement. As a result, to address a research gap, this study will look into the relationship between self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, and speaking ability. The research questions are phrased as follows:

1. What is the correlation between self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, and speaking ability among students?
2. Which of the following factors, self-efficacy or emotional intelligence, is a better predictor of speaking ability?
3. Which one is a stronger predictor of speaking ability, self-efficacy, or emotional intelligence?

According to the three research questions above, this research is expected to give significances. Theoretically, this research contributes new insight into the correlation between self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, and speaking achievement at higher education levels. Practically, this research can help English teachers easily predict the students' speaking achievement by knowing their self-efficacy and emotional intelligence. Therefore, the novelty of this research is the formula of the predictor of speaking achievement.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Self-Efficacy

Although studies on self-efficacy have been implemented as the predictor (Choi & Lee, 2016) in many lines of life such as for assessing perceived stress and mental health status (Moeini et al., 2008), conceptualize students' experience on science (Cartwright & Atwood, 2014), based on our best understanding, much education research is still at the top of google search. In education, self-efficacy is used to predict how effective teachers are in the teaching and learning process (Chukwudi, 2014; Clark & Newberry, 2019; Lee & van Vlack, 2018). Regarding speaking as a communication tool, self-efficacy is related to someone's belief to manage the situation and get a positive outcome dealing with the intuition to carry out and arrange the actions involved in the production of the projects. It is emphasized that self-efficacy is a crucial part of studying a language to obtain the English communication qualification (Ningias & Indriani, 2021).

The term 'self-efficacy' refers to someone's skill to coordinate and execute game plans to attain specific goals (Bandura et al., 1999). It affects the EFL students' performance in learning language skills, such as speaking. The self-efficacy in performing speaking will guide the students to gain better achievement, for it is strongly related (Alawiyah, 2018). In addition, Satyarthi and Malhotra (2021) describe self-efficacy as the belief in someone's capability to manage others' motivation, behavior, and social environment called cognitive self-evaluations. It affects experience which involves goals that people struggle with. The amount of energy expended to reach achievement and certain levels of performance. In other words, the studies on speaking anxiety and self-efficacy suggested that students might associate stress and depression in particular with the speaking task they were assigned (Fatimah, 2018). This is because speaking can be challenging for students learning a new language because it calls for the ability to interact with others productively.

Yet, the personal assessments of students' ability to plan and carry out actions in order to obtain specified educational results are referred to as perceived academic self-efficacy (Bandura et al., 1999). They created scales to assess perceived academic efficacy as a part of a micro-analytic procedure to determine its level, generality, and strength across activities and contexts. In terms of academic performance, self-efficacy level refers to variations across various levels of tasks. It involves the assessments of students' skills to carry out tasks. The students evaluate themselves based on their ability to complete a task, not on who they are as persons or how they feel about themselves generally. Second, rather than being a single trait, efficacy beliefs are multifaceted. Third, self-efficacy measures vary depending on the environment since a variety of non-ability effects can either improve or hinder the use of skills. Students may display less confidence in their ability to learn in competitive classroom environments than in cooperative ones, for instance. Self-efficacy measures' dependence on a mastery performance criterion rather than normative or other criteria is a fourth characteristic related to their strength component. Students are asked to rate their confidence in their ability to solve mathematical problems of various difficulty, not how well they think they will perform relative to other students. Finally, self-efficacy is evaluated prior to pupils engaging in the necessary actions. For assessing the function of self-efficacy beliefs in causal systems, this antecedent attribute offers temporal ordering.

2.2 Emotional Intelligence

Learners with strong emotional intelligence engage in more speaking and brain-based tasks. In reality, their excellent self-esteem and social abilities enable them to readily collaborate with others. Learners with poor emotional intelligence, on the other hand, have less suitable social relationships, which isolates them from the classroom environment and prevents them from participating in speaking and brain-based tasks (Bora, 2012).

Emotional intelligence, according to Salovey and Grewal (2005), considers emotions as useful sources of information that help in making sense of and navigating the social world, bringing together the realms of emotions and intellect. They classify emotional intelligence into four categories. Perceiving emotions is the first branch, which refers to the capability of recognizing and decoding emotions through face, photograph, sound, and cultural artifacts. To put it another way, recognizing emotions entails the skill to recognize someone's emotions. This kind of skill that harnesses emotions to facilitate a variety of cognitive functions, such as thinking and problem-solving, is the second branch. Understanding emotions is the third branch, which allows you to decipher emotional language and appreciate complex emotional interactions. It includes the ability to be sensitive to minor changes in emotional states. The fourth branch is emotional management, which entails the ability to control our own and others' emotions. It demonstrates that everyone has had instances in their lives when they have temporarily lost control of their emotions, which can be embarrassing.

As quoted in Esmaeeli et al. (2018), the importance of emotional intelligence as a variable is connected to individual differences in language learning. It has been taken into account together with other elements that show individuals' particular language acquisition capacities. In light of this, emotional intelligence appears to be crucial for language learning. The most significant issue for EFL learners is that they are inadequate in oral communication, which is necessary for learning a foreign language. Speaking has thus always been difficult for the students. In short, the ability to recognize and express emotion, absorb emotion in cognition, understand, and reason with emotion, and manage emotion is referred to as emotional intelligence. They found that the techniques sought to identify the emotional characteristics of emotionally intelligent people, as well as the methods and procedures that cause the abilities to be used in everyday life. As a result, emotionally intelligent people are greater team players and more effective motivators (Chukwudi, 2014). Furthermore, emotional intelligence is described as the capability to control someone's and others' emotions, as well as the capability to use feelings and emotions to improve motivation, formulate and implement strategies, and achieve planned goals (Mayer & Salovey, 1995). So, emotional intelligence is then used to hypothesize and appeal the accurate emotional appraisal and expression among one person and another (Afshar & Rahimi, 2014). Our study tries to hypothesize the emotional appraisal of students' performance in presenting speaking, and whether their emotion influences the speaking performance that impacts their speaking achievement.

Chukwudi (2014) showed a significant positive correlation between emotional intelligence, efficacy, and effectiveness in pre-service teachers. Emotional intelligence and teacher efficacy were found to be important predictors of teachers' effectiveness. In relation to emotional intelligence's nature, the study found that emotional intelligence is a strong predictor of teacher effectiveness. Abdolrezapour and Tavakoli (2012) experimented 63 students regarding with the possibility based on Goleman's concept and its relationship to reading comprehension achievement, to improve emotional intelligence through prepared literary response activities. They measured the result of emotional intelligence and reading comprehension achievement by using the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire–Adolescent Short Form and discovered that the tested group's reading achievement was higher.

In addition to the studies of emotional intelligence, they are used for predicting the students' nature of emotion toward the acceptance of the materials. In brief, self-efficacy is an important psychological capital so that students can achieve optimal performance. Apart from that, the ability to manage emotions can help students to remain calm when demands for high achievement, and stable emotions will help students get optimal information in learning, one of which is speaking achievement. Thus, according to the issues, we assume that self-efficacy and emotional intelligence are correlated to the students' speaking achievement

Ateş (2019) measured emotional intelligence to reading comprehension skills and reading anxiety. He investigated 138 students and found that emotional intelligence affects reading comprehension skills and reading anxiety. He found that the students' emotional intelligence decreased their overall reading anxiety levels (ß=-6.69). The pupils' reading comprehension skills improved (ß=9.079) as a result of their general emotional intelligence level. It showed that female students (x=3.389) had higher general emotional intelligence ratings than male students (x=3.181) (t=2.944; p=0.004 <0.05). Learning a second language is a tedious and intricate process that needs to implement potential resources to reach optimal results (Esmaeeli et al., 2018). English teachers must consider either internal or exterior mechanisms to fully comprehend the complex language acquisition process (Santoso & Mandarani, 2021). In this regard, because emotional intelligence is a necessary internal component linked to individual differences in the classroom, English teachers need to be aware of the emotional intelligence concept and make efforts to help students develop their abilities. Students will be more engaged communicators and attain a high degree of proficiency in language lessons as a result of emotional intelligence (Barany, 2021).

Since the review of the relevant literature found that self-efficacy and emotional intelligence are two crucial elements in the development of EFL, cultivating these skills also enhances learners' speaking proficiency. It is the result of a deficiency in the development of self-efficacy and emotional intelligence, and it may negatively impact students' speaking proficiency in a foreign language learning course (Barany, 2021). In other words, learners with high self-efficacy and emotional intelligence are more likely to succeed than those who have low self-efficacy and emotional intelligence.

3. METHOD

The association between self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, and speaking achievement was investigated using a quantitative correlational methodology in this study. The students are from the Study Program of English Education at the Faculty of Psychology and Education, Universitas Muhammadiyah Sidoarjo. The sample employed is quota sampling, quota sampling is a technique of non-probability sampling in which the samples are chosen according to the probability proportionate to the distribution of a variable in the population (Yang & Banamah, 2014), which includes 100 students in a speaking class.

3.1. Data Collection

Self-efficacy scales, emotional intelligence scales, and speaking achievement criteria were used to collect data. To measure self-efficacy, a scale adapted from The General Self-Efficacy (GSE) is used. The GSE scale is a self-report self-efficacy evaluation (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995). Ten items must be summed to get the total score. They added that the total score ranges from 10-40 which explained the higher the score indicated higher self-efficacy (see Table 1).

Table 1. Self-efficacy scale (adapted from General Self-Efficacy Skill (GSE) in Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995).

No.	Self-efficacy input	Not at all true	Hardly true	Moderately true	Exactly true
1.	If I work hard enough, I can always tackle challenging tasks.				
2.	Even if someone stands in my way, I can find a method to get what I want.				

Tanle 1 continued…

3.	It is simple for me to stick to my objectives and achieve my objectives.				
4.	I feel confident in my ability to deal with unforeseen situations well.				
5.	I know how to deal with unforeseen situations thanks to my resourcefulness.				
6.	If I put in the effort, I can solve most challenges.				
7.	I can remain cool in the face of adversity because I have confidence in my coping abilities.				
8.	When I'm faced with a dilemma, I usually come up with various options.				
9.	When I'm in a pickle, I generally come up with a solution.				
10.	I'm typically able to handle whatever that comes my way.				

The emotional intelligence measure was adapted from the Emotional Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ) as a start. A ten-item scale was developed to assess participants' ability to regulate their emotions in two ways: cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression (Gross & John, 2003). Each issue is answered on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 to 7 (strongly disagree to strongly agree) (see Table 2).

Table 2. Emotional Intelligence Scale (adapted from Emotional Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ) in Gross & John, 2003).

No.	**Criteria**	**Rate**
1.	Most of the time, I have a good understanding of why I experience various feelings.	
2.	My personal emotions are well understood by me.	
3.	I completely understand how I'm feeling.	
4.	I can always tell if I'm happy or not.	
5.	I am always able to deduce my friends' feelings based on their actions.	
6.	I am an excellent observer of other people's emotions.	
7.	I am sensitive to other people's sentiments and emotions.	
8.	I have a solid grasp of the feelings of others around me.	
9.	I make it a point to create objectives for myself and then work hard to attain them.	
10.	I always tell myself that I am capable.	
11.	I am a self-motivated individual.	
12.	I would always tell myself to give it my all.	
13.	I can manage my emotions so that I can deal with problems rationally.	
14.	I'm really good at managing my own emotions.	
15.	When I'm angry, I can always cool down quickly.	
16.	My emotions are under my control.	

Note: Average items = Total Emotional Intelligence 1-16
Appraisal of Total Self-Emotions = Average Items 1-4
Total Emotional Regulation = Average Items 5-8
Total Emotion Use = Average Items 9-12
Appraisal of Others' Emotions as a Whole = Average Items 13-16

Next, the speaking achievement criteria are administered from the students' scores when performing a speech. Since the speakers are the students of advanced-mid level, Luoma (2009) stated that the learners can handle a significant range of communication activities with ease and confidence, as well as participate actively in most casual and formal interactions on a variety of concrete topics. They also display the capacity to narrate and describe in all major time frames (past, present, and future) by presenting a complete account with good aspect control while adapting flexibly to the conversation's demands. As a result, in terms of English competence and delivery mode, the National Certificate descriptive scale, as specified in Luoma (2009), and presented in Table 3 below.

Table 3. Scoring Criteria of English Proficiency and Delivery Method (adapted from The National Certificate Descriptive Scale National Board of Education in Luoma, 2009).

English proficiency		**Delivery method**	
6	With few if any non-native traits, such as a foreign accent, speaks fluently. Is capable of conveying even small subtleties of meaning with clarity, as well as using idiomatic terms in a variety of ways.	6	Can explain even the most difficult issues and incorporate sub-themes, develop several points of view, and bring the presentation to a satisfactory finish.
5	Speaks fluently without the need to look for an expression frequently. Naturalness, coherence, and adequate length characterize this delivery.	5	Can give a clear and complete description of even the most difficult subject. Idiomatic and daily idioms can be used, and nuances can be expressed rather well.
4	Even in less common speech settings, he seems to cope rather effectively. At least to some extent, distinguishes formal and informal registers. Is capable of clearly presenting and justifying an argument.	4	Can explain and discuss sights, sounds, and feelings. Due to a lack of linguistic proficiency, he is only seldom forced to employ circumlocutions in ordinary communication.
3	Deals with the most common speech scenarios and is capable of taking the lead in ordinary language situations. Although the speech is sluggish, there are seldom unnecessary pauses.	3	Despite translating local or foreign language structures and terminology to the target language, it is understandable. Pronunciation may diverge significantly from target language norms.
2	Deals with everyday speaking circumstances that call for a quick exchange of information. However, the speaker's language proficiency severely limits the range of topics that can be discussed.	2	The interlocutor's willingness to assist the speaker in developing the message is a prerequisite for successful message communication. Pronunciation may diverge significantly from the norm in the target language, necessitating more effort on the part of the interlocutor and inhibiting successful communication.
1	Although it can handle the most basic speaking duties, communication is slow and scattered. To be understood, they are frequently forced to use nonverbal ways.	1	Is competent to ask and answer simple questions about immediate daily requirements. Simple polite forms can be used.

Furthermore, the scoring criteria also require the content or the material that reflects the speaking skill. Rybold (2006) developed three main speech organizations: opening, body, and closing. The opening consists of the introduction of the topic, thesis statement, and preview; the body is arranged with sub-topics, reasons for choosing the topic, and some evidential support; and the closing tells the reinforcement of the central idea, followed by summarizing or concluding the topic. Rybold (2006) only provided a long description regarding the criteria of good speech content in each aspect so we classified them into several points. Next, to simplify the scores, it requires 1 and 0. Score 1 means that the speaker follows the content criteria, while score 0 does not (see Table 4).

Table 4. Speech Content Evaluation Guideline, adapted from Rybold (2006).

No	Content	Score
1.	**Opening speech**	
	the speaker gained attention and interest by giving initial questions/ story/illustrations/ jokes	
	the speaker introduced the subject and thesis statement	
	the speaker mentioned the preview body of the speech	
2.	**Body**	
	the speaker stated the main points clearly	
	the speaker tells the reason why choosing the main points	
	the speech was fully supported by related evidence	
	the speech was well organized and provided transitions	
3.	**Closing speech**	
	the speaker prepared the audience for an ending by reinforcing the central idea	
	The speaker summarized the whole speech	
	The speaker presents a vivid closing and asks the audience to do something	

The steps to collect all the data in this study are gaining speaking performance scores and measuring self-efficacy and emotional intelligence. First, the speaking performance is gained from the students to present an informative speech. The theme is an analysis of small businesses in town. Before performing, the students are assigned to look for a small business around their hometown. Next, they interview the business owner, asking how the business can grow up, then, analyze if it grows quickly or slowly. Furthermore, the students present in front of their classmates. The score of English proficiency and delivery method is done as presented in Table 3, while the score of the speech content is taken from Rybold (2006), as presented in Table 4. The second step is measuring self-efficacy by using GSE as presented in Table 1. The third step is measuring emotional intelligence by using ERQ as shown in Table 2.

3.2 Data Analysis

Before the data are analyzed by using statistical parametric, the data were tested to find out the assumption by using the Assumption Test with Shapiro-Wilk Test for Multivariate Normality to see if the data were distributed normally or not. The data is categorized as normal if the level of significance is $p>0.05$. To evaluate the correlation and prediction of the variables, the data were analyzed using multiple correlation and multiple regression. It creates an influence, which then creates a statistical model that can predict whether someone has strong or poor self-efficacy and emotional intelligence. If students have a high level of self-efficacy, they will have higher scores in speaking. Then, if they have a high level of emotional intelligence, will also have higher scores in speaking.

4. RESULTS

The findings provide answers to the three questions mentioned earlier. Tables 5 and 6 describe the correlation of self-efficacy towards the students' speaking achievement.

Table 5. The result of the ANOVA Test of Self-Efficacy and speaking achievement.

Model		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	p
H_1	Regression	759.251	1	759.251	9.510	0.003
	Residual	6706.519	84	79.840		
	Total	7465.770	85			

Note: The intercept model is omitted, which means there is no meaningful information that can be performed.

Table 6. The effect size of self-efficacy towards speaking achievement.

Model	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	RMSE
H_0	0.000	0.000	0.000	9.372
H_1	0.319	0.102	0.091	8.935

The analysis data of Table 5 above shows a significant correlation between self-efficacy and students' speaking achievement (F=9.510; p=0.003<0.05), while Table 6 shows the effect size of self-efficacy on students' speaking achievement is 0.102 or 10,2 %. The following Tables 7 and 8 describe the correlation between emotional intelligence and speaking achievement.

Table 7. The result of ANOVA tests emotional intelligence and speaking achievement.

Model		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	p
H_1	Regression	245.889	1	245.889	2.861	0.094
	Residual	7219.881	84	85.951		
	Total	7465.770	85			

Note: The intercept model is not used since it does not provide any useful information.

Table 8. The effect size emotional intelligence and speaking achievement.

Model	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	RMSE
H_0	0.000	0.000	0.000	9.372
H_1	0.181	0.033	0.021	9.271

The data analyzed from Table 7 shows that there is no correlation between emotional intelligence and speaking achievement (F=2.861; p=0.094>0.05). Due to the absence of a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and speaking achievement then this makes the effect size of emotional intelligence on speaking achievement is very small which is 3.3% (see Table 8).

After partially analyzing the data, we find that there is a substantial association between self-efficacy and speaking achievement; however, there is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and speaking achievement. The outcome of the Assumption Test with the Shapiro-Wilk Test for Multivariate Normality is shown in Table 9 to demonstrate normality.

Table 9. Assumption test with Shapiro-Wilk Test for multivariate normality.

Shapiro-Wilk	P
0.973	0.288

The result of the assumption test above showed p=0.288>0.05 which means the data is normally distributed so that it can be continued with the parametric test. Whereas, the following Table 10 presents the result of the hypothesis test with the Multiple Regression Test with the entry backward method.

Tabel 10. ANOVA–Multiple Regression Test.

Model		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	p
1.	Regression	777.548	2	388.774	4.825	0.010
	Residual	6688.223	83	80.581		
	Total	7465.770	85			
2.	Regression	759.251	1	759.251	9.510	0.003
	Residual	6706.519	84	79.840		
	Total	7465.770	85			

The analysis result of multiple regression with the entry backward method is used to test the correlation among self-efficacy and emotional intelligence toward speaking achievement of English Education students. It revealed that model 1 (the influence from 2 variables) scored F=4.825 and Sig. 0.010<0.05. Whereas, model 2 which puts the variable of self-efficacy showed a bigger score F=9.510; Sig. 0.003.

In addition, the big correlation of both variables (self-efficacy and emotional intelligence) towards speaking achievement is Adjusted R^2=0.083 (8.3%). If we only put self-efficacy into the model, it has a bigger correlation Adjusted R^2=0.091 (9.1%) presented in Table 7.

Table 11. Model summary - speaking achievement.

Model	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	RMSE
1.	0.323	0.104	0.083	8.977
2.	0.319	0.102	0.091	8.935

Table 12. Coefficients.

							Collinearity Statistics	
Model		Unstandar-dized	Standard Error	Standar-dized	T	p	Tolerance	VIF
1.	(Intercept)	48.719	8.767		5.557	<.001		
	Self-Efficacy	0.719	0.280	0.295	2.569	0.012	0.816	1.225
	Emotional Intelligence	0.047	0.098	0.055	0.477	0.635	0.816	1.225
2.	(Intercept)	51.182	7.049		<.001	<.001		
	Self-Efficacy	0.776	0.252	0.319	0.003	0.003	1.000	1.000

Table 12 shows that according to the backward entry method, it can be seen that the best model for describing students' English-speaking skills is by using self-efficacy variables and eliminating emotional intelligence variables (t=3.084; Sig. 0.003<0.05). So that the resulting regression equation to predict students' English-speaking ability with the following formula:

Speaking Achievement=51.182+(0.776 x self-efficacy)

The intercept score as α=51.182 was used because based on the analysis which showed that there was only a significant influence between self-efficacy on English speaking achievement, the model included was only a regression model of the influence of self-efficacy on English speaking achievement. This formula is then used to predict the students' English-speaking achievement, whether this student is able or not to complete a task. The failure of emotional intelligence in predicting students' English-speaking skills, on the other hand, can be demonstrated by the results of the correlation test in Table 13.

Table 13. Pearson's correlations.

Variable		1	2	3
Self-Efficacy	Pearson's r	—		
	p-value	—		
Emotional Intelligent	Pearson's r	0.429	—	
	p-value	< .001	—	
Speaking Achievement	Pearson's r	0.319	0.181	—
	p-value	0.003	0.094	—

The results of the product-moment correlation demonstrate that self-efficacy and students' ability to speak English have a significant positive relationship (r=0.319; sig=0.003<0.05). The higher a student's self-efficacy, the better his or her capacity to communicate. However, while the significance value is more than 0.05 (r=0.181; sig.=0.094>0.05), the association between emotional intelligence and students' ability to speak English is not significant.

The second finding has to do with a novel model of self-efficacy as a mediator in the relationship between emotional intelligence and speaking ability. Using mediator analysis, a novel model was developed for the relationship between self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, and speaking ability. As seen in Table 5, emotional intelligence and self-efficacy have a significant link. The level of self-efficacy has a strong link to English proficiency. Emotional intelligence, on the other hand, has no bearing on how well you speak English. This suggests that self-efficacy is a moderator of the association between emotional intelligence and English language proficiency. Tables 14 and 15 show the outcome of the mediator analysis.

Table 14. The direct effects of emotional intelligence and speaking achievement.

	Estimate	Std. Error	z-value	p	95% Confidence interval	
					Lower	Upper
Emotional Intelligent → Speaking Achievement	0.005	0.010	0.485	0.628	-0.015	0.025

Table 15. Self-indirect efficacy's impacts as a mediator in the link between emotional intelligence and speaking achievement.

	Estimate	Std. Error	z-value	p	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower	Upper
Emotional Intelligence → Self Efficacy → Speaking Achievement	0.005	0.010	0.485	0.628	-0.015	0.025

Table 14 shows that emotional intelligence and speaking ability have no direct effect (z score=0.485; p=0.628>0.05). However, Table 11, after self-efficacy is put as the mediator variable, shows a significant result with z score=2.248; p=0,025<0.05. The self-efficacy picture as the mediator towards the correlation between emotional intelligence and speaking achievement can be seen in Figure 1.

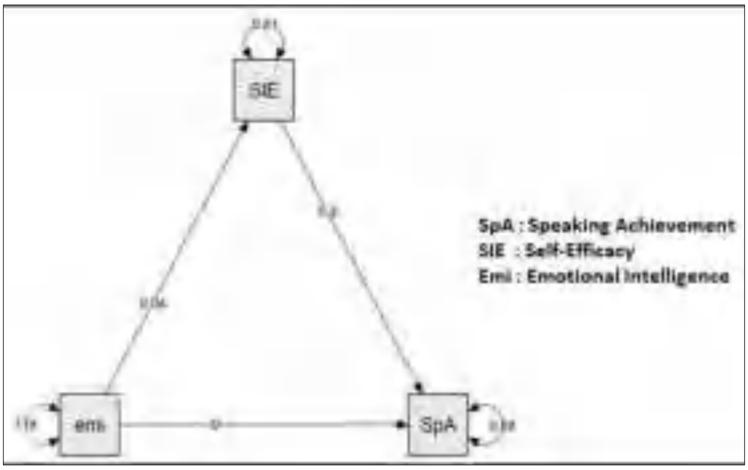

Figure1. The Model of Self-Efficacy is the mediator in the relationship between emotional intelligence and speaking achievement.

Self-efficacy perfectly mediates the relationship between emotional intelligence and English-speaking achievement, as shown in Figure 1. This shows that to improve English-speaking achievement, what must be considered is students' confidence in their ability to speak English. Even though students have good emotional intelligence, if their self-efficacy is low, it will have an impact on achieving inadequate English-speaking achievement. Vice versa, even though students have emotional intelligence that is not too high, their self-confidence that they can speak English will have an impact on higher English-speaking achievement.

5. DISCUSSION

This section describes the findings of a study into the correlation between self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, and speaking achievement among Indonesian EFL learners. The two research questions are addressed. In response to the first question about whether there is a link between students' self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, and speaking ability, the results demonstrated that self-efficacy and emotional intelligence had a significant effect on ELF learners' speaking achievement. This is supported by previous research which states that self-efficacy in education is used to predict teacher effectiveness in the teaching and learning process (Chukwudi, 2014; Clark & Newberry, 2019; Lee & van Vlack, 2018).

This shows that students' self-efficacy and initial ability are important in the application of goal-setting techniques to students' English performance. Students who think that they are unable to achieve goals because they lack confidence, lack a strong conviction in their abilities, and do not have sufficient knowledge tend to refuse to set goals, which will have an impact on the performance they produce (Toshi, 1991). Depending on the intensity of their efficacy beliefs, according to Nguyen et al. (2022), self-efficacy and achievement were positively correlated. The research concludes with a series of suggestions for educators regarding the significance of self-efficacy in learning English achievement.

The sensation of self-efficacy is directly correlated to the feeling of competence being able to learn a foreign language because many students who learn a foreign language make previous assumptions about the success or failure of a person in learning depending on their learning experience, and this belief can affect when learning a foreign language (Hsieh & Kang, 2010). Students with high self-efficacy tend to more commit to achieving their objectives, obtain and use better strategies to achieve goals, and show a more positive response to negative rewards than those who have low levels of self-efficacy who in the past ultimately impact the resulting performance (Seijts & Latham, 2001 in Locke & Latham, 2002), the performance in this case is English foreign language.

However, concerning the second research question, when comparing self-efficacy with emotional intelligence, self-efficacy is a better predictor of speaking achievement. Even when we tried to eliminate emotional intelligence in the statistics, meaning only included self-efficacy in the developed model, it made the influence model bigger. This result illustrates that the possibility of students getting 'stuck' is due to their lack of confidence in the abilities and experiences being pursued.

Self-efficacy becomes a powerful predictor of performance in various language skills and tasks related to mastery of foreign language proficiency (Raoofi et al., 2012). Research conducted by Raoofi et al. (2012) also determines the correlation of self-efficacy with English performance showing predictive power becomes higher at 24.3% by including covariables into the model rather than using only the determination model. The purpose of predicting English performance is only 7.3%. Otherwise, emotional intelligence is not correlated with the achievement of English speaking. This determines that self-efficacy is the variable mediator of the correlation between emotional intelligence and English-speaking achievement. Concerning emotional intelligence, as stated earlier, the correlation between emotional intelligence and students' achievement in speaking does not have a significant relationship. It contradicts the findings of Abdolrezapour and Tavakoli (2012) who found that students who were taught using traditional methods that did not lay any focus on emotional content or language scored higher on the Emotional Intelligence Test.

6. CONCLUSION

This study aimed to see three research questions: the correlation between self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, and speaking ability among students, which of the self-efficacy or emotional intelligence is a better predictor of speaking ability, and which of the self-efficacy or emotional intelligence can be the stronger predictor of the speaking ability. The results indicate a significant relationship ($F=9.510$; $p=0.003<0.05$) between students' speaking achievement and self-efficacy, with a 0.102 or 10,2% impact size for self-efficacy on speaking achievement. Emotional intelligence and speaking achievement, however, do not correlate ($F=2.861$; $p=0.094>0.05$). The lack of a meaningful correlation between speaking achievement and emotional intelligence means that the effect size of emotional intelligence on speaking achievement is just 3.3%. Therefore, utilizing self-efficacy factors and excluding emotional intelligence variables yields the best model ($t=3.084$; Sig. $0.003<0.05$) to describe students' achievement.

The result reveals a significant lack of research on the correlation between self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, and students' speaking achievement. The results of this research are not universal since it is limited to speaking achievement taken from the score gained from a hundred students taking the speaking performance. So, the result might not be helpful for other skills of English language learning. Since it had no significant effect on speaking achievement, further research might increase the number of samples to be tested and deepen the category of being tested. Lastly, further researchers can also develop self-efficacy and emotional intelligence toward other language skills.

This study contributes theoretically to all speaking teachers being able to reveal the higher education students' self-efficacy and emotional intelligence toward learning speaking. The higher the self-efficacy of the learners, the higher the score they could achieve in speaking. Otherwise, emotional intelligence does not influence the capability of the students' speaking ability. Thus, the contribution to the pedagogical development is that the teacher can use the formula: *Speaking Achievement=51.182+(0.776 x self-efficacy score)* to predict the students' achievement to pass the standard made by the teacher in any subject. Therefore, this study conclude that the positive correlation between self-efficacy, and emotional intelligence can promote revealing students' achievement in learning speaking.

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Lexical Cohesion Analysis on Articles of the Russia-Ukraine Conflict in Arabic and English Online Newspapers

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Abstract

Discourse studies on the Russia-Ukraine conflict have been conducted in the past few years, especially in newspapers. Comparative studies on the media in several countries have been widely carried out; however, none so far focused on comparing Arabic and English newspapers. Thus, this article aimed to examine the lexical cohesion of Arabic and English newspapers to identify each newspaper's tendency to represent the conflict. Aljazeera and The Guardian newspaper were designated as subjects of the study, in which five opinions published in March 2022 by each newspaper were purposively selected as data sources. Data was collected through internet archival documentation techniques and analysed by referring to the lexical cohesion theory framework proposed by Halliday and Matthiessen (2013). The results showed that repetition was the dominant cohesive device used in Aljazeera, whereas repetition and collocation were the most used lexical cohesion devices in The Guardian. The use of these lexical cohesion devices showed that Aljazeera took a neutral position in representing conflicts and actors. On the other hand, The Guardian tended to side with Ukraine while framing Russia and Putin negatively. Differences in these tendencies were due to the differences in interests. Aljazeera could stay impartial because Qatar had no political interests in the conflict. By contrast, The Guardian was

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positioning itself against Russia and Putin because Britain had economic and geopolitical interests in the conflict.

Keywords: Arabic, English, lexical cohesion, online newspapers, Russia-Ukraine conflict.

1. INTRODUCTION

The escalation of the Russia-Ukraine conflict in early 2022 prompted many journalists, academicians, and observers to share their opinions in various newspapers. Based on diverse perspectives and goals, these widely accessible opinions contain tendencies and partialities that are used as tools by certain parties to shape public perceptions (Awad AlAfnan, 2019). On the one hand, some opinions focus on neutrally describing the conflict, identifying the parties involved, and mapping the impacts of conflict on various sectors of human life (‘Alim, 2022; Aqtay, 2022; Salih, 2022). On the other hand, some opinions aggressively propagate the anti-war movement, demonization of actors, and countries’ reactions to refugees (de Gruyter, 2022; Jones, 2022a, 2022b). This narrative pattern is not much different from the strategic narrative circulated during the previous Russia-Ukraine conflict in 2014 (Roman et al., 2017; Szostek, 2018a).

As revealed in several previous studies, the intensity of mass media involvement in the Russia-Ukraine conflict reflects the reality of the conflict as hybrid warfare (Pasitselska, 2017; Stănescu, 2022; Veljovski et al., 2017). As digital instruments, online newspapers are no longer positioned as information distributors, but more than that, they have become the main component of a proxy war that has a significant impact on a conflict (Pasitselska, 2017; Veljovski et al., 2017). A study by Ojala and Pantti (2017), Roman et al. (2017), and Fengler et al. (2020) showed that there are differences in the narratives of conflict in newspapers in various countries: Russia, Ukraine, Sweden, Poland, English, United States of America, Albania, Czech Republic, Germany, Latvia, Netherlands, Portugal, Romania, Serbia, Switzerland. These studies concluded that the newspapers provide narrative tendencies through the lexical choices used to represent conflicts and actors. Critically, narrative tendencies are determined by the interests of power in each country (Fengler et al., 2020).

With lexical selection as a stage of discourse production in newspapers, the researchers then directed discursive analysis at the lexical level. Lexical cohesion as a feature of analysis functions to uncover various hidden interests behind a discourse (Nijat, 2022; Robert, 2019; Shahnaz & Imtiaz, 2014). Several studies revealed the importance of lexical cohesion in writing opinions in newspapers. Cohesive devices organize texts, build internal meanings, and connect texts with writers, readers, contexts, and culture (Ayyash, 2016; Huneety et al., 2019). In newspapers, the most widely used lexical cohesion devices are repetition and collocation (Dontcheva-Navrátilová et al., 2018; Huneety et al., 2019; Malah et al., 2016; Rostami & Gholami, 2016). These two devices are considered the most effective in creating textual continuity (Huneety et al., 2019). In connection with these facts, an analysis of lexical cohesion on the narratives of the Russia-Ukraine conflict in newspapers in various countries is interesting to conduct.

The constellation earlier discussed creates a gap because no study has compared Arabic and English news. The narratives in Arabic newspapers are quite crucial and significant because they play an important role in the global geopolitical dynamics; hence, the Russia-Ukraine conflict's narratives in Arabic newspapers need to be investigated. For example, the opinions of Al-Rasyid (2022) and Ja'far (2022) published in Aljazeera explained the conflict comprehensively and multi-perspectival. This description differs from The Guardian's narrative, which tends to favour one country (Jones, 2022a, 2022b; Menon, 2022). As initial data, this phenomenon would be interesting to explore because both newspapers can be used as a representation of Arabic and English mass media. Based on the arguments in the previous studies, a discourse analysis of the two newspapers will be able to reveal their tendencies in describing the conflict. Thus, the results of the study can be the basis for mapping the alignment of newspaper owners in the conflict. In line with that, this article would like to answer two main questions:

1. What are the types of lexical cohesion in the Russia-Ukraine conflict articles in Aljazeera and The Guardian newspapers, and what is the frequency of use of each type?
2. How do Aljazeera and The Guardian tend to represent the Russia-Ukraine conflict through the use of lexical cohesion?

The study was conducted by referring to the theoretical framework of lexical cohesion proposed by Halliday and Matthiessen (2013). Based on Halliday and Matthiessen's (2013) theory, the types of lexical cohesion consist of repetition, synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, co-hyponymy, meronymy, co-meronymy, and collocation. Referring to the arguments of Shahnaz and Imtiaz (2014), Robert (2019), and Nijat (2022), these cohesive devices were used to present ideas about the Russia-Ukraine conflict in Aljazeera and The Guardian newspapers. Along with that, an analysis of lexical cohesion can be used as a basis for mapping the discourse tendencies of the two newspapers in describing the Russia-Ukraine conflict.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Lexical Cohesion in Arabic and English

In Arabic, cohesion and coherence are two things that have received the attention of many researchers in recent years (Al-Hindawi & Abu-Krooz, 2017). Al-Qur'an, the holy book of Muslims is one of the objects that is widely discussed. The studies of Ilyas (2014) and Abbas (2020) showed that there is cohesiveness in the narration in a series of verses in the Qur'an. In the study of Abbas (2020), lexical cohesion appears mostly in narrative verses, while grammatical cohesion is dominant in conversational verses. This study reinforced the findings of Ilyas (2014) in short letters which emphasized that cohesive devices in the form of repetition and synonymy are dominant. In a more practical context, Tabrizi and Mahmud (2013) conducted a contrastive study between the Qur'an and its translation in English. Analysing five translated works, Tabrizi and Mahmud (2013) identified differences in translating synonymy. They concluded that common and cultural issues pose challenges in adapting lexical cohesion from the Qur'an into English.

In more detailed studies, the differences in lexical cohesion in Arabic and English can be elaborated in a more detailed manner. Several recent studies concluded that Arabic is more dominant in lexical cohesion, whereas English is more dominant in grammatical cohesion (Al-Hindawi & Abu-Krooz, 2017; Huneety et al., 2019). This conclusion is rather strong because it is based on the data collected from various academic written texts, news articles, religion, and literature. In more profound elaboration Hashemi Aghdam and Hadidi (2015) and Igaab and Abdulhasan (2018) found that repetition, synonymy, and collocation are the most numerous cohesive Arabic devices in a variety of texts. The differences in the types of cohesion found in the two languages are due to differences in the elaboration of indexical devices in building cohesive relationships (Dontcheva-Navrátilová et al., 2018). Meanwhile, different findings were presented in the study of Farghal (2017). Farghal (2017) confirmed his finding that lexical cohesion has the same amount in Arabic and English.

2.2 Lexical Cohesion in Newspapers Discourse

Lexical cohesion is an important dimension in the technique of newspaper writing. In sentence and paragraph connectivity, lexical cohesion plays a role in creating semantic links that can coordinate ideas completely and effectively (Huneety et al., 2019). In his study, Ayyash (2016) identified the significant role of lexical cohesion. The cohesive devices play a role not only at the textual level, but also in organizing the text, constructing internal meaning, and connecting the text with authors, readers, contexts, and cultures (Ayyash, 2016). In a variety of newspaper articles, the researchers exploited lexical cohesion to highlight the connectivity and regularity of the text, clarify the meanings of the text through more organized ties, and emphasize important ideas (Nijat, 2022; Robert, 2019; Shahnaz & Imtiaz, 2014). With this complex role, the existence of lexical cohesion can help analysts to map discourse tendencies and assess the partiality of information contained by writers in newspapers (Hassoon, 2014; Shahnaz & Imtiaz, 2014).

Recent studies reveal newspapers commonly use similar lexical cohesion types, with repetition and collocation being the most prevalent (Dontcheva-Navrátilová et al., 2018; Huneety et al., 2019; Malah et al., 2016; Rostami & Gholami, 2016). This finding is resulted from studies in various countries and various types of writing (articles, opinions, news, and editorials). Many writers choose repetition to connect and organize their texts because they are thought to create textual continuity effectively (Huneety et al., 2019). Dontcheva-Navrátilová et al. (2018) and Afzaal et al. (2019) reported that lexis has more semantic linkages and can form better semantic associations than grammar. This context makes lexical cohesion generally more widely used in newspapers than grammatical cohesion (Afzaal et al., 2019; Farnia & Kabiri, 2020; Michael et al., 2013; Rostami & Gholami, 2016).

Concerning critical discourse analysis, the use of lexical cohesion in various writings in newspapers represents the power and ideology of the discourse producers. A contrastive study of media conducted by Hashemi Aghdam and Hadidi (2015) revealed that lexical cohesion is one of the key elements representing the efforts of discourse producers to limit readers' interpretation of an event. Hashemi Aghdam and Hadidi (2015) associated these interpretations with certain ideologies and political tendencies adopted by discourse producers. This finding was also reinforced by Awad AlAfnan (2019). The researchers deliberately chose different lexis and showed them repeatedly throughout the article. The contrastive study concluded that the selection of lexis and their affirmation through repetition and collocation was due to a particular ideological and power background owned by the newspaper and realized by the authors. Hence, critical discourse analysis has proven that texture and connectivity can be exploited to infiltrate the tendencies wanted by newspapers (Awad AlAfnan, 2019).

2.3 Discourse of Russia-Ukraine Conflict in Newspapers

Since the last escalation in 2014, the Russia-Ukraine conflict has become one of the most discussed topics in international newspapers. Due to the complexity of the conflict which involves many parties and various media instruments, some researchers called the conflict 'hybrid warfare' (Pasitselska, 2017; Stănescu, 2022; Veljovski et al., 2017). Within this frame, the conflict is no longer seen as a mere confrontation of weapons on the battlefield but also as narrative clashes on various internet media platforms to sway opinions and gain public sympathy (Roman et al., 2017; Szostek, 2018b). As one of the media instruments, the newspaper plays a strategic role as an information component that functions to shape the representation of the parties involved in the conflict and the community's interpretation of the conflict. Russia, Ukraine, and the countries that supported them spread issues in newspapers that made a positive impression of themselves and negative impressions of their opposition. It is in this context that the national media plays an important role in shaping and directing a conflict (Makhortykh & Bastian, 2022; Szostek, 2018a; Zeitzoff, 2017).

Some researchers carried out a contrastive analysis of the representations of the Russian-Ukrainian conflict in newspapers and media of various countries (Fengler et al., 2020; Ojala & Pantti, 2017; Roman et al., 2017). It was found that each country represented the conflict differently due to differences in geographic and cultural proximity, domestication, economic exchange, and editorial resources (Fengler et al., 2020). Russia tended to represent the conflict with lexical choices and punitive operating phrases and defined the conflict as a Western threat to the Russian world. Meanwhile, Ukraine and its supporting countries tended to refer to the conflict as a crisis, conflict, war, or anti-terror operation and defined the conflict as a form of Ukrainian activism and patriotism (Roman et al., 2017). In general, the media in both countries used the strategy to portray the enemy negatively to discourage international action in support of their adversary. Fisher (2020) called this narrative pattern a special propaganda that could influence individual judgments about the conflict.

Newspapers exhibit a distinct pattern in depicting conflict actors, with Vladimir Putin, as Russia's leader, being the most frequently mentioned. He was portrayed as the instigator and aggressor in the conflict (Fengler et al., 2020). In various Western media, Putin was depicted as an antagonist responsible for the conflict (Ojala & Pantti, 2017). Meanwhile, the representation of actors on the Ukrainian side was dominated by non-elite parties, such as citizens, political leaders, demonstrators, police, militia, volunteers, and military soldiers (Fengler et al., 2020; Ojala & Pantti, 2017; Roman et al., 2017). Russia constructed a historical narrative by calling Ukraine a fascist and extremist, while Ukraine portrayed Russia as a terrorist, gunman, and enemy (Roman et al., 2017). This strategic communication pattern was deliberately conditioned to obtain international support. The memory of ancestors played an important role in determining people's alignment in the conflict. For this reason, Russia amplified the historical narrative of World War II to its advantage (Szostek, 2018a).

3. METHODS

The research design was critically qualitative, as proposed by Ziskin (2019). The entire research series was carried out in a natural and objective setting without any researchers' intervention. Data investigation was oriented toward disclosing aspects of power and ideology hidden behind the news narratives of data sources. The research data was taken from two popular online newspapers in Arabic and English, namely Aljazeera (aljazeera.net) and The Guardian (theguardian.com), respectively. Using purposive sampling, five articles on the Russia-Ukraine conflict in each newspaper published in March 2022 were selected as the research data. Five articles from Aljazeera were coded as A1-A5, whereas five articles from The Guardian were coded as G1-G5. The period of publication during the early days of conflict escalation was chosen to see how each newspaper led readers' opinions and perspectives on conflict.

Research data was collected using internet archival documentation techniques through several stages: reading and observing, sorting, storage and printing, re-reading, and determination of research subjects. At the reading and observation stage, a large amount of data in the form of articles related to the Russia-Ukraine conflict was read and observed. At the sorting stage, the researchers only took articles focusing on the current conflict and eliminated articles discussing other perspectives. The sorted data was then stored and printed to facilitate the re-reading process. The researchers then chose ten articles as the research subjects based on the focus of the discussion in the article. In the data collection stage, the listening technique without engaging in conversation was used to read the data carefully and repeatedly. Reflective notes were made throughout the data collection process to make an inventory of things relevant to answering the research questions (Lune & Berg, 2017).

The analysis began by classifying and quantifying the data according to the types of lexical cohesion proposed by Halliday and Matthiessen (2013). The data was then described by referring to the qualitative analysis stages proposed by Lune and Berg (2017), involving data reduction, data display, conclusion, and verification. At the data reduction stage, the researchers selected some representative data to be displayed in the analysis section. At the data display stage, the researchers displayed data considered the most relevant and representative for analysis representing all data that had been classified. The selected data was then described and concluded according to the research question. At the verification stage, the researchers re-checked the relevance of the analysis to the research questions to ensure that the research questions had been answered. Meanwhile, the transliteration of Arabic data into Latin script was carried out by referring to the ALA-LC Romanization transliteration model.

4. RESULTS

4.1 Types and Frequency of Lexical Cohesion in Aljazeera and The Guardian

The analysis results of the two newspapers showed that the most dominant types of lexical cohesion were repetition (733) and collocation (263). Apart from these types, synonymy (94) and hyponymy (75) were also found in significant numbers. Antonymy (40), meronymy (29), co-hyponymy (18), and co-meronymy (10) were also discovered yet in very small numbers. Thoroughly, the types and frequencies of lexical cohesion are shown in the following table.

Table 1. Types and frequency of lexical cohesion in Aljazeera and The Guardians.

Lexical Cohesion	**Aljazeera**		**The Guardian**		**Total**	**Percentage**
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**		
Repetition	561	61.6	172	48.9	733	58.1
Synonymy	83	9.2	11	3.2	94	7.5
Antonymy	26	2.9	14	3.9	40	3.2
Hyponymy	33	3.7	42	11.9	75	5.9
Co-hyponymy	16	1.7	2	0.6	18	1.4
Meronymy	22	2.3	7	1.9	29	2.3
Co-meronymy	7	0.8	3	0.9	10	0.8
Collocation	162	17.8	101	28.7	263	20.8
Total	910	100	352	100	1.262	100

4.1.1 Aljazeera

Based on Table 1, it can be seen that repetition (61.6%), collocation (17.8%), and synonymy (9.2%) were the cohesive devices that frequently appeared in Aljazeera. For example, the A1 portrays the reality of the Russian state as ‘very bad’, which often threatens the peace of other countries. In this data, the lexical item روسيا (*Rusia*) ‘Russia’ which is the axis of the narrative was repeated in many sentences. The basic form of the lexis was repeated nine times, while the inflectional form الروسية (*Al-Rusiyah*) ‘Russia’ was repeated twice. In this data, the researchers consistently revealed the reality of Russia’s foreign policy which tended to be expansive and interferes in the affairs of other countries. Through this repetition, the researchers organized the ideas and topics of the writing from beginning to end, so that the conclusion obtained by the readers would be the image of Russia as an aggressor country and destroyer of world peace.

[A2] (1) كشفت ردود الفعل حرب **روسيا**... (2) وليس هناك قناع وجه **روسيا**... (4) إن **روسيا** هي آلة حرب... (6)...**روسيا** ليس مجرد... (7)...أن تفسرعدوان **روسيا**؟ (8) هذه العملية تعبر عن حقيقة **روسيا**...المتحدة ونبوءاتها وسياساتها ضد **روسيا**... (11) إن المواقف الوحشية وغير الإنسانية **لروسيا**...رؤية مدى الفظائع **الروسية** من خلال أحداث... (12)...من الهجمات **الروسية** ربما تكون مثالا... (14) أن **روسيا** لفتت الانتباه...

(1) *Kashafat rudūd al-fi’l ḥarba Rūsiā*... (2) *Wa laysa hunāka qinā’ wajhi Rūsiā*... (4) *Inna Rūsiā hiya ālat al-ḥarb*... (6) ...*Rūsiā laysa mujarrad*... (7) ...*An tufassira ‘adwān Rūsiā?* (8) *Hādhihi al-’amaliyah tu’abbira ‘an haqīqati* Rūsiā... *Al-muttaḥidah wa nubū’ātuhā wa siyāsatuhā diddu Rūsiā*... (11) *Inna al-mawāqif al-waḥshiyah ghayra al-insāniyah li Rūsiā*... *ru’yah madā al-faẓāi’ Al-Rūsiāh min ḥilāl aḥdāth*... (12) ...*min al-ḥajamāt Al-Rūsiāh rubbama takūnu mithālan*... (14) *Anna Rūsiā lafatat al-intibāh*...

(1) The reactions revealed Russia’s war... (2) There is no mask for Russia’s face... (4) Russia is a war machine... (6) …Russia not just... (7) ...to explain Russia’s aggression? (8) This process expresses the reality of united Russia... and its prophecies and policies against Russia... (11) Russia’s brutal and inhuman stances... seeing the extent of Russian atrocities through events… (12) ...of the Russian attacks may be an example... (14) that Russia drew attention...

On the other hand, A2 demonstrates collocation in describing the Ukrainian crisis, using historical and diachronic data on global dynamics, internal and external factors in Ukraine, with eight connected lexical items in nine sentences. The lexical أزمة (*uzmah*) 'crisis' as a core was described as Ukraine's failure to define هوية وطنية جامعة. (*hawiyah wataniyah jāmi'ah*) 'comprehensive national identity'. This fundamental problem then led to الإنقسام والتجزي (*al-inqisām wa al-tajzī*) 'split and fragmentation', making it easier for other countries to carry out التدخل الخارجي (*al-tadakhul al-khārijī*) 'external intervention'. Meanwhile, from the external aspect, the crisis was caused by انضمام (*inḍimām*) 'annexation' by Russia and ملاعبة البلدان (*mulā'abah al-buldān*) 'manipulation of countries' against the principles of the international order. For this reason, Russia carried out القضاء على استقلال (*al-qadā' 'alā al-istiqlāl*) 'annihilation of independence' of Ukraine and declared that Ukraine ليست دولة حقيقية (*laysat dawlah haqīqiyah*) was 'not a real country'.

[A5] (9) ... وأوكرانيا التي تجسد **أزمة** الدولة القومية... (5) فأوكرانيا... **عجز كيانها**... أن يعبر عن **هوية وطنية جامعة**... تزيد **الإنقسام والتجزي** و تخلق **قابليات للتدخل الخارجي**... (6)...تتخذ مسألة **انضمام** أكرانيا... (10) ...سؤال **الهوية الوطنية**... (11) على حساب بناء **الهوية الوطنية الجامعة**. (12) ...وفي أكرانيا، **انقسام** حول التحاق بالغرب... (19) ...كيف **تتلاعب** البلدان بالمبدأ الأساسي للنظام الدولي... (22) ...وجرى **القضاء على استقلال** جارتها... (26) ...بالقول أن أوكرانيا **ليست دولة حقيقية**...

(2) *...wa Ukrāniā allatī tajsadu uzmah al-dawlah al-qawmiyah*... (5) *fa Ukrāniā*... *'ajz kiyānihā*... *an yu'abbira 'an hawiyyah waṭaniyah jāmi'ah*... *tazīdu al-inqisām wa al-tajzī wa takhluqu qābiliyyāt li al-tadakhul al-khārijī*... (6) ...*tattakhidhu mas'alah inḍimām Ukrāniā*... (10) ...*suāl al-hawiyah al-waṭaniyah*... (11) *'alā ḥisāb binā' al-hawiyah al-waṭaniyah al-jāmi'ah.* (12) ...*wa fī Ukrāniā, inqisām ḥawl iltihāq bi al-gharb*... (19) ...*kayfa tatalā'abu al-buldān bi al-mabda' al-asāsī li al-niẓām al-dawlī*... (22) ...*wa jarā al-qaḍā' 'alā istiqlāl jāratihā*... (26) ...*bi al-qawl anna Ukrāniā laysat dawlah haqīqiyah*...

(2) …and Ukraine, which embodies the crisis of the nation-state… (5) Ukraine … the inability of its entity … to express a comprehensive national identity…increases disintegration and fragmentation and creates capabilities for external intervention... (6) …takes the issue of Ukraine's accession... (10) ...the question of national identity... (11) at the expense of building a comprehensive national identity. (12) ...In Ukraine, there is a disintegration over joining the West… (19) ...how countries manipulate the basic principle of the international system... (22) ...the independence of its neighbour has been destroyed... (26) ...by saying that Ukraine is not a real country...

4.1.2 The Guardian

In The Guardian, the dominant types of lexical cohesion were repetition (48.9%), collocation (28.7%), and hyponymy (11.9%). An example of repetition can be seen in G3 which discusses the urgency of the anti-war movement to suppress the various aggressions launched by Putin on Ukraine. In this data, the lexical item 'anti-war' is the core of the discussion which was mentioned six times across the text. The six lexical repetitions established connectivity to support the main ideas delivered. The authors first described the situation that led to the need for the initiation of an anti-war movement by European countries. The anti-war movement would meet pros and cons among activists and protestors. Notwithstanding, the movement, advocating for peace, posed no obstacle. The authors concluded that a well-executed anti-war movement could halt Putin's aggression in Ukraine.

[G1] …a need for an anti-war movement that unapologetically fights… (17) It is true that anti-war protesters… (18) Anti-war activists should not obfuscate… (22) … the role of an anti-war movement is to emphasise alternatives… (26) The anti-war movement fights for a heart in a heartless world. (30) …the need for an anti-war movement that is as consistent…

As another form of lexical cohesion, G4 below shows the use of hyponymy to connect lexical items in the narrative about weapon supply to Ukraine. The lexical item 'weapons' were the most frequently used, while in the following sentences, more specific types of weapons were mentioned: 'anti-tank', 'anti-aircraft missiles', 'armor', 'aircraft', 'Javelines', 'tanks', 'Stinger anti-aircraft missiles', 'warplanes', 'counter-battery radars', 'artillery', and 'cruise missiles'. With the existence of a general-specific relation explaining the types, the researchers strung the cohesiveness of his ideas. The ideas about the types of weapons used in the aggression in Ukraine were integrated through the hyponymy lexical cohesion device.

[G5] ...receive the weapons it needs to fight Russian aggression. (4) It sent Ukraine 1,000 anti-tank and 500 anti-aircraft missiles… (13) … the US had arranged for 17,000 anti-tank missiles… (15) …helped Ukraine destroy a lot of Russian armor and aircraft. (16) …that more Javelins will improve…to destroy Russia's tanks…additional Stinger anti-aircraft missiles will cause… Russian warplanes to fall from the skies… that counter-battery radars will locate… deadly Russian artillery. (25) …Russian aircraft aimed military airfields… (28) …a barrage of Russian cruise missiles hit the Yavoriv military base…

An example of collocation use can be found in G5 discussing the impacts of the Russia-Ukraine conflict on European countries, such as targeting the core of the European people's lives. The lexical unit 'core' was the core idea developed in G5 which was interconnected with other lexical items in the following sentences, explaining that it would affect many aspects of life, such as the economic, political, social, security, food, democracy, and national integration aspects.

[G2] ...how Vladimir Putin's brutal war on Ukraine is shaking Europeans to the core. (5) …that Ukrainians…must also defend democracy, freedom, and the right of sovereign states… (6) …the very raison d'etre of the EU peace project. (7) …to help the younger generation…relate to European integration. (12) …the need for a strong territorial defence… (19) …have discussed extra supplies of wheat, food, and fertiliser… (20) Even eurozone monetary policies will change. (23) …have suddenly opened border… (26) led to political turmoil across Europe. (28) …prize for services to European integration… (30) …Europe's ultimate guarantor of peace. (33) …divisions between EU member states will reappear soon.

4.2 Discourse Tendencies of Aljazeera and The Guardian through the Use of Lexical Cohesion

4.2.1 Conflict representation

Each newspaper's approach to depicting the Russia-Ukraine conflict is evident in lexical item selection and article repetitions, as shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Lexical selection and repetitions in Aljazeera and The Guardians.

Lexical Choice in Arabic / English	Aljazeera		The Guardian		Total	Percentage
	N	%	N	%		
حرب (*ḥarb*)/war	101	62.3%	40	67.8%	141	63.8
أزمة (*uzmah*)/crisis	16	9.9%	0	0.0%	16	7.2

Table 2 continued…

صراع (*ṣirā'*)/conflict	15	9.3%	0	0.0%	15	6.8
عدوان (*'adwān*)/aggression	13	8.0%	7	11.9%	20	9.0
غزو (*ghazw*)/invasion	10	6.2%	11	18.6%	21	9.6
معركة (*ma'rakah*)/fight	1	0.6%	0	0.0%	1	0.4
مواجهة (*muwājahah*)/confrontation	6	3.7%	1	1.7%	7	3.2
Total	162	100%	59	100%	221	100%

Based on Table 2, there were differences in the number of lexical choices in each newspaper. Aljazeera had seven lexical choices to represent the conflict while The Guardian selected only four lexical units. In Aljazeera, حرب (*ḥarb*) 'war' was the most dominant lexical item used (62.3%). In addition, there were أزمة (*uzmah*) 'crisis', صراع (*ṣirā'*) 'conflict', عدوان (*'adwān*) 'aggression', and غزو (*ghazw*) 'invasion' whose repetition frequency was between 6% -10%. The other two lexical items were معركة (*ma'rakah*) 'fight' and مواجهة (*muwājahah*) 'confrontation' whose repetition frequency was below 4%. Like Aljazeera, The Guardian also dominantly chose 'war' (67.8%) to represent the conflict. Apart from these, there were also 'invasions' (18.6%), 'aggression' (11.9%), and 'confrontation' (1.7%). The dominant lexical similarity showed that the two newspapers were inclined to represent conflicts as wars using weapons, where both countries played an active role in attacking and attempting to defeat each other.

In addition to these dominant lexicons, it is interesting to observe other lexical choices in the two newspapers. Both used 'aggression' and 'invasion', where the repetition frequency in Aljazeera was 8.0% and 6.2%, while The Guardian was 11.9% and 18.6%, respectively. The lexical choices 'aggression' and 'invasion' have different meanings from 'war'. The two implied that one of the countries was the initiator of the conflict while the other was the victim. In aggression and invasion, the two countries did not play a balanced role in attacking. Meanwhile, the lexical choices 'crisis' (9.9%) and 'conflict' (9.3%) were only found in Aljazeera, implying that Aljazeera represented the conflict as a relatively neutral phenomenon that did not involve armed contacts. These two lexical units have a lower content of meaning in the context of representing assault and physical violence.

Apart from that, discourse tendencies were observable in the distribution of lexical adjectives to represent the conflict situations in the two newspapers. The distribution is presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Distribution of lexical adjectives in Aljazeera and The Guardians.

Lexical Choice in Arabic/English	**Aljazeera**		**The Guardian**	
	Adj.	**Freq.**	**Adj.**	**Freq.**
حرب (*ḥarb*)/war	-	-	brutal horrendous criminal	3 1 1
أزمة (*uzmah*)/crisis	-	-	-	-
صراع (*ṣirā'*)/conflict	-	-	-	-
عدوان (*'adwān*)/aggression	-	-	-	-
غزو (*ghazw*)/invasion	-	-	criminal	1
معركة (*ma'rakah*)/fight		-	-	-
مواجهة (*muwājahah*)/confrontation	-	-	-	-

The data in Table 3 shows that The Guardian had a clear position in representing the Russia-Ukraine conflict as an armed contact that actively involved both countries. To reinforce this position, The Guardian added lexical adjectives to construct the conflict situation. Among the adjectives used were 'brutal', 'horrendous', and 'criminal'. The spread of these adjectives was found in the phrases 'brutal war' (3 occurrences), 'horrendous war' (1 occurrence), 'criminal war' (1 occurrence), and 'criminal invasion' (1 occurrence). The addition of these lexical adjectives was not found in Aljazeera. The absence of conflict description emphasized that Aljazeera took a neutral position in its representation.

4.2.2 Actor representation

The differences in conflict representations were closely related to the representation of actors in the two newspapers. The actors represented by Aljazeera and The Guardian can be seen in Table 4.

Table 4. Actor representation in Aljazeera and The Guardians.

Lexical Choice in Arabic/English	Aljazeera		The Guardian	
	Actor	Freq.	Actor	Freq.
حرب (*harb*)/war	Russia	16	Putin	8
أزمة (*uzmah*)/crisis	Ukraine	4	-	-
صراع (*sira'*)/conflict	-	-	-	-
عدوان (*'adwan*)/aggression	Russia	6	Russia Putin	2 1
غزو (*gazw*)/invasion	Ukraine Russia	2 1	Putin Russia Soviet	3 1 1
معركة (*ma'rakah*)/fight	-	-	-	-
مواجهة (*muwajahah*)/confrontation	-	-	-	-

There were only two actors represented in the narrative of the Aljazeera article: 'Russia' and 'Ukraine'. The existence of Russia and Ukraine as actors showed that the focus of Aljazeera's narrative did not arise from the conflict involving the two nations. Based on the distribution pattern in Table 4 above, Russia became a "doer" in the lexical items حرب (*ḥarb*) 'war', عدوان (*'adwān*) 'aggression', and غزو (*ghazw*) 'invasion'. The position as an actor in the three lexical choices was distributed over 23 sentences (79.3%) which explicitly narrated Russia as the perpetrator of war, aggression, and invasion of Ukraine. Accordingly, Russia as an actor was represented negatively as a war criminal and a disturbance to world peace. Meanwhile, Ukraine was a "patient" in the lexical أزمة (*uzmah*) 'crisis' (13.8%) and "doer" in the lexical غزو (*ghazw*) 'invasion' (6.9%). This finding can be found in A2 and A5. As an actor experiencing a crisis, Ukraine had become a victim of Russian war crimes, whereas the invasion of Ukraine was described as a response to the aggression initiated by Russia. In line with this plot, Ukraine as an actor was represented positively as a victim of Russian war crimes.

Unlike Aljazeera, The Guardian represented three actors: 'Putin', 'Russia', and 'the Soviets'. Putin became a "doer" in the lexemes 'war', 'aggression', and 'invasion'. The position as an actor in these three sentences was distributed over twelve sentences (75%) which explicitly narrated Putin as the perpetrator of war, aggression, and invasion of Ukraine. In line with that, Putin as the supreme leader of Russia was represented negatively as the precursor and initiator of the aggression that led to the humanitarian crisis in Ukraine. This was apparent from the inherent negative adjectives and lexical items, such as 'Putin's brutal war', 'Putin's war', 'Putin's hitlist', 'Putin's invasion', and 'Putin's criminal invasion'. Meanwhile, Russia and the Soviets were also represented as "doers". 'Russia' was found in the lexical 'aggression' and 'invasion' in three sentences (18.7%), while Soviet in the lexical invasion was found in one sentence (6.3%). Unlike 'Putin', 'Russia', and 'the Soviets' were also portrayed as entities destroying the harmonization of the Ukrainian nation-state. 'Putin' was considered the only actor responsible for all the damages that occurred in Ukraine.

5. DISCUSSION

The findings showed that repetition and collocation were the most dominant lexical cohesive devices found in both data sources. In Aljazeera, the repetition frequency was quite high compared to collocation (61.6%-17.8%). It was different from The Guardian where the frequency of repetition and collocation was almost the same (48.9%-28.7%). This gap proved that there were differences in language characteristics between Aljazeera and The Guardian. Arabic which is known for its non-concatenative morphological form, produces more repetition frequencies than the other types of lexical cohesion (Schwaiger, 2018). It is different from English which does not have many inflectional and derivational patterns; hence, the frequency between repetition and collocation is relatively balanced. In addition to repetition and collocation, Aljazeera appeared to frequently use synonymy, whereas The Guardian used a lot of hyponymies. It was also influenced by the typology of the Arabic language which has lexical richness so that it can express a meaning with different lexical items.

This finding strengthens the results of Malah et al. (2016), Dontcheva-Navrátilová et al. (2018), and Huneety et al. (2019). In various languages, newspaper writing uses more repetition and collocation. The language characteristics of newspapers are oriented as instruments to influence readers' minds so that they agree with the ideas being raised. In other words, repetition and collocation can serve as tools to achieve the goal. According to the findings of Dontcheva-Navrátilová et al. (2018), Afzaal et al. (2019), and Huneety et al. (2019), repetition is chosen to connect and organize text because it is considered to be able to create textual continuity effectively. Meanwhile, collocation is used because it can connect lexical meanings more subtly, where each lexical collaborates in strengthening ideas. It is in line with the results of Ayyash (2016) in which one of the important roles of lexical cohesion is to build an internal meaning at the level of detail and the entire text.

In addition to strengthening the results of the studies above, the research findings also refute the conclusions of Farghal (2017). Differences in language typology, narrative styles, and discourse tendencies will produce different types and lexical cohesion frequencies. Articles that use Arabic and English can potentially use the same types of cohesion devices, but they tend to be difficult at the same frequency. This argument is in line with the findings of Ahmad (2017) that several English lexical cohesions turn into repetition when translated into Arabic. This confirms that repetition is a characteristic of Arabic lexical cohesion and is always found more in Arabic than in English. In line with that, the dominance of repetition, collocation, and synonymy in Aljazeera agrees with the research findings of Hashemi Aghdam and Hadidi (2015) and Igaab and Abdulhasan (2018).

From the aspect of conflict representation, Aljazeera tended to take a neutral perspective by prioritizing humanitarian issues and world peace. This neutrality can be seen from the ideas that described the situation on both sides involved in the conflict. At one point, Aljazeera condemned Russia for its aggression. Meanwhile, at another moment, Aljazeera also criticized Ukraine for various policies that ultimately escalated the conflict. Commitment to world peace was reflected in Aljazeera's focus on mapping the impacts and what can be done to end the conflict. In a different way, The Guardian tended to create a negative image of Vladimir Putin and Russia. This tendency was manifested consistently from the editorial headlines to the developed narratives. Putin, with all his policies of aggression against Ukraine, was a real war criminal. However, even though it was full of negative narratives, The Guardian did not necessarily defend Ukraine. They promoted the European Union which was expected to counter Putin and Russia.

In line with the results of Ojala and Pantti (2017), Roman et al. (2017), and Fengler et al. (2020), the differences in representation between Aljazeera and The Guardian were due to the differences in geographic and cultural proximity, domestication, and economic exchanges. As one of the media in the Middle East, Aljazeera had no interest in being heavily involved because the conflict did not have a direct impact on their geography, culture, economy, and domestic situation. Unlike The Guardian, one of the media in Europe, the conflict was a threat to the existence of many countries on the continent. It was not surprising, then, that their tendencies and involvement were visible in the narratives they created. Given this narrative pattern, the findings corroborate the study results of Pasitselska (2017), Veljovski et al. (2017), and Stănescu (2022) who called the Russian-Ukrainian conflict 'a hybrid warfare'. As information components, Aljazeera and The Guardian became battlefields of propaganda and opinion gathering to win public sympathy (Roman et al., 2017; Szostek, 2018a, 2018b).

The representation of actors in The Guardian can be categorized as special propaganda as stated by Fisher (2020). The Guardian degraded Putin as an anti-peace figure and a real war criminal. This representational pattern strengthened the study results of Ojala and Pantti (2017) and Fengler et al. (2020). The Guardian reduced Russia's existence by emphasizing Putin's role as a supreme leader. This strategy indirectly created an interpretation that the conflict was essentially Putin's ambition, not Russia as a country. Meanwhile, the findings on Aljazeera showed a distinction from various previous relevant studies. Aljazeera represented Russia and Ukraine as conflict actors equally. Aljazeera never mentioned Putin (Russia's president) or Zelensky (Ukraine's president) as the conflict actor or the main aggressor. Putin and Zelensky were represented proportionally according to their status as supreme leaders.

The finding of different tendencies behind the use of lexical cohesion also reinforces the proposition of Hassoon (2014), Shahnaz and Imtiaz (2014), and Hashemi Aghdam and Hadidi (2015). The type and frequency of repetition and collocation were important indicators of Aljazeera's neutrality toward Russia and Ukraine and The Guardian's partiality to Ukraine. Strengthened by the arguments of Fengler et al. (2020), the current research results predict that the tendency of newspapers toward certain political entities will always occur in all newspapers, countries, and events. In the context of the Russia-Ukraine conflict, countries with no direct interest will always remain neutral. It is reflected by the government of Qatar which is the owner of Aljazeera. In the opposite position, interested countries will always tend to one party only, as reflected by The Guardian, which dominantly supports British foreign policy interests. This research has implications for the dynamics of discourse on the Russian-Ukrainian conflict in various mass media. With the tendency of conflicting discourses, as represented by Aljazeera and The Guardian, the contestation of narratives in the media will continue to flow during the conflict.

6. CONCLUSION

It can be concluded that Arabic and English newspapers employed lexical cohesion to produce cohesion in the articles. The different types and frequencies of lexical cohesion in the two newspapers were caused by the differences in language typology, where Arabic as a non-concatenative morphological form produced more repetitions than other types of lexical cohesion. This is different from English which does not have many inflectional and derivational patterns, so the dominant lexical cohesion frequencies found were relatively balanced. Meanwhile, the tendency of each newspaper to represent the Russia-Ukraine conflict was reflected in the lexical and collocation choices created in the articles. Aljazeera represented the conflict in a balanced way, where Russia and Ukraine played the same role in the conflict. On the other hand, Russia as the initiator of the conflict was positioned as the guilty party. Meanwhile, The Guardian focused the narrative on war and brutal aggression, in which Putin was the most responsible main actor. Overall, the research findings proved that lexical cohesion devices can be one of the important features for mapping discourse tendencies as a basis for identifying the hidden power and ideology behind the discourse.

However, it is important to note that the limited data in this study resulted from the specific focus on conflict escalation within the research context. Despite this constraint, it presents a good avenue for future researchers to expand their investigations and gather a more extensive dataset.

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The Contribution of Online Multimodal Feedback-Based Weblogs toward Students' Writing Skills Enhancement

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Abstract
Writing correctly and accurately in English is essential for communicating formally with others in this 4.0 era. Various approaches, methods, techniques, strategies, and media have been used to improve students' writing skills. However, students still require help with writing correctly and accurately in English. This study aims to investigate whether online multimodal feedback-based weblogs improve students' writing skills and to discover the students' perceptions of using this teaching model. Fifty students were included in this quasi-experimental study. They were divided into two groups: experimental and control groups, with 25 students in each group. The experimental group was taught writing with online multimodal feedback-based weblogs, and the control group was taught writing using the traditional method. A written test was used to collect data in both pre-test and post-test. A set of questionnaires was also used to collect information about the students' perceptions of the teaching model used. The research results showed that online multimodal feedback-based weblogs could improve the students' writing skills. Furthermore, students in the experimental group positively responded to the use of online multimodal

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feedback-based weblogs in teaching and learning writing. Hence, it can be inferred that weblogs incorporating online multimodal feedback have the potential to enhance both the writing proficiency and motivation of students.

Keywords: Feedback, online, multimodal feedback, students' writing, weblogs.

1. INTRODUCTION

Educational technology integration has significantly transformed the teaching and learning landscape. Online coaching with different platforms has gained prominence, offering personalized learning experiences, flexibility, and accessibility to many learners. The COVID-19 pandemic accelerated the adoption of online coaching and e-learning globally. With widespread lockdown and social distancing, traditional forms of education were disrupted, leading to an increased reliance on online platforms for teaching and learning. In this contemporary society, it is not possible to do something without electrochemical energy sources (Yoo et al., 2014). Balancing the need for reliable energy sources with sustainability remains a significant challenge in ensuring the continued advancement of modern society. Online coaching and mastering practices have moved instructors to new approaches in teaching all subjects, including writing, particularly in imparting remarks on students' writing. Writing is, in fact, one of the hard talents confronted by college students (Bernal, 2001). It can indeed pose a challenge for many students since it involves a complex set of skills, from organizing thoughts and structuring ideas to grammar, vocabulary, and style. This writing difficulty may result from insufficient vocabulary, awkward phrasing, unconventional grammar, irrelevant use of colloquial language, trouble with sentence structure and phrase order, annoyance at studying what is written, and trouble with phrase sounds, spellings, and meanings. It can be stated that overcoming writing challenges takes time and persistence.

By breaking down the difficulties into manageable parts and by consistently practising the targeted strategies, writing skills could be enhanced. Therefore, the integration of online learning, especially with peer support, significantly improves the students' writing skills (Abdullah et al., 2022; Kasim et al., 2022; Muslem et al., 2019). Heaton (1975, as cited in Pratiwi, 2016) said that numerous capabilities are essential for correct writing, which may be grouped into five standard additives or major areas; (1) language use: the capacity to put accurate and suitable sentences in writing, (2) mechanical capabilities: the capacity to apply the personal conventions correctly to the written language, for example, punctuation and spelling, (3) the remedy of content: the capacity to assume creatively and to expand thoughts, excluding irrelevant information, (4) stylistic capabilities: the capacity to govern sentences and paragraphs and to use language effectively, (5) and judgment capabilities: the capacity to write accurately for a selected motive with a selected target market in mind, collectively with a capability to select, organize, and order applicable information in the writing.

Scott and Vitale (2003) said that writing skills are complex and sometimes challenging to teach. It is necessary to master grammatical and rhetorical tools as well as conceptual and evaluation elements. For students who struggle with writing problems, the process of writing interferes with learning, and students facing such challenges need help to stay motivated. One of the main points that make writing difficult is related to using linguistic aspects, such as punctuation, spelling, grammar, and vocabulary (Beare, 2019; Pratiwi, 2016). Writing also needs to be practised until students are skilful at it, particularly because for many English learners, writing well is much more complex than speaking. Written communication in English can be much slower than oral communication, even for advanced learners (Pratiwi, 2016). Writing in English must follow grammar rules much more closely than spoken English. For example, one can say, 'I go to Jakarta yesterday'. In this sentence, the listeners may understand the meaning even though it is grammatically incorrect. However, in the written form, it should be grammatically correct, such as 'I went to Jakarta yesterday'.

Bryne (1988 as cited in Adelita et al., 2023) divided the problems that make writing difficult into three categories. The first is the language problem, which includes linguistic aspects such as grammar, vocabulary, language usage, and choice of sentences in writing. The second is the physiological problem, which is referred to the writer's problem since there is no direct connection and feedback from the readers when writing. This difficulty pays more attention to the problem of working out the written material or the content of the composition. The third is the cognitive problem in which writing should be taught through formal guidelines such as spelling, punctuation, letters, and paragraphs.

Therefore, this study was conducted to investigate the impact of using online multimodal feedback-based weblogs in enhancing students' writing skills with the following formulated research questions:

1. Is there any significant improvement in students' writing skills after they are taught by using an online multimodal feedback-based weblog?
2. What are students' responses toward the use of an online multimodal feedback-based weblog in learning writing?

Referring to the two research questions above, the objectives of this study are to investigate if there is a significant improvement in students' writing skills after they are taught by using an online multimodal feedback-based weblog and to investigate the students' responses toward the use of an online multimodal feedback-based weblog in learning writing.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Writing for Non-Native Speakers

Writing is a complex subject to learn, especially for non-native students, including non-native university students. The challenges in writing are due to five factors: the first is language proficiency, in which they might face hurdles in expressing themselves fluently and accurately in a language that is not their first language. This includes challenges related to vocabulary, grammar, syntax, and idiomatic expressions. The second is cultural differences, in which cultural nuances and writing conventions might differ significantly between languages. Non-native students may struggle to adapt to the writing style, tone, and expectations of the new language's academic or professional discourse. The third is lack of exposure, in which limited exposure to the language outside the classroom can impede language development. Non-native students might have fewer opportunities to practice writing or engage in authentic language contexts.

The fourth is translation challenges, in which non-native writers might tend to translate directly from their native language, leading to awkward phrasing, unconventional grammar, or inappropriate word choices in the target language. Lastly is fear of errors, in which fear of making mistakes or facing criticism can hinder non-native students' confidence in writing. This fear might lead to reluctance to express ideas or experiment with new vocabulary or sentence structures (Azila-Gbettor, et al., 2015; Farooqui, 2023).

The teaching of writing can no longer be reduced to the ability to practice grammar and vocabulary (Hubert & Bonzo, 2019). Instead, it should be focused on a central competency for communication and literacy, particularly in this 21st century. Furthermore, it is unquestionable that writing skills have become more important in everyday communication, mainly through social media and personal mobile devices (Kalantzis et al., 2016). Therefore, the skill of writing should be facilitated and taught in appropriate ways and strategies. Various media have been used to improve students' writing skills (Hadi et al., 2021; Rahman et al., 2019; Rinda et al., 2018; Zheng et al., 2018). One of the possible media that can be used in teaching writing is weblogs. A blog (short for weblog) is a personal online journal that is frequently updated and intended for general public consumption. Blogs typically consist of a series of entries, often referred to as blog posts or articles, which are displayed on a single web page. These posts are arranged in reverse chronological order, meaning that the most recent post appears at the top of the page, while older posts are listed below. The concept of reverse chronological order allows readers to see the most recent content first, making it easy for them to stay updated with the latest information or developments. Visitors to a blog can scroll down to access earlier posts or navigate through pages to explore older content. Blogs have become a popular platform for individuals, businesses, organizations, and professionals to communicate with their audiences, share content, and engage in discussions. They often allow for reader interaction through comments, enabling a two-way communication channel between the writer and their audience. These original entries cannot be edited by others but can be given comments by anyone (Walker, 2005).

2.2 Multimodal Feedback in Writing

Multimodal feedback has been used by many instructors in teaching and learning writing to enhance students' writing. Feedback is a cornerstone of effective learning for students. It serves multiple crucial purposes in the learning process. Feedback provides insight into what students are doing well, and what areas they can enhance (Parkin, et al., 2012; Irons & Elkington, 2021). It highlights strengths to be reinforced and weaknesses to be addressed, guiding further effective learning. Clear and constructive feedback helps students understand expectations, learning objectives, and criteria for success. It aligns their efforts toward meeting these standards. Besides, constructive feedback fosters a supportive learning environment, encouraging active engagement and participation (Reeve, 2013). It promotes a culture of continuous improvement and openness to learning from mistakes. Additionally, positive feedback acknowledges students' efforts, progress, and achievements, boosting their confidence and motivation to reinforce good practices and continue their learning efforts. A positive feedback loop between teachers and students also cultivates trust and rapport. Moreover, effective feedback offers actionable suggestions and guidance for improvement. It does not just identify errors but provides strategies or resources for students to enhance their work (Henderson et al., 2019). In addition, feedback also encourages students to reflect on their learning process, fostering metacognitive skills. It prompts self-assessment and goal-setting, empowering students to take ownership of their learning. It also establishes a partnership in learning, encouraging students to seek guidance and support. Furthermore, when feedback is thoughtfully delivered and received, it becomes a powerful tool for supporting students' learning, fostering growth, and building a culture of continuous improvement in education (Wilkins & Herron, 2023).

The evolution of technology has significantly expanded how instructors provide feedback on student assignments. The traditional method of providing feedback through handwritten comments on papers has evolved to include various modalities due to technological advancements. Instructors could respond to students' writing across different modalities in this technological era. The integration of various modalities for providing feedback aligns with the diverse learning preferences and technological proficiency of students. It enables instructors to cater to individual needs, offer more detailed explanations, and foster a more interactive and engaging feedback process (Cunningham & Link, 2021). The choice of modality for providing feedback on students' writing can significantly impact the language used by instructors and subsequently influence the students' emotions and the student-instructor relationship. However, technology-mediated feedback remains an underexplored realm in English writing, especially about how modes of technology affect feedback, and how students interact with and understand it (Cunningham, 2018). Instructors need to consider the context, effectiveness, and students' preferences when choosing the modality for feedback. A combination of feedback modalities may offer a comprehensive and personalized approach to addressing students' needs and enhancing their learning experience.

2.3 Multimodal Feedback Strategies in Learning

Several researchers often implement multimodal feedback strategies in educational courses to explore how different forms of feedback impact students' learning experiences. These strategies involve using various feedback modalities such as text-based comments, audio recordings, videos, rubrics, or a combination thereof. Subsequently, researchers commonly gather students' preferences and perceptions through surveys or interviews to understand their feedback preferences (Cunningham, 2018; Dalton, 2018; Rawle et al., 2018; West & Turner, 2016). Other previous studies on multimodal feedback have also been conducted by Dias and Trumpy (2014) and Ketchum et al. (2020). The findings consistently indicated that students showed a preference for multimodal feedback or a combination of multimodal and text-based feedback. However, research focusing on the utilization of online multimodal feedback-based weblogs specifically for university-level students is somewhat limited. While there is a growing body of research exploring feedback modalities and online learning environments, the specific application of multimodal feedback through weblogs in higher education remains an area with less extensive research.

The study conducted by Liou and Peng (2009), aiming to investigate the impact of training on blog-based peer review activities among students, yielded several noteworthy findings: (1) post-training, students displayed a shift towards more review-oriented peer commentary, with decreased abandonment of tasks, indicating increased engagement; (2) the quality of peer comments improved, leading to enhanced repetition success rates; (3) subsequent writing assignments showed positive changes, with peer comments focusing more on repetition; and (4) corresponding to this focus, students' repetition success rates increased. In summary, the study highlighted that peer review training positively influenced engagement, comment quality, and students' ability to address specific elements in their peers' writing, particularly repetition, suggesting the potential effectiveness of training in enhancing online peer review processes and improving writing outcomes.

Relles and Tierney (2013) underscored the significance of integrating communication technology into academic culture, implying its profound impact on future students' writing habits and their navigation through diverse discourse situations. The use of online multimodal feedback-based weblogs as a platform for providing feedback, especially in a multimodal format, presents an interesting avenue for enhancing students' engagement and learning experiences in writing. When they get feedback from their teacher, they can make their writing better by looking at the feedback, stopping the recording or videos of their teacher giving them feedback, reading their paper again, and making changes. This way, students improve their writing skills.

3. METHOD

This study employed a quantitative, quasi-experimental design (Shadish & Luellen, 2012) to explore the impact of online multimodal feedback-based weblogs on enhancing university students' writing skills. Quasi-experimental designs, commonly used in social sciences and education, lack randomization but are practical for real-world settings. While they offer insights into intervention effects, the absence of randomization hinders the establishment of strong causal relationships. Careful consideration is required to address potential confounding variables, as participants are assigned based on pre-existing conditions rather than random assignment, making it challenging to attribute causality solely to the intervention.

3.1 Participants

This study engaged university students who were taking Paragraph Writing subject in the academic year of 2021/2022. The participants consisted of 50 university students. They were selected using a purposive sampling technique, in which they had the same level of writing competence. Each group consisted of 25 students. The experimental group was taught by using an online multimodal feedback-based weblog, while the other group, the control group, was taught by using the conventional method (i.e., teacher-centred instruction). Both groups were given the same topics and teaching materials.

3.2 Instruments

The instruments used in this study were writing tests and a set of questionnaires. The test was in written form, which was writing a short essay. Meanwhile, the questionnaire was related to the student's responses toward the implementation of an online multimodal feedback-based weblog. The number of items in the questionnaire was 36. The items were related to their perception toward the implementation of an online multimodal feedback-based weblog and adapted from Keller and Suzaki (1988). It used the five-point Likert scale to answer each item.

3.3 Technique of Data Collection and Analysis

Pre-test was given to both groups; experimental and control groups. The writing test was first given before conducting experimental teaching to the students. This writing test was related to writing about students' daily activities. They were asked to write a not-more-than 100-word essay related to the topic. They were given about 30 minutes to do the pre-test. After the pre-test, the treatment started. In the treatment, the students were taught by using an online multimodal feedback-based weblog. They were given a topic of writing to write using the model. Each student wrote on their own based on the topic given. Afterward, they shared the work and gave comments and feedback to each other. The teacher also gave comments and feedback on the students' work and also gave an evaluation of each topic they wrote. The treatment lasted for six meetings. The researchers then analysed the impacts or effects of the treatment by comparing the outcomes before and after these six sessions, measuring changes or differences within the study groups in the seventh meeting through the post-test. Administering a post-test to both groups allowed the researchers to compare and analyse the outcomes or changes in both groups following the intervention.

The data collected were analysed quantitatively using SPSS to see the effect of the model used. Furthermore, to find out the students' responses toward the use of online multimodal feedback-based weblogs in learning writing, a set of questionnaires was distributed directly to students on paper asking them to respond to specific questions to rate their experiences, perceptions, or opinions.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Online Multimodal Feedback-based Weblog to Improve Students' Writing

Table 1 displays the scores from the pre-test and post-test from both the experimental and control groups.

Table 1. Pre-test and post-test values for EG and CG.

No.	EG scores		No.	CG scores	
	Pretest	Post-test		Pretest	Post-test
1	76	86	1	74	83
2	57	78	2	65	76
3	78	85	3	78	80
4	76	87	4	76	82
5	75	85	5	65	78
6	78	88	6	75	80
7	76	89	7	73	82
8	70	84	8	65	80
9	60	79	9	65	78
10	69	89	10	65	79
11	76	87	11	68	80

Table 1 continued…

12	60	79	12	63	75
13	69	87	13	65	80
14	68	87	14	60	78
15	77	88	15	60	80
16	76	86	16	74	79
17	69	85	17	67	80
18	68	87	18	68	84
19	74	89	19	75	80
20	74	87	20	73	84
21	71	85	21	72	80
22	70	86	22	68	79
23	75	87	23	76	85
24	74	85	24	70	80
25	70	87	25	75	84

From the score data in Table 1, it can be seen that the lowest pre-test value of the experimental group is 57, while the highest pre-test score is 78. The lowest post-test value of the experimental group is 78, and the highest score is 89. Meanwhile, from the control group, it can be seen that the lowest score on the pre-test is 65, and the highest score on the pre-test is 78. Additionally, the lowest post-test score from the control group is 75, and the highest score is 85. It can be concluded that the students' pre-test scores in both experimental and control groups were not much different. However, there was a change in the students' writing scores after the experimental group was given treatment using an online multimodal feedback-based weblog, where there were differences in the post-test scores obtained from the two research groups. Table 2 displays the summary of the scores from the pre-test and post-test from both the experimental and control groups.

Table 2. The summary of research results.

No.	Groups	Mean	Q1	Median	Q3	Max	Mean	SD
1	Exp. Pre-test	57	69	74	76	78	71.44	5.72
2	Exp. Post-test	78	85	87	87	89	85.68	2.97
3	Cont. Pre-test	60	65	68	74	78	69.40	5.31
4	Cont. Post-test	75	79	80	82	85	80.24	2.45

Table 2 shows that the post-test mean score was higher than the pre-test score in both groups. This increase was proven through statistics to determine whether this increase was significant or just a coincidence. The normality test was calculated using Shapiro-Wilk and the results are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Normality test.

Groups	Test	Statistics	p-value	Notes	Result
Experimental	Pre-test	0.864	0.00332	not normal	Wilcoxon test
Experimental	Post-test	0.797	0.000204	not normal	
Control	Pre-test	0.931	0.0893	normal	t-test
Control	Post-test	0.929	0.0818	normal	

The control group's normality test involved a paired sample t-test, while the score increase in the experimental group was calculated using the non-parametric Wilcoxon test, as detailed in Table 4.

Table 4. Significance test result.

Groups	Test	Mean	Df	Statistics	p-value
Experimental	Pre-test	71.44	14.24	0.000	0.000
	Post-test	85.68			
Control	Pre-test	69.40	10.84	-12.526	0.000
	Post-test	80.24			

Table 4 shows that the increase in both groups' scores was significant. The mean score of the pre-test in the experimental group is 71.44, and the post-test is 85.68. Meanwhile, the mean score of the pre-test in the control group is 69.40, and the post-test is 80.24. It suggests that the improvement in the scores, as shown in Table 4, reached a level of statistical significance. It suggests that the differences observed in the scores between the pre-test and post-test or between groups were meaningful. This increase can be seen more clearly in Figure 1 and Figure 2.

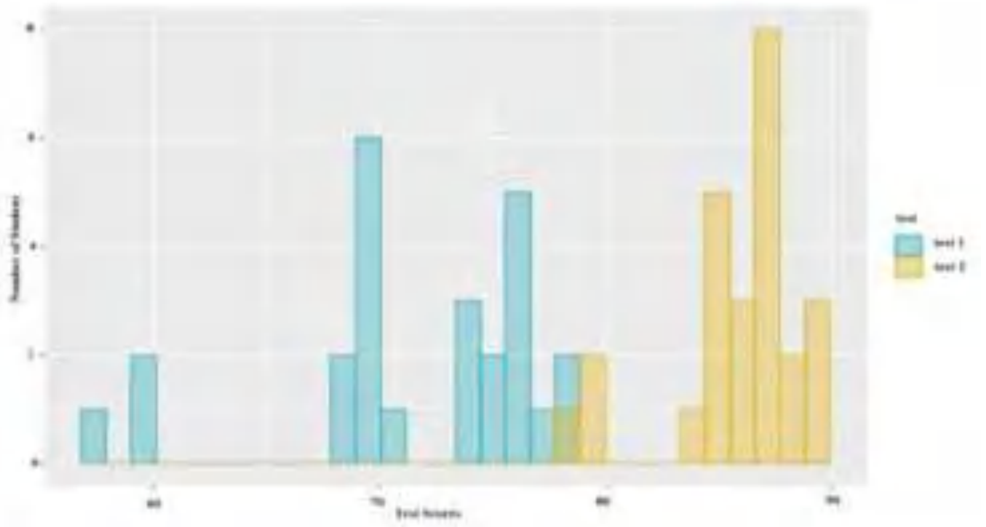

Figure 1. Differences in test scores of pre-tests and post-tests in experimental group.

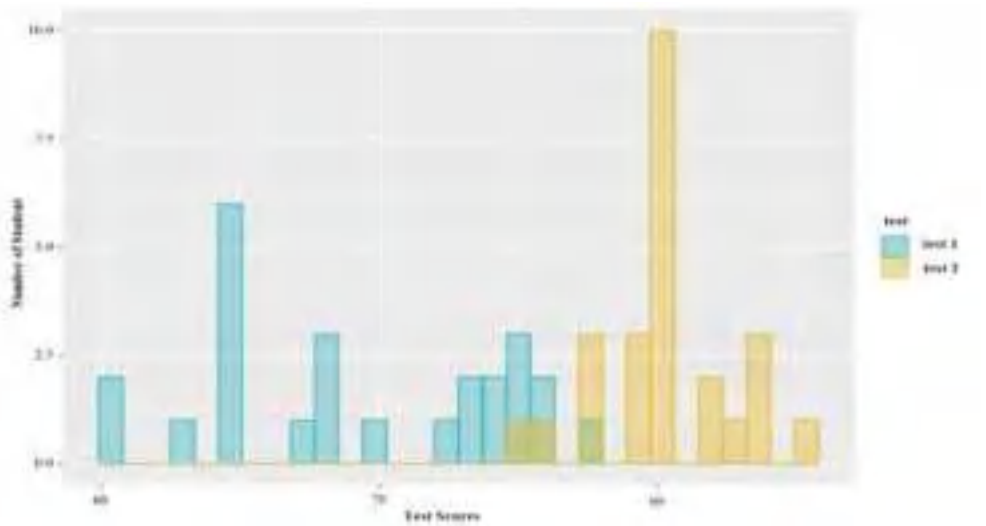

Figure 2. Differences in test scores of pre-test and post-test in the control group.

Table 5 summarizes the value increase, indicating a higher mean score of 14.24 in the experimental group compared to 10.85 in the control group, resulting in a gain score of 3.4.

Table 5. Summary of the increase in the value of the experimental group and the control group.

No.	Groups	Min	Q1	Median	Q3	Max	Mean	SD
1	Experimental	7	11	14	18	21	14.24	3.94
2	Control	2	9	11	13	20	10.84	4.33

To find out if there was a difference in the scores between the two groups, the increase in scores was compared using the independent sample t-test because the data for increasing scores follow the assumption of normality, as shown in Table 6. This test is used to compare the means score of two independent groups, particularly to assess if their sample means differ significantly from each other. It suggests that the independent sample t-test is being considered as a statistical method to analyse whether there is a significant difference in scores between the two groups.

Table 6. Normality test for data increases in the value of both groups.

No.	Groups	Statistics	p-value	Notes
1	Experiment	0.937	0.125	Normal
2	Control	0.985	0.963	Normal

Table 6 shows the normality test. It can be seen that the p-value of the experimental group is 0.125, and the control group is 0.963. If the p-values are greater than a predetermined significance level (commonly set at 0.05), the data may be considered normally distributed. The results of calculations using the independent sample t-test can be seen in Table 7.

Table 7. Test results significance.

Groups	Mean	Df	Statistics	p-value
Experimental	14.24	3.4	-2.905	0.000
Control	10.84			

Table 7 reveals a significant difference in increasing scores between the control and experimental groups. The experimental group demonstrated a higher average increase in scores, reported as 14.24, compared to the control group's average increase of 10.84. This suggests that students in the experimental group experienced a greater improvement in scores on average, indicating a positive impact from the intervention.

The findings reinforce how new information and communication technologies are reshaping the writing process (Bakeer, 2018). Relles and Tierney (2013) highlighted the integration of communication technology into academic culture, foreseeing that future students' writing habits would adapt to diverse discourse situations. Previous studies, such as those by Arslan and Şahin-Kızıl (2010) and Tour (2020), provide empirical evidence supporting the effectiveness of online multimodal feedback-based weblogs in enhancing writing instruction in EFL contexts. This aligns with this study's findings, emphasizing that technology-enhanced approaches, specifically online multimodal feedback-based weblogs, can positively impact students' writing skills.

The utilization of online multimodal feedback-based weblogs has been shown to play a pivotal role in cultivating a supportive learning environment. According to Reeve (2013), constructive feedback not only aids in skill development but also fosters a sense of support and encouragement, promoting active engagement and participation among students. This dual emphasis on technological tools like weblogs and the importance of constructive feedback underscores a comprehensive and effective approach to enhancing writing skills in EFL settings, ultimately contributing to a more enriching and participatory learning experience for students (Relles & Tierney, 2013).

4.2 Perception of the Experimental Group Students from Questionnaires

The questionnaire explicitly distributed to the experimental group showed that the students increased their learning motivation through the online multimodal feedback-based weblog as shown in Table 8.

Table 8. Students' perceptions toward the use of online multimodal feedback-based weblog.

No.	Statements	SA (5)	A (4)	NS (3)	D (2)	SD (1)
1.	When I first looked at this lesson, I had the impression that it would be easy for me.	56%	16%	16%	8%	4%
2.	Something was interesting at the beginning of this lesson that got my attention.	72%	16%	4%	4%	4%
3.	This lesson was more difficult to understand than I would have liked it to be.	60%	24%	8%	4%	4%
4.	After getting the introductory information, I felt confident that I knew what I was supposed to learn from this lesson.	32%	48%	12%	4%	4%
5.	Completing this lesson gave me a satisfying feeling of accomplishment.	32%	52%	8%	4%	4%
6.	It is clear to me how the content of this lesson is related to things I already know.	36%	52%	4%	4%	4%
7.	Many of the files had so much information that it was hard to pick out and remember the important points.	36%	52%	4%	4%	4%
8.	This lesson is eye-catching.	48%	36%	8%	4%	4%
9.	There were pictures of examples that showed me how this material could be important to some people.	52%	36%	4%	4%	4%
10.	Completing this lesson successfully was important to me.	72%	16%	8%	0%	4%
11.	The quality of the presentation helped to hold my attention.	76%	16%	4%	0%	4%
12.	This lesson is so abstract that it was hard to keep my attention on it.	60%	24%	8%	4%	4%
13.	As I worked on this lesson, I was confident that I could learn the content.	44%	48%	4%	4%	0%
14.	I enjoyed this lesson no much that I would like to know more about this topic.	36%	56%	4%	4%	0%
15.	The presentation of this lesson looks dry and unappealing.	36%	56%	4%	4%	0%
16.	The content of this lesson is relevant to my interests.	36%	56%	4%	4%	0%
17.	The way the information is arranged in the files helped keep my attention.	36%	56%	4%	4%	0%

Table 8 continued…

18.	There are explanations or examples of how people use the knowledge in this lesson.	36%	56%	4%	4%	0%
19.	The information in this lesson was too difficult.	36%	56%	4%	4%	0%
20.	This lesson has things that stimulated my curiosity.	56%	40%	4%	0%	0%
21.	I enjoyed studying this lesson.	56%	36%	8%	0%	0%
22.	The amount of repetition in this lesson caused me to get bored sometimes.	56%	36%	8%	0%	0%
23.	The content and style of writing in this lesson convey the impression that its content is worth knowing.	52%	36%	12%	0%	0%
24.	I learned some things that were surprising or unexpected.	36%	56%	4%	4%	0%
25.	After working on this lesson for a while, I was confident that I would be able to pass a test on it.	36%	56%	4%	4%	0%
26.	This lesson was not relevant to my needs because I already knew most of it.	56%	36%	4%	4%	0%
27.	The feedback after the exercises and the comments in this lesson helped me feel rewarded for my effort.	56%	40%	0%	4%	0%
28.	The variety of reading passages, exercises, and illustrations helped keep my attention on the lesson.	56%	36%	4%	4%	0%
29.	The style of presentation is boring.	56%	36%	4%	0%	4%
30.	I could relate the content of this lesson to things I have seen, done, or thought about in my own life.	68%	24%	4%	0%	4%
31.	There are too many words in each presentation which makes it irritating.	68%	24%	4%	0%	4%
32.	It felt good to complete this lesson.	52%	40%	8%	0%	0%
33.	The content of this lesson will be useful to me.	56%	36%	0%	8%	0%
34.	I could not understand quite a bit of the material in this lesson.	64%	24%	8%	4%	0%
35.	The good organization of the content helped me be confident that I would learn this lesson.	68%	20%	12%	0%	0%
36.	It was a pleasure to learn with such a well-designed lesson.	76%	16%	4%	4%	0%

Note. 5 = Strongly agree (SA), 4 = Agree (A), 3 = Not sure (NS), 2 = Disagree (D), 1 = Strongly disagree (SD)

Table 8 shows that out of the 36 items on the questionnaire, 88% of the 25 students responded positively to the online multimodal feedback-based weblog, stating that it improved their writing skills and their motivation. However, the remaining 12% noted no increase in their skills and motivation. The positive impact of online multimodal feedback-based weblogs on students' motivation manifested in various ways to their writing ability. Indicators such as increased active participation, interaction with course materials, and discussions on the online platform were observed. This heightened engagement led to their contributing more frequently, responding to feedback, and actively participating in collaborative tasks. The correlation between increased motivation and improved outcomes was evident in the enhanced quality of assignments, projects, and assessments.

In the realm of teaching and learning written language, understanding the difficulties in English writing is crucial (Yunhadi et al., 2020). Teachers, therefore, should enhance their knowledge and skills using diverse feedback tools and sources to cater to various student goals (Erkan, 2022; Misra, 2021). The adoption of online teaching and learning has transformed the way teachers provide feedback on students' writing, offering benefits in pedagogy through the use of multiple digital modalities and participatory learning within online communities of practice (Ghufron & Nurdianingsih, 2020; Wopereis et al., 2010). The conclusion drawn from these results is that students thoroughly enjoyed the learning process facilitated by the online multimodal feedback-based weblog, aligning with other studies that have found blogging effective for writing instruction (Arslan & Şahin-Kızıl, 2010; Kajder & Parkes, 2012; Sweeney, 2010).

Furthermore, concerning the findings of this study, the heightened motivation also correlated with improved self-regulation, as the students demonstrated enhanced time management skills, goal-setting, and proactive seeking of resources or feedback for learning improvement (Swafford, 2018). Increased confidence, willingness to tackle challenging tasks, and enhanced collaboration with peers within the online platform were notable outcomes of this motivational boost (Fayram et al., 2018). Actively seeking, reflecting on, and applying feedback suggested that the online multimodal system's feedback mechanisms positively influenced students' motivation.

To conclude, the questionnaire responses in this study also indicated increased motivation in the learning process through the use of an online multimodal feedback-based weblog. This suggests that the implemented system positively impacted their engagement (Liou & Peng, 2009) and enthusiasm for learning (Reeve, 2013), further emphasizing its perceived benefits in improving writing abilities (Abdullah et al., 2022; Kasim et al., 2022; Muslem et al., 2019). The high percentage (88%) of positive responses regarding the improvement in writing skills solidifies the conclusion that students found the learning process enjoyable and effective with the online multimodal feedback-based weblog.

5. CONCLUSION

From the results of the research, it can be concluded that this research contributes positively to improving students' writing skills after they are taught through the online multimodal feedback-based weblog model. Furthermore, this research can also conclude that applying an online multimodal feedback-based weblog can increase the students' learning motivation to improve their writing skills. Hence, it is suggested that all writing lecturers use an online multimodal feedback-based weblog to improve their students` writing skills. It can also be advised that students continue to improve their writing skills through this medium.

Nevertheless, this study exclusively focused on English major students at Universitas Syiah Kuala in Banda Aceh. Consequently, it is crucial to replicate this study across diverse universities and regions, involving a larger and more diverse student population, to validate the current research findings in varied settings. Expanding the scope to include a broader range of participants and exploring various aspects of writing is essential for a more in-depth understanding. Additionally, consideration should be given to broadening the study to encompass other language skills such as listening, speaking, and reading.

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Social Literacy Practices of Afghan and Somali Refugees in a Transitional Setting

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to explore the social literacy practices of Afghan and Somali refugees in a transitional context. Although refugees have been the subject of previous research in various domains, our understanding of their literacy practices in urban areas, particularly in Malaysia, is still limited. The lack of literacy research in this setting exposes a gap in the current literature aimed at better understanding refugee literacy practices in a transitional situation. Thus, this study examines urban refugee literacy experiences via the lens of literacy as a social practice. It was exploratory in nature and used a qualitative methodology. Face-to-face interviews with four refugees were conducted at two community centres to collect primary data. In addition, field notes based on community centre visits provided by the participants were used as a secondary data source in the study to understand the literacy experiences of the participants better. The findings indicated that participants enacted literacy practices in their transitional setting for three primary purposes: to increase their funds of knowledge, to enact personal agency, and for community building. These results challenge the stereotype that refugees are powerless and highlight avenues or ways in which refugee communities can be supported in a transitional context.

Keywords: Literacy practices, Malaysia, refugees, social practices, transitional context.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Research on refugee experiences often positions refugees in states of powerlessness. Malaysia, like other countries, has been receiving an increasing number of refugees from all over the world. Around 182.780 refugees have registered with the UNHCR in Malaysia by October 2022 ("Figures at a glance," 2022). Of this number, the majority are Rohingyas from Myanmar, while others are from Syria, Iraq, Palestine, Afghanistan, Somalia, Pakistan, and other countries. The reasons for refugees fleeing vary as each refugee group has had its problems and struggles. In Afghanistan, for example, refugees are fleeing the decades-long conflict. On the other hand, Somali refugees are fleeing war and famine. These two countries' refugees face distinct challenges and difficulties. Furthermore, individuals within each group have distinct experiences and backgrounds, as is true for all refugees in general (Benezer & Zetter, 2014). As Malaysia remains non-signatory to the 1951 Refugee Convention and Protocol, the refugees do not have legal status. Hence, they are excluded from formal educational opportunities and access to employment in the country. They face problems in navigating themselves socially and effectively as they await processing in order to move on to their intended destination.

Recent attention to the refugee crisis and its impact on their lives encourages us to examine how being displaced shaped their lived experiences and participation in literary practices across borders. Although a growing corpus of work has emerged to study migration and refugee literacy practices (Capstick, 2020; Cun, 2021; Kim, 2018), these studies were mainly conducted in Western countries. They examine how refugees' literacies affect their lives and where these literacies fit into social, cultural, and historical settings. Most of the literature reported that refugees struggle with a language barrier due to interrupted education, often caused by political conflicts and wars. Due to limited access to education, the refugees could not finish schooling and develop literacy skills. These skills are essential for adapting to their new environment, rebuilding their lives, or negotiating onward movement from the city where refugees live. Thus, a broader understanding of how literacy facilitates and transforms refugees in transitional settings and interactions with others is needed to leverage social, cultural, and knowledge capital.

Unlike previous research examining refugees' literacy practices in resettlement in the United States (Compton-Lilly, 2016; Cun, 2021; Gilhooly & Lee, 2014; Lam & Warriner, 2012), the current study focuses on urban refugees' literacy experiences situated in a transitional context. Although refugees have been the topic of past research in various fields, our knowledge of their literacy practices in transitional contexts, especially in the Southeast Asian context, is still limited. The lack of literacy research in this setting, particularly in Malaysia, highlights a gap in the present literature, aiming to better understand refugees' literacy practices in a transitional context. According to Perry (2020, p. 60), each refugee community has its literacy practices, and "deeper research into one refugee population may yield insights into themes of culture, community, and identity in relation to literacies". Thus, further research on refugee populations in the South East Asian context, particularly in Malaysia, would add more insights to the body of knowledge. A study focusing on urban refugees in Malaysia will help us better understand how they engage in various literacy practices to increase their funds of knowledge, enact personal agency, and build their community as they wait to transition to another country.

This study used a narrative inquiry approach to examine Afghan and Somali refugees' experiences and literacy practices in an urban setting. In this study, Afghan and Somali refugees shared their stories about their experiences in their home countries and their adjustment to living in Malaysia as they waited to transit to the intended destination. We hoped to explore the refugees' literacy experiences in Malaysia and contextualise them in the current refugee scenario as the refugees shared their stories. Although refugees bring a plethora of knowledge to the community, their literacy skills are sometimes overlooked. When the literacy practices of refugees are undervalued, they become disengaged and detached from the community.

This paper offers insights into complex issues of language and literacy practices in transitional communities in migration contexts and how refugees navigate and position themselves in various sociocultural fields. Existing research on refugees in Malaysia tends to focus on the Rohingyas and Chins from Myanmar (Hoffstaedter, 2015; Nursyazwani, 2020; Wake & Cheung, 2016), but little is known about other groups of refugees, such as the Afghans and Somalis. Given the paucity of research on urban refugees' experiences with literacy practices in the Malaysian context, the current study attempts to fill a gap in this essential yet understudied field. This study aimed to examine the research question of "How do Afghan and Somali refugees in Kuala Lumpur employ literacy practices in a transitional setting?"

Thus, the current study attempts to explore the social literacy practises of Afghan and Somali refugees in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia**.** Examining how these urban refugees employ literacy practices in their transitional setting would, in turn, provide us with better insights into the literacy skills needed by urban refugees to survive in an urban context**.** The current host country is not necessarily the final destination for these refugees. Providing the right literacy programs could have the potential to help the refugees improve their literacy skills and contribute fully to their new nation.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Social Literacy

A framework of literacy as a social practice serves as the theoretical lens for this paper's investigation of literacy practices among urban refugees in a transitional setting like Malaysia. A growing body of research has proposed a sociocultural perspective on the nature of literacy practices in globalised spaces (Barton et al., 2000; Perry, 2012; Street, 2003). Street (1984) defined literacy as a social practice, referring to the different ways individuals use literacy in their daily lives for varied goals.

New Literacy Scholars (Barton & Hamilton, 1998; Gee, 2004) look at literacy in everyday life, what people do with it, and how individual, social, and cultural meanings impact people's literacy practises and literacy events (Barton & Hamilton, 1998). Literacy as a social practice framework emphasises literacy's usage in a broader social context. The participants' literacy practices were linked to the social environments where they were performed, such as the domains of home, community, education, and service providers.

Literacy encompasses more than just the learning of basic literacy skills. Barton et al. (2000) argue that literacy practices are patterned by social institutions and power relationships, with some literacies becoming more dominant, visible, and influential than others. Researchers can use these concepts to look into how refugees' literacies are viewed, how they affect their lives, and where these literacies fit into social, cultural, and historical contexts. These viewpoints allow us to consider who uses literacy, how literacy is used, and for what objectives persons use literacy. The following context serves as an example to illustrate the nature of literacy as a social practice. Somali refugees frequently engaged in literacy events that involved reading the Quran for various purposes, such as Quran study classes or guiding personal prayer. As a social practice, these events are connected with the larger life domain of religion. Reading the Quran was done purposefully, for a variety of reasons, as the refugees engaged with their Muslim communities. This practice has been shaped by the social institution of the mosque, with historical and power dimensions.

2.2 Refugees and Literacy

Refugees have different literacies and use a variety of texts to navigate their homes and outside worlds. Literacy is crucial in maintaining relationships, especially for refugees' families, whose lives are "shaped by values, ideas, and practices from the many sites and levels of the transnational social fields they inhabit" (Levitt, 2009, p. 126). Literacy practices are used as cultural capital to promote or negotiate social exchanges within various social sectors. The rapid development of technological innovation and globalisation has influenced the use of digital literacy practices among refugees. Digital technologies, including the internet, mobile phones, computers, tablets, and smart devices, have made transnational interaction and communication widely available. The usage of mobile technology enables individuals to contact family and friends across borders, access information and sources of support, and represent themselves (Dekker et al., 2018; Donà & Godin, 2019). Gilhooly and Lee (2014) study reported how Karen refugees employ digital literacy practices in refugee resettlement to adjust to their life in the United States and communicate with their family members in their home country. Such technology can also make it easier for refugees to seek work, providing those who have it an advantage. Through digitally mediated literacy practices, refugees increasingly participate as consumers and producers of information (Gilhooly & Lee, 2014; Kedra, 2021).

Apart from maintaining relationships, religion and culture affected the majority of the refugees' literacy practices because, according to Sarroub (2002), religion and culture are intricately linked. Refugees who have recently been resettled face numerous struggles and hardships in learning how to navigate a new country's system. These challenges may be alleviated by religion. In Muslim refugee literacy practices, Islam plays a significant influence. Participants employed religious literature to assist them in navigating many realms, according to Sarroub (2002). The studies by Nojumi (2002) and Cun (2021) have shown that faith had a role in some of their literacy practices and practising their religion helped them maintain a connection to their homeland. In the case of Afghan refugees, they have experienced numerous conflicts and a great deal of insecurity. However, one of the few constants in their life has been their faith.

Furthermore, Islam "has always been a significant part of the people of Afghanistan's social and cultural identities" (Nojumi, 2002, p. 5). Islam is ingrained in Afghan culture and identity. Therefore, maintaining religious beliefs was beneficial to the resilience of Afghan refugees (Kanji & Cameron, 2010). Furthermore, religion can assist refugees in adjusting to their new culture after they have arrived in the country where they seek asylum (Pieloch et al., 2016).

3. METHODS

A narrative inquiry was employed for this study to examine the social literacy practices of selected refugees in Malaysia. According to Clandinin and Connelly (2000, p. 4), narrative inquiry uses "narrative as both phenomena under study and method of study". It is a valuable tool for exploring the social literacy practices of refugees in a transitional setting because it allows researchers to capture the complexity and diversity of individual experiences, beliefs, and values. In particular, narrative inquiry can help uncover the social, cultural, and historical contexts that shape refugees' experiences and practices of literacy.

Through narrative inquiry, the researchers collect and analyse stories from the refugees, which provide rich and detailed accounts of their lived experiences. This study portrayed the experiences of two Afghan male refugees and two Somalian male refugees. Transcripts acquired during semi-structured interviews with the refugees who took part in the study were used as data sources. By analysing the narratives, the researchers identify patterns, themes, and meanings that underpin the social literacy practices of the refugees in a transitional setting. In addition, field notes based on community centre visits were also used to support the study's data sources to understand the participants' literacy experiences better.

Previous research on refugees (Döringer, 2021; Sulaiman-Hill & Thompson, 2011) has identified limitations and a lack of clarity with the sample frame as a persistent issue. However, in this exploratory study, the primary focus was to provide an in-depth contextual understanding of participants' individual experiences rather than attempting to obtain statistically generalizable data or a comparative representation of the population data. Due to the lack of formal legal recognition for refugees in Malaysia, the researchers initially faced several obstacles and barriers during the sampling and recruitment of participants. Hence, a purposive sampling technique was used, which included "information-rich cases" for an in-depth study, which are those from which one may learn a great deal about "themes of central relevance to the research's objective" (Patton, 2015, p. 256). Purposeful participant selection involves selecting participants who are knowledgeable or experienced with a specific phenomenon (Creswell & Poth, 2018).

3.1 Data Collection

Four male respondents participated in this study. With only four responses, no 'saturation' of the population under study can be claimed as a result of this study. Face-to-face interviews with the participants were conducted at two community centres in order to collect primary data. All interview conversations were held in English with an interpreter on-site to assist the researchers with the interview. The participants were found through non-government organisation refugee centres in Kuala Lumpur and recruited for this exploratory project. The researchers visited prospective participants to explain the study's goal and procedures. Ethical considerations relating to the protection of the participant's identity and the data obtained were addressed. Finally, the researchers obtained the university Ethics Board's approval to conduct this study.

Table 1. Participants' demographics.

Name (Code)	Age	Years in Malaysia	Level of Education	Languages spoken	Occupation
AH	25	5	High school	L1-Somali L2-Arabic L3-Spoken and Written English	Administrator at a Community Centre
DW	26	4	High school	L1-Somali L2-Arabic L3-Spoken and Written English	Volunteer teacher at a community centre
AL	46	8	High school	L1-Persian L2-Urdu L3-Spoken English	Administrator at a Community Centre
BS	48	7	High school	L1-Persian L2- Arabic L3- Spoken English	Administrator at a recycling centre

Table 1 displays the background information of the participants. Two participants are male refugees from Afghanistan, referred to in this study as AL and BS. In comparison, the other two male participants are refugees from Somalia, referred to in this study as AH and DW. Prior to arriving in Malaysia, none of the participants was exposed to the Malay language and had varying levels of formal education involving the English language. The participants were of varying ages, with the Somalian participants in their mid-twenties and the Afghanistan participants in their mid-forties. All participants are in Malaysia alone except for AL, whose family has joined him in Malaysia from Afghanistan. The identities of participants are kept anonymous not only for privacy and confidentiality reasons but also due to the sensitive issue of their presence in Malaysia. Each interviewee had the consent form explained orally and all signed it before the interview started.

Our interview protocol was adapted from the instrument developed by Purcell-Gates et al. (2011). The semi-structured interviews meant that while we had a list of planned questions and themes for discussion, we were open to new information and paths throughout the interaction with the participants in line with a narrative line of inquiry. The protocol was as follows:

- began by eliciting an account of the informant's definition of literacy (asking how individuals used print literacy to communicate with others etc.)
- inquired about present and past literacy practises, as well as texts read and written
- inquired about the practices of persons in participants' communities and family members
- the kinds of texts and literacy activities that participants used in their home countries and Malaysia.

The questions were designed to encourage open dialogue about the refugee's experiences with literacy. The participants were asked to use their own words to describe their experiences. The interviews took place in rooms at the community multicultural service centres where the participants' privacy could be protected. Each participant was interviewed twice, each for roughly sixty to eighty minutes.

3.2 Data Analysis

The main data collection technique involved is a series of in-depth interviews with the individual participants at different times as a means of data triangulation (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). The in-depth interview allowed researchers to learn more about the participants' everyday lives, views and behaviours (Kvale, 2007), and literacy experiences. In addition, each interview allowed the participants to tell their tales. All interview conversations were held in English since three of the participants had good knowledge of the English language. One of the participants, however, required a translator to participate in the interview.

All of the interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed, and the first researcher analysed data. Coding data on refugees' social literacy practices using the narrative inquiry method involved a systematic process of identifying, categorising, and analysing key themes that emerge from the narratives provided by refugees. This process allows researchers to comprehensively understand the complex social and cultural contexts that refugees navigate in a transitional setting.

The first step in coding data is to familiarise oneself with the data by reading through the narratives provided by refugees. Next, initial codes that capture the main themes that emerge from the narratives were generated. Then, as new codes and categories arose during the coding process of the other transcripts, a coding framework was created, which was constantly reviewed. Then, we developed the themes for the data based on categories within the social literacy framework, i.e., historical, cultural, and social literacy practices (see Table 2). Finally, the manuscript's second author read all of the transcripts, offered peer review, and re-evaluated the data analysis.

In the next stage, different data sources were triangulated. Triangulation refers to "using multiple data-collection methods, multiple sources, multiple investigators, and/or multiple theoretical perspectives" (Glesne, 2010, p. 53). Using this definition as a guide, the researcher examined the field notes and transcripts of interviews and informal conversations with participants to conduct a more thorough examination. Finally, the researchers interpreted the data to generate insights into the social literacy practices of refugees in a transitional setting. The codes and themes were used to support this interpretation. This stage led to the final development of three themes: literacies to increase funds of knowledge, literacies to enact personal agency, and literacies for community building. The findings section explores these themes.

Table 2. Coding scheme.

Interview questions	Categories	Codes	Field notes	Excerpts
Do you read and write in your first language?	Historical literacy	Life histories	Had a basic education in a masjid. Can read and write in Arabic and Persian	Yes. In Persian. I wrote this I wrote about Afghanistan's history in Persian. I wanted to write about my sons, like, real memory….

Table 2 continued…

What do you read during your free time?	Cultural literacy practices	Cultural values and religious beliefs	Multilingual. Can read in Arabic, Persian and Russian. But tend to focus on religious texts.	I read many books… In Arabic, what's called... to akhirah…In the akhirah is important. I have a Quran book.
Tell me about what it's like when you need to speak English (e.g. at the grocery store, bank, with friends etc.).	Social literacy practices	Intercultural communication	Can speak Somali and Arabic. Learn English at the age of 15 years.	So, if you speak English…, your communication is better. So, I can go hospital, I can go anywhere, I can contact some friends from different countries.
What do you like to read and write?	Social literacy practices	Knowledge development	Learn to read and write in Arabic at a madrasah. Learn English at secondary school. Engages in an online community.	I love to read management books. For example, looking for quotes because mostly I'm creating posters and flyers to post on social media.

4. RESULTS

The findings from the data analysis revealed that the refugees perform literacy practices in a transitional setting for three primary purposes: to increase funds of knowledge, to enact personal agency, and for community building. These purposes are unpacked in the following sections.

4.1 Literacy to Increase Funds of Knowledge

Literacy practices are valued and used to develop the refugees' funds of knowledge (Compton-Lilly, 2016; Dabach & Fones, 2016). All participants demonstrated a keen awareness of the need to expand their knowledge and literacies while they waited for their refugee applications to be processed. This category emerged as the participants demonstrated the use of multiple literacies to increase their funds of knowledge for different reasons despite being in a setting that does not provide them with legal status or protection.

The excerpt in (1) illustrates how DW, a Somali refugee, shared his experience developing oral and written literacies while transitioning to Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.

(1) Because we are coming as refugees here and working to go to another country. Maybe in the other country, they speak English. So, if you don't speak English, how to communicate with people? Sometimes I use for Grammarly app for grammar info. When I write, then I'm writing English I use Grammarly and I see everything. A lot of errors, and a lot of wrong words. That's how I'm learning how to write in English. (DW)

Another Somali refugee, AH, described how he developed his reading and writing skills in Malaysia.

(2) I learned myself to read books in English and I learned from YouTube how to speak in English. When I'm writing, I'm using my phone for voice messages. Then I use this [pointing to the Dictate feature on the phone]. Because here we come as refugees. So, if you don't speak English, how to communicate with people? (AH)

BS, an Afghan refugee, owns a mobile phone and laptop through which he accesses his Google Drive folder that stores a growing online library with novels in Persian and English. AH and DW also have mobile phones. They are very active in their community centre run by NGOs, where they use computers and the Internet for various reasons, as explained in the following sections. In short, all participants seemed to prioritise accessibility to at least one digital device and practice different literacies for the purpose of self-improvement and to increase their funds of knowledge.

The participants could not pursue formal education in Malaysia due to visa issues and financial limitations so they viewed these digital tools as the primary means of obtaining educational resources. In addition, each participant was intent on building upon and extending their existing funds of knowledge. Therefore, they would download reading materials in accordance with their individual goals. For example, AH focused on leadership and management books to better understand his role as a representative of his community and culture. BS preferred novels both in Persian and English that he often obtained from Telegram groups, and DW would look for materials he could use in class when he teaches English and Mathematics, while AL favoured religious texts.

Of course, they had to develop their digital literacy skills with English as the primary language of operation to access such materials. DW, for instance, asked people around him for help in learning how to operate a laptop and now prepares lesson plans and test papers using his laptop. As AH commented, these improvements were necessary and useful to be used when they later arrive at the targeted country of immigration or should they decide to return to their home countries, as is the case for BS. Even if BS does intend to go home to Afghanistan, he puts in the effort to increase his knowledge. Having learned how to operate a computer at an education centre in Afghanistan, he uses that knowledge to increase his English knowledge while in Malaysia.

(3) I think my knowledge of Persian is high level. In English, not enough. Because I don't know grammar. I cannot use English grammar in my writing. My talking also, I don't know many words. Many, many things I don't know. (BS)

In short, being in a transitional context seemed to encourage literacy development for self-improvement in skills and aspects that will better prepare them for future employment even if they could not seek long-term jobs in Malaysia. The participants in this study were able to establish and mobilise different resources within their capacities to develop their funds of knowledge, be it linguistic, academic, or cultural, as they waited to transition to other countries.

4.2 Literacy for Personal Agency

The second theme that emerged from the data is the use of literacy practices for personal agency. Ahearn (2001, p. 112) defines agency as "the sociocultural mediated capacity to act", distinguishing this theme from the first in that the focus of agency is on actions taken by the participants to respond to and engage with the experience of being a refugee in a transitional context. Indeed, in a transitional context, certain literacy practices and activities seem to take on added significance with three subcategories emerging, namely the use of literacy practices to obtain sources of supplementary income**,** construct personal narratives, and sustain personal religious identity.

4.2.1 To obtain sources of supplementary income

The participants viewed their presence in Malaysia as a transition so they did not seek long-term job security. However, they did focus on means to supplement their daily expenses when necessary. As a result, they mostly used facilities and assistance from non-governmental organisations, with AH and DW taking on responsibilities within their communities as offered by the NGO. AH, for instance, was asked to be a youth leader in the community while DW took on the role of a Mathematics and English teacher for the children in the community. AH and DW used their literacy skills to take on community roles in both instances. AL and BS, however, sought employment outside their communities. Notably, BS gained an employment opportunity with a local recycling company where he would write memos, receipts, and minutes of meetings in English.

(4) I type the minutes meeting, then on the computer and put them in the WhatsApp group because all the workers should know about the job. I write an incident report. Also, I write bills. (BS)

BS is very much aware that legal issues prevent him from holding long-term employment and recounts an incident when immigration officers had come to his workplace. However, instead of giving up, BS continued seeking short-term employment and used the internet to look for these opportunities, again displaying how literacy is used to overcome challenges. Again, these short-term employment opportunities were deemed satisfactory as the participants intended to leave Malaysia for other countries.

(5) I mean by the rule that rules do not allow me to work. So, I searched on the internet about online income. For example, online income for I search many, many subjects, affiliate marketing. (BS)

Such employment experiences differ significantly from their previous work experiences in their respective countries. BS, for instance, had established an education centre in Afghanistan and ran it for years before he was forced to flee to Malaysia due to war. Now in Malaysia, BS utilises his language and management skills to assist his employers in a recycling company, as cited above, which is different from the educational context that he experienced. On the other hand, AH developed new literacy practices where he learned how to write activity reports in English. This language became essential to him only when he had to leave Somalia while DW developed new literacy practices as a teacher. DW had no prior experience in teaching before arriving in Malaysia. However, he has learned to select teaching material, plan lessons, and construct assessments in his new role as a teacher.

4.2.2 To construct personal narratives

One of the surprising results of this study emerged that these participants felt an increased need to document their experiences in a transitional context. BS, in particular, began writing prose excerpts and poetry in Persian, his first language. He had initially intended to pursue career possibilities as a content writer for online platforms when he first arrived in Malaysia because visa and passport requirements were perceived to be less stringent for online employment. At one point, he even attempted to write a book about the history of Afghanistan. However, at the point of the interview, what he chose to write about expanded significantly.

(6) Then I started writing about Afghanistan's history in Persian. And in the book, I wrote, I started with the Afghanistan situation. So, it was also difficult for me. So, after I wrote the intro, I stopped. I write I wanted to write about my sons, like, real memory… Write like a memory book, a memory book. (BS)

DW, likewise, keeps a written diary of his experiences in Malaysia. The literacy practices of DW and BS have certainly influenced the result of being in a transitionary context. However, we argue that in such instances, these changing literacy practices also allow them to exert a sense of self in a transitionary context. By archiving their experiences, they preserve a sense of identity not practised before arriving in Malaysia.

4.2.3 To sustain religious identity

All participants share a commonality in religion, with religious literacy playing a significant role in their lives. They brought their Muslim beliefs, including reading the Quran, and the Arabic language is fundamental to their sense of self.

(7) English for here, to live in here. In Arabic, because the, what's called, to *akhirah* [hereafter]. It's very important. Not all here. In the *akhirah* it is important. (AL)

The participants continued to engage with literacies for religious reasons in various ways, including reading the Quran (a religious scripture). Learning to read the Quran is fundamental in all participants' literacy experiences. Reading the Quran helped the participants maintain their religious convictions. AL recalled spending at least one hour every morning with his father during his childhood as his father taught him how to read the Quran. For AH and DW, their first introduction to formal education was classes in religious schools before entering primary education institutions. Indeed, the participants relied on these assumed shared literacy experiences to communicate with the interviewers who were also Muslim. AL was asked about the languages of his reading materials, and (8) is his response.

(8) I have a Quran book…a lot of the Quran I have. My children…all they read. And you read Al Quran, your book, your book. Just like me. (AL)

As such, the participants' literacy practices become a means of identification to relate to those in a transitional context who are of the same religion. In addition, religious literacy practices are important because they help refugees to interact in "local spaces with people who shared religious, cultural, and linguistic backgrounds" (Compton-Lilly, 2016, pp. 32-33).

4.3 Literacy for Community Building

In a transitional context, literacy becomes an essential aspect of community building. This category is defined by the use of literacy practices to empower the community by strengthening relationships between community members, addressing their needs, and sharing vital information. More importantly, the second subcategory is labelled to represent the community for visibility purposes.

4.3.1 To empower the community

All participants have received as well as shared information with others within their respective communities. BS, for instance, arrived in Malaysia without knowing anyone but was able to make contact with his fellow citizens after asking around. He was then welcomed into a community where they celebrate National Day and Women's Day. On the other hand, AH has now taken on the role of spokesperson or community leader. He would funnel news and information to others in his community regarding events or opportunities they could benefit from. He has also taken it upon himself to be a source of encouragement for his community.

(9) When I'm now on the computer, I'm writing and reading, only for quotes for, like, support each other. When I found the quotes, I printed them out and pasted them in the classroom. For example, how to say thanks, how to say *du'a* [prayers], and how to love Allah. Yeah. So, I'm looking for some quotes for me, the personal and the community centre. (AH)

In addition, literacy plays a supportive role by equipping community members with basic linguistic knowledge and communication skills to interact with the local Malaysian community. As the status of the community is transitional, the focus on developing literacy was placed on functional language skills in the Malay language. At the same time, English was prioritised for future readiness regardless of the country they would transition to. Due to this language perception, community members and leaders offer formal English classes for children. DW, teaching English in his community, shared a transformative literacy experience with one student.

(10) Her phone was not working at that time. She doesn't have anybody to go with her or show up to help her to speak up. Then she went alone, but she remembered one word when I was teaching before. That was 'fixing'. Then she did there and she said 'Fix my phone'. Only that. Okay, then, her phone was fixed. It becomes okay. Then, in the afternoon, she came to class, she ran and hugged me, I said 'Wow, what is going on?' 'You know teacher, you teach me one word. Today my phone is working'. (DW)

AH also believed that literacy can be functional and transformative for his community.

(11) We are teaching the mothers how to speak English to communicate with the people. Because that time, many people were in the shop. When I was, when I sat in the front shop, she couldn't speak English. Then after I saw that, I started teaching English classes for free…For our mothers, single mothers. Then the school will do English for all subjects because now the mother and her son can translate. (AH)

In terms of the Malay language, however, importance was placed on functional literacy. For instance, AH learned the numbers one to one thousand in Malay. On the other hand, AL peppered his speech during the interview with Malay words like *kampung*, which means 'village'. Significantly, these new words are integrated into their linguistic knowledge and practised daily. Nevertheless, the emphasis is on improving English proficiency. AH and DW strongly encourage the children in their community to speak English amongst themselves and outside their home environments, as developing their English language skills would broaden their opportunities in future.

4.3.2 To enhance community visibility

This category is defined by the concept of representation, where community members construct public narratives about the community. Literacy is used to make the community and its experiences visible to others in the local community and beyond. As a community leader, AH has received requests to speak at seminars or events related to Somalia as well as refugee experiences in local institutes of higher education. He searches for information online and in the centre's library to prepare a presentation that he delivers in English. AH shared:

(12) Sometimes I go to universities…to do presentations on what happened in Somalia and the people in Somalia. I give presentations to international students. (AH)

Aside from enhancing visibility about the plight of his homeland, he has the agency to construct his narrative, using his own words, and persuade his listeners. This desire to shape his community's narrative and influence how his community is perceived is also seen in his online activities.

(13) When I do some activities, then I post to our Instagram or Facebook page. Now I have experience of how to manage youths. I'm starting inside the community to call the youth group for social activities. (AH)

Once again demonstrating how literacy is used in a transitional context, AH posted about his community's activities on Instagram and Facebook as a way to archive the community's experiences in Malaysia as they wait to move on to another country. His posts are mainly in English, but he does use his own language once in a while. He also responds to comments online, replying in the same language that a comment was made. Moreover, AH's posts reach an international audience, evident from diverse Facebook users viewing their page, allowing AH and his community to extend their presence beyond national borders. This case underscores the empowering role of digital literacy in enhancing community visibility.

5. DISCUSSION

This study explores how urban refugees, particularly male Afghan and Somali refugees in Kuala Lumpur, use literacy practices while assimilating in their transitional setting. The goals of our research on the literacy practices of these refugees are two-fold: firstly, to contribute to the academic discussion of the use of literacy in a transitional setting and, secondly, to derive implications that can inform educational practices and policies.

Throughout all three themes identified from the data, some literacy practices that were part of the refugees' lives before arriving in Malaysia continued to be practised. These literacy practices were often further developed and honed to achieve certain goals, and, more importantly, new literacy practices were learned and used to transform and influence their respective situations. The findings of this study also showed how literacy practices are used to acquire resources and enact some form of agency in the refugees' lives**.** Gilhooly and Lee (2014) highlighted how refugees might use digital literacy and activities to adapt to a new environment. The data of this study further illustrate how digital literacy practices are used for self-improvement and community visibility.

Apart from that, this study contributes to the understanding of refugee journeys where attention is not only paid to issues experienced in the final destination of refugees but also to their experiences on the way to those destinations, which, as in the case of this study, maybe years in the making. All experiences throughout this journey contribute to what Dabach and Fones (2016) term **"**funds of knowledge". While this paper has presented funds of knowledge as a theme distinct from a personal agency for ease of presentation and analysis, the study participants have demonstrated a need for self-improvement in many aspects important for their future lives and preservation of self and communal identity. Recognising that when the refugees arrive at their intended destination, they bring with them the skills, knowledge and resources from their home country and those of the country where their transition will help others in the host country best respond to the refugees.

Some literacy practices take on added significance in a transitional context. In particular, the data of this study highlights the link between religion and literacy practices. What this study does add is that these religious literacy practices are essential throughout the refugee journey as a means of maintaining one's identity**.** This supports other studies that have shown how religion is essential to refugee narratives (Kanji & Cameron, 2010; Nojumi, 2002; Pieloch et al., 2016).

The results of this study imply that public perception regarding refugee stereotypes should change. This study supports the call to practice more nuance in the representation of refugees in that they are not homogenous but do respond differently to similar situations (Benezer & Zetter, 2014). Hoffstaedter (2015) points out that there is "no single experience for the urban refugees of Kuala Lumpur, rather, individuals from varied ethnic and religious backgrounds that have diverse experiences of refugee life in Malaysia's largest city" (p. 2). Understanding how these refugees use diverse literacies and how their literacy practices reflect and affect their access to social institutions could assist in informing more relevant and engaging community programs that speak to refugees' current needs and future objectives. While acknowledging that it is beyond the scope of this study to comment on policy and legislative issues, it would help intercultural understanding to recognise that each refugee is an individual who can contribute to society.

6. CONCLUSION

This exploratory study illuminated the importance of relating the refugees' literacy practices and how their practices can shed light on providing alternative access to education and policy in resettlement. Framing literacy as social practice broadens discussions regarding literacy from a focus on language skills and proficiency to literacy in context, particularly in how the refugees use literacy to exert agency.

Refugees from different countries go through various challenges and research that recognises these challenges would offer insights into their needs and better inform policy and stakeholder decisions about how best to support refugees, especially in a transitional context. It is not just a matter of processing documentation to move refugees to their intended destination or ensuring that their basic needs are met. As this article concludes, the refugees are keen to develop their skills and knowledge to better prepare for their targeted country of choice. Programs incorporating the refugees' knowledge and cultural capital can improve their well-being and help them integrate into society, resulting in long-term social harmony and economic growth. While there are legislative concerns in Malaysia, local stakeholders could make provisions for alternative education for refugees in Malaysia with assistance from international aid agencies. In addition, transition paths should be provided to refugees and migrants with literacy, basic education, and language needs to assist them in preparing for further education or employment.

The most obvious conclusion is that there are no one-size-fits-all solutions. Instead, policies, strategies and programmes that are flexible enough to suit the demands and challenges of a given setting are required for good practice solutions. In comparison to large-scale specialised services, tailor-made holistic answers are usually more open to differentiation, individualised methods, and flexibility.

While offering some insights into two refugee communities in a transitional context, the study has limitations. First, despite our best efforts to include diverse compositions of refugees, the four participants in this study might not accurately represent all refugee families in Malaysia. Second, interviews from female refugees were not obtained due to a lack of volunteers during the COVID-19 pandemic when the data was collected. Finally, future research would benefit from involving a sizable number of participants of different genders to better understand the literacy practises of Afghan and Somali refugees.

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The Naming of Halal Food and Beverages: A Multimodal Semiology Study

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Abstract

The culinary business has been flourishing in every city in Indonesia, including Surakarta, Malang, and Tangerang. Consequently, determining the names of products becomes crucial to pique the interest of the public in these offerings. This research is aimed to review the naming of food and beverages using a semiology approach. The research uses a descriptive explanative method. The data in this research are the names of food and beverages. The sources of the data are documents related to names of culinary businesses (food and beverages) in restaurants in Surakarta, Malang, and Tangerang. The data collection was conducted through documentation, observation, and data recording in data format. The data analysis uses referential equivalent, strengthened with semiology theory from Roland Barthes, namely searching for signs, denotative meaning, connotative meaning, and myth. The research indicates that, in general, the names of food and beverages sold in restaurants often contain unconventional elements, including references to ghosts, animals, and

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other negative connotations prohibited in the Decree of The Head of Badan Penyelenggara Jaminan Produk Halal (BPJPH or the Halal Product Assurance Agency) Number 57 Year 2021. This suggests that the naming of food and beverages in Surakarta, Malang, and Tangerang does not align with the provisions outlined in Decree Number 57 Year 2021, preventing the business owners from obtaining halal certification. The research recommends that the naming of halal food and beverage products adhere to the guidelines set by this decree.

Keywords: *Badan Penyelenggara Jaminan Produk Halal* **(**BPJPH), the naming of food, the naming of beverages, semiology.

1. INTRODUCTION

The culinary business, encompassing both food and beverages, has been thriving in every city in Indonesia, including Surakarta, Malang, and Tangerang. This trend is evident in publications that discuss the naming of food in various cities in Indonesia. With the proliferation of these businesses, it becomes crucial to establish captivating product names to pique societal interest, including the incorporation of unconventional names (Youn & Kim, 2017). The uncommon names can be viewed based on semantics, pragmatics, psycholinguistics (Smith et al., 2014), sound symbolism, or the association between sounds and meanings (Fenko et al., 2016).

The decree of The Head of BPJPH (*Badan Penyelenggara Jaminan Produk Halal* or Halal Product Assurance Agency) Number 57 Year 2021 deals with the criteria of the halal product guarantee system which consists of five criteria, namely commitment and responsibility, materials, the process of the halal product, products, supervising, and evaluation (Kepka BPJPH, 2021). The products in the processing industry are products that must be registered for halal certification, in the form of retail products, nonretail, final products, and intermediate products. Products in restaurant or catering are all served menus made by the company itself or bought from other parties (drop menu, partners), including seasonal menus and extra menus. One of the product criteria is not using the name of the devil, pig (i.e., pork), and dog as well as their derivatives, erotic and vulgar connotations, etc. (Anggusti et al., 2021). Accordingly, the decree presents requirements of products to achieve halal certification, namely (Kepka BPJPH, 2021): (1) the businessmen must produce products from halal materials processed based on Islamic sharia, using tools, product facilities, packaging system, storage, and distribution which are not contaminated by non-halal materials, (2) businessmen must guarantee the products in the steps of preparation, processing, packaging, storing, and distribution, separated physically from other non-halal products or materials based on Islamic sharia, and (3) businessmen cannot enroll halal certification containing the names of alcohol, pork, and dogs as well as their derivatives, showing disbelief and disobedience, contrary to Islamic creed, containing words connoted to erotic, vulgar, and or porn.

The problem seen now is that the naming of halal food and beverages in Indonesia today uses the names of ghosts, such as *pocong*, *genderuwo, sundel bolong*, *setan* (evil), and *iblis* (devil). Not only the name of the devil, but the use of *haram* ‘forbidden’ animals are also used for food, and also erotic, vulgar, and porn connotations, such as *ayam dada montok* ‘plump breast chicken’, *ayam bakar mafia* ‘mafia chicken grill’, etc. Such naming is contrary to the Decree of The Head of BPJPH Number 57 Year 2021. Even though the ingredients are *halal* ‘permissible’ and safe to consume by Muslims, the contradicting names will influence the feasibility of the products to obtain halal certification from the Indonesian Ulama Council or *Majelis Ulama Indonesia* (MUI) (Ayuniyyah et al., 2017).

Previous works on food naming has been done by Munjidah (2019) who analyzed the names of typical Arabic cuisines, and Jaeger et al. (2017) looked into the naming of food in the USA and China. In Indonesia, Fransiska et al. (2019) studied the names of food in Minangkabau, Nuari (2020) examined the naming of food in Bali, Anantama and Setiawan (2020) researched the meanings of the foods in Purwokerto, Fitrisia et al. (2020) researched the naming of Acehnese food, and Lubis and Tanjung (2021) investigated the naming of food in Padangsidimpuan. Furthermore, Febrina (2014) also carried out an analysis of the food names from the anthropolinguistic perspective, while Hadiyaniyah (2016) researched the lexicon of food names from the ethnolinguistic perspective. Then there is the study by Wibowo and Mandusari (2018) who researched the influence of food labeling on Muslim consumers. Next, there is Tresnasari (2019) who explored the names of food in food advertisements. Meanwhile, Mayangsari and Khasanah (2021) looked into the Islamic laws related to the use of appalling food names. On the contrary, Youn et al. (2021) examined the names of foods containing luck elements. In different platforms, Kesgin et al. (2022) researched the names of foods in social media, Song and Yang (2022) studied the perception toward the names of foods and restaurants, and Mahmud (2022) investigated the translation of Indonesian food names in novels. Meanwhile, Syamsuardi et al. (2022) delved into the history of the naming of traditional food in Aceh.

The studies mentioned show that naming food and beverages is widespread globally. They employ anthropolinguistics, ethnolinguistics, and semantics in analyzing naming practices, but the comprehensive understanding, particularly in the case of halal food and beverages, involves semiology. This approach considers not only semantics but also cultural, aesthetic, and other linguistic factors (Silverstein 2019; Riley 2017). Semiology emphasizes the interplay of texts, personal experiences, and cultural factors in the naming of halal food and beverages.

Based on the explanation above, the research problem revolves around understanding the structure of naming halal food and beverages. Aligned with this problem statement, the research aims to describe the naming conventions for halal food and beverages. The findings of this study are intended to provide valuable insights and guidance for the producers of halal food and beverage products. When naming their products, producers should take into account cultural considerations rather than relying solely on linguistic expressions. Additionally, from a theoretical standpoint, this research is expected to contribute to the development of multimodal semiotics studies.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Naming of Food

The form of naming of food and beverages is based on some aspects. One of the aspects is the use of language form. Chaer (2013) mentioned nine kinds of naming, including (1) sound imitation, (2) parts mentioning, (3) special character mentioning, (4) inventor and maker, (5) origin, (6) material, (7) similarity, (8) shortening, and (9) new naming. Based on that proposal, the naming of food and beverages can be seen from language aspects. Several studies on the naming of food and beverages have been carried out. They include the naming of food based on its description (Kim & Magnini, 2020), the naming of food based on its shapes such as round and angular (Li et al. 2020; Ngo et al. 2011), the naming of food based on luck (Kim et al., 2023). However, the previous studies have not mentioned the naming of food based on halal products, which is interesting to examine in this current study.

The naming of foods in a marketing context is a critical consideration. The choice of names for food significantly impacts a consumer's decision on whether to make a purchase. This is because the naming of food and beverages has the potential to alter consumer perception (Chen et al., 2020; Kim & Magnini, 2020). Additionally, food naming holds significance in advertising and packaging strategies (Li et al., 2020). Consequently, the naming of food and beverages becomes imperative, as it plays a pivotal role in determining the success or failure of product offerings (Charette et al., 2015). Contrary to a mere focus on identity and language aspects, the naming of food and beverages serves as a means of perlocutionary communication, influencing consumers' perceptions.

The naming of many halal foods and beverages is not solely a matter of language form. The naming of halal food and beverages also considers social and cultural aspects. It can be seen from the data showing the naming of food and beverages not only refers to referential form but also refers to social and cultural aspects, such as myth (Barthes, 1983). Therefore, it is more comprehensive to see the naming of food and beverages through a semiology approach.

2.2 Semiology

Barthes (2012) developed a semiology model that looks for signs, denotative meanings, connotative meanings, and myths. Sobur (2013) explained that Barthes semiology model is one of the approaches used in analyzing and identifying the meaning of a sign. Generally, semiology is related to how humans interpret every event around them because interpreting many kinds of signs cannot be combined with how to communicate. Interpreting signs means not only studying the object containing information but also constructing the literal structure of the sign.

Basically, Barthes' semiology is the form of development of Ferdinand de Saussure's semiotic model which studies the relation between signifier and signified framed in the form of sign (Kurniawan, 2001). In this concept, meaning is not permanent and absolute in the process of communicating messages. Semiotic experts use vocabularies such as creation, production, and negotiation (Fiske, 2007). The meaning levels in Barthes' semiology can be seen in Figure 1.

Sign → Denotation → Connotation → Myth

Figure 1. Levels of meanings in semiology according to Roland Barthes.

Sign is made up of construction between the signifier and the signified. Therefore, a sign must have a signifier and the signified. The concept of sign can take many forms, for example, texts, oral speech, and other forms such as advertisements, pictures, discourse texts, and shows in the forms of films and social media. Sign invites human thought to be sensitive to his surroundings, namely the mental world that becomes reality in relevant scope and restricted by signs (Barthes, 2012). Meanwhile, the connotation is a sign elaborating the relation between signifier and signified in the form of implicit meaning (uncertain and sudden). The view is described through meanings of one or some texts based on feeling spaces between speaker and listener. Connotation has a subjective meaning related to someone's emotion.

In Barthes's explanation, meaning is used for explaining the mechanism of three signs, i.e. connotation, myth, and symbol. Connotation describes how interaction is happening in the meeting of two individuals, whether or not the individual uses feeling or emotion, in social and cultural use. According to Sobur (2013), connotation has another side underlying its existence, namely denotative sign. Here, connotation works based on a human's subjectivity level in interpreting a sign. In revealing the truth of connotative meaning, another meaning is needed to know the level of the truth. It can be done by giving a denotative meaning, that is an objective meaning based on certain conventions. According to Barthes, semiotics is a theory that aims to interpret the sign system. That is why in giving meaning to a sign, a social phenomenon can be interpreted as a valuable symbol (Barthes, 2004).

Meanwhile, myth is defined as the origin of many metaphysic events related directly to human life. With myth, many origins of culture can be identified. The existence of myth started from the strength of the majority in giving names connotatively. Starting from this, gradually, the story developed and cultured (Halik, 2012). There have been so many myths developed from social media, such as TV shows showing advertisements of virility and beauty, covered with language gaming or supreme language (Budiman, 2004). According to Irwansyah (2009), when a creation or product has been finished and marketed widely, the meaning of the product or creation not only belongs to itself but also becomes autonomous rights of the readers or viewers interpreting it.

2.3 Multimodal

Multimodal is an interdisciplinary approach using many signs to form meaning. Brandt (2004) stated that multimodal is a combination of many signs and social and cultural aspects in forming a sign product. Further, multimodal functions activate readers in constructing meaning through visual and verbal signs (Gibbons et al., 2012). Other than that, multimodal helps strengthen textual understanding (Rajah & Cheong, 2022). Based on those opinions, multimodal text in the context of halal food and beverage naming is aimed to attract the consumer's attention and decide to buy the food and beverages.

The naming of halal food and beverages is not limited to a single mode, namely language. It can be executed through various modes, including visual and verbal elements. This process is closely tied to social and cultural contexts (Abdullah et al., 2022). In addition, multimodal-based naming of food and beverages promotes an understanding of information and visual literacy through signs in multimodal texts (Rajah & Cheong, 2022). This signifies that the naming of food and beverages by using multimodal texts is interesting.

Multimodal in naming halal food and beverages is aimed to influence the readers through visual and linguistic features so that they decide to buy the food and beverages. This is in line with what is stated by Abidin (2022) that the use of multimodal texts affects readers' understanding. The reason for this is that both linguistic and multimodal aspects help readers to quickly understand information. Therefore, pragmatic forces or effects on readers are getting stronger. Considering that not all readers can understand information using linguistic aspects, they need supplementary media to be able to quickly understand information. This involves multimodal aspects, two of which are images and colors. At last, the naming of food and beverages is not only aesthetic aspects but also perlocutionary action. Therefore, the producers of halal food and beverages need to utilize visual and linguistic elements in naming the food. Besides, it is also important to consider the Decree of The Head of BPJPH Number 57 Year 2021 related to the criteria of the Halal Product Assurance.

3. METHODS

3.1 The Study

Qualitative descriptive research was undertaken by explaining signs, denotative meaning, connotative meaning, and myth, related to the uncommon naming of food and beverages. The research was conducted in six restaurants in Surakarta, Malang, and Tangerang. The six restaurants are Gacoan, Kedai Mafia, Mie Kober, Hotdog Boy, Hamburgerya, Chicken Sogil, and Kedai Mafia. From the six restaurants, nine lexicons from the naming of halal food and beverages were found to be interesting to examine in terms of semiotic elements.

The source of the data is documents related to culinary business names. In addition, the informant is a halal auditor from the Halal Inspection Institution in a *Perguruan Tinggi Keagamaan Islam (PTKI)* or Islamic University who strengthened the information about the naming of culinary business related to the Decree of The Head of BPJPH Number 57 Year 2021.

3.2 Data Collection

The data in this research were collected using such methods as documentation, listening, and note-taking (Creswell, 2014; Mahsun, 2014). To begin with, documentation involved the use of documents that take the form of multimodal texts about the naming of culinary businesses (food and beverages) in restaurants in Surakarta, Malang, and Tangerang. This means that data were collected by documenting images of food being studied. This method was done by taking pictures/or screenshotting. Furthermore, the listening method was carried out by reading the names of culinary businesses to identify kinds of food and beverages using the name used as the research focus. This method was used as a data collection method since it was done by listening and observing to the use of language, both oral and written (Mahsun, 2014). The listening method was carried out by looking at images of food while listening to the names of the food and categorizing them into data that had been determined. Finally, the note-taking technique was conducted. It is a technique done after the listening method (Mahsun, 2014). Taking notes was conducted by recording on prepared data cards.

3.3 Data Analysis

In this research, to reveal the symbolic meanings in the naming of food and beverages offered in some restaurants, the researchers used Barthes semiology theory. Revealing the symbolic meanings of food and beverage names are more comprehensive using a semiology approach. It can be easily understood that symbolic meanings are not only viewed from the used references, but also related to social, cultural, and myth aspects. Connotation works on levels of human subjectivity in interpreting a sign. Revealing truth from connotative meaning requires other meanings to find out levels of the truth by giving the denotative meaning, i.e., objective and convention-based meaning. Finally, myth emerged from the power of the majority of society, readers or consumers to give connotative meaning.

The data analysis in this research was conducted using the referential equivalent method (Sudaryanto, 2015) and was strengthened with semiology theory, including sign, denotation, connotation, and myth (Barthes, 2012). The referential (identity) method is an identity method that uses reference or something that is referred to by linguistic units to help determine the analysis. It was used to analyze the language used in naming halal food and beverages. In other words, it is associated with how the food and beverages are named based on certain objects. Besides, the semiology method, including signs, denotative meanings, connotative meanings, and myths, was used to strengthen the references for naming food and beverages.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The result of the study showed that generally, the names of food and beverages sold in restaurants contain uncommon elements because of the relation with the names of ghosts, animals, and negative connotations, which are prohibited by the Decree of The Head of BPJPH Number 57 Year 2021. In revealing the result, the researchers used Roland Barthes's semiology theory, including signs, denotative meanings, connotative meanings, and myths. The findings reveal four elements of food and beverage names, including (1) products containing names associated with the devil, (2) products featuring names of animals, (3) products with connotations of eroticism, vulgarity, and pornography, and (4) products portraying disbelief and disobedience. The four findings are discussed in the following sub-sections.

4.1 Products Containing Names Associated with the Devil

The naming of food products using names of Indonesian ghost versions is widely used in the industry of culinary. Some restaurants started innovating this on the kinds of offered menus to attract consumers. Examples can be seen in the following data.

Figure 2. *Es pocong* (*pocong* ice).
(source: https://www.instagram.com/mie.gacoan/Mi Gacoan)

Es pocong or *pocong* ice is a beverage variant serving a mix of fresh fruits. The naming of the beverage takes the characteristics of the Indonesian ghost version namely *pocong*. The visual sign in the form of a picture of a glass and many fresh fruits completed with the phrase *es pocong* gives specific and deep meaning. The pictures are intended to strengthen the message of naming food and beverages (Nabifar & Baghermousavi, 2015). Denotatively, *es pocong* is a drink made of star fruit, strawberry, lime, lychee syrup, lemon, and bubbles. Viewed from the connotative meaning, drinking the beverage shows frightening and surprising feelings as if meeting or seeing one of the ghosts in Indonesia.

There are many ghosts well-known in Indonesia, they are such as *kuntilanak, pocong, tuyul, genderuwo,* etc. (Saputra & Limbong, 2019). In Figure 2, the characteristics to be shown in the product are horror and mysticism embedded in the social perspective. In Indonesia, society cannot be separated from taboos and superstitions. All things related to the supernatural have been embedded and become parts of social life. According to van Bommel (2012), *pocong* appears when someone dies and is buried, but the knot at the head of the *pocong* are unintentionally untied. Additionally, *pocong* is deeply rooted in Indonesian culture to the extent that people resort to *pocong* rituals as a means of problem-solving (Kusairi, 2022).

Therefore, the deceased who is still bound rises from the grave and requests to be released from their *pocong* shroud. While the appearance of the beverage may not resemble a *pocong*, the taste it delivers to consumers is a delightful combination of sweetness, deliciousness, and freshness. Upon closer examination, it is discovered that some fruits used in the making of *es pocong* carry specific symbols and meanings. The symbols basically have a semantic association (Fenko et al., 2016). The symbols are the white bubbles representing shroud and cotton; the strawberries representing blood, and the top-conned star fruits representing the *pocong* head knot.

Figure 2 shows *mie iblis* (devil noodle), a dish made of noodles, processed by boiling, and frying, and served with a concoction of spices with different levels of spiciness. The level of spiciness is cooked based on the consumer's choice. The higher the level, the more chilies are added into the dish. Generally, the menu is completed with two alternatives of toppings, namely cheese shrimp and *rambutan* [a tropical fruit] shrimp. In Indonesia, the name of food labeled with the name of a ghost-like *mie* *iblis* has been widely spread among spicy food fans. Although the name has a frightening impression, the name is only a symbol of spicy food.

Figure 3. *Mie iblis* (devil noodle).
(source: https://www.instagram.com/mie.gacoan/Mi Gacoan)

The naming of food using a symbol that is unique and relevant to food can improve consumer's demand for the food (Favalli et al., 2013). From the visual sign in Figure 3, the noodle is red symbolizing the origin of the devil which comes from the flame. The image conveyed to the consumer is that by consuming *mie iblis*, the tongue will experience a burning sensation due to the spiciness of the chilies. Moreover, the connection with the devil lies in the fact that he is a creature of Allah SWT (the One God) characterized by arrogance and pride. Besides, the devil does not want to obey and comply with Allah's order (Hasiah, 2018). Hence, as the connotation of the food, after feeling hot, generally people will easily get angry and become arrogant because they lose self-control. This is because the burnt sensation felt in the tongue spreads to the brain.

Figure 4. *Mi setan* (evil noodle).
(source: Mi Kober)

Mie setan (evil noodle) becomes the next food using a ghost label in Indonesia. Evil-labeled culinary is used by the producer to give a unique impression and spicy meaning to the food. The uniqueness of naming the food can increase consumer's perception of the food's authenticity (Youn & Kim, 2017). In Figure 4, *mie setan* can be chosen based on the level starting from 12 chilies for level 1, 25 for level 2, 35 for level 3, 45 for level 4, and 50 for level 5. The level can give a spicy taste and burnness to the tongue based on the number of chilies chosen by the consumers. Besides the category of numbers of chilies, the naming of *mie setan* has connotations of unique and frightening things so it is hoped that it can attract consumer's attention to visit and try the product. The main ingredient of the food is noodles blended with chilies as the main characteristic of the food. Someone's expression after eating spicy food is usually different; they will usually speak uncontrollably, even swear, to express the spiciness they taste. This symbol is closely related to the immorality of evil devil which likes to rebel, disobey, etc.

Figure 5. *Es sundel bolong* (*sundel bolong* ice).
(source: https://www.instagram.com/mie.gacoan/Mi Gacoan)

Based on the label in Figure 5, the naming of the ghost can be an inspiration for the producer to create a unique and interesting product. Denotatively, *es sundel bolong* is a beverage made of ice as the main ingredient, milk, and mocca. Conotatively, *es sundel bolong* portrays a mystical and frightening impression because it is associated with the name of a ghost in Indonesia, namely *sundel bolong*. *Sundel bolong* is a female immoral ghost who has a hole in her back (Koentjaraningrat, 1994). Based on the explained characteristics, some signs included in the components of *es sundel bolong* are represented in milk which symbolizes the clothes worn by the ghost that is usually white with some brown color because of dirt and soil.

The brown color is represented by the mocca ingredient. Then, the symbol of *bolong* or hole in the back is shown by the holed ice blocks. *Es sundel bolong* is related to a ghost to attract people's attention. The irrational construction of superstition is used by the producer as commodity material in fulfilling capitalist interests. The superstition phenomena become a selling power for the producers in marketing the beverage products they produce. Therefore, the role of culture and myth has influenced society's way of thinking so it also influences the *nyleneh* or 'weird' naming of some food products. This is not a new phenomenon in society because other products also use ghost labels.

Figure 6. *Es genderuwo* (genderuwo ice).
(source: https://www.instagram.com/mie.gacoan/Mi Gacoan)

The word *genderuwo* in Figure 6 refers to a kind of ghost in Indonesia. The visual sign in the appearance of fresh fruit slices completed with verbal *es genderuwo* constructs a unique meaning. Denotatively, *es genderuwo* is a drink made of fresh fruits as the main ingredients such as apple, star-fruits, kiwi, strawberry, jelly, bubble, sweetened milk, nata de coco, *cincau* or grass jelly, and red syrup. Conotatively, this *genderuwo* is related to a spooky big-sized ghost in Indonesia.

Based on Javanese myth, *genderuwo* is categorized as a male ghost born from the spirit of a human who died improperly. That is why, the Javanese believe that people who died because of an accident and had an imperfect burial will become a *genderuwo*. This ghost inhabits rocks, old buildings, big trees, or humid dark quiet corners (Achmad, 2017). Although *genderuwo* has an uninteresting description and frightening impression, the appearance of this iced drink has a different visual. It looks beautiful and interesting because of the combination of many fruits and milk. If those ingredients are outlined, some of them represent the symbol of *genderuwo*. Red syrup represents blood, black grass jelly represents the evil characteristics of *genderuwo*, star-fruits, kiwi, apple, strawberry, and jelly on the top of the drink symbolize the abstract form of the head of *genderuwo*. This uniqueness makes culinary businessmen use the ghost label. According to Nurchaliq (2015), *es genderuwo* has become the most ordered drink. The distinctive blend of flavors and refreshing profile makes this drink stand out compared to others.

4.2 Products Featuring Names of Animals

By the regulation issued by the Halal Inspection Institution of the Ministry of Religious Affairs of the Republic of Indonesia, halal certification is not granted to products containing the names of pork, dogs, or their derivatives. However, a notable trend exists where food product names incorporate these elements. This is revealed from the following data.

The name 'Hotdog' in Figure 7 carries an unusual translation in Indonesian, stemming from the word 'dog.' The combined term 'hotdog' translates to *'anjing panas'*. However, upon visual examination, the food is made from safe and halal ingredients. The main components include bread filled with sausage and topped with ketchup and mayonnaise. Yet, viewed connotatively, the term 'hotdog' raises concerns due to its association with a haram animal in Islam–the dog. Hardoko (2016) stated that in Malaysia, hotdog sellers are required to change the name of the food or they will never get halal certification. In Islam, the dog is considered an unclean animal and the name of this animal cannot be related to the halal certificate.

Figure 7. Combo hotdog.
(source: https://www.instagram.com/hotdogboy.id/Combo Hotdog)

Based on history, this food was first sparked in 1852. That year, a sausage producer in Frankfurt made a new variant of sausage which was long and slim. Then, in the 1880s in St. Louis, Missouri USA, Antonie Feuchtwanger, a German from Germany sold tackle dog sausage (Rhezaldi, 2021). The sausage was incredibly popular, but its name posed challenges for Americans. Another seller, namely Feltman, introduced an innovative approach. He sold a sausage clamped with bread, eliminating the need for a plate. This concept gained widespread acceptance in society, yet there remained difficulties in mentioning the name of the product. Due to its pronunciation challenges, the food was eventually named the hotdog (Fatoni, 2018).

Figure 8. HamburgerYa!
(source: https://www.instagram.com/hamburgerya/Hamburgerya!)

Viewed from the name, 'hamburger' as illustrated in Figure 8 is combined with the element 'ham' which means pork. According to Sari et al. (2018), 'ham' is a part of pork taken from the thigh and is smooth in texture. The concept is taken from the naming of the word element meaning denotatively. In the Islamic perspective, there are two categories of halal food, namely halal from the way to get it, and halal from food elements and the goods used to process it (Julianti et al., 2019). Meanwhile, the use of pork is prohibited by Al-Qur'an, so Muslims should look closely at whether it has guarantee and certainty laws about halal food products.

The manipulation of halal marks often happens although the product has not been inspected by a competent institution and does not have a halal certificate (Mubayinah et al., 2016). Therefore, based on literary study, 'hamburger' does not contain 'ham' like the textual meaning. Hamburger is derived from the name Hamburg, a city in Germany where this modern food was originally popularized. Hamburger came from Hamburg steak which was well known until the USA in the 19th century (Suarnada, 2022). In that era, the term 'hamburger' encompassed chopped meat, resembling the familiar patty and burger. Today, however, 'hamburger' is exclusively used for a dish comprising a breaded ensemble filled with beef, vegetables, and assorted sauces. Over time, propelled by the surge in social consumerism, hamburgers have become a canvas for culinary creativity, featuring diverse fillings such as chicken, sausages, and more (Nisa, 2021). Therefore, there should be a review of the element of 'ham' in the word 'hamburger' to obtain a halal certificate, especially in Indonesia.

4.3 Products with Connotations of Eroticism, Vulgarity, and Pornography

The prerequisite for obtaining halal certification mandates that the product's name avoids any words with erotic, vulgar, or pornographic connotations. However, along with the evolution of culinary practices, some food products have emerged with names carrying erotic, vulgar, and pornographic connotations. A few examples are as follows.

Figure 9. *Dada montok + nasi* (plump breast + rice). (source: https://food.grab.com/id/id/restaurant/ayam-goreng-curug-sogil-tanah-baru-depok-delivery/Chicken Sagil)

Montok or plump becomes a word with erotic and vulgar connotations in naming the food. Denotatively, it means compact chicken breast full of nutritious meat. Viewed from the meaning in the dictionary, plump means big, compact, and full. Connotatively, this word is associated with the concept of vulgarity. MUI explained that the naming of or plump chicken with a *makruh* ‘disliked’ characteristics related to *akhlaq* ‘morality’ and ethics (Ariefana, 2019).

Ethics means anything related to elements of politeness, blessing, and beauty of the name of the food. The urgency of giving food names has been a specific part regulated by the MUI’s *fatwa* [a ruling on a point of Islamic law given by a recognized authority]. The regulation is made to follow Allah’s guidance so that we can avoid haram and those unwanted, become beautifully heard and said, and have good meanings as forms of prayers.

4.4 Products Portraying Disbelief and Disobedience

Figure 10 displays a food stall called *Ayam Bakar Mafia*. *Mafia* has a lexical meaning as a group of secret people committing crimes and disobedient actions. This statement is strengthened by the logo of a mafia on the upper part of the shop. Besides, Figure 10 functions to give positive perception to the consumers (Hou et al., 2017). In that part, a picture of a chicken wearing a black coat and a red mask can be seen.

Figure 10. *Ayam Bakar Mafia* (Mafia Chicken Grill)
(source: https://www.instagram.com/ayambakarmafia_official/Kedai Mafia)

The combination of the two elements symbolizes that the food has a spicy taste. The red color on the mask shows courage to try the spicy food. On the other hand, the use of mafia in naming food connotates with bad and invalid matters. It certainly contradicts the consideration of the Head of BPJPH which straightly states that the name of a product showing disobedience cannot be enrolled for halal certification. Every label on the food product contains a prayer for the producers and consumers; thus, it needs careful consideration in the form of the product names.

5. CONCLUSION

Generally, the names of food and beverages sold in some restaurants contain uncommon elements related to the names of ghosts, animals, and other negative connotations prohibited in the Decree of the Head of BPJPH Number 57 Year 2021. Some product names containing ghost or devil names are *es pocong* (*pocong* ice), *mie iblis* (devil noodle), *mie setan* (evil noodle), *es sundel bolong* (*sundel bolong* ice), es *genderuwo* (*genderuwo* ice). Meanwhile, the names of products containing names of pork and dogs, such as Combo Hotdog and Hamburger. Then there are the names of products with connotations of eroticism, vulgarity, and pornography, such as *dada montok dan nasi* (plump breast and rice); and, the names of products portraying disbelief and disobedience, such as *Ayam Bakar Mafia* (mafia grilled chicken). The naming of the food and beverages in restaurants in Surakarta, Malang, and Tangerang is not by the Decree of The Head of BPJPH Number 57 Year 2021 so the businessmen cannot enroll for halal certification. Because, when analyzed semiotically, the naming of those foods and beverages arises from unconventional constructions of meaning associated with negative aspects.

The research, however, faces limitations in data collection, specifically in capturing the naming practices of food and beverages in only three cities. In the future, more comprehensive studies need to be conducted to address these limitations, aiming to provide an extensive reference for naming halal food and beverages. This reference is crucial for businesses seeking halal certification, aligning with the guidelines outlined in the Decree of The Head of BPJPH Number 57 Year 2021, which restricts businesses without halal certification enrolment.

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Savoring Sundanese Food: A Discourse Analysis of Instagram's Powerful Promotion of Bandung's Culture and Culinary

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Abstract

Department of Culture and Tourism in Bandung harnesses the power of its official Instagram account, @disbudpar.bdg, to promote the city's diverse tourist attractions and cultural richness. This study conducts an in-depth analysis of the various topics presented on the account that showcase the multifaceted nature of Sundanese culinary traditions. The researchers collected culinary information from 642 posts on Instagram feeds, resulting in 118 data points considering various cuisines, both traditional and modern. The focus of this study is on 86 data points related to traditional meals and beverages in 2022. Employing van Dijk's Critical Discourse Analysis within the micro-structure theory, the descriptive qualitative method was used for the analysis. The findings reveal four distinct classifications of topics related to culinary diversity. They are the diversity of traditional Sundanese meals (66 data), the diversity of traditional Sundanese beverages (2 data), restaurants offering traditional foods and beverages (16 data), and ingredients for traditional pastries (2 data). Additionally, the analysis uncovers the use of interrogative sentences, declarative sentences, and lexical choices that effectively support and describe the promotion of culinary diversity as a prominent tourist attraction in Bandung. Interrogative sentences engaged followers, declarative sentences provided factual insights, and diverse lexical choices enticed readers to appreciate Bandung's culinary offerings.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Bandung, the capital city of West Java province, Indonesia, is not only celebrated for its scenic beauty and diverse tourism attractions but also for its thriving culinary scene, particularly the rich traditions of Sundanese cuisine. This cultural richness is effectively showcased on the city's official Instagram accounts, where various posts and text descriptions provide a platform for promoting the local culinary heritage. The significance of visual images in tourism media has been demonstrated as a crucial element in enhancing the appeal of the destination (Mocini, 2005). In addition to tourism, Bandung's economy is bolstered by various sectors, including business, the creative industry, high-tech, and manufacturing.

Sundanese people, native to West Java, have a distinct culinary tradition deeply rooted in their cultural heritage. The cuisine indigenous to a region narrates the tale of that place, constituting the heart and essence of the destination. Stories related to the food, including the origins of the ingredients, can be effectively employed to depict and convey the narrative of the destination (Stalmirska, 2020). Moreover, one's identity can significantly impact the selection of food practices in various societies (Reddy & van Dam, 2022). In Bandung, these foods include *colenak, combro, burayot, batagor, cireng, cimol, gehu,* and many more. Their food culture is not merely a matter of sustenance; it plays a pivotal role in shaping the Sundanese way of life. While it's true that food holds significant importance in the lives of people across various cultures, the Sundanese culinary tradition stands out due to its emphasis on using local ingredients in innovative ways. This unique approach is a reflection of their connection to their natural environment and their ability to create distinctive flavors from the resources at hand. During this time, West Java is famous for various types of food either in the form of snacks, drinks, and heavy foods that have become a pride for the people of West Java and the penchant for people who come from other regions. Sundanese cuisine has become an icon of pride in tourism programs that highlight the authenticity of West Java (Amalia, 2016). The variety of Sundanese cuisine is one of the attraction items for others to visit Bandung and experience the cuisine (Amalia et al., 2020).

The Department of Culture and Tourism in Bandung (*Dinas Kebudayaan dan Pariwisata Kota Bandung* or abbreviated Disbudpar) effectively utilizes its official Instagram account, @disbudpar.bdg, as a dynamic platform for disseminating information related to tourism and cultural programs within Bandung city. Launched in June 2015, this Instagram account has been prolific, with a total of 3095 posts in its feed as of December 2022, amassing a substantial following of 51.7K followers. The Instagram account's primary focus revolves around a diverse range of topics, which encompass an array of tourism destinations, including Sundanese traditional cuisine, modern culinary delights, cultural events hosted in Bandung, the preservation of Sundanese language, Bandung's notable achievements in the realm of tourism, prominent figures from West Java, and the etymology (toponymy) of various regions in Bandung. This platform is widely used globally to leverage food content for identity, influence, and navigating cultural and economic dynamics (Contois & Kish, 2022).

This is in line with the impact of social media in the tourism industry which has been greatly magnified to push the mobilization of tourists to consider the information in social media as their reference for traveling (Fatanti & Suyadnya, 2015; Söderström, 2022). Along with the development of digital information technology and the ease of accessing information in the digital world, government units such as the Department of Culture and Tourism in Bandung also take advantage of various social media as a medium for disseminating information related to culture and tourism. Many advantages can be obtained by utilizing the internet in the form of pages and social media, among others, it is more accessible to the public, especially the millennial generation who are very familiar with digital technology-based information media, the information displayed is easier to share with other readers, immediately get feedback through the column comment (Amalia, 2021).

Previous research on the power of social media texts and visuals on tourism has been conducted in Indonesia (Aisyiyah, 2023; Isti'anah, 2020; Rahmasari & Lauwren, 2020; Sandfreni & Adikara, 2020; Salim and Som, 2018; Zaim et al., 2022). This present study, however, focuses on the diversity of traditional cuisine displayed on the Instagram account of the Bandung Cultural and Tourism Board, @disbudpar.bdg. The research gap between this study and the previous ones lies in their different theoretical approaches and topics. This research employs van Dijk's (1987) Critical Discourse Analysis to examine Instagram text, particularly focusing on the promotion aspect of Sundanese cuisine by the Bandung Tourism and Cultural Institution. Using the linguistic instrument of textual analysis, such as visual signs and verbal signs (i.e., lexical style, topic choice, and structure of the sentence), it is hoped to exhibit to the readers the diversity of Sundanese cuisine as local wisdom through the lens of an Instagram account. Language use and visual images in transforming message credibility to message strength are essential in marketing a tourist destination (Loda, 2011). Understanding what visuals and text are engaging to the audience can guide tourism boards and businesses in Bandung in promoting the city effectively. Hence, this study intended to answer the following questions:

1. What are topics found on the official Instagram account of Disbudpar Kota Bandung focusing on traditional Sundanese cuisine diversity?
2. What are Linguistic instruments found as markers for traditional Sundanese and cuisine diversity?

The contribution of this research lies in shedding on the topics and lexical choices used in taglines and captions associated with images promoting tourism in Bandung. By understanding textual instruments, we can further understand how promotion and persuasion are linguistically framed and communicated on social media.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Culinary and Culture

Culinary from one area relates to the culture the community belongs to. The word 'cultural' as an adjective can be described as the customs, traditions, and beliefs of a society, meanwhile, the word 'culture' as a noun refers to the way of life, particularly the overall customs and beliefs, of a specific group of people during a certain period (Amalia, 2021). The definition of culture has been stated by Koentjaraningrat (2002) which refers to the whole system of ideas, actions, and results of human work in life. According to O'Brien (2022), culture encompasses guidelines for social interactions and consequences both on an individual and societal level. In addition to defining culture, Koentjaraningrat, (2002) also stated seven universal cultural elements, namely language, knowledge systems, social systems or social organizations, systems of living equipment and technology, systems of livelihoods, religious systems, and art. All these cultural elements can be found and developed in society. Building upon the mentioned scope, the intangible heritage emanates from the local cultures within this Nusantara or archipelago, encompassing traditions, folklore, legends, native languages, oral history, creative expressions (such as dances, songs, and drama shows), adaptability, and the distinctive qualities of the local community (Galla, 2001).

Another keyword is Sundanese cuisine. Sundanese is a dominant tribe in West Java. The people are known as Sundanese people. They have a culture that belongs to them; one is their cuisine. The word 'cuisine' involves more than just a cooking technique; it entails an understanding of how the food is both prepared and enjoyed (Civitello, 2008). Cuisine in West Java is unique, there are some iconic foods and beverages that taste very good and have attractive appearance.

2.2 Discourse Analysis

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) is an understanding of discourse that is not merely positioned as the object of language study, which is an understanding of traditional linguistics, but in the context of language as a tool used for certain purposes and practices, including the practice of ideology. The analysis model from van Dijk (1987) concerns three levels of analysis, namely text, social cognition, and social context. Eriyanto (2011) emphasizes the essence of discourse analysis proposed by van Dijk to connect the three dimensions of discourse in the form of text, social cognition, and social context into a unified analysis. As for the text dimension itself, it analyzes the structure of the text along with the discourse strategies used to emphasize the themes contained in the news. Then, for the realm of social cognition, reviewing news from how the news is produced takes into account the individual cognition of journalists or journalists who make the news. Then, the aspect of the social context is to review the building of the discourse that develops within the community itself regarding a problem.

In research, the choice of analysis level depends on the specific research objectives and questions. In this case, the primary goal of the study is to examine the use of language in texts and how discourse practices manifest in those texts (Mocini, 2005). It allows the researcher to delve deeply into linguistic features and textual patterns. Textual analysis looks at how things are described in the past using language. It involves understanding the chain that connects memories to what people say and then to what is written down (Ifversen, 2003). Text analysis includes analysis of vocabulary, semantics or meaning, structure, and the smallest elements of each sentence.

The dimensions of the text in van Dijk's model are divided into three dimensions that have a relationship with one another. The dimensions are macro structure, superstructure, and microstructure (van Dijk, 2019). The macrostructure is derived from the meaning of sentences (paragraphs) of text. Eriyanto (2011) explains this dimension as an observable topic in texts. Then the superstructure is to display categories such as summary, setting, and orientation which can be used. The microstructural according to van Dijk (2019) relates to textual analysis of the text such as sentences, style of language, or the choice of words used in the text.

2.3 Cultural Representation in Tourism through Textual Content and Visual Elements

Several researchers have investigated how cultural representation in tourism through textual content and visual elements across multiple platforms, including traditional media, websites, and social media. The portrayal of culture in tourism marketing plays a pivotal role in attracting visitors to destinations and significantly enhances tourists' experiences during their visits. Salim and Som (2018) focused on the synergy between language and visual elements on tourism websites, specifically illuminating the digital representation of South Sulawesi's attractions. This research underscores the pivotal role of online-based promotion in the contemporary era, highlighting the discourse formed through the integration of textual and visual elements to craft destination portrayal. Likewise, Zaim et al. (2022) explored the Sundanese culture representation in Bandung's tourism marketing through visual content analysis and semiotic analysis of 83 websites and 658 images, including traditional food, Sundanese language text, and traditional houses, thereby offering a comprehensive understanding of the cultural representation across various platforms. Similarly, a study by Aisyiyah (2023) delved into the intricacies of the official Instagram account of Balai Taman Nasional Komodo, @btn_komodo, investigating the representational and ideational meanings embedded within verbal and visual modes. Employing the Visual Grammar framework by Kress and van Leeuwen, the study systematically examines how these diverse modes of communication generate and convey meanings within the context of tourism promotion. Correspondingly,

Another research by Isti'anah (2020) looked into the role of tourism in shaping a nation's international image, particularly focusing on how governments strategically choose and present aspects of cultural heritage, history, 'dark tourism', and authenticity through tourism websites, specifically at www.indonesia.travel. The research employs mood structure analysis, a tool derived from Halliday's Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), to scrutinize how commodities, goods and services, and information are exchanged on the official tourism website. It revealed how the website builds interpersonal relationships with readers, whether functioning as an information source or a promotional platform. In a similar vein to SFL, Rahmasari, and Lauwren (2020) studied how the official website of Indonesian tourism utilizes modality to present Indonesian tourism discourse. It delved into the types of modalities used on the website, including probability, usuality, obligation, and inclination. The study emphasized the role of language in shaping the identity of tourism destinations and influencing tourists' perceptions.

Sandfreni and Adikara (2020), on the other hand, utilized the Soft System Methodology (SSM) to bolster the tourism sector. This research tackles the practical application of technology by constructing a Tourism Information System for Palembang, underscoring the pivotal role of information technology in disseminating tourist-centric data to foster economic growth and enhance community welfare.

In conclusion, various studies have delved into the impact of cultural representation in tourism across diverse platforms, including traditional media, websites, and social media. The portrayal of culture in tourism marketing significantly influences visitor attraction and greatly enhances tourists' experiences. These studies collectively contribute valuable insights into the multifaceted aspects of cultural representation in tourism promotion.

3. METHODS

This study employed a descriptive qualitative approach. According to Creswell (2012), a descriptive qualitative method aims to describe the phenomenon found in an everyday situation. In this context, the phenomenon is the culinary information on the official Instagram account of @disbudpar.bdg. It employed textual analysis by scrutinizing the text, co-text, and context, as they form a structure for comprehending language meaning. These elements are interconnected and collaborate to establish a thorough understanding of both written and spoken language (Alek, 2023).

Data collection consisted of culinary information on feeds at the @disbudpar.bdg account. There are 642 posts on feeds and 118 data on cuisine. The cuisine data includes a variety of meals and beverages, both traditional and modern. For this study, the researchers purposely selected 86 data informing traditional meals and beverages posted in the year 2022. The topic of a variety of Sundanese cuisine is one of the attractive and dominant ones. The reason for choosing the year 2022, this time is in line with the loosing of restrictions on activities in the city of Bandung related to the COVID-19 pandemic, so various businesses, including the culinary business, have been reopened to public events through the still apply health protocols.

Analyzing textual data involves a tailored approach to extract meaningful insights from the visual and textual content. Instagram, as a platform combines images and captions, providing a rich source for understanding how Sundanese's traditional culinary heritage is represented and discussed. The visual analysis (Hart, 2016) of the images posted on the Instagram feed focuses on recurrent themes, visual styles, and the type of dishes featured. Visual instruments such as presentations and ingredients can convey cultural nuances and aesthetic preferences associated with Sundanese's traditional cuisine. Moreover, the captions on the feeds are also the focus of analysis. These involve thematic coding analysis (Wæraas, 2022) where specific themes or categories are identified and labeled systematically. The captions can provide additional insights into how the content is categorized, shared, and discovered on the platform.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Topics of the Feeds about Sundanese Culinary

The results and discussion sections are presented under two headings regarding the research questions mentioned in the study. The first heading is the topics of the feeds about Sundanese cuisine which is divided into (a) the diversity of traditional Sundanese meals, (b) Sundanese beverages, (c) the restaurants serving Sundanese meals dan beverages, and (d) ingredients for Sundanese pastries. The second heading presents the use of sentences and lexical choices in Sundanese culinary topics. The sub-sections from the heading are (a) interrogative sentences, (b) declarative sentences, and (c) lexical choices.

Table 1. The feeds about Sundanese cuisine.

No.	Variety of Information	Occurrence
1.	The diversity of traditional Sundanese meals	66
2.	The diversity of traditional Sundanese beverages	2
3.	Restaurants offering traditional foods and beverages	16
4.	Ingredients for traditional pastries	2
Total		**86 data**

The cuisine in West Java is unique, there are some iconic foods and beverages with attractive appearances. In the @disbudpar.bdg account, a variety of information about Sundanese cuisine is displayed.

4.1.1 The diversity of traditional Sundanese meals

66 data inform kinds of traditional Sundanese meals. Meals are defined as an occasion when food is eaten, or the food that is eaten on such an occasion. The timing of meals in West Java is breakfast, lunch, and dinner, and this is also a common designation in many cultures. Civitello (2008) has extensively described how meals play a crucial role in shaping culinary identity, fostering relationships, and preserving cultural heritage. They underscore the significance of food in cultural and ethnic identity (Reddy & van Dam, 2020).

Figure 1. Kinds of Sundanese meals: *sayur asem*, *nagasari*, and *pepes tahu.*

Figure 1 shows an example from data on the classification of a variety of traditional Sundanese meals. The picture shows *sayur asem*, *nagasari*, and *pepes tahu*. The sentence on the picture says, *"Bangga! Sayur Asem, Nagasari, dan Pepes Tahu Masuk dalam Jajaran Best Vegan Dishes versi Taste Atlas"* [Proud! *Sayur asem*, *nagasari*, and *pepes tahu* are included in Taste Atlas's list of best vegan dishes]. The extended information in the captions brings the readers that the traditional Sudanese meals reach the global stance in Asia. Celebrating World Vegan Day which happens on 1 November 2022, @TasteAtlas released various foods made from plant-based products that are included in the World's Vegan Dishes ranking and three types of traditional Sundanese meals, namely *sayur asem*, *nagasari*, and *pepes tahu*, are included in 24th place. TasteAtlas is a digital platform that provides information about traditional foods and dishes from around the world. It serves as an online culinary atlas, aiming to showcase and celebrate the diversity of global cuisines. TasteAtlas offers a user-friendly interface where users can explore a vast database of dishes, ingredients, and local specialties. Today, users worldwide utilize food-related content on Instagram to shape their identities, gain influence, and navigate aesthetic norms, institutional access, and cultural power, as well as exert control in social and economic contexts (Contois & Kish, 2022).

Based on the tagline and captions in Figure 1, the readers can find out that there are various types of traditional Sundanese meals with plant or vegan ingredients that have received recognition from international platforms. This information can further raise the value of traditional Sundanese food in the international world and traditional flavors can be enjoyed well by culinary connoisseurs from other countries.

Other pictures in the @disbudpar.bdg account also share the names of Sundanese meals and include information on various types of food and invitations to enjoy the dish. Söderström (2022) affirmed that providing attractive food and drink sections with inspiring links, pictures, and videos in an online media platform is an easy way of updating visitors about everything from food and drink to events and activities. The data regarding the types of traditional Sundanese food obtained are 66 data and among the types of food presented in the information are *yamin noodles, Soto Bandung, seblak., cuanki, cimol, batagor, lumpiah basah*, *mie kocok*, etc.

4.1.2 The diversity of traditional Sundanese beverages

Regarding various types of meals, Sundanese cultures also have a wealth of typical Sundanese beverages which can be easily found in various restaurants or street foods in Bandung. Two data showing the variety of Sundanese beverages in the 2022 feeds. Figure 2 shows one of the Sundanese beverages, *bajigur*. *Bajigur* is a warm and comforting drink made from coconut milk, palm sugar, ginger, pandan leaves, and coffee beans. The combination of these ingredients creates a flavorful and aromatic beverage. It is not only enjoyed for its taste but also as being a part of the culture and social beverage (Pragowo, 2024). It is commonly served during social gatherings, family events, and traditional ceremonies in the Sundanese community.

The tagline in Figure 2 informs the readers that *bajigur* is considered to be one of the best foods in Asia according to TasteAtlas. The Sundanese beverage is recognized in Asia and this achievement brings Bandung to the 5th best city in Asia in the category of 'the best city in Asia for traditional food and drinks'. Figure 2 also shows kinds of Sundanese meals deemed to be among the best in Asia. The explanation of the picture indirectly persuades followers to preserve various Sundanese culinary delights that have been recognized internationally. Here, language is utilized to enhance the element of persuasiveness and attractiveness in tourism promotion (Salim et al., 2012).

The other pictures in Figure 2 show information about the various types of drinks that are presented in various interesting sentence forms, such as "Final Tournament

Takjil (breaking the fast during *Ramadhan*) of The Year", "Typical Bandung Culinary Included in the Best Food Range in Asia based on *Taste Atlas* Version", "Refreshing Bandung Culinary Recommendation", etc. The types of beverages served include *es teler*, *es cendol*, *es goyobod*, *bajigur*, etc. The topics of several beverages are presented in various more specific sub-topics, such as the types of drinks usually consumed by people when breaking the fast during the *Ramadhan* month for Muslims, the fresh and cold beverages, and the types of favorite hot drinks to warm the body such as *bandrek* and *bajigur*. Focusing on traditional drinks is important in tourism promotion as Björk & Kauppinen-Räisänen (2016) found that tourists or travelers are influenced by food and drink when choosing a destination.

Figure 2. Sundanese meals and beverages are recognized by TasteAtlas.

4.1.3 Restaurants offering traditional foods and beverages

The information of the feeds in Figure 3 mentions restaurants serving traditional Sundanese menus. Accordingly, Stone et al. (2019) noted that experiencing local restaurants is an elemental form of culinary tourism attraction. In this study, 16 data provide information about restaurants serving traditional Sundanese menus. The first data informs a list of comfortable places to eat traditional Sundanese meals or beverages, including *Warung Nasi Bu Imas, Nasi Bancakan, RM Alas Daun, Sambel Hejo Natuha, Paviliun Sunda, Sajian Sunda Sambara, Rumah Makan Ponyo, Rumah Makan Bumi Mitoha*, and *Liwet Asep Strawberry*. All restaurants mentioned have specifications as traditional Sundanese restaurants.

Meanwhile, Figure 4 shows information about legendary culinary recommendations in Bandung. Through the narration, it is stated that several recommendations are legendary, for example, *Kopi Aroma, Rasa Bakery and Café, kopi Purnama, BMC, Lontong Kari Kebon Karet, Sumber Hidangan, Braga Permai*, and *Warung Nasi Bu Imas*. The places are well-known because they have been established for a long time and are consistent in providing various traditional menus. More information about Sundanese restaurants can be found in Figure 5, the picture informs legendary cuisine and the places that serve the cuisine. The topics on restaurants or places that serve Sundanese cuisine are important to voice to the followers of the account. The information on the feeds indirectly invites the followers to visit the places and enjoy the Sundanese cuisine. Hence, the outcome is a comprehensive examination of culinary customs exclusive to Instagram, altering the way we perceive and consume food (Contois & Kish, 2022).

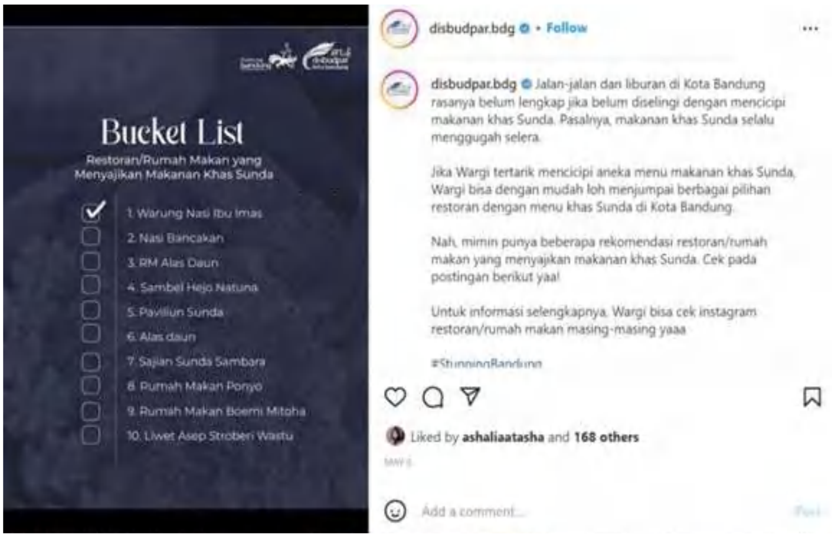

Figure 3. Bucket list of traditional Sundanese restaurants.

Figure 4. Recommendation on legendary cuisine in Bandung City.

4.1.4 Ingredients for traditional pastries

Apart from the information about types of foods and drinks, as well as places where people can buy and enjoy these foods and drinks, the Instagram feed also provides information about the food ingredients used to prepare Sundanese food and drinks. This is an important topic to mention because it indirectly guides the followers to preserve the Sundanese cuisine by persuading them to cook the foods. By Schroeder (2013), it is crucial to scrutinize the deliberate style of these influencers and identify the distinctive and characteristic features of their images. This style can be understood as strategic imagery, encompassing images that aim to persuade, promote, or fulfill strategic intentions.

Figure 5 includes information about a variety of *seblak* which mentions the ingredients of this tasty traditional food. From this post, Instagram users know that the ingredients or variety of *seblak* are crackers, macaroni, vegetables, noodles, ribs, meatballs, and so on. *Seblak* is one of my favorite foods from Bandung. Besides giving more information on the kinds of Sundanese foods, the followers can also learn how to cook them. Iskandar et al. (2023) explained that local food that is made from local sources of ingredients depicts the relationship between people's consumption patterns. Promoting them through social media helps preserve the culture of the Sundanese consumption patterns.

Figure 5. Variety of *seblak.*

4.2 The Use of Lexical Choices in Culinary Topics

4.2.1 Interrogative sentences

The culinary topics are characterized by specific lexical choices and sentence structures used to convey information. The Instagram account employs a diverse range of intriguing word choices to present culinary information. This is in line with Söderström (2022), that it is common when looking at the destinations' official social media pages, such as Facebook and Instagram, the food and drink posts are more common in some flows than others. Within the data in this study, we observe various captions and titles structured as interrogative sentences. An example is shown in Figure 6.

(1) *"Rumah makan atau restoran apa yang wajib dikunjungi saat ke Bandung?"* [What restaurants should you visit when you are in Bandung?]

The data in (1) provide insights into several restaurants in Bandung, some with legendary status, all catering to the tastes of culinary enthusiasts. In another instance of an interrogative sentence:

(2) *"Kalau dingin-dingin gini, kamu tim mana Wargi?"* [When the weather is cold, what are your choices?]

The data in (2) introduces visitors to some fresh foods and beverages, such as *bakso* and *bajigur*, served piping hot and perfect for the cold weather. The specific term, *Wargi* is used by the account administrators to address their followers. In the Sundanese language, relatives are referred to as *baraya* or *wargi* (Hadiati, 2016). Another interrogative sentence is:

(3) *"Mau seblak apa saja nih yang ingin Wargi pesan?"* [Which *seblak* do you want to order?]

The caption in (3) highlights the variety of the famous *seblak* in Bandung, known for its spicy and savory flavors. Accordingly, these interrogative sentences engage followers and readers, prompting them to reflect and share their ideas and comments about Sundanese cuisine, and the locations or restaurants where these dishes can be found. These interrogative sentences are strategically used to engage and challenge the audience's participation and interaction. This is found that interrogatives can be employed as a promising tool for recognizing reactions (Min & Park, 2007).

Figure 6. Caption using interrogative sentence.

4.2.2 Declarative sentences

The Instagram feeds present readers with a wide array of culinary offerings, and this is achieved through the use of declarative sentences, which make straightforward statements or convey facts. In line with Samad et al. (2018), the information related to food and food products is presented in declarative sentences. For example, in Figure 3, the *"Bucket List: Restoran atau Rumah Makan yang Menyajikan Makanan Khas Sunda"* [Bucket List: Restaurants serving Sundanese traditional meals] provides readers with information about 10 recommended restaurants in Bandung that serve detachable Sundanese traditional dishes. Among these establishments are *Warung Nasi Ibu Imas, Nasi Bancakan, Rumah Makan Alas Daun, Sambel Hejo Natuna, Paviliun Sunda*, and more. The post guides readers to explore these culinary destinations in Bandung.

In another post, titled *"Rekomendasi Kuliner Legendaris di Kota Bandung"* [Recommended legendary cuisine in Bandung] (see Figure 4), readers are informed about legendary restaurants in Bandung. Despite the emergence of numerous new dining establishments in the city, these legendary restaurants have maintained their distinct and delicious offering, faithfully preserving recipes handed down for generations. Every group pf people has a strong desire to preserve one's culture through food practices (Reddy & van Dam, 2020). The post mentions iconic establishments like *Kopi Aroma, Rasa Bakery and Café, Kopi Purnama, BMC (Banddoengsche Melk Centrale), Lontong Kari Kebun Karet, Sumber Hidangan, Braga Permain,* and *Warung Nasi Bu Imas.* These restaurants serve a mix of modern and traditional meals and offer legendary coffee in Bandung, a city also known for its excellent coffee.

Another Instagram post features the caption *"Rekomendasi Kuliner Khas Kota Bandung yang Menyegarkan"* [Recommended traditional culinary in Bandung], which informs readers about a selection of refreshing culinary options that combine both meals and beverages. The term *fresh* in this context refers to succulent and juicy offerings. The meals highlighted include *mie kocok, soto Bandung, cuanki,* and *seblak,* all of which have watery elements, much like the featured beverages, such as *es cendol* and *es goyobod,* known for their water-based composition. These declarative sentences are in the form of statements (Richards & Schmidt, 2002), and are thus used to convey culinary information and engage readers in a straightforward and informative manner.

4.2.3 Lexical choices

It is very interesting to observe the captions contained on this @disbudpar.bdg Instagram account because the diversity of the contents is something that can attract readers to visit this page and bring them to enjoy Bandung, especially information about culinary diversity. The variations in the use of lexical choices (diction), which are light, tempting, and attractive, make readers give lots of 'likes' for the feeds. The pictures of the food and drinks served are also appetizing. The captions are not only packaged in depicting descriptions but also packed with playing games as well to make the visitors more acquainted with the @disbudpar.bdg account. In addition, it turns out that when compared to other posts with different topics, engagement posts that discuss culinary matters have high engagement such as likes, comments, and shares (Gelati & Verplancke, 2022).

The choice of words used in culinary information consists of verbs (García Díaz, 2015). In this research, they are such as 'eating' food, 'tasting' culinary dishes, and 'enjoying' hot drinks. In addition, there are adjectives such as 'delicious', 'favorite' food and drink, 'healthy', 'fresh', 'savory', 'nutritious', 'fragrant', 'delicious', 'superior', etc. Meanwhile, the nouns used also represent the culinary delights of Bandung, such as favorite 'snacks', 'identity of Bandung', 'Bandung souvenirs', 'Bandung specialties', 'affordable prices', etc. The description of meals and beverages describes their tastes, the ingredients used, the name used such as 'culinary paradise', and interesting colors to express the variety of meals and drinks.

5. CONCLUSION

Instagram serves as a powerful tool for disseminating engaging information, and the @disbudpar.bdg account is one of the platforms that illuminates a city's diverse culinary heritage, a key attraction for visitors. These culinary offerings encapsulate the noble values of Sundanese society, showcasing environmental stewardship and locally sourced ingredients. Interrogative and declarative sentences, coupled with varied lexical choices, effectively present and promote Bandung's traditional and modern culinary. Interrogative sentences engaged followers, declarative sentences provided factual insights, and diverse lexical choices enticed readers to appreciate Bandung's culinary offerings. The strategic use of @disbudpar.bdg elevates Bandung's cultural heritage, making it an appealing culinary tourism destination. By spotlighting Sundanese cuisine, this promotion invites travelers seeking authentic cultural experiences. In conclusion, this research underscores the potency of social media, particularly Instagram, in promoting cultural heritage.

However, it is essential to acknowledge the study's limitations in which it studies solely on one Instagram account. Future studies could explore diverse social media platforms for a more comprehensive analysis. More exploration into various social media channels and their impacts on tourism promotion remains an avenue for future research.

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A Natural Semantic Metalanguage Approach on the Meaning of Animal Taboo Names in the Acehnese Culture

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Abstract

This paper utilizes the Natural Semantic Metalanguage Approach (NSM) to explore the meanings of animal-related taboo names among the Acehnese in Indonesia. Through qualitative interviews with 12 respondents from Langsa City and Peureulak District in East Aceh, the NSM approach reveals two categories of animal taboos. The first, the taboo of swearing, involves offensive language equating individuals with animals like 'bui' (pig), 'asèe' (dog), 'pa'ee' (gecko), 'muruwa' (monitor lizard), and 'lemo' (cow). The second, the taboo of fear, rooted in cultural beliefs, deems certain animals sacred and prohibits mentioning their names in natural settings, including 'rimueng' (tiger), 'gajah' (elephant), 'buya' (crocodile), 'badeuk' (rhinoceros), 'uleue' (snake), and 'tikôh' (rat). Acehnese use alternative names to show respect, reflecting a belief that respecting nature facilitates harmonious living. The semantic primitive meaning of animals' taboo for swearing involves a substantive component, a substantive relational of a kind, and bad as an evaluator. Equating humans with these animals is prohibited when their names are used in the context of insulting others. The taboo of fear is attributed to the animals' perceived holiness and sacredness, with the semantic primitive involving something kind and bad. Acehnese believe these animals possess mystical powers and can hear their names when being called, hence suggesting the use of alternative names for these animals is preferable.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Language cannot be separated from culture in society. The culture prevalent in society influences human expression through language. One language phenomenon intricately linked to culture in society is taboo language. The case of taboo represents cultural characteristics that people should be aware of (Purba et al., 2022). Taboo is an unwritten rule in society expressed by each speech community within their social interactions. One such language is Acehnese, which serves as the predominant language among the Acehnese tribes in Indonesia, particularly in Aceh province.

Taboo in Acehnese can be in the form of words, phrases, or clauses that are considered not only meanings that contain elements of humiliation and insults but also related to magic, holy, and sacred meanings so that it is taboo to speak them. Many previous researchers have carried out research related to taboos. Research on taboo has been explored through a psycholinguistic approach (Jay, 2009; Jay & Janschewitz, 2008; Jay et al., 2006; Roest et al., 2018; Rosenberg et al., 2017). Other studies, such as translation studies, have been conducted by Robati and Zand (2018). Ethnolinguistics has delved into language taboos, as seen in the work by Mbaya (2002). Taboos were studied through the neurolinguistic lens by Hansen et al. (2019), language acquisition (LA) by Khaghaninejad et al. (2020), and sociopragmatics by Gabriel and Charlotte (2021).

Acehnese researchers such as Yusuf and Yusuf (2014), Junaidi and Wardani (2019), and Aziz et al. (2020) have contributed significantly to the discourse on taboos. Yusuf and Yusuf (2014) explored cultural prohibition in Acehnese, investigating those related to mystical threats. Furthermore, Aziz et al. (2020) concluded that taboo words are usually met with rejection, but some can be used humorously or persuasively. The Acehnese usually use nicknames to express anger towards someone who has violated societal values or norms. While existing studies have made valuable contributions, none has explored taboos in the Acehnese language through the lens of the Natural Semantic Metalinguistic (NSM) approach. In addition, research related to taboo languages in Aceh society related to customs, values, and beliefs can be used as cultural literacy for the younger generation in Aceh. Mkandawire (2015) defines cultural literacy as an individual’s ability to understand and appreciate the customs, values, beliefs, and lifestyles of people in particular.

This research was conducted in Aceh province, specifically in Langsa City and Peureulak District in East Aceh. Exploring taboos among Acehnese people in Langsa and Peureulak is important for a few reasons. Firstly, in the modern era, it is undeniable that a cultural shift is occurring among the people who are the custodians of the culture itself. This shift is also evident among Acehnese people in urban areas, where many, especially the younger generation, no longer understand Acehnese language and customs, including taboo elements. Beliefs surrounding taboos also evolve across generations, and many younger generations of Acehnese perceive taboos as limited to offensive language and insults that can potentially disrupt societal harmony (Ulfa et al., 2018).

Secondly, a taboo serves as a benchmark for the existence of a moral and ethical education within a specific ethnic group. Often considered to contain moral messages, individuals who adhere to taboos find themselves compelled to abandon certain actions deemed contrary or prohibited in their belief systems (Saputri, 2022). In Addition, Baravati and Rangriz (2019) posit that the acceptance of taboo words provides a clear example of how linguistic behavior reflects shifts in attitudes. Scientifically, what the ancestors entrusted through taboos on language and behavior is still preserved by the Acehnese people, especially the younger generation, as a form of cultural defense. This perspective aligns with Vera and Nuraiza's (2021) opinion that speaking of taboo as a form of language attitude and the impact of psychological influences on the activities in Aceh communities represents a cultural legacy passed down by their ancestors from generation to generation. Thirdly, a comprehensive exploration of literature, including books, dissertations, and other scientific works, reveals a scarcity of research taboos. Little attention has been given to investigating taboos in Acehnese culture (Aziz et al., 2020). This research on taboo languages in Acehnese society aims to deepen the academic community's understanding of taboo meanings and differentiate between what constitutes taboo and what does not.

Taboos not only cover cultural aspects revered for their sacredness but also arise from social conditions that require the use of polite language in communication. For example, within Acehnese culture, certain animal names are prohibited or taboo to use while in the forest or when addressing others as a means of preventing insults. The tiger and elephant are regarded as strong beasts that are thought to rule the forest. Thus, discussing their names in specific settings or at specific times is frowned upon. It is believed that mentioning their names will attract their presence (Aziz et al., 2020).

The reasons behind the use of animal taboo names are divided into two categories. Firstly, it is not permitted to mention the animal names intended as swearing, such as referring to another person as the *pa'e* 'gecko', as shown in (a). Secondly, the prohibition involves certain animals due to fear, respect, and the sacredness associated with their existence, as shown in (b):

(a) *Pa'ee keunoe tajak ilèe*
Gecko come here we go for a while
'Come here, gecko'.

(b) *Rimueng paléh*
Tiger bad
'Bad tiger'.

Related to the taboo data above, it can be concluded that the use of taboo can be influenced by culture. A culture or society shapes the conduct and mindset of its members through mutually accepted expectations and regulations (Fershtman et al., 2011). Taboos carry semantic meanings that are deeply embedded in words or constructions, decipherable only within the specific context of their cultural significance. The taboo expressions within Acehnese culture are shaped by various factors such as impoliteness, humiliation, sanctity, and sacredness, often linked to magical elements. (Aziz et al., 2020). These factors, perceived as culturally significant by the Acehnese community, contribute to the creation of taboos that instill fear through shared knowledge within the local community. This present study emphasizes that the concept of taboo extends beyond merely categorizing forbidden expressions; it goes deeper into a cultural exploration, using the Natural Semantic Metalanguage (NSM) approach to unveil the broader cultural meanings of these taboos.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Natural Semantic Metalinguistic (NSM)

The Natural Semantic Metalinguistic (NSM) theory is designed to explain all meanings, including lexical meaning, illusory meaning, and grammatical meaning. This theory was developed by Wierzbicka (1996) and Goddard (1996). It is an approach that uses the study of lexical semantics, which rests on the assumption that every language has a set of meanings that cannot be broken down into more superficial substances (Arnawa, 2009). This simplest meaning is believed to be inherent in everyone since infancy.

The analytical method used in implementing this theory is based on reductive paraphrasing. Furthermore, 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 does not align with the form itself. This assumption is rooted in semiotic principles, i.e., the theory of signs (Goddard, 1994; Taib & Mulyadi, 2022). It is based on the understanding that the meaning of a lexicon is a configuration of the semantic primitive and is not determined by other meanings in the lexicon. A semantic primitive is a set of meanings that cannot change (Goddard, 1986). The primary assumption is meaning that 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). This meaning is a reflection of the fundamental human mind. The semantic primitive meaning can be extracted from the semantic primitive, which is the only way to represent meaning (Wierzbicka, 1996). The explication of meaning must include the meanings of words that are intuitively related or at least have the same meaning field, and the meanings of those words must be analyzed based on their components.

Semantic primitives presented in the NSM theory refer to the English component. Wierzbicka (1996) has identified 66 English semantic primitives such as ‘think’, ‘know’, ‘want’, ‘feel’, ‘see’, and ‘hear’, as presented in Table 1.

Table 1. The English components of semantic primitive (Wierzbicka, 1996).

Component	**Example**
Substantive	I, you, someone, people/person, something/thing, body
Substantive relational	kind, part
Determiner quantifier	this, the same, other/else
Quantifier	one, two, much/many, some, all
Evaluative	good, bad
Description	big, small
Mental predicate	think, know, want, feel, see, hear
Speech	say, words, true
Agen/patient	do, happen, move, touch
Existence and possession	be (somewhere); there is/exist, have, be (someone/something)
Life and death	live, die
Time	when/time, now, before, after, a long time, a short time, for some time, moment
Place	where/place, here above, below, far, near, side, inside
Causation	not, maybe, can, because, if

Table 1 continued…

Intensifier	very, more
Similarity	like/as

Additionally, according to Mulyadi and Siregar (2006), to apply the NSM theory, there are several steps to be followed. First, the researcher determines the natural meaning of the words under analysis. Second, they identify the exact polysemy of the meaning. Third, they reveal other semantic properties in the meaning of the word accompanied by syntactic and semantic evidence. Fourth, they compare the semantic properties of multilingual words considered relevant, paying attention to the similarities and differences in their meanings. Fifth, they form a syntax of universal meaning based on the identified semantic properties. Finally, they paraphrase the meaning of these words.

2.1.1 Semantic molecule

The concept of animal meaning in this research also used semantic molecules to paraphrase the meaning of animals, which can be challenging to formulate solely based on semantic primitives. According to NSM research, some kinds of concepts (emotions, values, speech acts, and interpersonal relations) are semantically much simpler than others (artifacts, animals and plants, and many human activities) because the former can be explicated directly in terms of semantic primes (Goddard, 2009). The semantic molecule is a packet of semantic components that exist as the meaning of a lexical unit (Goddard, 2009). It is a linguistic concept that helps to understand how words and phrases convey meaning. These components can include things like the definition, connotation, and associations of a word, allowing for a deeper understanding of its semantic properties. The semantic molecule is denoted using the notation (M).

At the current early stage of research, there are several productive semantic molecules, yet the conclusion is not entirely clear at this point. For English, at least the following categories are known (examples given are non-exhaustive): (a) parts of the body (i.e., hands, mouth, legs), (b) physical descriptors (i.e., long, round, flat, hard, sharp, straight), (c) physical activities (i.e., eat, drink, sit), (d) physical acts (kill, pick up, catch), (e) expressive/communicative actions (i.e., laugh, sing, write, read), (f) ethnogeometrical terms (edges, ends), (g) life-form words (i.e., animal, bird, fish, tree), (h) natural environment (i.e., the ground, the sky, the sun, water, fire, day, night), (i) materials (i.e., wood, stone, metal, glass, paper), (j) mechanical parts (i.e., wheel, pipe, wire, engine, electricity, machine), (k) basic social categories and kin roles (i.e., men, women, children, mother, father), and (l) important cultural concepts (i.e., money, book, color, number) (Goddard, 2009).

2.2 Taboo Language

The term taboo, according to Allan and Burridge (2006), refers to a prohibition of behavior within a certain community at a certain time and in a certain context. The term taboo appears and is used about certain customs in certain places. Allan and Burridge (2006) argue that taboo originally arose out of respect for and fear of metaphysical power. Still, that taboo has now extended to political and social affairs and generalized to the prohibition of any use or practice, especially expressions or topics considered offensive, to be avoided or prohibited by social habits. The taboo is the interaction between an individual and a particular group of people or, perhaps, an entire society.

Furthermore, according to Wardhaugh (1986), the term taboo refers to what is forbidden to talk about, touch, or behave according to religion, custom, or community culture. Wardhaugh (1986) further explains that taboo is the way a society expresses disapproval of certain types of behavior that are believed to be harmful to its members, either for supernatural reasons or because such behavior is considered to violate the moral code (Wardhaugh, 1986).

Furthermore, Ullmann (1977) divides taboo into three categories: taboo of fear, taboo of delicacy, and taboo of respect. The taboo of fear involves a prohibition of words about something mentioned, where the context can cause harm, bad luck, and even death (Ullmann, 1977). The taboo of fear is generally driven by culture. For example, in the Shona culture in Africa, one should not peel the bark off a tree that someone else has peeled. If someone broke this rule, bad luck would befall his mother (Chigidi, 2009). Secondly, the taboo of delicacy or refining taboo relates to the prohibition of words related to certain diseases (Ullmann, 1977). Taboo in this category represents a human effort to avoid pointing directly to unpleasant things, such as various diseases and death. The taboo of respect is related to gender (Ullmann, 1977). For example, in most European countries during the 1950s, women were banned from smoking.

Furthermore, Allan and Burridge (2006) divide taboos into several types: dirty word taboo, bad language, name and addressing taboo, and unfortunate conditions, as shown in Figure 2. Allan and Burridge (2006) defined dirty words as those related to excrement and falling within the same semantic field as meaning like rudeness, evil, uncleanness, unhealthiness, chaos, dirt, pollution, and stains. Something described as dirty can also be characterized as rude, evil, dirty, unclean, unhealthy, obscene, seedy, or rotten. Bad language consists of three categories: jargon, slang, and swearing words. Swearing words further include equating a person with an animal that are considered derogatory, such as calling someone a bat, cat, fox, pig, cow, bitch, dog, mutt, pig, flea, dove, eagle, chicken, turkey, rat, rabbit, bull, ox, goat, monkey, monkey, donkey/donkey, rat, snake, etc. Naming and addressing are related to the taboo of names. In the Chinese culture, for instance, most Chinese families prohibit children from addressing their parents or elders by their given names. It is considered taboo for younger people to share the same name as their parents or to have names that are homophonic or similar characters. Violating these norms would be deemed ‘unfaithful’ and ‘abusive’ (Mengxun, 2020). The last aspects of human misfortune are divided into several sub-groups, such as (i) illness, (ii) death, and (iii) murder. Allan and Burridge (2006) say that illness, death, and murder are part of fate or destiny that a person must accept.

3. METHODS

This study used a qualitative research design. According to Creswell (2014), qualitative research seeks to explore and understand the meaning of several individuals or groups of people in the context of social issues and beyond. This research also uses the phenomenology approach. Bungin (2007) states that phenomenology serves as the foundational theory in qualitative research. Being field research, the data is directly collected from the research location where native speakers of the language studied live. In this case, the researcher chose two research locations, Langsa City and Peurelak District in East Aceh, Indonesia.

The data of this research consists of taboo words, phrases, or sentences in an Acehnese language. The data collection procedure involved in-depth interviews to gather detailed information on the taboos. Interviews play a crucial role in research, serving as a means to gather data and observe the interviewee's behavior, personality, and beliefs (Sachan et al., 2012). The interviewer's role is to guide the conversation, ensure the participant's comfort, and maintain the interview's structure (Magnusson & Marecek, 2015). Accordingly, a number of 12 informants participated in this research, of which six were from Langsa and another six were from Peureulak. These informants were aged between 21-80 years old and spoke Acehnese as their first language. These criteria were important to ensure that they are native speakers of Acehnese, reside in Aceh, and have used this language all their lifetime. Table 2 shows the data of the informants interviewed for this research, obtained with consent from each one. Each interview took place at the informants' homes, and each interview lasted for about 30 to 40 minutes. The interview sessions were recorded with a handphone. The results of the interviews were transcribed by the researchers.

Table 2. Data of the informants.

No.	Initial	Age	Education	Occupation	Residence	First language
1.	MNB	80	Bachelor's degree	Imam at a mosque/Retired civil servant	Langsa	Acehnese
2.	MH	68	Diploma	Civil servant	Langsa	Acehnese
3.	RJ	68	Diploma	Retired civil servant	Langsa	Acehnese
4.	FH	75	Diploma	Imam at a mosque	Langsa	Acehnese
5.	OA	45	Bachelor's degree	Civil servant	Langsa	Acehnese
6.	OM	21	High school	University student	Langsa	Acehnese
7.	MJ	61	Bachelor's degree	Retired civil servant	Peureulak	Acehnese
8.	ZA	55	High school	Retired civil servant	Peureulak	Acehnese
9.	SA	70	High school	Retired civil servant	Peureulak	Acehnese
10.	RN	45	Diploma	Village chief	Peureulak	Acehnese
11.	HI	60	High school	Fisherman	Peureulak	Acehnese
12.	UT	21	High school	University student	Peureulak	Acehnese

Techniques of data analysis were carried out by using *padan* and *agih* (Sudaryanto, 2015, p. 18). The *padan* method involves external determinants, not becoming part of the language. The analysis technique for the *padan* method includes determining the element sorting technique or referential sorting power. In this study, the data were sorted according to taboo categories.

Table 3. Application of determining element by sorting technique (Sudaryanto, 2015).

Categorization	Animals name
Taboo of swearing	*bui* 'pig'
Taboo of fear	*rimueng* 'tiger'

The *agih* method is a part of the language itself (Sudaryanto, 2015). In this study, paraphrasing techniques were used in analyzing data, allowing researchers to discern the meaning of taboos, as illustrated in Table 4.

Table 4. Application of paraphrasing technique.

Animals' taboo of fear, such as *rimueng* 'tiger'	When I see some kind of this animal (M) in somewhere It's not good to say something to this kind of animal If someone (x) does something to say something bad or good to something of a kind animal (M) somewhere Something bad will happen to someone (x) Therefore, if something of this kind (animal) is heard, it will move at the same time in this place according to the wish of this animal. Because of that, something bad will happen Something this kind of animal will do something bad to someone It is good to say something else to this kind of animal (M) somewhere

The meaning of taboo in the Acehnese language was unveiled by analyzing meaning using the theory of NSM, which is recognized as a relatively modern approach to semantic study capable of producing adequate meaning analysis. Using explanatory techniques, the results of the meaning analysis in a language align with the postulate of semantic science, asserting a one-to-one relationship between form and meaning. This approach prevents the attribution of meaning to words that center around one lexicon (Sudipa, 2005). The meaning of animal taboo language in this study is a configuration of semantic primitive and is not determined by the meaning of other words in the lexicon. The expression of taboo animals' names is done by paraphrasing using semantic primitive components.

4. RESULTS

This section reveals the meanings of taboo words associated with animals in Acehnese culture. The Acehnese believe that employing alternative names for animals promotes friendship and showcases human appreciation and respect for their presence in human life. Notably, not all animals are considered taboo; only specific names are deemed forbidden, as classified in Table 5.

Table 5. Categorization of animal's taboo name.

Categorization	**Animals name**
Taboo of swearing	*bui* 'pig' *asèe* 'dog' *pa'ee* 'gecko' *muruwa* 'monitor lizard' *lemo* 'cow'
Taboo of fear	*rimueng* 'tiger' *gajah* 'elephant' *buya* 'crocodile' *badeuk* 'rhinoceros' *uleue* 'snake' *tikôh* 'rat'

There are five animals with taboo names associated with swearing use in Acehnese cultures, such as *bui* ‘pig’, *asèe* ‘dog,’ *uleue* ‘snake’, *muruwa* ‘monitor lizard’, *lemo* ‘cow’, and *pa’ee* ‘gecko’. Additionally, there are six animals with taboo names related to fear, forbidden to use in Acehnese culture: *rimueng* ‘tiger’, *gajah* ‘elephant’, *badeuk* ‘rhinoceros’, *uleue* ‘snake’, *buya* ‘crocodile’, and *tikôh* ‘rat’. Each is explained in the next sub-sections.

4.1 Animals Related to the Taboo of Swearing

4.1.1 Bui ‘pig’

The semantic primitive *bui* ‘pig’ derives from the substantive elements ‘something’, relational ‘kind’, and evaluating ‘bad’. In this case, *bui* ‘pig’ is used to symbolize someone, and if someone utters this taboo name, they feel something good/bad. The syntactic pattern formed is X says something because he feels ‘something’. Then, something that is felt can be good or bad. Thus, when combined with the speech element, the pattern of meaning becomes ‘X says Y is like kind of Z’. An example of expressing this taboo name can be seen in (3):

(3) *Lagèe bui akai kah*
like pig behave 2nd SP
‘You are like a pig’.

Furthermore, to show the semantic meaning contained in the animal *bui* ‘pig’, the paraphrasing of meaning is carried out as follows:

At that time, X said something. Because X feels something and thinks about Y:
Y did something bad; I don’t want Y to do something like this;
When X thinks like this,
X feels something bad,
X feels Y is a bad person,
X feels Y like kind of Z.
Therefore, Y feels something bad about X,
X said something like this

4.1.2 Asèe ‘dog’

Asèe ‘dog’ also expresses the semantic primitive derived from substantive elements symbolizing ‘something’, relational ‘kind’, and evaluating ‘bad’. In this case, *asèe* ‘dog’ is used to symbolize someone. Someone who said the animal taboo names feels something good/bad, so the syntactic pattern that is formed is that X says something because he feels something. Then, something that is felt can be good or bad. Thus, when combined with the speech element, the pattern of meaning becomes X says Y like kind of Z. An example of the expression in the sentence can be seen in (4):

(4) *Akai jih lagèe asèe.*
Mind 3TG like dog
‘He behaved like a dog’.

Furthermore, to show the semantic meaning contained in the animal *asèe* ‘dog’, the paraphrasing of meaning is carried out as follows:

At that time, X said something. X Feeling something, X thinks about Y:
Y did something bad; I don't want Y to do something like this;
When X thinks like this, X feels something bad,
X feels Y is a bad person/people,
X feels Y like Z.
Therefore, Y feels something bad about X,
X says something like this.

4.1.3 Lemo 'cow'

Lemo 'cow' expresses the semantic primitive derived from a substantive element, something. In this case, *lemo* 'cow' is used to symbolize someone. Someone who utters the animal's name feels something, so the syntactic pattern formed is X says something because he feels something. Then, something that is felt can be good or bad. Thus, when combined with the semantic primitive component of the speech element, a pattern of meaning becomes X says Y like Z. The following is an example of a taboo sentence and semantic structures:

(5) *Lemo awakkah mandum*
Cow 3JM all
'All of you are like cows'.

Furthermore, to show the semantic meaning contained in the animal *lemo* 'cow', the paraphrasing of the meaning is carried out as follows:

At that time, X said something. X Feeling something, X thinks about Y:
Y did something bad; I don't want Y to do something like this;
When X thinks like this, X feels something bad,
X feels Y is a bad person,
X feels Y did something bad, like Z,
Therefore, Y feels something bad about X,
X says something like this.

4.1.4 Muruwa 'monitor lizard'

Muruwa 'lizard' derives from the substantive elements, 'something', relational 'kind', and evaluating 'bad'. In this case, *muruwa* 'monitor lizard' is used to symbolize someone. Someone who said the animal taboo names feels something good/bad, so the syntactic pattern that is formed is that X says something because he feels something. Then, something that is felt can be good or bad. Thus, when combined with the speech element, the pattern of meaning becomes 'X says Y like kind of Z'. The example of expression can be seen in (6):

(6) *Lagak that dara nyan lagèe muruwa*
Beautiful really girl 3rd SP DEM like a lizard
'That girl is very beautiful, like a monitor lizard'.

Furthermore, to show the semantic meaning contained in *muruwa* 'monitor lizard', the paraphrasing of the meaning is carried out as follows:

At that time, X said something. X Feeling something, X thinks about Y:
Y did something bad; I don't want Y to do something like this;

When X thinks like this, X feels something bad,
X feels Y is a bad person,
X feels Y did something bad, like Z,
Therefore, Y feels something bad about X,
X says something like this.

4.1.5 Pa'ee 'gecko'

Pa'ee 'gecko' derives from the substantive elements, 'something', relational 'kind,' and evaluating 'bad'. In this case, *pa'ee* 'gecko' is used to symbolize someone. Someone who said the animal taboo names feels something good/bad, so the syntactic pattern that is formed is that X says something because he feels something. Then, something that is felt can be good or bad. Thus, when combined with the speech element, namely saying, the pattern of meaning becomes X says Y like kind of Z. An example of expression can be seen in (7):

(7) *Hai gam pa'ee*
INTER 3rd SP gecko
'Hi, gecko boy'.

Furthermore, to show the semantic meaning contained in the animal *pa'ee* 'gecko', the paraphrasing of meaning is carried out as follows:

At that time, X said something. X feels something, and X thinks about Y:
Y did something bad; I don't want Y to do something like this;
When X thinks like this, X feels something bad,
X feels Y is a bad person,
X feels Y did something bad, like Z.
Therefore, Y feels something bad about X,
X says something like this.

4.2 Animals Related to the Taboo of Fear

In the realm of animal taboo names within Acehnese culture, the second category comprises creatures connected with fear. The animals falling into this category are *rimueng* 'tiger', *gajah* 'elephant', *uleue* 'snake', *badeuk* 'rhinoceros', and *tikôh* 'rat'. These animals are deemed taboo due to their association with fear, signifying a level of reverence and sacredness. The semantic primitives tied to them suggest a dual nature of being both kind and bad. The ensuing semantic meanings of these animals' taboo status in Acehnese culture underscore the cultural significance and respect attributed to creatures evoking fear.

4.2.1 Rimueng 'tiger'

The word *rimueng* 'tiger', expresses something bad, and this type of animal is considered taboo because of fear and respect. *Rimueng* 'tiger' has the semantic primitive of something, kind and bad. The Acehnese people respect the tiger because it has mystical values. White tigers and black tigers in several *ulama's* [Islamic scholars] graves are believed to guard the tombs. Therefore, a taboo arises, required by Acehnese ancestors, compelling individuals to refrain from mentioning or cursing tigers when entering the forest. The sentence *hanjeut ta carôt rimueng lam uteun* 'don't curse tigers in the forest' exemplifies this prohibition. This prohibition is in place to prevent tigers from disturbing the people going into the forest. There's a belief that mentioning or cursing the animal's name may lead to unfortunate events, as the animal might respond by causing harm. Instead of calling another person by this animal's name, society suggests replacing it with *nek mbok* or *nek kaum* 'another name to replace the word tiger'. *Nek* means 'grandmother', *mbok* is a title for respected and revered elder individuals and *kaum* is 'people, community'. This belief is illustrated in (8):

(8) *Keubit rimueng paléh, keunoe jak*
INTER tiger bad ADV come
'Bad tiger, come here'.

Furthermore, to show the semantic meaning contained in '*rimueng,*' paraphrasing the meaning is carried out as follows:

When X sees some kind of animal (M) in somewhere,
it's not good to say something (name) for this type of animal.
If X says something bad or good to something of this kind (animal) in a certain place,
something bad will happen to X.
Therefore, if something of this kind (animal) hears it, it will move at the same time in this place according to the wish of this animal.
Because of that, something bad will happen,
something of this kind of animal (M) will do something bad to X.
It is good to say something else like *"nek mbok"* or *"nek kaum"*
to this kind of animal.

4.2.2 Gajah 'elephant'

Gajah 'elephant' has the semantic primitive of something, kind and bad. Acehnese believes that the elephant is a strong animals and considers them the rightful owners of the forest, known as *yang po tempat* 'owner of the place'. Acehnese people believe that in ancient times, the king of Aceh rode elephants as their means of transportation. The respect and fear associated with elephants make it taboo to mention their names in the forest. The sayings *hanjeut ta carôt gajah lam uteun* 'don't curse the elephants in the forest' and *hanjeut ta hei gajah lam uteun* 'don't call/mention 'elephants' in the forest' exemplify this prohibition. It is essential to follow this rule to ensure that elephants are not disturbed in the forest. One must refrain from mentioning and cursing elephants when in the forest. If someone says the name of the animal or swears the name of the animal, something bad may happen to him. It is believed that the animal may come and do something bad. Instead of calling another person by this animal's name, society suggests replacing it with *teungku rayeuk* 'another name to replace the word elephant'. *Teungku* is a title for those who are experts or knowledgeable in the field of Islam or more devout than most people, while *rayeuk* means 'big, large'. This taboo is illustrated in (9):

(9) *Hai gajah paléh*
INTER elephant bad
'Hi, bad elephant'.

Furthermore, to show the semantic meaning contained in *gajah* ‘elephant’, paraphrasing the meaning is carried out as follows:

When X sees some kind of animal (M) in somewhere,
it’s not good to say something for this kind of animal (M).
If someone (x) does something to say something bad or good to something of a kind animal (M) somewhere,
something bad will happen to someone (x),
Therefore, if something of this kind (animal) is heard, it will move at the same time in this place according to the wish of this animal.
Because of that, something bad will happen,
something of this kind of animal will do something bad to someone.
It is good to say something else to this like *“tengku rayeuk”*
to this kind of animal (M) somewhere,

4.2.3 *Badeuk* ‘rhinoceros’

The term *badeuk*, associated with the rhinoceros, carries a semantic primitive suggesting a dual nature of being both kind and bad. According to Acehnese beliefs, uttering the name of this animal or using it in oaths may lead to negative consequences, as it is thought that the rhinoceros may somehow bring harm to the person. To avoid such risks, the society recommends using the alternative term *po mentjula* to replace the word rhinoceros, where *po* translates to ‘owner’ and *mentjula* translates to ‘horns’ in English. An example of a taboo saying related to the name of *badeuk* ‘rhinoceros’ can be seen in (10):

(10) *Badeuk paléh*
Rhinoceros bad
‘Bad rhinoceros’.

Furthermore, to show the semantic meaning contained in *badeuk* ‘rhinoceros’, paraphrasing the meaning is carried out as follows:

When X sees some kind of animal (M) somewhere,
it’s not good to say something about this kind of animal (M).
If someone (X) says something bad or good to something to this kind of animal (M) somewhere,
something bad will happen to (X).
Because of that, something bad will happen to X
something of this kind of animal will do something bad to someone (X).
It is good to say something else like “*po mentjula*”
to this kind of animal (M) somewhere.

4.2.4 *Uleue* ‘snake’

Uleue ‘snake’ has the semantic primitive of something, kind and not good/bad. If someone mentions *uleue* ‘snake’ in the forest, it is believed that bad things will happen. The Acehnese view *uleue* as a wild and easily provoked animal and has a heightened sensitivity to hearing. This instills fear in humans encountering snakes in the forest, as provoking the snake’s anger is deemed perilous. The Acehnese say *hanjeut ta hei uleue lam uteun* ‘don’t call out the name of the snake in the forest’. Instead of calling another person by this animal’s name, the society suggests replacing it with *ukheu kayèe* ‘another name to replace the word rhinoceros’. *Ukheu* means ‘roots’, while *kayèe* is ‘wood’. The example of the expression embodying this taboo can be seen in (11):

(11) *That raya uleue nyan*
very big snake DEM
‘That snake is very big’.

Furthermore, to show the semantic meaning contained in *uleue*, paraphrasing the meaning is carried out as follows:

When I see some kind of this animal (M) in somewhere,
it’s not good to say something to this kind of animal.
If someone (x) does something to say something bad or good to something of a kind animal (M) somewhere,
something bad will happen to someone (X).
Therefore, if something of this kind (animal) is heard, it will move at the same time in this place according to the wish of this animal.
Because of that, something bad will happen
something this kind of animal will do something bad to someone.
It is good to say something else like “*ukhe kayèe”*
to this kind of animal.

4.2.5 Buya ‘crocodile’

The Acehnese cultural belief regarding the term *buya* associates it with something formidable and malevolent, as it carries the semantic primitive of being both kind and bad. According to Acehnese beliefs, invoking the name of the crocodile may attract aggression towards the person mentioning it. To avoid this, the society recommends using alternative terms like *pang ulèe* for the crocodile on land and *raja laôt* for the crocodile in the river. In Acehnese, the term *pang* is derived from two words: *pawang*, meaning ‘guardian’ or ‘caretaker’, and *panglima*, meaning ‘commander’ or ‘military commander’. Additionally, *ulèe* translates to ‘head’, *raja* to ‘king’, and *laôt* to ‘sea’ or ‘ocean’ in English. An example of expression embodying this taboo can be found in (12):

(12) *Buya panyang ikue, glie that hi*
Crocodile’s long tail disgusting very appearance
‘The long-tailed crocodile is very disgusting’.

Furthermore, to show the semantic meaning contained in *buya* ‘crocodile,’ paraphrasing the meaning is carried out as follows:

When X sees some kind of animal (M) somewhere,
it’s not good to say something about this kind of animal (M).
If someone (X) says something bad or good to something to this kind of animal (M) somewhere,
something bad will happen to (X).
Because of that, something bad will happen to X
something of this kind of animal will do something bad to someone (X).
It is good to say something else like “*pang ulèe*” or *“raja laôt”*
to this kind of animal (M) somewhere.

4.2.6 Tikôh 'rat'

Tikôh referring to a rat, encompasses a semantic primitive denoting a dual nature of being both kind and bad. In Acehnese culture, it is firmly believed that scolding or cursing rats is strictly prohibited, particularly when farmers witness them attacking plants or homeowners observe them damaging clothes and food. Instead of reprimanding rats, individuals are advised to use alternative names such as *po ti* or *nyak ti metuwah*, where *po* signifies 'elder sister', and *ti* is an abbreviation of *tikôh*. While *nyak* is 'mother', *ti* is from *tikôh* 'rat' and *metuwah* is 'he/she who encompasses positive attributes'. Scolding rats is thought to worsen their mischievous behavior, whether in fields where they continuously devour plants or at home where they persistently disrupt and damage household items. The saying *hanjeut ta carôt tikôh lam blang atawa di rumoh* exemplifies this prohibition, meaning 'you can't swear at rats in the fields or at home'. Expressions reflecting these taboos can be found in example (13).

(13) *Tikôh kureueng aja hana utak, leupah le ka pajôh padée*
Rat damn no brain too much 2SP eat paddy
'The insolent rat has no mind after eating too much of my paddy'.

Furthermore, to show the semantic meaning contained in *tikôh* 'rat', paraphrasing the meaning is carried out as follows:

When someone (X) sees something to this kind of this animal (M),
it's not good to say this: "*bit tikôh paléh*" a very bad rat'.
If any kind (animal) can hear (X), something bad will happen to (X),
this kind of animal (M) will do something bad to (X)
It is good if (X) says something nice to this kind of animal (M) like this:
"*Nyak ti meutuwah ka wèh keudéh"* 'oh good rat, go away please!'

5. DISCUSSION

The meaning of animal taboo language in this study is configured by paraphrasing semantic primitive components. Wierzbicka (1996) mentions that there are 66 components of the semantic primitive in the English Language. The Natural Semantic Metalanguage (NSM) is a decompositional system of meaning representation based on empirically established universal semantic primes, i.e., simple indefinable meanings that appear to be present as word meanings in all languages (Goddard, 2008; Wierzbicka, 1996).

The findings showed that animal taboos in Acehnese are categorized into two: taboo of swearing and taboo of fear. The first one is prohibited because it is considered a form of swearing and offensive, which has a bad meaning and should be avoided by Acehnese speakers. The second one is taboo because of fear, due to the respect the Acehnese has for those animals. The identified categories align with the concepts of taboo proposed by Ullmann (1977) and Allan and Burridge (2006) on the classification of offensive language, emphasizing its contextual and culturally embedded nature.

The first category, the animal taboo that is associated with swearing, corresponds to the concept proposed by Allan and Burridge (2006), who categorize the term into bad language consisting of three categories: jargon, slang, and swear words. Swear words include equating a person with an animal, whereby in the Acehnese culture, these animals are *bui* ‘pig’, *asèe* ‘dog’, *pa’ee* ‘gecko’, *muruwa* ‘monitor lizard’, and *lemo* ‘cow’. These animal-related swear words not only highlight the cultural specificity of linguistic taboos but also provide insights into how they are strongly embedded into identity, and become symbolic even without providing any benefits to members of the society (Fershtman et al., 2011).

The second category identified aligns with the concept proposed by Ullmann (1977). Ullmann mentions three categories of taboo: taboo of fear, taboo of delicacy, and taboo of respect. One of them is the taboo of fear which is found in this research. The taboo of fear is generally driven by culture (Fershtman et al., 2011). This taboo arises due to the perceived holiness and sacredness of certain animals, invoking fear and respect, leading to the prohibition of mentioning their names. The examples identified in this research are *rimueng* ‘tiger’, *gajah* ‘elephant’, *buya* ‘crocodile’, *badeuk* ‘rhinoceros’, *uleue* ‘snake’, and *tikôh* ‘rat’. In natural settings like the forest and by the river, the Acehnese says that it is forbidden to mention these animals as they are believed to understand human feelings. To show respect, alternative names are used, such as *nek mbok* or *nek kaum* for a tiger, *tengku rayeuk* for an elephant, *pang ulèe* or *raja laôt* for a crocodile, *po mentjula* for a rhinoceros, *ukheu kayèe* for a snake, and *po ti* or *nyak ti metuwah* for a rat. And so, the Acehnese believe that when humans protect and respect nature, nature will make it easier for humans to live and work. This belief is also as coined by Martin et al (2016) that “nature and natural entities have their own dynamics and their own goods that are independent of human purposes, and they deserve a certain kind of moral respect” (p. 6107).

According to the Acehnese, it is advisable to refrain from using taboo words in public to prevent conflicts between speakers, and violating these taboos may result in social consequences (Aziz et al., 2020). These taboos ensure a certain level of security for the members of the society, contributing to the assurance that the society will continue to exist and function (Fershtman et al., 2011). An example can be seen in the Shona culture in Africa, one should not peel the bark off a tree that someone else has peeled. If someone broke this rule, they say that bad luck would befall his mother (Chigidi, 2009). Similarly, in Chinese culture, the Chinese avoid the number four because it sounds the same as the word for death (Mengxun, 2020). All numbers, including telephone numbers, plate numbers, and door numbers, are not numbered with four. The month of May, in Chinese culture, is considered the evil month (Mengxun, 2020).

6. CONCLUSION

This study investigated the meaning of animal taboo language in Acehnese culture, employing a semantic primitive approach based on the Natural Semantic Metalanguage (NSM). The identified categories of animal taboos include the taboo of swearing and the taboo of fear. The taboo of the swearing category involves offensive language, specifically swear words equating individuals with animals like *bui* ‘pig’, *asèe* ‘dog’, *pa’ee* ‘gecko’, *muruwa* ‘monitor lizard’, and *lemo* ‘cow’. These animal-related swear words underscore the cultural specificity and symbolic nature of linguistic taboos embedded in identity. The taboo of fear category, rooted in cultural beliefs, deems certain animals sacred and prohibits mentioning their names in natural settings. These animals are *rimueng* ‘tiger’, *gajah* ‘elephant’, *buya* ‘crocodile’, *badeuk* ‘rhinoceros’, *uleue* ‘snake’ and *tikôh* ‘rat’. The Acehnese use alternative names to show respect, reflecting a belief that respecting nature facilitates harmonious living, such as *nek mbok* or *nek kaum* for a tiger, *tengku rayeuk* for an elephant, *pang ulèe* or *raja laôt* for a crocodile, *po mentjula* for a rhinoceros, *ukheu kayèe* for a snake, and *po ti* or *nyak ti metuwah* for a rat. Taboo words are advised to be avoided in public to prevent conflicts, and violating them may lead to social consequences, contributing to societal security and ensuring its continuity.

While this study has described and explained the category of animal taboos and their meanings within Acehnese culture in Langsa City and East Aceh Regency, certain limitations should be acknowledged. The research provides a foundational understanding of the topic, but there is a need for further in-depth investigations to enhance comprehension. Future studies should explore additional categories of taboo language and delve specifically into cultural aspects related to language use. The researchers encourage language practitioners, particularly those from the Acehnese community, to apply the Natural Semantic Metalanguage (NSM) theory in their studies on language meaning. This theoretical framework, offering a comprehensive insight into the meaning, can unveil semantic distinctions and paraphrases associated with various instances of animal taboo language in Acehnese society. Implementing the NSM theory represents a complex and valuable approach within the field of semantics.

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Linguistic Economy and Slang as Used by Jordanians on Twitter

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Abstract

In the context of the rapidly expanding technological landscape, social media platforms have become arenas for innovative communication. This study focuses on the linguistic strategies employed by Jordanian Twitter users within the framework of Computer Mediated Communication (CMC), considering the concept of linguistic economy. The data for this study were derived from 300 tweets, employing digital ethnography for virtual fieldwork. There were a number of 15 users randomly selected for interviews to further understand their language use on Twitter. Employing the descriptive qualitative content analysis, the following linguistic strategies were found in this study, they are Romanized Jordanian Arabic, code-switching, linguistic economy (shortening, contractions, clipping, and acronyms), and slang (repetition, onomatopoeia, cacography, and capitalization). The prevalence of Jordanian Romanized Arabic and strategic code-switching demonstrated users' adaptability in navigating Twitter's language. The study highlighted the dominant role of linguistic economy within the 160-character limit, with users employing strategies such as shortening, contractions, clipping, and acronyms. Expressive techniques like repetition, onomatopoeia, cacography, and capitalization were identified as creative ways to convey emotions and attitudinal meanings. Overall, this research contributes valuable insights into the developing language dynamics on social media, offering insight into the intricate ways users shape communication in the digital age.

Keywords: Computer-mediated communication, Internet language, linguistic economy, slang, Twitter.

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1. INTRODUCTION

The fact that technology affects our daily communication is noticeable. Specifically, the dramatic leap in communication technology has affected people's everyday lives and significantly changed the way they communicate with each other. Nowadays, with the emergence of several electronic means of communication such as Twitter, Facebook, TikTok, e-mails, and Instagram, language has been affected by the use of such electronic communication modalities. Communication through Twitter, for example, is a mode of communication referred to as Computer Mediated Communication (CMC). CMC can be of two types: synchronous and asynchronous. (Baron et al. 2005; Crystal 2001; December, 1996; Segerstad, 2002). Notably, CMC has made significant changes to the form of written language. This is because the Internet has become an integral part of modern life, and linguists refer to its influence on language and communication. This new genre of language generates the interest of many researchers. More specifically, through a wealth of research, Crystal (2002, 2006, 2008, 2011) was able to revolutionize the realm of methodology and come up with new ideas about this genre. One of his main aims was to present guidelines that could help researchers best tackle CMC. He was also the leading proponent to claim that this new genre comes under the umbrella of Internet linguistics (Crystal, 2006, 2008, 2011).

Several previous studies addressed the form of language used on CMC. However, the majority of these studies were dedicated to examining the form of language used on CMC from certain linguistic perspectives without paying attention to the slang language. More specifically, some studies dealt with this new genre of writing from a sociolinguistic point of view (i.e., Al Alaslaa, 2018; Al-Khatib, 2008; Al-Khatib & Sabbah, 2008; Alshboul & Rababah, 2021; Al-Tamimi & Gorgis, 2007; Dawaghreh, 2016; Samhan, 2017; Zibin & Al-Tkhayneh, 2019). For example, Zibin and Al-Tkhayneh (2019) examined the use of English loanwords inflected with Arabic morphemes as used by Jordanians on Facebook from a sociolinguistic perspective. They indicated that participants' gender and socioeconomic status play a crucial role in using loanwords. Similarly, Al-Khatib (2008) handled the form of language used in email by Jordanian students with an emphasis on the notions of code-switching and Romanized Arabic. He attempted to uncover how Romanized Jordanian Arabic is represented and to what extent it approximates Standard Arabic. Al-Tamimi and Gorgis (2007) indicated that code-switching and Romanized Jordanian Arabic are the favorite linguistic choices used by emailers. They also found out that this newly emerging genre of digital communication can be described as a hybrid lingua franca or even a pidgin.

In another study, Al Alaslaa (2018) sought to investigate code-switching and the form of language used on Twitter by Saudis. Twitter users employ code-switching for the sake of introducing formulaic expressions or shifting from comic to serious situations. Alshboul and Rababah (2021) also examined the language functions of emojis as used by Jordanian Facebook users and how emojis are used by both genders. The results of their study indicate that five functions emerged from the data collected: emotive, conative, phatic, poetic, referential, and metalingual. Samhan (2017) explored code-mixing or code-switching used by Jordanians on Twitter in terms of sociolinguistic factors such as age, gender, and education. His study revealed that only age and education could firmly influence the participant's language. Hussein and

Aljamili (2020) analyzed certain semiotic patterns in COVID-19-related memes and caricatures on Facebook and Instagram used by Jordanians. Furthermore, they aimed to demonstrate how humor is employed as a means of softening the grim mood from a socio-semiotic perspective.

It was also noticed that this form of language was studied from a pragmatic perspective. Alshkhanbeh and Alghazo (2022) carried out a pragmatic analysis to explore the criticism strategies in terms of gender as employed by Jordanians on Twitter and Facebook. The results of the study show that both males and females employ criticism strategies in different ways. Males, for example, opt for the use of expression of uncertainty and asking/presupposing. Females prefer to use grievances/complaints to Allah and emojis/pictures. Hassouneh and Zibin (2021) investigated the complaining strategies used by Jordanian Facebook users to see which types of strategies are used more, with an emphasis on the linguistic features of the language. The findings of their study revealed that expression of disapproval or annoyance was the most used strategy by Facebook users while complaining with negative advice was the least. Rababah (2020) investigated the types of speech acts of WhatsApp statuses as used by Jordanians. The results that emerged from the collected encompass six topics: social, political, religious, romantic, personal, and national. Moreover, the types of speech acts used can be expressive, directive, assertive, or commissive. Hamdan (2021) examined the pragmatic functions of the 'like' button when users interact with status updates on Facebook. He indicated Jordanians do not solely use the like button to show appreciation. Rather, the use of this button developed as a graphic pragmatic marker that serves some functions, and illocutions force vary in purpose as it could be approval, admiration, or mockery of a content.

Some studies deal with this form of language from a psycholinguistic perspective concerning social cognitive theory or acquisition theory. Relying on social cognitive theory, Alkhawaja et al. (2020) attempted to analyze tweets to understand people's attitudes toward bank robbery crimes. Findings show that the common public attitude is divided into two categories: mocking the incident or criticizing the government and living conditions in the country.

As there were some fears among language purists, some previous studies (i.e., Abu Al-Assal, 2023; Al-Jarf, 2021) were mainly concerned with the direct effect of this new genre on the language itself. Such studies indicated that this digital way of communication would weaken the users' linguistic competence and performance as they might resist using standard Arabic structure or spelling communication. On the other hand, other studies have focused more on the role played by social media in learning foreign languages (Al-Jarrah et al., 2019; Al-Tamimi et al., 2018; Altakhaineh & Aljallad, 2018; Al Zoubi, 2018; Rabab'ah et al., 2016). Notably, these studies consider CMC to be an effective tool that facilitates learning English language skills.

Last but not least, some studies (i.e., Atoum & Nouman, 2019; Nahar et al., 2020; Samara, 2020) handled the notion of sentimental analysis of social media, especially Twitter and Facebook. Researchers use this technique to identify the polarity (positive, negative) of a certain text using Natural Language Processing techniques. Relying on this technique, people's opinions, sentiments, evaluations, attitudes, and emotions from written language are investigated and analyzed. On the whole, a large and growing body of literature has investigated the form of language used by Jordanians on CMC. However, so far, little attention has been paid to the form of language used on Twitter. In other words, few studies, if any, have examined the slang language on

Twitter as used by Jordanians from a linguistic perspective to show the types of slang used on Twitter. Accordingly, the current study was spawned from the lack of linguistic analysis of the Twitter language as used by Jordanians.

Based on these objectives, the following questions were formulated:

1. What slang and linguistic choices are used by Jordanians on Twitter?
2. To what extent do Jordanians employ the strategy of linguistic economy in their tweets?

This current study then seeks to achieve some objectives; that is to investigate the linguistic choices of Jordanian Twitter users, focusing on slang and language economy strategies. By investigating the intricate linguistic patterns on Twitter, this research seeks to offer insights into how Jordanian users navigate language constraints, economize expressions, and achieve various communicative goals within the distinct online environment.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Computer Mediated Communication

Computer Mediated Communication (CMC) has been the subject of intense debate within the linguistic community. In other words, the debate about CMC has gained fresh prominence among scholars and researchers as to whether to consider this genre of writing as a spoken or written form of language. Baron (2002), for example, used the vivid metaphor of 'an emerging language centaur, part speech, part writing' to indicate that this genre of language is essentially a hybrid of writing and speech. In the same line of thought, Gee and Hayes (2011) indicated that digital media is an interesting amalgam of the properties of written and oral language. Besides, social media can be seen as informal platforms of communication that can encompass a wide range of slang. On the other hand, Crystal (2001) went beyond the fact that CMC is a hybrid of speech and writing as he believes that CMC encompasses some properties that cannot be found in speaking or writing. Accordingly, he termed CMC as a 'third medium'.

It is worth mentioning that scholars are still divided on the issue of whether CMC threatens or enriches languages (Verheijen, 2017). Some researchers (Baron, 2003; Cameron, 1995; Warschauer, 2007) admitted that this new form of communication presents threats to conventional or standard language practices. On the contrary, researchers like Biesenbach and Weasenforth (2001) ensured the fact that electronic communication places new demands on language that resulted in interesting variations in the written form of language. Similarly, Crystal (2001) indicated that 'language has become expressively richer as a result of the internet'. Furthermore, he added that CMC helps people to get rid of illiteracy.

2.2 Slang

Social media, as an informal way of communication, is replete with extensive usage of slang (Crystal, 2006, 2008, 2011). Green (2015) defined slang as a form of language that consists of informal words and phrases used in informal situations and typically restricted to a given group of people or certain contexts. Such words and phrases are much more common in speech than in writing. Slangs are also elliptical, playful metaphorical, shorter-lived, and vivid (Fromkin et al., 2017; Wolfram & Schilling, 2015; Zhou & Fan, 2013). Slangs represent the linguistic choices used in digital communication. In other words, linguistic choice in CMC is a form of language that refers to a set of linguistic techniques or strategies employed by the users to facilitate the process of writing and serve certain functions. Such techniques may include codeswitching, clipping, abbreviation, and capitalization (Al-Khatib, 2008; Al-Tamimi & Gorgis 2007). It should be noted here that different terms refer to internet slang, such as social slang, chatspeak, cyberslang netspeak, internet-jargon, and cyber-jargon (Barseghyan, 2013; Teodorescu & Saharia, 2015). In this study, the researchers adopted the term 'slang' as an umbrella term to refer to this way of electronic communication.

Craig (2003), for his part, indicated that slang can be identified in terms of four types: acronyms, abbreviations, phonetic replacements, and inanities. Barseghyan (2013) went further and provided a comprehensively detailed classification of the slang as he referred to specific characteristics of the slang. Specifically, he indicated that slang can be recognized in different types such as_capitalizations, punctuation, letter homophones, and other symbols, keyboard-generated icons, smileys, leet (leetspeak), onomatopoeic spellings, flaming (also known as bashing), clipping, shortening (acronyms and abbreviations), compounding and derivation.

2.3 Linguistic Economy

As far as slang is concerned, Androutsopoulos (2011) raised the point that CMC allowed vernacular writing to be prevalent in new areas of practice shaped by various writing styles and norms, and vernacular writing has been afforded more tolerance and visibility than it has previously enjoyed. He also showed that vernacular writing can be identified in terms of main strategies: first, the mingling of written and spoken features. Second, the principle of linguistic economy because of the necessity of speed in such a way of communication as well as constraints on message size. And third, compensatory means for visual cues, intonation patterns, and facial expressions (Androutsopoulos, 2006).

The principle of linguistic economy is brought to the scene because the temporal aspect of CMC can be related to linguistic economy in one way or another. Vicentini (2003) provided a coherent definition of linguistic economy "as the unstable balance between the needs of communication–which are always changing–and natural human inertia, two essential forces contributing to the optimization of the linguistic system" (p. 39). The economical language use in synchronous CMC can be identified in terms of various strategies such as clippings or ellipses where some letters or determiners and pronouns are omitted (Ferrara et al., 1991; Murray, 1990). As a linguistic notion inherent to language, the linguistic economy is mainly concerned with the tendency towards brevity. One of the central tenets of this principle lies in the fact that it seeks co-convenience and the minimum possible amount of effort at the lexical, morphological, phonetic, and syntactic levels.

It is commonly observed that strategies of linguistic economy are widely prevalent in CMC. In other words, there is a growing strong tendency for CMC users to employ and utilize many strategies of linguistic economy to save time and effort while writing. Various scholars and researchers also refer to the reasons behind using linguistic economy. Crystal (2008), for instance, pointed out that users tend to be interested in the linguistic economy for 'Save a Keystroke' in the sense that abbreviating anything that reduces the number of keystrokes is vastly preferable. For his part, Shortis (2007) indicated that CMC users attempt to respell some words in terms of their "technoliteracy" and some constraints of message production besides the consideration of their audience. He added that for the sake of linguistic economy, respellings result in a simulation of spoken language and incorporate kinesthetic and graphical devices.

3. METHODS

The research was conducted by using the digital ethnography method (Garcia et al., 2009), in which 'virtual fieldwork' was performed to gather the research data. Precisely, Twitter Advanced Search was used to collect tweets by setting a filter to show only tweets with the keywords *mansaf* and *alnashama*. To make this study more focused, the Jordanian lexical *mansaf* and *alnashama* were used. The former, *mansaf,* is considered the prototypical dish in Jordan because it is the most distinctive Jordanian dish offered to visitors and guests. This national dish is a symbol of Jordanian culture for generosity. The latter, *alnashama*, a colloquial word in Spoken Arabic in the Levant and Gulf regions, means generous, courageous, and intrepid people who are always willing to help others. It is considered a nickname for Jordanians in the sense that people of the Arab world usually refer to Jordanians and nicknamed them *alnashama.* Using the terms *mansaf* and *alnashama* about the Jordanian culture makes sense for the present study.

It is worth pointing out that the internet contains a huge language corpus (Crystal, 2011; Zappavigna, 2012). Accordingly, to increase the possibility of collecting relevant tweets for the Jordanian context and reduce online data noise, the collected tweets for the current study were limited to those that contained *mansaf and alnashama*. Additionally, irrelevant tweets, including spam tweets containing extensive links or tweets containing less than one word and repeatedly tweeted messages, must be rejected (Yardi et al., 2010). Most importantly, the researchers were keen to collect data produced by a homogenous group of people as the tweets were taken from Jordanian public interactions. Accordingly, tweets by public figures (journalists, politicians, TV presenters, etc.) were excluded from the analysis as it is intended, from the outset, to focus on ordinary Twitter users. By so doing, the data comprised 300 tweets that were written by a homogenous group who shared the same language, knowledge, and cultural background. Users' names were deleted to respect the privacy of those whose tweets were cited as instances.

By and large, the Twitter Advanced Search and Twitter Archiver plugins were used to retrieve 300 tweets containing the keywords *mansaf and alnashama*. Then, by using the clustering method, the researchers removed spam and irrelevant tweets through a manual elimination process. To achieve reliable saturation, relevant tweets were clustered together until a sufficient amount of data was gathered. Based on the views of Craig (2003) and Barseghyan (2013), the tweets have been categorized based on their slang categories, and a final number of them were generated. It is important to mention that several types of slang can be found in one tweet.

As far as content analysis is concerned, a descriptive qualitative method was used to analyze the data. Content analysis is viewed as an analytical approach to identifying specific characteristics in written or visual materials (Ary et al. (2018). In the same vein, qualitative content analysis, according to Hsieh and Shannon (2005), is a method for categorizing, coding, and identifying categories and themes within a structured text data set using a systematic process. In addition, Renner and Taylor-Powell (2003) demonstrated that there are five stages to analyzing qualitative data. First, the researchers tried to understand the nature of the data. To answer the research questions, information needs to be categorized and data to be coded to identify patterns, themes, concepts, ideas, interactions, behaviors, or incidents. In the penultimate stage, connections and patterns were identified within and between categories. Finally, the researchers interpreted the data to draw conclusions.

Before proceeding to the next part, semi-structured interviews were conducted with some Twitter users. The number of account users was 200. The researchers contacted Jordanian Twitter users whose tweets were part of the research data. Fifteen participants were randomly selected to interview with them. Each user was interviewed individually to elicit his/her opinion. Different topics related to functions and the purpose of using slang were discussed with them. This enables the researchers to go deep into the analysis and get more information. Furthermore, the informants' interpretations of the data guided the researchers in further investigation of the study. It should be noted here that the interviews were not determined by certain specific questions. In the course of the interviews, more questions were asked depending on the interviewees' responses. In light of the informant's responses, the researchers developed a more detailed understanding of how Jordanians use this way of communication. It is worth mentioning here that the interviews were analyzed in terms of thematic analysis, which proved to be effective in processing the collected data. Thematic analysis is viewed as a main method to identify, analyze, and report themes within data (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

4. RESULTS

Throughout scrutiny of the data, it was noticed that the majority of tweets were written in English, Arabic, or Romanized Arabic. The data analysis also showed that Jordanian Twitter users apply different strategies of linguistic economy and slang choices while using Twitter. The following linguistic features were found in this study, they are Romanized Jordanian Arabic, code-switching, linguistic economy (shortening, contractions, clipping, and acronyms), and slang (repetition, onomatopoeia, cacography, and capitalization). These features have been categorized in terms of the linguistic economy and the views of Craig (2003) and Barseghyan (2013), bearing in mind that some additional slang was noticed in this study. However, as a point of departure, data analysis started with Romanized Jordanian Arabic and code-switching as two linguistic prominent features that were prevalent in most tweets.

4.1 Romanized Jordanian Arabic (RJA)

Al-Tamimi and Gorgis (2007) indicated that Romanized Jordanian Arabic (RJA) refers to the colloquial Jordanian Arabic. It is a patois, similar to other varieties of spoken Arabic, which has been developing an electronic system of writing in recent years. It encompasses a hybrid of characters, namely Roman (Latin), that are already used by the English language and also a specific set of Arabic numerals. Having a close examination of the data, it is noticed that RJA is a favorite linguistic choice for Twitter users because it is extensively used by writers. Table 1 shows some examples.

Table 1. Romanized Jordanian Arabic.

No.	Romanized Jordanian Arabic	Use of numbers
1.	yum aljum3a almansaf insha allah	aljum**3**a
2.	mansaf ma3 jameed w la7meh 5rouf	ma**3** la**7**meh **5**rouf
3.	mtw7em 3ala mansaf mn el 2ordon bs hate ale y6bo5	**3**ala y**6**bo**5**
4.	Hhhhhhhh a8wa noo3 btw ana alyom r7 atw'ada mansaf karaki kmaan lol 7aas feki	a**8**wa noo**3**
5.	5als mashi elk a7sn mansaf karaki bs mshn allah ma tz3li	**5**als a**7**sn

It is apparent from the above instances that Twitter users use Romanized Jordanian Arabic efficiently. Specifically, the second example illustrates this phenomenon, as we can see the use of numbers (such as 3, 7, 5) instead of Arabic sounds (ح / خ / ء), respectively.

Interview analysis shows that the use of Jordanian Romanized Arabic lies in the fact that it enables Twitter users to accelerate the process of writing and save time and effort. Another reason has to do with prestigious purposes. This practice shows the adaptability of users in employing alternative representations of sounds, a characteristic feature of Romanized Arabic on the platform. The intentional use of numbers to convey specific phonetic nuances not easily represented in the Roman alphabet demonstrates the creativity and resourcefulness of navigating language on this platform.

4.2 Code-Switching

Code-switching was found to be one of the most prominent linguistic features used by Twitter users. Code-switching can be best defined as a linguistic phenomenon that involves alternate use of two or more languages in the same utterance or conversation (Grosjean 1982). Code-switching can be concerned with different topics and functions (Palfreyman & Al Khalil, 2005). Twitter users tend to employ this strategy efficiently either between Romanized Arabic and English or between Arabic and English. Table 2 shows some examples from the data.

Table 2. Code-switching.

No.	Code-switching	The switch
1.	cannt wait to taste *Mansaf* 3ala la7meh	*Mansaf* 3ala la7meh
2.	I love you more than I love منسف wallah	منسف wallah
3.	منسف الجمعة more than 5orafy	more than 5orafy
4.	*Mansaf* in progress ya rab yzbot l jameed	in progress
5.	habibti you are the jameed to my *mansaf*	jameed / *mansaf*
6.	So bad بدي منسف	بدي منسف (I need mansaf)
7.	hahahahahah ya hala jordanins are awfully silent today lol sheklo *mansaf* hangover	are awfully silent today
8.	sahtin and wellbeing of the heart and *mansaf* Karaki Mavi like him	and wellbeing of the heart and *mansaf* Karaki

The data presented in Table 2 illustrates instances of code-switching observed in several tweets, exemplified by examples 1, 2, and 5. These tweets showcase the fluid integration of English and Romanized Jordanian Arabic (RJA), and vice versa, as evident in examples 3 and 8. Notably, these examples feature words in RJA, such as *5orafy* ‘legendary’, *Sahtin* ‘enjoy your mail’, *ya rab* ‘O Allah/Dear God’, *habibti* ‘my love’, and *ya hala* ‘welcome’.

In the case of code-switching, an interviewee explained that:

(1) We find it much easier for us to express ourselves in two languages than in one language.

Another respondent said that:

(2) We are governed by technical elements that can be conducive to employing this strategy in writing.

This shows how the users blend different linguistic elements to convey meanings or induce a sense of cultural identity within the character limit constraints.

4.3 Linguistic Economy

The heavy use of linguistic economy strategies was found to be another noteworthy technique used by Twitter users. They employ different types of abbreviations to reduce the orthographic forms of words. Accordingly, four main strategies, namely, shortenings, contractions, clippings, and acronyms, have been identified by the principle of linguistic economy. They are explained in the following sub-sections.

4.3.1 Shortening

Al-Khatib (2008) defined shortening as the process whereby writers use a form of speech that enables them to shorten words and replace a whole word with only one letter to save time and effort. Table 3 illustrates this phenomenon.

Table 3. Shortening.

No.	Shortening	Actual spelling
1.	how r u	How are you?
2.	u knw	You know.
3.	C u on F	See you on Friday.

Table 3 shows the shorting technique employed by users: ‘are’ is shortened to ‘r’, ‘you’ to ‘u’, and ‘see’ to ‘c’. This strategy reflects the dynamic nature of language on social media platforms, where conciseness and efficiency are important. One of the respondents reported that:

(3) Using this form of language enables us to show some linguistic ability we have and express our thoughts briefly.

The use of these shortening techniques highlights the users’ skill at navigating the linguistic constraints of the platform for effective communication.

4.3.2 Contractions

Al-Khatib (2008) differentiates contractions from shortening in the sense that the former refers to the process whereby a writer forms a short new word from a long one. Table 4 reveals a noteworthy pattern of contractions in the Twitter language used by Jordanians. The examples provided show instances where users employ non-standard orthographic forms, utilizing contractions such as 'gotta' for 'got to', 'wlc' for 'welcome', 'mins' for 'minutes', and the contraction of the adverb 'unfortunately' to 'unfrtntly'. This strategy highlights the deliberate use of contractions, despite their non-standard form, that underscores the adaptive and dynamic language use in online communication, where conciseness is prioritized for efficient expression and engagement.

Table 4. Contractions.

No.	Contractions	Actual spelling
1.	my favs are كبة I also like any kind *mansaf* منسف	favorites
2.	gotta love it	got to
3.	wlc bas ma 7aketi	welcome
4.	I need friends who love *mansaf* and would wanna go eat it with me.	want to
5.	they will love you 5 mins and go to eat	minutes
6.	im kidding vegans I rly respect ur opining	really
7.	Im with u on *mansaf* karaki hwvr unfrtntly cancelled	unfortunately

4.3.3 Clipping

Crystal (2008) defined clipping as the process of dropping a letter from the end of the original word. Having close attention to the data, it was observed that Twitter users are using this way of truncating the last letter of a word. Specifically, the data revealed that clipping is a remarkable technique used by the writers. This practice is illustrated in Table 5.

Table 5. Clipping.

No.	Clipping	Actual spelling
1.	my doc told me stop eatin meat.	eating
2.	thank you for givin me…	giving
3.	what iam sayin	saying
4.	Nashama are comin	coming

The data in Table 5 show that clipping is a prominent feature of the data. The users tend to omit the last letter of the word as shown in the above examples i.e., 'eatin' for 'eating', 'givin' for 'giving', and 'comin' for 'coming'. This practice of clipping reflects the adaptability of language in computer-mediated communication, where users prioritize concise expression, leading to the emergence of distinctive linguistic features like clipping for efficient and effective communication.

4.3.4 Acronym

It was a noticeable feature of Twitter data that acronyms are frequently used by writers in an attempt to save time and effort. The acronym can be best defined as a pronounceable word formed from the initial letters of words in a set phrase or series of words. The pressure to express one's ideas within a limited length constraint makes Twitter users adopt and opt for a variety of shortening techniques such as acronyms.

Table 6. Acronym.

No.	Acronym	Expression
1.	Lol yeah I love *mansaf*	*laughing out loud*
2.	taste so good *omg*	Oh my God
3.	OMW to Amman to support Alnashama	On my way
4.	BTW, u are also invited.	By the way

Table 6 indicates a trend of linguistic economy on Twitter. It highlights the prevalent use of acronyms in Jordanian Twitter language, where users employ abbreviated expressions for brevity and efficiency. Notable examples include 'lol' for 'laughing out loud', 'omg' for 'Oh my God', 'OMW' for 'On my way', and 'BTW' for 'by the way'. These acronyms serve as shorthand forms that users employ to convey common expressions quickly and concisely.

4.4 Slangs

The linguistic features of tweets in terms of slang are discussed under four main headings: (1) repetition, (2) onomatopoeia, (3) cacography, and (4) capitalization.

4.4.1 Repetition

Repetition is "a term which is used to indicate sounds and concepts that are repeated in one form or the other to provide reinforcement and emotional emphasis" (Nadarajan, 2006, p. 40). A careful examination of data shows that repetition can be found in the last or middle sounds of words. Repetition appears to be a prominent feature in this study; it showed that Twitter users make use of this process when they tend to greet or exchange formal courtesies with each other. Examples in Table 7 illustrate this point. The first example shows how the letter 'o' in the word 'so' was multiplied by the users as if they wanted to emphasize something. The data also shows that letter repetition is usually applied to vowel sounds as can be seen in the second example whereby the 'a' letter in 'eat' is multiplied.

Table 7. Repetition.

No.	Acronym	Actual spelling
1.	Soooooooooo delicious…..join us tmwwwwwwwwwwww	So tomorrow
2.	lets eaaaaaaat togeeeeeeeether and feeeeeeeel alright .. I love youuuuuuuuuuuuuuuu	eat, together, you
3.	no wayyyyyyy! Raheeeeeb !nothing like *mansaf* Karaki	Way Raheeb (fabulous)
4.	Ccheeeeeeeeeeer go go nashasma	Cheer, go
5.	wlc wlc alnashama	Welcome

4.4.2 Onomatopoeia

Bredin (1996) defined onomatopoeia as the use of words that can imitate the sounds associated with the actions or subjects they refer to. Data analysis showed that the writers inject and color their tweets with some onomatopoeic words to express different feelings or indicate an amiable act. Specifically, such onomatopoeic words were used by the writers either to indicate a funny sarcastic situation, to refer to a real situation that evokes laughter, or to create real laughter and amusement. The examples in Table 8 illustrate this phenomenon. Here, it is obvious that the Twitter users make use of onomatopoeia “hahahahahaha” to express laughter as they use the sounds that suggest the meaning, “hu hu hu ” to express disappointment, and “yum yum” to express enjoyment or convey good taste in food.

Table 8. Onomatopoeia.

No.	Onomatopoeia	Example
1.	Ha ha ha finally we won.	Ha ha ha
2.	hahahahahaha mansaf is running thru our veins	hahahahahaha
3.	hu hu hu we lose 0-6.	hu hu hu
4.	yum yum delicious *mansaf*	yum yum

4.4.3 Cacography

Jordanians are well known for their sense of humor. So, it was unsurprising to find some aspects of humor in their tweets. As far as slang language is concerned, common usage of cacography in our data was found. Cacography is a type of humor; it is also a satiric misspelling which refers to a distorted, comic, and deliberate spelling. Such misspelling bears a humous resemblance, indirectly, to a related word or idea that can be easily retrieved and captured by the addressee (Watkins, 1999).

Table 9. Cacography.

No.	Cacography	Actual spelling
1.	alticket bs b nyeerah	Lerah (dinner)
2.	friday the day of sansaf	Mansaf
3.	alywm 9aba5na shaglouba	Magloubeh (Jordanian dish)
4.	A5rran 5ab6	5a6b (get engaged)
5.	jeeb ma3k birinda	Mirinda (drink)

In the first example, the users respelled the old name for Jordan currency *lierah* to *nyeeh* whereby the sound /l/ is replaced by the sound /n/. Such a respelling process refers to colloquial pronunciation usually used by old people. Besides, in the last example, the users mock an inaccurate way of pronouncing the word *Mirinda* as some illiterate people pronounce it *biranda* as the sound /m/ is replaced by the sound /b/. Referring to this phenomenon, one of the respondents said:

(4) We use such words to generate laughter and fun.

Another respondent said that:

(5) Playing and disordering the sounds of words and creating the ‘new words’ is not an easy process…only a person of great wit and imagination can do this; then these words become popular among others and start using them.

The respelling of words in colloquial pronunciation serves the purpose of generating laughter and amusement among users. Intentional play with sounds is not only a source of fun but also requires wit and imagination, according to respondents, as these creatively altered words gain popularity within the community.

4.4.4 Capitalization

About 80% of all tweets had no capitalization at all; 10% had only the first letter capitalized, while another 10% had specific words or whole sentences capitalized. It is realized that the users prefer to use lowercase to avoid the extra key push required to introduce capitalization. Crystal (2002, p. 87) states "the lower-case default mentality means that any use of capitalization is a strongly marked form of communication. Messages wholly in capitals are considered to be 'shouting', and are usually avoided; words in capitals add extra emphasis". He added that irony in an utterance like "Really? Who did SUCH THINGS" can be achieved through capitalizing the two words. Some of the interviews in this study clarified that capitalization can be conducive to effective communication among Twitter users only in some cases. A male respondent, for example, has clarified that:

(6) Shouting or emphasis, can be attained expressed in this form of communication only by using capitalization.

On the whole, it is noted that there is a clear tendency to use lower-case to save time and effort. Table 10 shows some examples. Here, Twitter users tended to use capitalization as a 'marked' form of e-communication efficiency. More precisely, the phrase "SUCH A WAY", in the third example, is capitalized by users to express the feeling of someone shocked at how something was done.

Table 10. Capitalization.

No.	Capitalization	Example
1.	we call it *MANSAF* KARAKI	*MANSAF* KARAKI
2.	ALNASHAMA please do it.	ALNASHAMA
3.	nnbelievable! Who cook it in SUCH A WAY	SUCH WAY
4.	YESS YES YES my sister makes vegan *mansaf*	YESS YES YES
5.	*mansaf* is so heavy its GOOD I LOVE IT	GOOD I LOVE IT

5. DISCUSSION

The current paper set out to examine the types of linguistic variations that Jordanians opt for while using Twitter. From the data analysis, it is observed that the form of language used is different from the written or even the spoken form of language, yet it includes some features of both (Baron, 2002). It is assumed that e-writing is considered as a new genre of writing that emerged and became popular among the e-generation to facilitate the process of writing as well as to serve some social functions (Atoum & Nouman, 2019; Nahar et al., 2020; Samara, 2020). On the whole, Jordanian Twitter users tend to employ many strategies and linguistic choices in this new genre of language. Having a thorough look at the data analysis, it is noticed that all of the linguistic choices employed by users can come under the umbrella term of 'slang'. This is also clearly manifested in the adopted framework of this study.

It is further noticed that tweets are dominated by using Jordanian Romanized Arabic, which represents an informal form of language, and such informality is also represented by the frequently used expressions of compliment and some religious expressions. That is to say, Twitter users seek to use some religious expressions such as *Alhamdulillah* 'praise be to Allah (God), *inshallah* 'Allah (God) willing, and *allah y7mehk* 'may Allah protect you'. Arabic numerals are also used to stand for Arabic sounds. For example, the number '5' stands for a semi-voiced uvular fricative (خ), '6' for a voiceless velarized denti-alveolar plosive (ط), and '8' for a voiceless uvular plosive (ق). The same idea was highlighted by some researchers (i.e., Al-Khatib & Sabbah, 2008; Al-Tamimi, & Gorgis, 2007; Dawaghreh, 2016) who indicated that the rationale behind using such numbers by users is that these numbers partly resemble the letters in shape. That is, the numbers are akin to sounds in terms of either pictorial or pronunciation similarity.

Another observation is that Twitter users heavily opted to employ code-switching strategies in certain situations to help them best smoothly express themselves (Vilares, 2016). As stated earlier, users tend to vary in using this strategy in the sense that the code-switching can be either between Romanized Arabic and English or between Arabic and English. It is also noted that users prefer to use Arabic or JRA for formulaic expressions such as greetings. On the other hand, English can be used for the topic itself, as it is shown in Table 2.

In addition to what has been mentioned about the characteristics of this form of writing, the principle of linguistic economy remains the most prominent feature for Twitter users. Tweets are inherently brief and constrained by a strict 160-character limit. Consequently, Twitter language is widely perceived to be concise and compact (Hu et al., 2013). To achieve that, some linguistic strategies have been devised by Jordanian Twitter users: shortening, contraction, clipping, and acronyms; done by omitting initial letters or the middle of words or sometimes dropping the final letters. These remarks sit well with those of Crystal (2011) who claimed linguistic characteristics evolved partly as a reaction to technological limitations, in this case, the limitation to 160 characters (for Roman alphabets). This pressure to express a piece of information within the length constraint motivates the users to adopt a variety of shortening techniques such as the use of abbreviations, contractions, logograms (e.g., '&' for 'and'), and other abbreviations conventions.

To address the lack of gestures and facial expressions that can be found in face-to-face communication, Twitter users try to use some means to show emotions. It is noted that using onomatopoetic words is one of the strategies used to overcome this issue. Using onomatopoeia on Twitter makes the language more expressive, creative, and richer. This is in line with Monderin and Go (2021) who affirmed that the use of onomatopoeia helps its users make the communication alive by imitating sounds and using words to add expressions to the conversation.

About cacography, the process of its respelling is done illogically yet creatively. This technique is employed by the writers for the sake of achieving rhetorical purposes or special effects. It can be used as in the two examples in Table 9 (see examples in 1 and 5) to subtly mimic very colloquial spoken words used by some people. Others are used only to create an atmosphere of fun, as in (see examples in 2 and 4). Accordingly, Izazi and Tengku-Sepora (2020) indicated that cacography is generated in a way where the users respelled certain words to imitate the real pronunciation and simultaneously colloquialize it into their style of pronunciation. They also add that cacography is used to shed light upon playfulness by adding a cynical or humorous hint through its spelling.

Further examination of data also shows that the users tend to use two strategies, repetition, and capitalization, to express thoughts, with an emphasis on a particular feeling. Specifically, these two techniques were employed to show attitudinal meanings. Experts further noted that attitudinal meanings were designed, for example, to promote positive self-presentation and build rapport and trust (Yao & Ngai, 2022). These were found in the data of this study. Repetition was employed in a way to show an attitudinal effect especially when Twitter users pay compliments or greet each other. Accordingly, in most examples, repetition is functional as it is used to deliver a particular message of appreciation, positive feelings, and love. Meanwhile, capitalization was used by the users to employ some functions such as shouting, emphasis, and sarcasm.

Furthermore, the deliberate use of capitalization is to create a special effect (Crystal, 2011). Crystal (2011) adds that messages entirely in capitals are considered to be 'shouting'. Then, it is worth noting that onomatopoeic words in the current study can be identified in terms of two functions: laughter and crying. Laughter and its degrees were shown in terms of various ways: for standard laughter 'haha' is used, 2) 'hihi' is written for a giggle, 3) 'hehe' is used to show a smug /shy laugh, and 4) 'hoho' is used to show the "Santa" laugh. Nevertheless, the only standard way of showing sadness or crying in the text is 'huhu'.

6. CONCLUSION

Digital communication has placed new demands on language that result in interesting variations in the use of written language. Consequently, Internet language has emerged as a unique form of language that has its own peculiarities that distinguish it from other types of written communication. This study set out to examine this form of language used on Twitter by Jordanians relying on the principle of linguistic economy. The findings of this study have revealed a unique blend of formal and informal language elements by Jordanian Twitter users. The prevalence of Jordanian Romanized Arabic and strategic code-switching demonstrated users' adaptability in navigating Twitter's language. The study highlighted the dominant role of linguistic economy within the 160-character limit, with users employing strategies such as shortening, contractions, clipping, and acronyms. Expressive techniques like repetition, onomatopoeia, cacography, and capitalization were identified as creative ways to convey emotions and attitudinal meanings. Overall, this research contributes valuable insights into the developing language dynamics on social media, offering insight into the intricate ways users shape communication in the digital age.

Nevertheless, the technological constraints promoted Twitter users to write in a particular way. That is to say, the pressure to communicate a considerable amount of information within the length constraint motivates the users to adopt a variety of shortening techniques. The scope of the current study is limited because it handled the slang variations as used by Jordanians without addressing the effect of any sociolinguistic factors (gender, age, education, etc.). Accordingly, future sociolinguistic studies with an emphasis on the effect and the role played by sociolinguistic factors are recommended to be conducted on the form of language used on Twitter.

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Linguistic Landscapes in Multilingual Urban Settings: Insights from Translation Perspectives

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Abstract

A multilingual urban area is a translation space that allows the exchange of ideas across languages and cultures. Yet, little research has examined how translation plays a role in shaping linguistic landscapes that depict coexisting languages in public spaces. This paper aims to examine the linguistic landscape of public signage from the viewpoint of translation. A total of 123 bilingual signage was collected from the linguistic landscape of Gorontalo City, an emerging tourism industry with an interesting multilingual setting in Eastern Indonesia. The data were analyzed using the translation category of multilingual writing developed by Reh (2004) and Edelman (2010) to provide an understanding of the translational practice evident in the signage. The analysis also looked at the direction of the translated signage, including official and non-official translation based on the linguistic landscape orientation (top-down and bottom-up), as well as translation to demonstrate collective identity. Translation practices, categorized into word-for-word (67 items), free (8 items), partial (11 items), and non-translation (37 items), demonstrate a growing trend toward linguistic diversity. The top-down approach is evident in official translations (50 items) by government entities, while non-official translations (73 items) dominate commercial spaces. Arabic, displayed alongside Indonesian and English, symbolizes religious identity in public signage. Overall, Gorontalo's linguistic landscape reflects a shift to bilingualism, particularly with widespread English translations. Its linguistic landscape showcases a dynamic interplay of language, translation, and cultural identity in an evolving urban environment.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Landry and Bourhis (1997) introduced Linguistic Landscapes (LL) as a study that examines the language used in public signage, advertising billboards, names of streets and places, and commercial shop signage on government and public buildings to form a given linguistic landscape territory. Ever since the term linguistics landscape (LL) has become the basis of scholars in defining and understanding the notion of the linguistic landscape.

Recently, linguistic landscape research has produced many vivid descriptions of the multilingual nature of 'contemporary cityscapes' (Shohamy & Gorter, 2008). The concept of linguistics landscape has usually been shown in pictures/photography, naming, symbolism, or signage as used, for example, on-street signage, restaurants, shops, banks, post offices, graffiti, and anything else 'printed' as part of a city's signage (Landry & Bourhis, 1997).

Furthermore, a significant number of studies have been conducted in many parts of the world since the LL notion was introduced in 1997. Some studies have looked at many different points of view, including multilingualism (Dégi, 2012; Muth & Wolf, 2009), language diversity (Dixson, 2015), language policy (Takhtarova, 2015; Wang, 2015), ethnography (Blommaert & Maly, 2016), and ethnolinguistic (Botterman, 2011). Most of these studies have, however, primarily focused on the features of the linguistic landscape regarding visibility and readership (top-down and bottom-up). The linguistic landscape is, in fact, a multilingual phenomenon that can also be studied from another viewpoint, such as translation. This is because the linguistic landscape offers a multilingual dimension where different languages are displayed, and that translation can be utilized to understand the nature of language coexistence in the public space.

Cronin (2006) argued that the multilingual and multi-ethnic space that we currently see in urban settings is, first and foremost, a translation space. This is because these spaces allow for the exchange of ideas between people of different languages and cultures. However, limited studies have examined how translation plays a role in the linguistics landscape, which displays the coexistence of languages side by side, for example, seen in public signage.

1.1 Research Question

Although relevant studies have examined the linguistic landscape from the translation perspective (Algryani, 2021; Aristova, 2016; Edelman, 2010; Reh, 2004; Snell-Hornby, 2004; Vinay & Darbelnet, 1995), most primarily focused on looking at the nature of problems and strategies of translation in multilingual signage. However, there are still many deficiencies in related research, such as repetition of research content, limited scope of investigation, and lack of clear distinction between the features and the translation principle of the public signs (Amenador & Wang, 2022). Hence, the present study sought to shed light on the existing body of scholarly work on the linguistic landscape by understanding it from the translation viewpoint, especially the extent to which translation plays a role in shaping multilingual public signage by taking a case from the Indonesian context. This provides insights into the translational process employed for translating public signage and how these translations in multilingual public signage could be approached from the linguistic landscape orientation. The location of this research to study the landscapes of public signage is in the urban setting of Gorontalo City, one of the fast-growing cities on the island of Sulawesi in Eastern Indonesia. The study focused on examining multilingual or translated signage. The research question is formulated as:

- To what extent the translational process is utilized in the linguistic landscape of the urban public spaces?

Unlike many other linguistic landscape studies that usually looked into the number of languages visible in public space, this study aimed to analyze translational practices. To do this, the data were examined based on translation categorization by Edelman (2010) and its direction based on the linguistic landscape orientation. This study was expected to provide a new horizon for other researchers interested in examining the coexistence of different languages in linguistic landscape study from the perspective of the translational process.

1.2 Context of the Study

As a relatively new province in Eastern Indonesia, Gorontalo is actively participating in the development of its very own tourism sector. The capital of the province is Gorontalo City. It is situated between the Celebes Sea in the north and Tomini Gulf in the south, which offers beautiful beaches and snorkeling spots popular among domestic and foreign visitors. There are more than one million inhabitants in this province, and apart from speaking its local language, the Gorontalo language, the locals also speak Indonesian as the national language as well as English. As an international language, English has become the primary foreign language spoken in this area which has resulted from the exposure of the language being taught at schools and universities as well as in mass media.

Since the province's inception in 2001, some efforts have been made to investigate and develop its tourism sources by enhancing and constructing tourist attractions that include natural, historical, cultural, and religious landmarks. This is aimed at attracting and persuading tourists to visit the region. More facilities and infrastructure have been created in recent years to assist this newly emerging business. Many signages for tourists have been set up and are visible in public areas. The public signage is written in many languages in which English is dominantly visible. As mentioned earlier, English holds a unique and important place. This is also the case with the use of English in the public signage in Gorontalo. It serves as a display and is used more functionally as a lingua franca for individuals who may not be able to converse in the native language.

Gorontalo was selected because as one of the major provinces on the island of Sulawesi, it has seen a significant development in the tourism industry, leading to the emergence of multilingual public signage displays. The city has also become a transit hub for tourists traveling to the neighboring provinces, such as Central and North Sulawesi. Those tourists usually stay for several days in Gorontalo to explore tourist attractions before continuing their trip to other locations. Many public spaces and facilities are available in Gorontalo City, such as parks, museums, malls, shops, mosques, police stations, etc. Therefore, it is common that the presentation of signage in public spaces is seen in almost every corner of the city, including inside the private and government buildings. This phenomenon provokes an interesting question on the extent to which translation might play a role in shaping multilingual public signage in such an urban setting.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Definition of Linguistic Landscape

The term linguistic landscape (LL) refers to the visibility and prominence of languages on public and commercial signage in a certain territory or region. This definition is intended to be broad and inclusive (Landry & Bourhis, 1997). Other researchers have also studied the concept of LL, which can be defined as a collection of visual manifestations of languages utilized in bilingual or multilingual cultures (Shohamy & Gorter, 2008).

Different categories have been used to classify signage in the linguistic landscape: 'private' and 'public' (Landry & Bourhis, 1997), 'unofficial' and 'official' (Backhaus, 2006), 'top-down' and 'bottom-up' (Ben-Rafael, 2009), and 'public' and 'private' (Shohamy & Gorter, 2008). These terms refer to a similar definition, which is signage created by government entities and by any private or group of communities, such as shop owners or private businesses, respectively.

From the definition above, it can be elucidated that the linguistic landscape is a system of written signage utilized in the public sphere of an urban setting. The linguistic landscape not only provides a prompt response to the where and what languages you should be able to communicate in, but it also includes information that goes beyond this. It offers a new point of view on the coexistence and rivalry of many languages, as well as how they interact and interfere with one another in a particular location (Backhaus, 2006).

In addition, LL performs two primary functions: symbolic and informative functions. Kasanga (2012) affirmed that the languages utilized in public signage either give evidence of what languages are becoming locally relevant or indicate what languages are already relevant in the local area. This means that one indicator of a language's significance, power, and relevance in society is the density or degree of presence demonstrated by that language within a linguistic landscape. Similarly, Shohamy and Gorter (2008) articulated that LL paints a clear and accurate picture of multilingualism in the minds of the local people. As a symbolic instrument, it also has the potential to act as an indication of current trends that are taking place within particular social groups, communities, geographical regions, or even countries in general.

2.2 Linguistic Landscape and Translation

The study of linguistic landscapes has yielded a plethora of vivid depictions of the multilingual aspect of the contemporary cityscape (Shohamy & Gorter, 2008). Research on linguistic landscapes often concentrates on looking for indications of multilingualism that can be related to translation. This section explores the notion of linguistic landscape and its relationship with translation.

The arrangement of languages in a linguistic landscape provides evidence of their significance at the regional level and the status of particular languages within a given nation or region. To put it another way, the occurrence frequency of a particular language in an LL setting reflects the language's status, prestige, power, and significance in society (Kasanga, 2012). An example of this is evident from the significant visibility of English used side by side with other languages used in the urban setting.

Cronin (2006) asserted that the multilingual and multi-ethnic space that can be found in urban settings is primarily a space for translation. This is due to a growing number of people speaking more than one language. The translation is desirable and required in migratory communities since, as many have argued, the city is a site where different languages come into contact with one another. As a result, the city itself is a location for translation to take place, and the example can be seen from public signage in the urban area. According to Backhaus (2006), the most visible indication that the city is a linguistic crossroads is the public signage that can be found around the city.

In addition, LL includes information that goes well beyond where and what languages one is supposed to be able to communicate in. It throws a new insight into how different languages exist in a particular area. This is where translation in the public area becomes multilingual sites These locations are characterized by their multiple voices, languages, and frequently contentious status as physical places (Simon, 2019). The limited studies of LL from a translation viewpoint may be due to the lack of theoretical approaches to perceiving the linguistic landscape as a translational process. A multilingual writing theoretical approach such as duplicating, fragmenting, overlapping, and complementing outlined by Reh (2004) has been applied mainly by scholars interested in translation-related processes. Reh (2004) proposed a categorization that can be applied to studying public signage for a multilingual understanding of writing in public signage. Duplicating occurs when the same information is given in both languages; fragmentary occurs when only parts of the information are translated into another language; and overlapping occurs when the two languages' versions offer some of the same information but also convey additional content. The last of Reh's (2004) categories is not a translation; instead, it refers to code-switching or mixed languages where full comprehension requires fluency in both (or all) languages used, but no translations have been provided.

Although Reh's (2004) classifications are generally helpful, they only apply to translated content. Looking into the history of the translations is essential for comprehending the significance of the translated signage. Edelman (2010) made an effort by adding a subcategorization focusing on translation to Reh's (2004) original categories. Her concept further categorized duplication into 'word-for-word translation' and 'free translation', renames fragmentary writing as 'partial translation', and calls attention to the absence of a translation component in complementary multilingual writing with the category 'no translation'.

2.3 Studies on Translation of Linguistic Landscapes

Although the study of the linguistic landscape (LL) has been quite numerous, most of the focus is examined from a significant number of different perspectives. A few studies have looked at LL from the point of view of translation that examines the strategies and quality of the signage translations. Inghilleri (2016) asserted that public signage has a dual function as social and communicative cues, representing more than just the groups they directly address. Some people find it refreshing that public spaces have languages in translation, and they read this signage differently depending on their perspectives and the context. This section presents relevant studies examining public signage from the translation perspective.

Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) investigated the French-English parallel text of road signage in Canada and the readers' reactions to inadequate translations. They expressed dissatisfaction with the translation discrepancies in the English versions of the French road signage. In a quite similar study, Snell-Hornby (2004) looked at the translations of public signage that were originally written in German and gathered from areas where English and German are both spoken as native languages. Her investigation concluded that context is an essential component to take into account when translating public signage. This is because of the significant contrasts between various cultures which leads one to believe that translating public signage is an activity that crosses cultural boundaries.

Moreover, Reh (2004) and Edelman (2010) investigated translation-related phenomena in a multilingual linguistic landscape and have presented a taxonomy of multilingual writing of public signage. According to Koskinen (2012), even though Reh's (2004) strategy classifications are helpful, it is also important to take into account the functions, features, and problems of a public signage text. These functions, features, and problems can be understood by looking at the indicated parts in translation. In this case, Edelman (2010) added to Reh's (2004) classification by splitting the duplication translation strategy into 'free translation' and 'word-for-word translation', calling fragmentary writing 'partial translation', and adding the category 'no translation' and putting it under 'complementary' and 'fragmentary' multilingual writing category.

Furthermore, Aristova (2016) researched the state of English translations in the linguistic landscape of the Russian city of Kazan. The findings unveiled that the translational content of public signage included mistranslations, blended terms that combine Russian, English, and Tatar, and transliterations of Russian words. For example, the word order of some translated road signage was backward, and some translations of road signage had incorrect morphological case markings on names. In addition, the city's linguistic landscape featured a number of misspelled English words and phrases.

Another most recent study of translation in the linguistic landscape was conducted by Algryani (2021). He focused on the translation techniques utilized in translating texts from Arabic into English in Oman for non-official public signage and evaluated the quality of the produced translations. The analysis examined a set of corpora consisting of one hundred photographs of public signage representing bilingual (translational) content based on two criteria. Specifically, the translation procedures used when public signage was translated, as well as whether or not the translations of public signage were acceptable for the people reading them. The research concluded that the informative content of public signage was communicated via various translation strategies, such as transference, word-for-word translation, generalization, and omission.

In conclusion, the examination of LL from a translation perspective adds a valuable dimension to our understanding of public signage. These studies contribute significantly to the broader understanding of how translation shapes and influences linguistic landscapes in diverse cultural and linguistic contexts.

3. METHODS

This study aimed to investigate the linguistic landscape of multilingual public signage in Gorontalo, Indonesia. The signage being studied included street signs, planks, and printed and handwritten information outside and inside buildings. The investigation was to examine the translational repercussions of the growing multilingualism in this particular urban area. To put it another way, the purpose of this study was to investigate the translational practice evident in multilingual public signage in Gorontalo, Indonesia. The investigation of the linguistic landscape from the translation point of view has garnered less interest (Koskinen, 2012). Therefore, it is expected that this study would provide a pathway for researchers interested in examining the coexistence of more than one language in various LLs from the translation viewpoint with some useful insights from the present study's findings.

The data were collected in Gorontalo City and its surrounding area between July and August 2022. Fieldwork was conducted in four subsequent visits: twice in July and another two in August. These visits aimed to enlist the public signage and observe the potentially differing language practices. The data collection location was projected to the area where public signage is easily accessible and visible, including shopping centers, parks, museums, beach resorts airports, and academic institutions. During the data collection process, the researcher adopted the role of a visitor, strolling around with a camera and a notebook, documenting the coexistence of languages on public signage. The signage displaying more than one language was collected in this manner, either inside the same signage frame or in two or more adjacent signages in different languages. Multilingual signage and photos were captured using a smartphone camera. The ease of a smartphone camera especially at present days, helps with taking unlimited pictures without spending much money (Gorter, 2006). There were 123 multilingual signage collected, including street signage, building names, notices, commercial advertisements, billboards, and graffiti. Several selected signages were used for the analysis.

The analysis focused on translation-related practices by applying the translation categorization proposed by Edelman (2010) combined with Reh's (2004) multilingual writing classification. The data were also classified by examining the translation based on the linguistic landscape directionality (top down and bottom up) to look at the ownership and readership of the multilingual signage. In addition, the analysis sought to identify how public signage is constructed to demonstrate a collective identity through the representation of translation.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The findings of public signage in Gorontalo were surprisingly significant, which indicates that Gorontalo is becoming a multilingual urban place where the language displayed in the public area is not only limited to the national language, the Indonesian language. Also, it is worth noting that the number of monolingual signage is enormous and mainly available in Indonesian and Gorontalo languages. However, since this study focused on multilingual signage, monolingual signage was excluded. This section presents the discussion of the data by presenting selected multilingual signage as examples.

In translation research, it is essential to identify the source text (ST) and target text (TT) in examining translation practice as a strategy. However, in this data, it was challenging to determine the ST and TT because most of the signage was displayed in an irregular order. For example, one signage had an Indonesian text at the top and English at the bottom. Another signage was displayed with English on top and Indonesian at the bottom even though the signage was created by the residents. For this study, the ST and TT were assumed from the text written in the top, left, or written in bigger letters. To understand the bigger picture of the translation category, the data were first coded according to the translation categories and the signage directions (ownership and readership), as presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Translation categories and directions of the public signage.

Translation	**Top-down**	**Bottom-up**	**Items**
Word-For-Word Translation	35	32	67
Free Translation	2	6	8
Partial Translation	6	5	11
Non-Translation	7	30	37

The data were categorized and analyzed based on the translation category outlined by Edelman (2010), which includes word-for-word translation, free translation, partial translation, and non-translation. Reh's (2004) category mainly focuses on the writing category and has been included in Edelman's translation classification. Word-for-word and free translation were classified in the translation category, whilst, partial translation and non-translation were grouped under the non-translation category of the public signage. Table 1 presents a significant difference between the translated public signage (75 items; with word-for-word translation at 67 items, and free translation at 8 items) and the non-translation ones (48 items; with partial translation at 11 items, and non-translation at 37 items). This indicates that the translation practice of public signage in Indonesia is becoming more common. This is in line with the case of the findings by Koskinen (2012) in the Finland context. On the other hand, compared to those by Reh (2004) in Uganda and Edelman (2010) in the Netherlands, the number of non-translation or mixing languages in their linguistic landscape studies was more dominant than the translated signage.

4.1 Translation of Signage in the Linguistic Landscape of Gorontalo

Although some translations were available in other languages, the vast majority of public signage was translated into English. This is also a fact that can be construed in two different ways. On the one hand, the English language is given special consideration in Indonesia due to its status as the most widely spoken language in the world (Lauder, 2008, 2020). Starting from elementary school to university, all Indonesian students are required to study the language. A functional level of fluency in the language is typically required for employment in the country. As a consequence of this privileged status, English is the only foreign language that the vast majority of Indonesians are fluent in or at least understand at a basic level. In addition, since

English is the lingua franca of the globe, it is used by the Indonesian people to communicate with individuals from other countries and presume that those people will have at least a fundamental understanding of the language.

In regards to the use of English on signage, it could be interpreted as informational, with primary audiences being travelers from other countries. However, its rising presence has a symbolic significance for local people who do not speak English. The use of English can stimulate a variety of ideals, including an orientation toward the world at large, the future, success, sophistication, or fun (Gorter & Cenoz, 2008).

Applying Edelman's (2010) translation category, most multilingual signage in the study fell within the translated public signage category, mainly word-for-word or literal translation and free translation (with a total of 75 items). Word-for-word and free translation, which Reh (2004) referred to as duplicating, is carried out when the information in the accompanying language is a repetition of the information in the source text. In multilingual signage, individual passages of text written in a variety of languages can be assembled in several different ways. This is in line with Backhaus (2006), who coined the phrase 'mutual translations' to refer to instances in which two separate pieces of text comprise a translation of one another. In the case of literal translation, it is most evident in one word or phrase translation, for example, *keluar* (exit) or *dilarang merokok* (no smoking), and other translations at the sentence level. These signages were found in private and government buildings, such as airports, shopping malls, and museums (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. Duplicating signage.

Translation enables individuals to access written communication in languages that they are not fluent in as well as languages that are written in a language that they completely comprehend. The use of this kind of translated signage is aimed at helping those who do not share the linguistic and cultural knowledge of Indonesia. This is a common practice, especially in interlingual translation, which functions as a 'bridge' to help mediate meaning to those who do not speak the language of a particular place they are visiting.

Furthermore, it is unpredicted that non-translation is relatively high in number (37 items). Non-translation, or what Reh (2004) categorized as complimentary multilingual writing, is the kind of text in which certain elements of the overall material are rendered in one or several languages. Understanding the entire communication requires knowledge of all of the languages involved in such signage. An example of this type of multilingual writing is shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2. Non-translation signage.

The signage in Figure 2 is written in Indonesian and English and was not a translation of each other. The word 'Welcome' was written in big font size, followed by *Kedai Ihsan* 'Ihsan's Stall', the place's name. At first, it might be difficult to understand what this signage referred to or what kind of service it offered to the public. The 'Happy Eat' below the Indonesian text implies that the place was a restaurant or food stall that served food and drink. To understand this kind of public signage, one needs bilingual competence. In other words, this type of public signage necessitates a bilingual readership.

Figure 3. Non-translation (beach resort - proper name).

In addition, the non-translation category was predominantly found in building names or commercial signage that usually showcases the name of the name of a place, store, building, or site (proper names) followed by some other information below the proper names (see Figure 3). The phrase 'CENTURY BEACH RESORT' technically consisted of English words given as the site's name. The sentence above the proper greeting, *SELAMAT DATANG. ANDA MEMASUKI KAWASAN WISATA PANTAI 'Welcome. You are in the beach tourist area'* delivered different meanings in Indonesian. This was followed with a list of additional information listing what services were offered by mixing it with the English words 'birthday', 'wedding', and 'meeting' (see Figure 3). The English words were employed because the local people were assumed to be familiar with the terms. Reh (2004) and Edelman (2010) claimed this kind of signage as mixing language in their findings. It is normal practice to see the name of a product as the component that is most usually printed in a foreign language when multilingual advertising is utilized, which is called 'impersonal multilingualism' (Haarmann, 1986). Therefore, to associate certain products or services with the appropriate social groupings, advertisers employ certain languages in advertisements or store signage.

Furthermore, a partial translation was the least data found (11 items). Reh (2004) named partial translation as 'fragmentary multilingual writing'. The term is used when the whole information is supplied in one language, but selected parts of the text have been translated into another language or other languages. An example of this type is represented in Figure 4. The heading of the signage, *HANI* in capital letters, stands for *Hari Anti Narkoba Internasional* 'International Anti-Drug Use Day', a day that is used as an anti-drug campaign every year. The following information was also written in Indonesian but supplied with an English translation, *Berperang Melawan Narkoba* 'War on Drugs'. The English translation was used only in this message as it seemed that the sentence was the focus of the information. The additional text below the English translation was displayed in Indonesian, containing a solicitation to stay away from drugs during COVID-19. It appears that only an important message was translated, which was considered essential for the locals and other relevant target audiences. Therefore, it is safe to argue that partial translation seems to be necessarily used to emphasize the significance of the message.

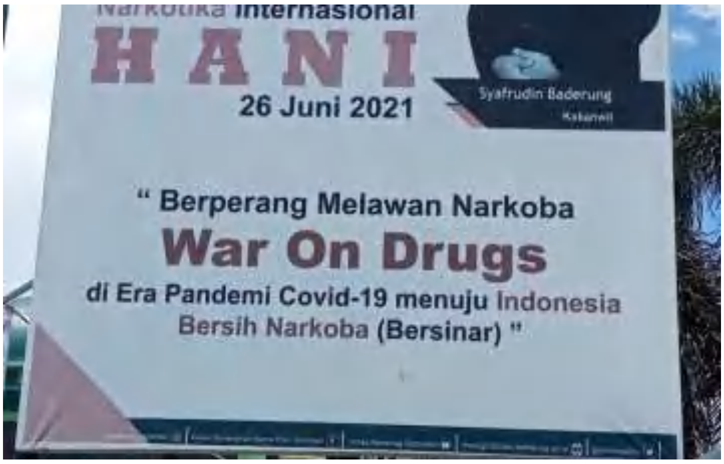

Figure 4. Partial translation signage.

4.2 Translation Direction

Studies in the linguistic landscape often look at the direction of the signage as a way to identify the ownership and orientation of the signage (top-down and bottom-up). Unlike Koskinen's (2012) findings, the orientation of the translated signage gathered from this study is identifiable, as shown in Table 1. This section not only underscores the importance of understanding ownership but also digs into the dimensions of orientation in translated signage. It discerns between government-initiated translations (official translation) and those carried out by private entities (translation by commercial service providers). This enriches our comprehension of how linguistic transformations unfold within different spheres of influence.

4.2.1 Official translation

The official translation referred to here is the bilingual public signage created and owned by the government. As mentioned earlier, most of the texts found in the linguistic landscape of Gorontalo originated from official sources. These texts may be found on public signage created by state-operated organizations or services. This type of signage falls under the category of top-down signage (Gorter, 2006), namely signage created by official entities for the benefit of the general public (top-down).

There were 50 data identified as top-down translated signage that fell into the categories of word-for-word translation (50 items), free translation (2 items), partial translation (6 items), and non-translation (7 items). This type of translation in public signage generally appears in most of the bilingual signage displayed in public spaces and buildings managed by the government, such as museums, airports, and other government buildings. One indication that the signage has been created by the official entities is from the logo. It has become a common practice in Indonesia that every document and signage published by the government has the office logo or even a picture of the region's leaders. This aims to demonstrate ownership, a sense of authority, or even to show achievement of the government's programs (Napu, 2019; Napu & Ngiu, 2020). In other words, the use of a logo or official emblems is to affirm who is in charge in a particular area.

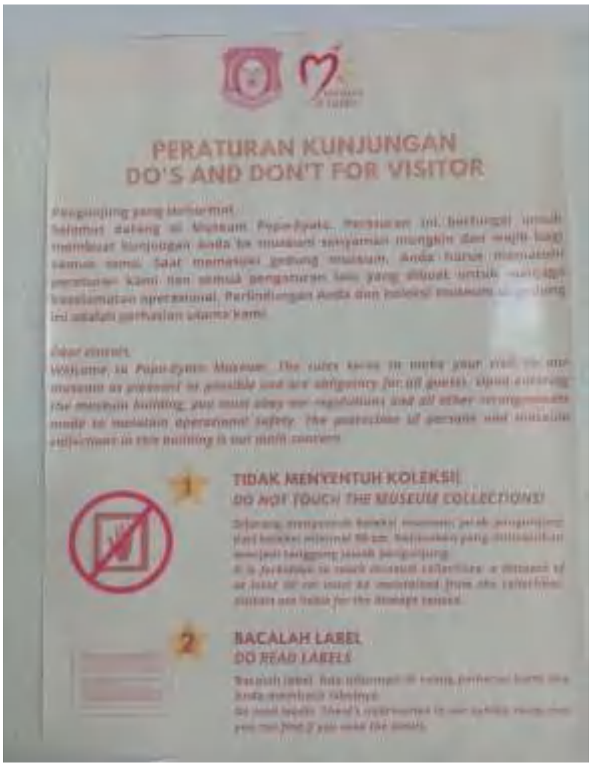

Figure 5. Official translation (top-down).

An example of an official translation, as shown in Figure 5, displays two different logos; one is Gorontalo's logo, and the other one is the museum's logo. These logos indicate that the museum is operated and owned by the state, which is responsible for the banner production along with its translation. The banner contained information in Indonesian that was translated into English with a duplicating (literal translation) strategy. The title *PERATURAN KUNJUNGAN* in the Indonesian phrase literally translates to ‘visiting rules’. However, the English translation had been ‘freely’ translated into ‘DO’S AND DON’TS FOR VISITOR’. The signage was aimed at both local and foreign visitors, delivering a message about the regulations to follow when visiting the museum. The translation was written in Indonesian at the top, and the English translation was at the bottom with the same font size, indicating that this information was important to Indonesian and foreign visitors. The English version had been made explicit to the foreign visitors using the free translation technique by emphasizing what is allowed and not allowed at the museum as a visitor by translating it with free translation.

4.2.2 Non-official translation

In this study, a non-official translation refers to any bilingual public signage owned by or from the general public. This signage is categorized as bottom-up, which includes any other forms of information communicated by private, commercial, or subcultural entities (Backhaus, 2006). This may be commercial translated signage or ad-hoc translation. The texts are visible in public settings, and it is in this category one may witness the most significant amount of innovation in translation. The translations of these texts are usually done by people who are not professional translators (Lees, 2021), such as the owners of the many taverns, restaurants, and cafeterias in the neighborhood. The signage that falls into this category serves the purpose of ‘recruitment’, which refers to the function of attracting new clients by advertising the company and piquing their interest (Blommaert, 2013).

There were 73 items of the non-official translation of public signage found in the current study, which was more significant in number compared to the official translation. The bottom-up public signage was bilingual, written in Indonesian and English. However, the appearance of a language other than English, such as Arabic, was evident in the findings, mostly used to refer to identity (this is discussed later in the next section). The considerable number of non-official translations in the linguistic landscape of Gorontalo indicates that the community in Gorontalo is a bilingual embracing community, especially the use of English. The commercial service providers displayed many bilingual signage, such as in shopping malls and other commercial stores.

The Indonesian text *SEBELUM MEMBELI CEK TANGGAL KADALUARSA* was literally translated into English as ‘before buying check expaire [sic] date’. An example of this translation type is shown in Figure 6, which displays bilingual Indonesian and English information created by a commercial service provider. The signage was written as an instruction to buyers to check the expiry date before purchasing goods. Apart from the misspelling ‘expaire’ that should have been spelled ‘expiry’, the translation structure copied the original sentence structure, which affects the fluency of the English translation in terms of the ‘naturalness’ of the language. This indicates that the translation was done by a non-professional translator. This is common, especially for non-official or ad-hoc translations, as mentioned above.

Figure 6. Non-official translation (bottom-up).

4.2.3 Translation and collective identity

Within a community, the impression of having a shared status or relation and an ethical and emotional connection constitutes a collective identity (Polletta & Jasper, 2001). This identity may be expressed through a shared culture, language, dialects, rituals, and dress. Ben-Rafael (2009) asserted that linguistic landscape can be utilized to strengthen a collective identity, which can signify the identity of a certain group among the general public. The data in this study found a few signages related to the translation to indicate collective identity mainly referring to religious identity. Several bilingual signages written in Indonesian, English, and Arabic can be used as examples of translation referring to collective identity.

Like any other region in Indonesia, Gorontalo has a Muslim majority and the practice of Islam makes Arabic one of the languages displayed on public signage alongside English. An example was the signage of a certificate of Halal displayed on a bakery shop window (see Figure 7). ‘Halal’ dictates what can and cannot be consumed by a Muslim. The displayed halal certificate was issued by the Regional Indonesian Ulema Council of Gorontalo province, a board responsible for certifying and authorizing product labels. The Arabic characters are transliterated as *SHAHADA HALAL* followed by Indonesian *SERTIFIKAT HALAL* and English ‘HALAL CERTIFICATE’ that indicate a duplicating, a process of translation that repeats the same information in multiple languages.

As the majority of people in Gorontalo are Muslims, halal food is expected to be accessible and available everywhere, even without halal signage displayed to declare its halal status. However, some shops and private entities still put this halal notice on their business premises, which is intended to give a sense of peace of mind and convince the buyers about ‘halal food safety’. They are aware that for Muslims, halal food is a big concern and signifies a religious identity. This is to say that this signage is not only intended for the locals but also for foreign visitors who share the same religious identity.

Similar to the case of Ben-Rafael’s (2009) and Koskinen’s (2012) findings in their studies, this particular signage is to inform potential consumers that this place provides halal food. Also, this signage can function as a symbolic marker of the community’s identity. In this case, the signage display convinces the visitors that they do not need to be concerned because they are in the right place to obtain halal food.

Even though this has nothing to do with language, it provides insights into cultural and religious identity through translation. This is to say that the shop owner uses the signage to welcome one particular community group to give a sense of belonging.

Figure 7. Translation and collective identity.

Finally, this discussion of the linguistic landscape (LL) from the translation perspective has received little attention in the literature. It showed the relevance of translation in multilingual signage and offered some interesting perspectives on the role of translation in the construction of public space. Cronin (2006) posited two global translation procedures as the translation consequences of globalization: translational assimilation and translation accommodation. Translation assimilation occurs when people adapt to their new linguistic situation by translating into the dominant language, which is evident in the case of Gorontalo as a multilingual city. Translational accommodation, on the other hand, takes place when people translate to maintain the language or cultural identity as seen in the religious identity.

Furthermore, it is evident that English is unique and essential in the linguistic landscape. Translations from or into English appearing in the existing linguistic system of a given community entering the global market present a fascinating object of research. These translations mark the initial stage of linguistic globalization and the introduction of English as lingua franca in a new geographical location. The language serves as a display and symbolic language associated with the high status of its users. Also, it is utilized for different reasons when translated signage and notices are being used. It is used more functionally, as a lingua franca, for those who cannot communicate in the native language.

All in all, the linguistic landscape that displays multilingual signages is indeed a translational practice. There are a significant number of instances of translation strategies utilized, including literal and free translation. The multilingual signage has been partially translated and even written as a non-translation. Therefore, it is safe to say that multilingual signage is a product of the translational process. This sheds light on how translation plays a role in shaping the linguistic landscape. The discussion has revealed that a multilingual urban landscape is essentially a translation space presented through the multiple languages displayed in the public setting.

6. CONCLUSION

The study explores the multilingual urban space of Gorontalo City, Eastern Indonesia, on the role of translation in shaping its linguistic landscape through public signage. Analyzing 123 bilingual signages, the research categorized translation practices into word-for-word (67 items), free (8 items), partial (11 items), and non-translation (37 items), revealing a growing trend toward linguistic diversity. The top-down approach, exemplified by official translations (50 items), contrasts with the dominance of non-official translations (73 items) in commercial spaces. Arabic, coexisting with Indonesian and English, symbolizes religious identity. Gorontalo's linguistic landscape signifies a shift to bilingualism, notably characterized by widespread English translations, reflecting a lively interaction of language, translation, and cultural identity in the evolving urban setting. This research sheds light on the complex relationship between translation practices and the coexistence of languages in public spaces, contributing valuable insights to the understanding of linguistic landscapes in diverse urban contexts.

The limitations of this study include a specific focus on Gorontalo City, which may not fully represent the linguistic diversity of all Indonesian urban areas. Additionally, the research predominantly examines written translation in public signage, overlooking other forms of language representation. Future research could expand the scope by incorporating oral and visual elements of linguistic landscapes, providing a comprehensive understanding. The study's focus on translation orientation (top-down and bottom-up) could be extended to explore the sociolinguistic aspects influencing translation choices, incorporating perspectives of local communities and policymakers. Future research is recommended to encompass a broader methodological approach, consider diverse urban contexts, and investigate into the vibrant use of languages and cultures in contemporary, multilingual spaces.

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Representations of Public Caning in *Serambi Indonesia*: A Linguistic Approach to News Framing Analysis

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Abstract

With its distinctive autonomy in implementing Sharia, Aceh allows public caning as a form of corporal punishment not seen in other parts of Indonesia. This article examines how a prominent local newspaper, Serambi Indonesia, portrayed the implementation of public caning in Aceh over the past decade. This study combined transivity analysis and Gamson and Modigliani's (1989) four framing devices: metaphors, exemplars, catchphrases, and depictions. The analysis focused on 45 articles related to public caning in Aceh published between January 2012 and December 2020 in Serambi Indonesia. The findings reveal that caning is a key theme in these news stories, signalling its execution for Sharia violators in Aceh. The findings also found an ambivalent representation of public caning. Depictions of paramedics, audiences, and public support, along with the use of exemplars, highlight a positive portrayal of the current practice of public caning in Aceh. The punishment is depicted as a way of educating offenders and a means to deter similar offenses in the future, which overshadows the severity of the punishment. The media also conveys a message that Aceh's caning punishment differs from practices in the Middle East and suggests a "lighter" interpretation of Sharia. However, the coverage raises concerns about the effectiveness of caning as a deterrent and the fair implementation of the punishment. Therefore, the

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representations of public caning in Serambi Indonesia reflects ongoing controversy surrounding the event within Acehnese society.

Keywords: Aceh, linguistic framing analysis, local newspapers, public caning.

1. INTRODUCTION

Media significantly contributes to the construction of meaning by informing the ways we make sense of the world. O'Shaughnessy and Stadler (2012) argue that the media significantly influences how people perceive themselves and their surroundings. Although media is just one of the ways people learn about the world, it is arguably one of the most vital resources since people rely on media information to help them in everyday life. Media makes sense of the world for audiences through representation (O'Shaughnessy & Stadler, 2012). Most people do not have the chance to gain knowledge about the world from actual experience; however, through representation, media allows people to see the world in a greater scope.

A representation is a process "by which signifying practices appear to stand for or depict another object or practice in the 'real' world," and it does not reflect objects in "a direct 'mirroring' mode" (Barker, 2012, p. 487). This supports the argument that representation is not reality but the construction of reality. It is a certain version of reality. However, there is no objective representation of the world, particularly through media representations (O'Shaughnessy & Stadler, 2012). Representation is constituted by a particular person or group. As a result, culture, meaning, and knowledge of the person or the group are involved in the process of representation. Thus, in the end, representation depends on the recipient's individual situation and cognitive conditions that judge which set of representations are closer to a perceived 'reality.'

Although representation is not reality, representation is the only way to know reality. Hartley (2019) explains, "representation is the means by which signs 'stand for' something outside of the sign system itself, thus, it is through this 'stand for' function of the sign that we know and learn reality" (p. 228). Therefore, representation is a central concept for learning about the world.

One highly controversial issue that has captured widespread media coverage is the practice of public caning in Aceh. Aceh is the only province in Indonesia with exceptional autonomy to implement Sharia law. While Sharia does not hold an official position within the Indonesian legal framework, Aceh is granted special permission to incorporate it into its bylaws (Salim, 2004). In contrast, other provinces lack the constitutional positions or legislative support to enforce Sharia to the same extent as Aceh. Under Sharia, Aceh has enacted a series of *qanun* (bylaws) that impose Islamic dress codes on all Acehnese Muslims and prohibit activities such as the consumption of alcohol, gambling, and seclusion. In 2014, Aceh further solidified its Sharia-based regulations by introducing the *Qanun Jinayat* (Islamic Criminal Code), which forbids acts such as seclusion between unmarried couples, intimacy between unmarried couples, pre and extramarital sexual intercourse, sexual harassment, rape, gay sex, lesbian sex, false accusations of *zina*, gambling, and alcohol consumption. The punishments for these offenses vary and can include caning, fines in gold, imprisonment, restitution, and social sanctions. Offenders may face gold fines ranging from 100 to 1,500 grams, prison sentences ranging from 10 to 150 months, or the most controversial penalty of 10 to 200 lashes.

Of all the aspects of Sharia enforcement in Aceh, caning stands out as the most contentious. Caning is the sole permitted form of corporal punishment in Aceh, and while it is also legal in neighbouring Malaysia and Singapore, it is not practiced elsewhere in Indonesia (Feener, 2013). Nurrahmi's (2022) research reveals that news coverage of Sharia in Aceh overwhelmingly focuses on caning as a form of punishment. The controversy surrounding caning primarily revolves around its potential infringement on human rights. Human Rights Watch ("World Report," 2010), for instance, released a report asserting that public caning violates human rights protected by the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights.

The controversy surrounding the practice of public caning in Aceh has garnered significant media attention. Various perspectives on these events are presented through different media outlets, both locally and on a national and international scale. One of these media sources is *Serambi Indonesia*, a prominent local newspaper in Aceh (Bahfen & Nurrahmi, 2018). Therefore, it is crucial to examine the coverage provided by this influential publication to examine media representations of public caning in Aceh. Focusing on media sources within Aceh offers a more detailed and nuanced comprehension of public caning by providing insights into the cultural, social, and contextual intricacies surrounding public caning in Aceh, which may be overlooked in a broader examination of media from outside the region.

While previous research on Sharia in Aceh has delved into various aspects, only three specific studies (Amri, 2019; Fitri & Nurrahmi, 2021; Zuniadi, 2018) were documented to investigate public caning in Aceh's local media within a short period of time. However, these previous studies fail to capture the complexity of the ongoing controversy surrounding public caning within Acehnese society. Meanwhile, prior studies on media representation in the field of linguistics combined transitivity analysis and critical discourse analysis (e.g., Fitriani et al., 2021; Gunawan et al., 2023). Hence, this study stands out by focusing on news coverage of public caning in Serambi Indonesia from 2012 to 2020, employing transitivity and linguistic framing analysis. This unique approach aims to scrutinize the representation of such events with a specific linguistic lens. Consequently, the central question posed by this study is:

- How is public caning in Aceh represented in *Serambi Indonesia*?

This study offers a textual analysis of news articles using a combined framework to enhance knowledge in the realm of linguistics and demonstrates the practical significance of a linguistic approach to the representation of news texts. Moreover, an examination of previous studies of Sharia in Aceh comparing Aceh's coverage and Indonesian national or international media coverage (Aliansi Jurnalis Independen Banda Aceh, 2012; Maulina, 2017) also underscores variances in the way that local media frames Sharia in Aceh, compared to Indonesian national media and international media. The article, therefore, presents a compelling argument to highlight the importance of studying the representation of public caning in local media outlets operating in regions where Sharia is practiced. Moreover, the findings of this study can benefit the international research community, who may not have access to Acehnese media due to language barriers, in gaining a better understanding of this topic from the perspectives of the Acehnese media.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Transitivity Analysis

Bartley and Hidalgo-Tenorio (2015) emphasized that the analysis of transitivity enables us to uncover how individuals articulate their experiences in discourse by employing syntactic and lexical tools. Transitivity analysis encompasses three key elements: process, participant, and circumstances (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). Transitivity analysis helps to understand how language represents actions and events, how participants are involved, and the relationships between these participants and the central processes. It is a valuable tool for studying language and discourse, as it provides insights into how meaning is constructed and conveyed through linguistic structures (Butt et al., 2003).

Participant refers to the nominal group that is actively engaged in the given activity and circumstance pertains to an adverbial or prepositional phrase (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). Circumstances provide supplementary information about the physical actions and the internal context in which human experiences are constructed (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). The term process pertains to examining how an event is portrayed and how it serves as the vehicle for expressing our encounters and our perception of the world (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). This process is actualized through the use of a verbal group within a clause.

As outlined by Halliday and Matthiessen (2004), transitivity analysis identifies six primary process types:

1. Material Process: Depicts physical actions and events, revealing how our physical world is shaped. Participants include the actor, goal, scope, beneficiary-recipient, beneficiary-client, and initiator.
2. Mental Process: Explores the inner world of human experiences, encompassing thoughts, perceptions, desires, and emotions. Subtypes include mental perception, mental cognitive, mental emotive, and mental desiderative. Participants involve in the senser and phenomenon.
3. Relational Process: Establishes connections between entities, involving attributive and identifying subtypes.
4. Verbal Process: Relates to communication and includes participants like the carrier, attribute, attributor, token, and value.
5. Behavioural Process: Describes physiological and psychological behaviours like breathing and smiling.
6. Existential Process: Demonstrates the existence of entities or events, often employing terms like “there” and “to be.”

2.2 Linguistic Framing Analysis

In the field of linguistics, frames are identified by examining the specific words and sentences used in a text (Rafiee et al., 2018). This analysis looks at factors like word choice, placement, and structure (Esser & d’Angelo, 2003). The fundamental concept is that frames are constructed using specific words as the building blocks (Matthes & Kohring, 2008). This linguistic approach shares similarities with hermeneutic studies, but there is a crucial distinction: linguistic approach clearly defines the linguistic elements that indicate a frame, in contrast to the hermeneutic approach, which lacks a clear depiction of how a frame is extracted (Matthes & Kohring, 2008). The significant advantage of this approach is the systematic and thorough analysis of news texts. Employing a linguistic perspective in framing analysis enables the thorough examination of the specific labels and structures attributed to these events (Rafiee et al., 2018). However, a notable challenge using this analysis method is conducting a standardized frame analysis on extensive text samples (Matthes & Kohring, 2008).

2.3 Gamson and Modigliani's (1989) Framing Analysis

In the context of framing analysis, the linguistic framing analysis employed in this article is rooted in the framework developed by Gamson and Modigliani (1989). A frame is defined by Gamson and Modigliani (1987) as "a central organising idea or story line that provides meaning to an unfolding strip of events, weaving a connection among them. The frame suggests what the controversy is about, the essence of the issue" (p. 143). Their definition of frames also refers to frames as "a set of interpretative packages that give meaning to an issue" (Gamson & Modigliani, 1989, p. 3). The choice of this particular framing analysis approach is driven by its emphasis on the utilization of symbolic language to attribute significance to an issue, aligning with the objective of this study to uncover the representation of public caning. The use of Gamson and Modigliani's (1989) four framing devices was conducted to expand previous findings on the representation of public caning in *Serambi Indonesia* due to its orientation to reveal the use of symbolic language (Nurrahmi, 2018).

According to Gamson and Modigliani (1989), framing devices and reasoning devices are distinct concepts. Framing devices suggest "how to think about the issue," while reasoning devices justify "what should be done about it" (Gamson & Modigliani, 1989, p. 3). The framing devices include metaphors, exemplars, catchphrases, depictions, and visual images, while the reasoning devices are roots (i.e., a causal analysis), consequences (i.e., a particular type of effect), and appeals to principle (i.e., a set of moral claims. The framing and reasoning devices are called a core frame and a core position, respectively (Foote, 2011).

Given the study's focus on identifying core frames, the framing analysis of this study only focuses on Gamson and Modigliani's (1989) four framing devices: metaphors, exemplars, catchphrases, and depictions that served as symbolic cues.
Metaphors are defined as analogies and symbols that describe an object through a reference to something considered to have similar characteristics to the object (Gamson & Lasch, 1983). They consist of two parts: "the principal subject that the metaphor is intended to illuminate and the associated subject that the metaphor evokes to enhance our understanding" (Gamson & Lasch, 1983, p. 399).

1. Exemplars are current events or historical examples used to exemplify the frame (Gamson & Lasch, 1983).
2. Catchphrases are theme statements, titles, taglines, or slogans that capture the frame's central messages – in short, "attempted summary statement about the principal subject" (Gamson & Lasch, 1983, pp. 399-400).
3. Depictions are explained as characterisations of relevant subjects of the frame using "single-valued metaphors or exemplars or simply through some colourful string of modifiers" (Gamson & Lasch, 1983, p. 400). Although this framing device provides a comprehensive tool for unpacking news articles, it is essential

to admit that not all symbolic cues may be present in a text, and many framing elements could overlap and intersect with one another (Kwan & Graves, 2013).

3. METHODS

This research employed a combined textual analysis approach, which encompassed the scrutiny of linguistic elements such as transitivity, as well as the application of Gamson and Modigliani's (1989) framing analysis, as utilised by *Serambi Indonesia* in their portrayal of public caning in Aceh. In the transitivity analysis, the core components, including the processes, the participants, and the circumstances, were systemically examined. Subsequently, within the framework of Gamson and Modigliani's (1989) framing analysis, the four key symbolic cues (metaphors, exemplars, catchphrases, and depictions) were identified.

This study used documentation as its data collection method, obtaining a sample of news articles electronically from https://aceh.tribunnews.com/ using the keyword *cambuk* (cane). The articles examined in this study comprise hard news and editorials because both types of news articles convey news framing of public caning in *Serambi Indonesia,* reflecting the news organisation's stance on public caning in Aceh. Due to reliance on digital news, the data collection was subject to the limitations of online archiving; online data became available only on 29th July 2011. Therefore, the final sample included articles published in *Serambi Indonesia,* from 1st January 2012 to 31st December 2020. All news articles in the sample were examined to ensure that they discussed public caning in Aceh. The sample for framing analysis consisted of 45 articles, including 42 hard news and three editorials.

In conducting the data analysis, the organization and categorization of codes were facilitated by NVivo 12 software. For the transitivity analysis, the focus was exclusively on 24 news headlines randomly selected. The headline is the focus of transitivity analysis because it provides a quick summary, enabling the understanding of the central theme of the entire news article (Kuiken et al., 2017). Moreover, a total of 45 news articles were coded and classified into Gamson and Modigliani's (1989) four symbolic cues: metaphors, exemplars, catchphrases, and depictions. Particular attention was given to the number of occurrences in each code to be represented in the findings.

4. RESULTS

4.1 Transitivity in the Headlines

Table 1 shows the results of transitivity analysis of the headlines of public caning in *Serambi Indonesia* newspaper. The transitivity analysis of 24 headlines reveals the prevalence of passive voice clauses. The majority of headlines are constructed using passive voice clauses. In these headlines, the emphasis is placed on the goal, typically the affected participant undergoing caning punishment. This choice of passive voice puts the focus on the recipient of the action rather than the entity performing the action. In many of these headlines, the actor or entity responsible for carrying out the whipping (the actor) is not explicitly mentioned. The actor remains unspecified, leaving the readers without information about who is performing the caning. This approach underscores the human element and the consequences of the actions described in the headlines.

Table 1. The transitivity analysis of the headlines.

Date	Headlines	Participant	Process	Circumstances
6/10/2012	Three Men Whipped for Gambling	Three men (goal)	Whipped (material)	
20/9/2014	Unable to Bear Shame, Convict Resists Before Caning	Convict (behaver)	Resists (behavioural)	Before caning
27/2/2015	Convict of Gambling Attacks the Executioner During Caning	Convict of gambling (actor) The executioner (goal)	Attacks (material)	During caning
16/1/2016	Proven to Commit *Khalwat*, Two Lovers Whipped	Two Lovers (goal)	Whipped (material)	Proven to commit *khalwat*
5/3/2016	15 Convicted of Gambling Whipped	15 convicted of gambling (goal)	Whipped (material)	
26/3/2016	Brothers-in-law Whipped 17 Times	Brothers-in-law (goal)	Whipped (material)	
1/10/2016	Whipped 15 Times, This Man Smiles	This man (behaver)	Smiles (behavioural)	
7/10/2016	Seven Gamblers Whipped in Sabang	Seven gamblers (goal)	Whipped (material)	In Sabang
21/3/2017	12 Sharia Violators Whipped	11 Sharia violators (goal)	Whipped (material)	
24/5/2017	5 Executioners Whip Homosexual Couple	5 executioners (actor) Homosexual couple (goal)	Whip (material)	
9/9/2017	Man Requests Pause, Woman Stays Strong	Man (sayer) Women (behaver)	Request (verbal) Stays strong (behavioural)	
12/9/2017	11 Sharia Violators Whipped	11 Sharia violators (goal)	Whipped (material)	
14/10/2017	10 Gamblers Whipped at Merdeka Square	10 gamblers (goal)	Whipped (material)	at Merdeka Square
26/10/2017	Two Stumble, Three Progress	Two Three (actor)	Stumble Progress (behavioural)	
14/7/2018	Homosexual Couple Whipped	Homosexual couple (goal)	Whipped (material)	
24/11/2018	Prosecutor Whips 10 Sharia Violators	Prosecutor (actor) 10 Sharia violators (goal)	Whips (material)	
21/3/2019	Five Couples Whipped	Five couples (goal)	Whipped (material)	
29/6/2019	Agara DPRK Figure Whipped	Agara DRPK figure (actor)	Whipped (material)	
13/9/2019	Arwin Grimaces in Pain, Whipping	Arwin (behaver) Whipping execution (goal)	Grimaces (behavioural) Halted (material)	In pain Twice

Table 1 continued…

	Execution Halted Twice			
17/1/2020	Former Chairman of Panwaslu Sentenced to Whipping, Along with Illicit Partner	Former Chairman of Panwaslu (goal)	Sentenced (material)	Along with illicit partner
3/3/2020	Principal and Vice Principal Whipped, Caught at TP Polem Street Hotel	Principal and Vice Principal (goal)	Whipped (material)	Caught at TP Polem Street Hotel
17/6/2020	Two Women Whipped After Giving Birth	Two women (goal)	Whipped (material)	After giving birth
8/12/2020	Reflection Worker Whipped 37 Times	Reflection worker (goal)	Whipped (material)	
17/12/2020	Two Adultery Convicts Whipped 200 Times	Two adultery convicts (goal)	Whipped (material)	

Further analysis shows that 15 out of 24 headlines are crafted in passive sentences with ‘whipped’ as the material process. In these headlines, the action of ‘whipped’ is directed towards various Sharia offenders as a goal. The word ‘whipped’ puts the focus on the action itself rather than the subject carrying out the action. This suggests an editorial choice to highlight the act of caning and its consequences rather than the individuals performing the punishment.

However, two headlines employ active clauses, with the central process being ‘whips’. In these instances, there is a clear identification of the actor and the goal, which refers to those who are undergoing caning punishment. This choice provides specific information about who is responsible for administering the punishment. Overall, these headlines featuring the terms ‘whip(s)’ or ‘whipped’ often revolve around the punishment of Sharia offenders, with a clear emphasis on the caning process. This underscores the substantial importance of caning as a central theme in the news stories. It also indicates the implementation of caning punishment to various individuals who have violated Sharia law.

4.2 Framing Analysis in the News Articles

In this section, the theme of public caning in Aceh is analysed according to metaphors, exemplars, catchphrases, and depictions.

4.2.1 Metaphors

Caning metaphors were found in two editorials and one news article. The editorial discussing the possibility of applying caning punishment to corruptors in Aceh explicitly devised the term “stand-up comedy contest” as a metaphor to describe public whipping. The offenders who were lashed in the past were viewed as “top celebrities who waved their hands to the spectators.” Moreover, the flogging was illustrated as “a *dangdut* singer’s dance” (*dangdut* being an Indonesian popular music form), which was “tingling” instead of painful. The editorial also represented the whipping as “tickled with a whip”. Such metaphors were intended to illustrate that the public whipping was not harsh enough to make offenders feel regret, shame, or remorse about their wrongdoings.

Another editorial about the implementation of 100 lashes for people committing premarital sex portrayed the previous offenders as "rock singers who raised their hands after the punishment". Such metaphors were meant to suggest that a stricter caning punishment would be needed to eliminate sexual crimes and save the morality of the people in Aceh.

Only one news story used metaphors to describe the punishment discovered in the hard news. The new story called the offender "awaited guests", while the punishment was depicted as "an anticipated show" to describe public enthusiasm to witness the sentence. The following sentence further employed a metaphorical phrase, "lost to the earth", to explain that the punishment was the first time carried out by the city administration of Banda Aceh in recent years.

4.2.2 Exemplars

Exemplars were employed in news stories and editorials. One news article titled "Caning in Aceh differs from Saudi Arabia" attempted to argue why Aceh should defend the caning punishment. The article discussed the controversy surrounding the elimination of caning in Saudi Arabia through a citation of the differences between the implementation of the punishment in Aceh and Saudi Arabia. By quoting the vice chairman of Aceh *Ulama* Council (*Majelis Permusyawaratan Ulama,* MPU), Tgk H Faisal Ali, the article asserted that caning in Aceh was much different from the caning that was enforced in Saudi Arabia. This media attempted to demonstrate the humane aspects of caning in Aceh by comparing the caning administered in Saudi Arabia and Aceh. The source also referred to the past events when non-Muslim offenders chose to be punished with caning to indicate that caning in Aceh is not as harsh and controversial as that in Saudi Arabia.

The editorial following this article highlighted that Saudi Arabia is one of the countries, in addition to Sudan and Egypt, referred to by Aceh in 2003 for the implementation of caning in the first place. This editorial briefly gave details of the changes in caning punishment over the years. The combination of exemplars used in the editorial was meant to argue that Aceh should be ready to defend public whipping when Saudi Arabia, Aceh's reference country, has abolished the punishment. In addition, other stories about the implementation of caning referred to past caning events to show that more or fewer spectators attended the punishment. *Serambi Indonesia* used these references to past caning events to illustrate how the event attracted public attention.

In another story about the governor's regulations on caning in prison, *Serambi Indonesia* documented the use of exemplars in an interview with one of its sources. The source referred to Brunei Darussalam and the Middle East as examples of countries that implement Sharia but still receive investments (Bakri, 2018). The exemplar was used to argue that the implementation of caning would not have a negative impact on investment in Aceh.

4.2.3 Catchphrases

During the coverage of caning, *Serambi Indonesia* rarely employed catchphrases. The catchphrase "flog adulterers, save the morality of our people" was intended to show support for a proposed new punishment of 100 lashes for those found guilty of *zina*. The catchphrase captured a central message that enforcement of harsher flogging punishments for those who committed sexual offences would tackle the perceived moral decline in Acehnese society. However, another catchphrase, "caning does not even increase corruption", conveyed a different meaning. The catchphrase was meant to suggest that the discourse of caning should not reduce existing law enforcement efforts against corruption; caning alone was perceived as insufficient to act as a deterrent against corruption. *Serambi Indonesia* seemed to take a varied position towards caning punishment for different Sharia offences.

In another story, "Aceh is our house" served as a memorable catchphrase used by one of the sources in the news article about caning in prison. The catchphrase attempted to suggest the need to ignore any protest from outside Aceh regarding the current arrangement of public whipping, as only the Acehnese have the right to define their province's rules.

4.2.4 Depictions

1. Depictions of offenders

In depictions of public caning, the offenders were depicted negatively. They were described as offenders for violating Islamic bylaws in Aceh. The negative representations of the offenders were evident in the choice of words. Offenders of sexual offences, such as *khalwat, ikhtilath,* and *zina* were regularly depicted as *mesum,* a term associated with sexual indecency. Among the three offences, *khalwat* was mostly equated with sexual indecency, compared to *ikhtilath* and *zina*. However, the word sexual indecency could be misleading since *khalwat, ikhtilath*, and have distinct definitions. According to *Qanun Jinayat*, *khalwat* is defined as an offence involving a man and a woman who are not relatives or married being together in seclusion, which may lead to sexual intercourse. *Ikhtilath*, on the other hand, refers to an act of showing intimacy between unmarried people in open or closed spaces. A closer examination of the word *ikhtilath* documented that the media often explained *ikhtilath* as being alone in a closed space, which referred to the definition of *khalwat*. Moreover, according to Islamic jurisprudence and *Qanun Jinayat, zina* is consensual sexual intercourse between unmarried people, including fornication and adultery[1]. *Khalwat* and *ikhtilath* are seen as behaviours that lead to *zina*. The three offences were given a unified negative meaning by using the term sexual indecency, yet they are different in definition. Such a choice of words left a negative impression on the offenders. The use of this term could have led readers to view offenders of *khalwat* and *ikhtilath* as like those who commit *zina*, even though they were not proven to have engaged in sexual intercourse. It also reinforced the focus on the immorality of the offences.

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[1] *Zina* is often translated as adultery. However, according to Islamic jurisprudence and *Qanun Jinayat, zina* includes pre and extramarital sexual intercourse.

The use of language and terminology was also apparent in the reporting of public caning. The term caning *uqubat* was commonly used to describe the punishment of public caning, where *uqubat* means punishment. Moreover, criminal offences were sometimes referred to *jarimah*. The crimes committed by the offenders were described using Arabic terms such as *maisir*, *khamar*, *khalwat*, *ikhtilath*, *zina*, and *liwath*. The terms were introduced in parentheses at the beginning of the text before being used throughout the article. While some of these words, including *khalwat*, *zina*, *maisir*, *khamar*, *jarimah* were already used in Indonesian, they were adopted from Arabic and are also used in *Qanun Jinayat*. By using these words, the news articles identified the crimes as Sharia crimes and depicted the offenders as Sharia offenders or sinners, creating a negative image of them.

2. Depictions of the harshness of caning

The media portrayed the public caning of offenders as a harsh punishment administered with a rattan cane. The sessions were depicted as emotionally charged, with the media highlighting the offender's pain. The suffering angle was detailed in news titles, such as "Arwin groaned in pain, the caning was stopped twice", "The lashed offender almost collapsed", "The offender had bruised backs", and "18 perpetrators of *maisir* case undergo caning". The portrayal of caning as a severe penalty was evident in phrases such as "unable to hold back tears", "cried", "groaned in pain", "grimaced in pain", "bruised backs", "(almost) collapsed", "had to be carried off stage to receive available medical treatment", "raised her hands several times due to unbearable pain", "appears to withstand the pain by covering face with hands", and "attacked the official due to unbearable pain". Journalists present at public whippings obtained the description of the pain suffered by the offenders.

This media outlet represented the whipping as much more severe for female than male offenders. The female offenders were depicted as being unable to withstand the pain and asking for the punishment to stop several times. The media would even emphasise that the female offender was still in agony, even though the caning official was also female. In one example, an article stated, "She was punished by the female caning official. Even though her lashes were not as strong as those given by male officials, during the 18 lashes, El raised her hand to ask for the punishment to stop temporarily" (Bakri, 2020b).

The representations of female offenders were also illustrated by emphasising the gender of the offenders in the news titles. Gendered headlines were evident in articles such as "Men were tough, women were in pain", "In pain when whipped 100 times, a young woman asked the punishment to stop four times", and "Two women were lashed after giving birth", which included the word 'woman' in the news titles. Moreover, this news outlet was more likely to illustrate the pains endured by female offenders. Words or phrases describing the pain suffered due to lashes were often employed when describing female offenders' experiences during caning punishment. The depiction of female offenders was mainly the focus of the reporting of Sharia offences such as *khalwat*, *ikhtilath,* and *zina,* regardless of the punishment involving both genders.

On the other hand, in some caning incidents involving male offenders, the stories portrayed the whipping session as not being that harsh. The male offenders were often described as being able to endure the punishment. They were illustrated as smiling, clapping their hands, shaking hands with the caning official, and laughing while raising their hands after the caning. Two editorials explicitly depicted the caning as entertainment for the offender in many cases. Both editorials portrayed offenders grinning when whipped, raising their hands after being lashed, and waving their hands to the spectators. Both editorials mentioned that only a few offenders collapsed on the stage while being flogged. However, some male offenders were described as showing aggressive behaviours, such as glaring at the caning official or attacking the caning official due to unbearable pain or excessive strokes.

3. Depictions of humane aspect of caning

The coverage consistently showed that great attention was given to the welfare of the perpetrator during the flogging. *Serambi Indonesia* regularly showed the presence of paramedics during the public whipping session. The news outlet highlighted that the flogging was carried out after the medics confirmed that the offenders were in good health and fit to serve a sentence. It further depicted how the offenders regularly had their health examined by paramedics during the punishment, and paramedics approached the offenders to give them a bottle of mineral water. The stories also described that whenever the offender collapsed or pleaded for the punishment to stop, the paramedics would examine or treat them before the flogging resumed. After the punishment was concluded, the offenders would be examined for their health, and once the paramedics certified that they were healthy, they would be released back to their families immediately. In addition, a few stories depicted that the punishments were postponed when offenders were deemed unfit to continue according to the medic's recommendation. In stories titled "Two women were lashed after giving birth" and "Two offenders of *zina* were lashed 200 times," the offenders were pregnant. Therefore, the flogging was delayed until they gave birth. The depictions of medical consideration and the presence of medical officers were intended to illustrate the humane aspects of the caning in Aceh.

4. Depictions of spectators and public support

The punishments were commonly held in open places, such as mosques and other public places, and were represented as being attended by crowds. *Serambi Indonesia* specifically described the size of the audience, using phrases such as "hundreds", "a thousand more", "thousands", "many people attended it", "people crowded the courtyard", and "those who came to the location soared, filling the side of the road". Several articles used "as usual" to describe the public whipping, which was usually witnessed by a large crowd. In contrast, only two articles depicted that a few audience members attended the caning punishments by employing the word "dozen" or "a number of people". The media sometimes described the spectators as looking enthusiastic, cheering, screaming, and cursing at the offenders or the caning official. Such depictions give the impression that the whipping sessions attracted public attention and enthusiasm.

Serambi Indonesia regularly depicted public support for the implementation of caning in Aceh. In one story, the caning was depicted as "not getting much opposition from many groups". Another story reported, "The caning punishment applied in Aceh became an integral part of Acehnese life. The people of Aceh have accepted it and do not view the punishment as weird" (Bakri, 2020a).

In addition, *Serambi Indonesia* quoted parties against the rules who argued that the current caning procedures held in front of mosques or public places were enforced without complaints from Acehnese. One article further highlighted that the opposition to the caning was from outside the community. Both articles set up the dichotomy of community support versus outsider rejection of the current caning procedures. Throughout different news articles, *Serambi Indonesia* conveyed the meaning that the current procedures of caning punishment have wide support in Aceh.

5. Depictions of the functions of caning

At the end of caning-related news articles, *Serambi Indonesia* would frequently underline that caning punishment was meant to make offenders repent, serving as a deterrent and lesson for others. Caning was seen as a connection between shame and a deterrent effect. In general, flogging was described as a way to prevent acts of crime. The objective was explained by quoting sources such as the regent, mayor, head of the Sharia Agency, Sharia police officers, prosecutor, and *ulama.* Through interview quotes, it was also depicted that caning was not meant to encourage people to laugh at the perpetrators or to hurt the offenders but to serve as a lesson to all.

In addition, the word *iktibar* was used several times to explain the function of caning punishment. The word *Iktibar* was adopted into Indonesian from Arabic, which means taking lessons. It was used to illustrate how the caning serves as a lesson for the offender and others who witness the punishment to discourage them from committing similar offenses. The word *iktibar* conveyed a solid connection to Sharia.

Furthermore, two news articles documented the function of caning as purifying sinners. Using quotes from *ulama*, experts, and officials, caning was depicted as a means of purifying wrongdoers of their sins. Those who underwent the caning sentence were depicted as purified since Allah forgave their wrongdoing.

Regarding the punishment's effectiveness, one editorial titled "Saudi Arabia abolished caning, how about Aceh?" highlighted caning's role in preventing crimes: "applying caning punishment has been proven to be suitable and appropriate for Aceh because it has been effective in reducing crime rates, particularly for offenses such as *maisir*, *khamar*, *khalwat*, *ikhtilath,* and others" (Hasyim, 2020).

However, one story depicted the implementation of caning as not having a deterrent effect due to the increasing number of offenders of Sharia. Another editorial depicted caning in Aceh as "conducted for formality", as opposed to "Sharia caning" implemented in the Arab Peninsula: thus, suggesting it may not discourage offenders or others from committing Sharia offences.

6. Depictions of problems of caning

Furthermore, by quoting and paraphrasing officials, the news outlet displayed a verbal commitment to enforcing the punishment to everyone without exception. However, one news article about the caning punishment of a legislative council member of Southeast Aceh raised the critique that caning penalties were not fairly applied, using the voice of activists. The newspaper also included citations from anonymous sources, such as "one of *Serambi's* sources", and employed phrases like "based on information successfully gathered by *Serambi*", as well as references to laypeople without specifying their names—using terms like "(local) residents", "community", and "eyewitness", highlighting that caning was not uniformly enforced in Sharia violations committed by elites. Another story quoted the voice of an offender who complained that bigger cases involving high-ranking officials were not proceeded. Using quotes from laypersons, activists, and offenders, this media attempted to portray punishments being imposed (only) on offenders from the lower classes.

5. DISCUSSION

The integrated approach of transitivity and framing analysis demonstrates the efficacy of linguistic-based analyses in unveiling how news media outlets represent social issues. Transitivity analysis plays a crucial role in understanding how linguistic structures construct and convey meaning by scrutinizing how actions, processes, or events are portrayed in language. In parallel, Gamson and Modigliani's (1989) framing analysis broadens the scope, offering a comprehensive examination of symbolic language, including the analysis of metaphors, exemplars, catchphrases, and depictions. This combined framework equips researchers with the tools to delve into the linguistic strategies used by the media in constructing these representations.

In general, findings show that from 2012 to 2020, *Serambi Indonesia* delivered positive representations towards the implementation of public caning in Aceh. This is contrary to previous studies on international media (Fakhri & Juanda, 2020) and Indonesian national media (Bentara, 2015; Juanda et al., 2017; Maulina, 2017; Nisa, 2017; Nuryadi, 2016), which suggest that media coverage from outside Aceh was dominated by negative representations. Both international and national media constructed Sharia in Aceh as discriminatory against women, violent, and against human rights. In addition to such representations, Indonesian national media also raised the issue of Sharia in Aceh, contradicting the Indonesian national constitution. Such portrayals were relatively absent in the coverage of public caning in *Serambi Indonesia*, although the issue of discrimination was found across the sample. The conflict between Aceh's application of Sharia law and the national constitution is a matter of national importance. As a result, it is prominently covered in the Indonesian national media, but receives less attention in international and local media. Meanwhile, the issue of discrimination consistently presents across media outlets, holding significance at the international, national, and local levels.

Moreover, comparing findings with other studies confirms several similarities. First, in the case of caning, for example, *Serambi Indonesia* showed an ambivalent portrayal of public caning in which the topic was categorised into the desirable Sharia enforcement and the deviance from Sharia frames. Both frames indicate that *Serambi Indonesia* represented the arrangement of caning punishment in positive and negative judgments, highlighting some problems in the current arrangement and discussions on the deterrent effect of caning. This study also accords with an earlier study (Amri, 2019), which showed eight frames, both positive and negative, used by *Serambinews*.com to depict caning punishment in Aceh. Despite the ambivalent attitudes found in the news stories, similar to Amri (2019), this study found that *Serambi Indonesia* appeared to support caning punishment in Aceh, which showed caning as a light punishment form. Additionally, this study found that the offenders were framed negatively for violating Islamic bylaws, which is consistent with the findings of. In addition, this study also discovered that *Serambi Indonesia* tends to focus on female rather than male offenders in *khalwat, ikhtilath,* and *zina* cases. A similar finding was also found by Fitri and Nurrahmi (2021) that the representations of female offenders were filled with sensational narratives. In places like Aceh, which hold strong conservative values concerning women's behaviour, the inclusion of women in cases involving *khalwat*, *ikhtilath*, and *zina* naturally stirs controversy. The emphasis on women in these narratives inherently sparks greater interest and intrigue among the audience, resulting in increased readership and engagement with the news.

The findings corroborate a study by Nurrahmi (2022) using content analysis of 649 news articles about Sharia in Aceh published by *Serambi Indonesia*. Similar to this study, the earlier research found *Serambi Indonesia* represented the implementation of Sharia in Aceh while highlighting Sharia problems surrounding its enforcement. Comparing the findings from this study with previous studies using different approaches supports the validity of Gamson and Modigliani's (1989) four framing devices. The findings of this study demonstrated the benefits of using linguistic framing analysis in studying media representations.

In addition, this study documented a broader range of caning representations than previous studies of caning in Aceh (Amri, 2019; Fitri & Nurrahmi, 2021; Zuniadi, 2018). The more nuisance picture of caning found in this study might be explained by the adoption of a combined framework, incorporating transitivity analysis and Gamson and Modigliani's (1989) four framing devices. This comprehensive approach facilitates a deeper exploration of linguistic structures and symbolic language, including the analysis of metaphors, exemplars, catchphrases, and depictions.

6. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, *Serambi Indonesia* generally reinforced positive representations of caning punishment. Transitivity analysis revealed that the central focus predominantly centres on the punishment of Sharia offenders, with a distinct emphasis on the process of caning. This highlights the significant role that caning plays as a central theme in these news stories. Furthermore, it signals the execution of caning punishment for individuals who have violated Sharia in Aceh. Moreover, framing analysis through the depiction of paramedics, caning officials, audiences, and public support, together with exemplars, indicated the positive representation of the current arrangement of public caning in Aceh. The media portrayed the offenders as the ones to blame and represented them as sinners. The negative depiction of the offenders was formed and reinforced using Arabic terms. The caning punishment was depicted positively as a way to teach offenders and other community members to avoid similar convictions in the future. Such depictions outweighed the severity of the punishment. Additionally, several depictions, the use of metaphors, and the exemplar of caning in Saudi Arabia also showed caning as light punishment seen as entertainment for many offenders.

The news media also delivered meanings that caning punishment in Aceh was different from what has been practiced in the Middle East. It further gave the impression that Aceh followed "lighter" interpretations of Sharia. Finally, based on the analysis encompassing transitivity and the examination of four symbolic cues (depictions, metaphors, exemplars, and catchphrases), it becomes evident that *Serambi*

Indonesia tends to offer supportive media representations regarding the implementation of public caning in Aceh.

This study also documented some limitations. First, the use of the combined framework, while effective in capturing both manifest and latent meaning, can pose challenges when dealing with extensive volumes of text. This complexity can make it difficult to employ a standardized frame analysis. Second, this study did not examine changes in representations of public caning before and after the *Qanun Jinayat* was implemented. Such an examination could offer valuable insights into the evolution of media representations regarding public caning in Aceh over time. This comparative approach provides a nuanced understanding of how these representations have evolved.

To expand on these findings, future research could conduct comparative analyses of the portrayal of Sharia in Aceh across media outlets, including Acehnese, Indonesian, and international news sources. A comparison across media on coverage of Sharia in Aceh would increase a sense of judgment through differences in similar issues across media outlets. By comparing the coverage of Sharia in Aceh across multiple media outlets, researchers can deepen the understanding of how the media shapes public perceptions of Sharia both inside and outside of Aceh.

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The Ethnoecology of the Malay Sacred Myth through Narratives of Kampung Tua Nongsa in Batam

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Abstract

The condition of the Malays is significantly marginalized due to the migration and the rapid industrial development in Batam, Indonesia. However, the Malay sacred myth is still sustained as a local wisdom for the Malay generations. Therefore, this study aims to analyze the ethnoecology behind the story of the sacred myth of Bumbum, Puak, and Batu Belah as a representation of environmental Malay local wisdom in Kampong Tua Nongsa, Batam. Within the conceptual framework of ethnoecology as a bridge to understanding the relationship between literature in the form of folklore and the culture of society, this qualitative research collected data through observation by being directly involved in the community and in-depth interviews with 21 informants including the key jury of the sacred places, community advice, community leaders, village officials, and the younger generation of Malay people in Kampong Tua Nongsa. Data analysis was carried out by comparing, reconfirming, classifying, and interpreting the data with an ethnoecology approach. The results showed that there were three important ethnoecological representations: (1) the ecological ties between forests and humans in the

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sacred Bumbum, (2) the reflection of the wise king in the sacred of Puak, and (3) the sea as the central life of nature in the sacred of Batu Belah. Sacred site prohibitions reveal deep connections between human behavior and nature, emphasizing ethical considerations; these stories highlight cultural values, insights for heritage preservation, and solutions for environmental challenges within an ethnoecological framework, stressing the importance of ethics in human-nature interactions.

Keywords: Ethnoecology, Kampong Tua Nongsa Batam, Malay, myths, sacred.

1. INTRODUCTION

Batam is well-known as an industrial city. Since 1970, through the Presidential Decree of Republic Indonesia No. 74/1971, Batam has been designated as a bonded industrial area (Pernando, 2018). As an industrial city, Batam has emerged as a magnet, drawing individuals from other cities in search of fortune and opportunities to enhance economic well-being. The implementation of the 2009 Free Trade Zone (FTZ) has notably intensified this attraction, enticing investors to establish large-scale industries within Batam City. This influx of investment not only contributes to the city's economic growth but also plays a pivotal role in improving people's welfare (Aritenang, 2017). Behind the splendor of industrial city developments, Batam has significant impacts on nature and the environment. The primary contributors to extensive environmental degradation in Batam stem from industrial and residential logging activities, reclamation, and the detrimental effects of industrial waste and air pollution. Widespread deforestation driven by the demand for land has disrupted ecosystems, causing biodiversity loss and soil erosion.

The data from the Agency for the Assessment and Application of Technology Indonesia added that the pollution of water quality due to industrial waste in 1992-2000 ranged from 34.70mg/l to 268.4mg/l in the reservoir area adjacent to the Batamindo Duriangkan industry (Hariyadi, 2006). The rapid economic growth also creates gaps, especially for communities around industries that feel the impact of environmental damage (hinterland). This impact was also caused by the loss of awareness of upholding the principles of Malay culture as the first inhabitants of Batam since the early 231 AD regarding protecting nature and the environment. In the *Gurindam* (a type of irregular verse form of traditional Malay poetry), it clearly states that: *Bila habis latar sang hutan berdiri alam lestari tinggal idaman yang lari* 'When the forest is cut down, the sustainability of nature remains only as a dream that has eluded us'.

Among the rapid development of industrialization in Batam, there were a few Malay people who still hold on to customs and traditions from generation to generation, especially those related to preserving nature. This could be seen from the existence of the Malay sacred place in Nongsa which is still maintained and held firmly. The preservation of this sacred place could not be separated from the belief of Malay people toward the story behind this existing mythical sacredness, including the sacred of *Bumbum*, *Puak*, and *Batu Belah*. The sacred of Bumbum is a legacy of Habib Nuh in the form of a tree that grows from coconut fibbers. This tree could not be cut or moved because it is believed to have mystical in it. Then, the sacred of Puak is the tomb of Nong Isa King's descendant, who was known as honest, keeping promises, and wise. Adjacent to the sacred of Puak, there is a sacred stone which is believed to be the crossing of the dragon who wants to cross the opposite island namely the sacred of Batu Belah. This sacred existed on Putri Island, which was well known as small Nongsa Island.

The story of myth cannot be separated from studies in oral literature. According to Sarkki et al. (2018), myth serves as the expressive embodiment and attribution of identity to particular values, a symbolic representation of deeply held and steadfast beliefs. These narratives contribute to the construction of meaning within societies, acting as powerful conduits that shape cultural understanding. Myths, often passed down through generations, not only convey stories but also encapsulate the core values and ideals deemed significant by a community. Meanwhile, oral literature is an oral testimony in the form of messages or, stories from generation to generation (Taum, 2011).

Moving from the various phenomena of the problems above, especially the myth behind the three sacred stories is important to be studied more deeply, particularly by using an ethnoecological approach. In line with this, ethnoecology is the study of the indigenous perspectives on the connections between humans and their natural surroundings that encompasses various ecological elements such as soil, climate, ecological communities, and other environmental factors, extending beyond the focus solely on the species involved (Hunn, 2007; Nazarea, 1999). The influence of Malay culture and belief in the ancestors makes a strong relationship between the community and the surrounding ecology so that it inspires every behavior of the Malay community in Batam.

The application of ethnoecology in literature is a development of the mimetic approach (the mirror of social phenomena) by applying interdisciplinary scientific disciplines. Therefore, concern with the significance of theoretical and practical the relevance of this approach could refer to cross-scientific applications. Gurung and Koirala (2020) explore the practices and perspectives of Nepali women in ecological conservation against environmental, socio-cultural, and religious degradation. Stand with the "act locally, think globally" slogan to save nature, various ethnic behaviors played a role in the realm of ethnoecology in this study. The studies related to environmental sustainability with an ecocritical approach in literature have been carried out in many countries (Arianto et al., 2021; Bracke, 2018; Curry 2014; Goldwyn, 2016). However, none of these studies applied an ethnoecological approach to oral literature, especially in the form of myths even folktales.

This study bridged the relationship between literature in the form of folklore and the culture of society which were embraced and believed as ethnic customs with an ethnoecological approach. This research focused on revealing the ethnoecological reality behind the story of the sacred myth of Bumbum, Puak, and Batu Belah of Malay people in Kampong Tua Nongsa Batam. This study is significant considering the condition of the Malay community as an indigenous tribe in Batam which was increasingly marginalized geographically, culturally, and historically by the rapid flow of industrialization and migration in this city. This study is among the efforts that tried to contribute to reinvigorating the remaining values of local wisdom.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Myth as Part of Oral Literature

Oral literature constitutes a rich tapestry of literary expressions seamlessly transmitted from one generation to the next through spoken word. Oral literature stands as a testament to the enduring power of spoken language in preserving the collective wisdom and cultural identity of societies across generations (Zaimar, 2008). Taum (2011) elaborates on the significance of aesthetics as a primary component of oral literature. Additionally, he emphasizes that oral literature serves as a means of expressing the collective consciousness (mentifact) of local communities concerning life, customs, and beliefs. This perspective underscores the intrinsic connection between the aesthetic qualities of oral narratives and the cultural awareness embedded in them, portraying oral literature as a dynamic and culturally rich medium for conveying and preserving the collective knowledge and values of a community.

According to Sarkki et al. (2018), myths serve as expressions and identifiers of specific values, symbolizing deeply held meanings. The mythic narratives are transmitted orally from one generation to another, solidifying their existence. This process results in a manifestation of obedience and submission to the conveyed values, highlighting the enduring nature of these cultural expressions. In essence, myths play a crucial role in shaping and preserving identity by encapsulating and passing down meaningful beliefs from one generation to the next.

Furthermore, myths often serve as repositories of historical knowledge and communal wisdom. Through the oral tradition, these narratives become part of a community's identity, providing a sense of continuity with the past. Sarkki et al. (2018) suggest that myths not only express identity but also act as a means of imparting deep meanings. The stories told by ancestors from one generation to the next not only preserve cultural values but also contribute to the transmission of collective experiences. In this way, the study of oral literature, with a specific focus on myths, becomes a rich exploration of how societies conceptualize and communicate their shared history, values, and understanding of the world.

2.2 Narrative Structure of Myth Stories

The theory of narrative structure was first introduced by Greimas (1983). According to Ratna (2011), the analysis of narrative structure involves examining the sequence of actions that exert a direct influence on the storyline. Taum (2011) added that the object of Greimas' (1983) research was not limited to fairy tales but also myths, legends, and folklore. In the storytelling stage, the identification of sequences or sequences of text units is carried out. A sequence is a group of consecutive events that can become one story unit that comes together (Poyatos, 1988).

Greimas (1983) proposes that a narrative semiotic approach challenges the notion that the surface structure of a story is arbitrary. Instead, it suggests that each narrative follows an actantial model, implying that the elements and characters within a story play specific roles in a structured and meaningful way. This perspective underscores the idea that underlying semiotic structures contribute to shaping the surface features of a narrative, emphasizing a deeper, inherent order and significance to the elements presented in a story. Greimas (1983) posits that at the heart of the meaning in any meaningful discourse, there exists a common human scenario. Within this scenario, actants—entities playing specific roles in a narrative—operate as Subject and Object, Sender and Receiver, and occasionally as Helper and Opponent (Pikkarainen, 2015). These actants become roles in their fictional acts if they have a social or cultural quality. Greimas' (1983) next stage is functional schema analysis, which is divided into three: (1) the initial situation, (2) the transformation stage (the skill test stage, the main stage, and the glorious stage), and (3) the final situation (Al Anshory et al., 2023). The final stage in Greimas (1983) narrative structure concept is isotopy. Isotopy tries to reveal the meaning behind the narrative story by considering the act and function of the story. From this isotopy, linguists and literary researchers go on to use ethnological theory to see the relationship behind the story with human behavior.

2.3 Ethnoecology in Myths

Literature and people's behavior could be bridged by using a literary anthropological approach. Ratna (2013) explains that society is part of literature, as the background, as well as the recipient of the creation itself. In the case of community, it will also talk about the culture formed by the community in it. Endraswara (2018) provides several effects that bring together anthropological and literary studies, it is (1) anthropology and literature pay attention to the human aspect as the perpetrator, (2) humans are cultured social creatures, and (3) there are many oral discourses and oral literature that link anthropological and literary studies. One of the anthropological studies that can trace the relationship between humans and the environment is by using an ethnoecological approach (Kottak, 1999).

The inseparable connection between humans and their natural environment highlights the intrinsic relationship shaping individuals within their context. This untouched, natural environment influences culture, as humans interpret and reflect it. Ethnoecology delves into the exploration of values and meanings embedded in human behavior, particularly actions reflecting environmental conservation. Aligned with Malinowski's theory of narrative structure, as cited in Baiduri (2020), this approach aims to grasp the native perspective, understand their life relationship, and acknowledge their worldview. Emphasizing the significance of capturing nuanced cultural insights within specific sociocultural contexts, ethnoecology highlights the interconnectedness of human behavior, culture, and the untouched natural environment.

Throughout history and in contemporary times, every culture has dealt with the question of how individuals relate to the natural environment. Just as social interactions are guided by a set of rules within each culture, the connection between individuals and nature is also defined by cultural frameworks (Schultz, 2002). The phenomenon of human culture can be examined by relating it to the natural environment in which humans and cultures live. The approach in ethnoecology, which is also known as geographical determinism or ethnographical environmentalism, has the view that the conditions of an environment have a very big role in shaping the culture of an ethnic group.

Stewart and Strathern (2003) assert that the environment and culture are intricately interconnected, challenging the notion that they are distinct entities. This viewpoint implies that environmental and cultural considerations should be approached as interdependent factors influencing each other. According to Steward (2005), the environment and culture are indivisible entities engaged in a reciprocal relationship. He emphasizes that these elements form a cohesive blend, each influencing and shaping the other. His theory suggests that the dynamic interaction between environment and culture is essential for understanding how societies adapt and evolve within their ecological contexts.

3. METHODS

This study employs qualitative research methods where the data gathered empirical facts relevant to research problems, comprising words and sentences provided by informants, necessitates an in-depth understanding (Faruk, 2012). The research was conducted in Kampong Tua, Nongsa Batam sub-district, Riau Islands, with 21 informants purposefully selected. Informants include caretakers, key figures overseeing sacred sites, and members of the Malay community such as traditional leaders, community leaders, village officials, and the younger generation, collectively forming a diverse representation of Kampong Tua village in Nongsa.

3.1 Data Collection

Data collection techniques in this research include primary and secondary data. Primary data was collected through field observations and in-depth interviews (Boyce & Neale, 2006). Structured questions were prepared for in-depth interviews to ensure focused and comprehensive responses, with the selected informants considered knowledgeable about the research object. Recording tools, including platforms like WhatsApp, video cameras, and recorders were employed to document the primary data collected during the field observations and interviews. Meanwhile, secondary data derived from a literature study of writings on the object of study, that is the story of the sacred myth of Bumbum, Puak, and Batu Belah as a representation of environmental Malay local wisdom in Kampong Tua Nongsa, Batam.

3.2 Data Analysis

The processing of research data in this study involved a systematic and multifaceted approach (Gioia, 2021). The research process involved several key steps which involved defining clear objectives, scrutinizing data sources for relevance, transcribing interviews, and translating literature. Findings from observations and interviews were summarized, followed by a thorough review for accuracy. The ecological determination phase integrated narrative structure, and the final step interpreted data within ethnoecological approaches, offering a comprehensive understanding of cultural and ecological significance.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Humans and nature form an integral and interconnected unity. Frequently, as time progresses, this interconnectedness is overlooked and prioritizing human convenience (Arianto & Suryani, 2020a). The challenges posed by urbanization and rapid industrialization in Batam City are directly confronted and addressed by the ongoing processes of modernization. Several forms of environmental pollution, the degradation of nature, deforestation, harm to marine life, destruction of hillsides, and soil excavation mark the initiation of ecological harm caused by attitudes that prioritize materialistic gains without consideration for the environment (Hariyadi, 2006). The issue has escalated into a serious problem affecting nearly all sectors across Batam.

The extensive human migration exacerbates the distortion of indigenous cultures, where the prevailing harmonious relationship between humans and nature is under threat (Arianto & Suryani, 2020a). Regrettably, the endeavor to construct settlements and expand land for industrial, tourism, and entertainment purposes has marginalized the crucial priority of preserving the natural environment. Concurrently, the formidable influence wielded by global elites holds the potential to alter cultural values for personal material gain, posing a significant threat to the very existence of social culture. Humans have overwhelmed the natural environment, threatening their own existence (UNESCO, 2021).

Ethnoecological studies play a crucial role in deconstructing cultural values within societies. The overarching goal is to foster a balanced and harmonious relationship between humans and nature. Through this approach, ethnoecology aims to promote a profound understanding of the interconnectedness between cultural beliefs, practices, and the natural world (Arianto & Suryani, 2020a). Despite facing challenges and potential elimination, communities preserving their traditions and adhering to social-moral laws that uphold a balance with nature exhibit remarkable resilience, showcasing the ability to navigate cultural shifts while maintaining a harmonious relationship with the environment. One of them is found in the community of the Malay village of Nongsa, Batam, Riau Islands.

The cultural foundation of the community is shaped by ethnoecological contemplation, emanating from the continuous protection of three sacred sites in Batam, coupled with the cultural practices that accompany them (Arianto & Suryani, 2020a). The researchers found that three tomb locations still exist in the Malay of Kampong Tua Nongsa, namely the sacred Bumbum, Puak, and Batu Belah. This research tries to uncover the ethnological representations of the three historical places with the societal behaviors that are formed. In essence, all of these community behaviors are inseparable from the bonds that maintain harmony between humans and nature.

4.1 The Ecological Ties Between Forests and Humans in the Sacred Bumbum

The sacred of Bumbum is a legacy of Habib Nuh in the form of a tree that grows from coconut fibers. This tree should not be cut or moved because it is believed to be mystical. Habib Nuh was a smart and devout person who could act as an intermediary between humans and God to treat various diseases and avoid calamities. For people to maintain nature, he left a sacred place by planting trees that grew from coconut fibers. This tree has aged hundreds of years but no one can even move or cut the tree.

The ethnoecological element that was reflected in the existence of the tree was represented by the existence of an oral tradition in the form of prohibitions regarding the existence of the tree. The researchers explained these prohibitions in the following descriptions and analysis.

4.1.1 Prohibition against cutting down the sacred tree

The act of cutting down trees has a close correlation with ecological criticism. Heise (2011), through ecological criticism, highlighted the impact of deforestation on ecosystems and biodiversity, reflecting concerns about environmental degradation. The anthropocentric legal attitude that emphasized all life was human-centered made many people feel innocent, including cutting down trees and deforestation (Mantiri & Handayani, 2020). Ethnoecology is a bridge that makes people aware of the culture related to ethics towards nature and the environment. The existence of the sacred Bumbum forms an interrelated interaction between humans and nature. Bumbum as a representation of nature implies an existence that is not only silent but still alive and in harmony with one another. This is described by Informant 1.

(1) *Bumbum asalnye dari serabot kelape yang sengaje di tanam oleh Habeb Nuh orang yang pandai lagi taat. Banyak masyarakat yang hendak berziarah untuk mendapatkan berkat Sang Kuase melalui perantare Sang Habeb. Pokok keramat ini tak boleh di tebang, sebab ini sebagai umpama bentuk perantare manusie alam dan jugak Tuhan.* [Bumbum has its origin from coconut fibers that were deliberately planted by Habib Nuh, a devout shaman. Many people want to go on a pilgrimage to seek the blessing of the Almighty through the medium of the Habib. This sacred tree cannot be cut down because it serves as an intermediary for humans, nature, and God.] (Informant 1)

The excerpt in (1) by Informant 1 gave an overview of the sacred origins of Bumbum. It gives an understanding that Bumbum represents the existence of Habib Nuh, who was believed to be alive and kind by the community. This tree has lived for hundreds of years. No one could cut or remove this tree. This was further clarified by the following excerpt from the interview with Informant 1 that the public believes that the Habib Nuh form was still inscribed in a Bumbum. Longing for obedience and honesty makes people inseparable from his figure. Therefore, the growth of the Bumbum tree cannot be separated from the existence of his figure. Nobody knows where Habib Nuh was buried, some believe he was buried in the sacred Bumbum. Others believe that he had moved and was buried in the shrine of Bumbum on Malaysian soil.

4.1.2 Prohibition against picking leaves and tree trunks

The social phenomenon refers to the dynamics of human social interactions, holding particular significance in the examination of ethnoecology. This importance arises from the central focus of ethnoecological studies on the interactions between humans and the natural environment (Arianto & Suryani, 2020b). Socio-anthropological knowledge of human relations, grounded in the maintenance of a harmonious natural balance, elucidates the interconnectedness of two interrelated relationships. Through this dynamic interaction, prohibitions arise as mechanisms to constrain human actions and prevent the disruption of the harmonious coexistence between nature and humans, emphasizing the imperative of utilizing nature without causing its destruction (Mei, 2023).

This prohibition was further understood by some people as a myth whose truth could just happen by chance. However, in ethnoecological studies, the most important thing is not whether it's accidental or not, but how myths shape people's behavior, especially about the mutual interaction between humans and nature. Rodrigues et al.

(2022) state that ethnoecological science explores the interactions between a community and the living and non-living elements of the environment within which they socially exist and reproduce. The term combines "ethno" referring to nation or people, and "ecology", denoting the science that examines the connections between living organisms and their surroundings. This supports the statement that the relation of the prohibition against picking leaves or even cutting down trees with the occurrence of the disease has a functional relationship that cannot be explained logically. However, the human ability not to destroy nature is a reflection of the existence of this myth.

The fact that many prohibitions existed behind the existence of the sacred Bumbum did not stop the greed of humans with the power to repeatedly shift this sacred existence. One of them is Citratubindo Batam Company. The company wanted to restore the area because the location was very strategic to be developed. This is discussed with the sacred jury (Informant 3) of the Bumbum.

(2) *Sudah banyak orang yang hendak memusnahkan keberadaan keramat Bumbum, namun selalu gagal. Kalau tak silaf, anak dari perusahaan Citratubindo Batam yang hendak melakukan perluasan lahan dan pemindahan keberadaan keramat Bumbum. Alhamdulillah, keramat Bumbum tetap saje wujud dan tetap tejage kelestariannye dari sifat tamak manusie.* [There have been many people who wanted to displace the sacred existence of Bumbum but failed. If I'm not mistaken, the subsidiary of the Citratubindo Batam Company wanted to expand the land and move the sacred Bumbum's existence. Praise to Allah, the sacred Bumbum still exists and is preserved from human greed.] (Informant 3)

The excerpt in (2) provides an example affirming that by using human power, there is an attempt to destroy the relationship between humans and nature. It is stated that several attempts were made but failed. According to the caretaker, the failures were commonly due to the sudden breakdown of the mower or sudden unfavorable weather conditions. Whether or not the story is true, the existence of this sacred tree still stands strong to this day. Unfortunately, many other locations have been destroyed by human greed. Many hills were leveled for the sake of building settlements or resorts and entertainment venues. Many trees were cut down and replaced with ornaments that were not useful in protecting nature itself.

4.1.3 Prohibition against defecating around the tree

The goal of the ecological struggle for the environment is to build awareness that humans are not subjects of superiority while nature and the environment are objects of inferiority (Kober, 2013). A harmonious relationship of equality between humans and nature is achieved by maintaining environmental ethics, including not polluting the environment. The prohibition of defecating around the tree is another aspect of these environmental ethics. This is reflected in the following conversation excerpt with Informant 4.

(3) *Usah sesekali buang ae kecik ataupun buang ae besa di sekeliling keramat Bumbum, sebab itu tempat suci yang tak boleh di kotori. Padahnye nanti boleh kualat jike mengotori tempat tersebut.* [Don't try to urinate or defecate around the sacred Bumbum. It's a holy place that shouldn't be contaminated. People could later face problems if the place is polluted.] (Informant 4)

The relationship between humans and ethical morality toward nature is also an inseparable part of ethnoecological studies. Ethnoecology explores the intricate relationship between humans and nature, emphasizing the ethical dimensions of this interaction. Human ethical morality towards nature within ecocriticism involves examining how individuals and societies perceive, value, and treat the environment. Buell (2009) calls for a shift from anthropocentrism to ethnocentrism where ethical considerations in ethnocentrism thus contribute to fostering sustainable and respectful attitudes towards the environment. Likewise, the attitude of respecting the holy places was not only a part of myth but also of the existence of nature, religion, and social ethics in society.

4.2 The Reflection of the Wise King in the Sacred of *Puak*

The second sacred story was found in the sacred existence of Puak Nongsa. This time the researchers interviewed Informant 2, the caretaker of the Puak shrine who lives right at the gate of the sacred entrance. This sacred place was more isolated than the tomb of other Malay kings. Not every person could visit this place. When the researchers conducted the interview, Informant 2 initially objected to providing information because she had to ask permission 'inwardly' first.

The King of Puang was well-known within the Malay community as a simple, honest, and wise king. He did not like to be exalted or to exalt others. The king, who was the descendant of the Bugis kings, was buried in this location, and the tomb was taken care of by a key jury. It was not easy to be a caretaker of this sacred place. There were special requirements that should be fulfilled by a caretaker, including many separate rules, such as being obedient to worship, doing good deeds, not being prejudiced, and so on. During the interview, Informant 2 gave a glimpse of the origins of the sacred tribe.

(4) *Keramat Puak berasal dari nama Raja Puang keturunan Bugis. Raja ini konon terkenal dengan kearifan, jujur dan bijaksana. Ia kemudian dimakamkan di Nongsa yang terpeleset menyebutkan Puang menjadi Puak.* [The sacredness of Puak comes from the name of the Bugis King, Puang. This king is said to be famous for his wisdom and honesty. He was then buried in Nongsa, which led to the mention of *Puang* as *Puak*.] (Informant 2)

Regarding the ethnoecological study behind the existence of the Puak tomb, the researchers also discovered that several prohibitions must be complied with during a pilgrimage to the tomb. These prohibitions were also closely related to tracing human behavior interacting with nature. They are explained in the next sub-sections.

4.2.1 Prohibition of bad intentions during pilgrimage

When undertaking pilgrimages to the site, visitors must first purify their intentions. This tomb is not open to the public. All individuals intending to visit this sacred place must seek permission in advance from Informant 2, the caretaker. This is emphasized in the interview excerpt as follows.

(5) *Prasasti menyebutkan bahwe Pusare Raje Puak adalah keturonan dari sang Maha Raje Nong Isa, tapi dengan perlakuan yang berbede. Pusare Puak lebih condong untuk kalangan pribadi bukan untuk orang ramai.* [The inscription stated that *Pusare Raje Puak* is the descendant of the great

Raje Nong Isa, but with different treatment. *Pusare Puak* is more suitable for private groups, not for the general public.] (Informant 2)

In the interview, Informant 2 shared many stories about several people visiting the grave without asking permission first. The visitor could be threatened with danger, such as getting lost or encountering wild animals. All the visitor's behaviors will have an impact on the key jury; the key jury could experience pain and even a fever. Suryana and Angga (2022) mention this correlation as a relationship between humans from the perspective of travel mysticism. This concept emphasizes that when humans have merged themselves with a certain object when another object is hurt, they will also feel hurt, even if they feel it spiritually. In this context, the key jury has become one with the sacred; the pain she felt represented the sacred as a part of nature that teaches inner unity between each other.

4.2.2 Prohibition against arrogance

The ethics of protecting the environment are not only in physical form but also in terms of moral ethics, as Wang's (2009) postmodern ecological perspective describes the ideology of Tiongkok society in terms of the moral balance between humans and nature. This reflection was also implied in the myth of the prohibition of being arrogant when visiting the sacred of Puak. An arrogant attitude will prevent visitors from being able to reach the tomb. Various obstacles will be experienced if this attitude is carried out. This is also confirmed in the following excerpt.

(6) *Jangan pernah berlaku angkoh bile nak bekunjong ke tanah pusare, kite manusie cume sekedar hambe, yang paling berkuase cukop milik kuase, jadi rendahkela hati sucikelah niat.* [Don't ever act arrogantly if you want to visit the sacred (Puak). We are only human beings and just servants; the one with the most power belongs to God. So, be humble with a pure heart and have pure intentions.] (Informant 2)

Ethical behavior was also a part of the relationship to maintain harmony between nature and humans. The moral ethic of not being arrogant, as mentioned in the excerpt above, was also, according to researchers, a part of not making someone superior to others. The ecological concept states that environmental damage begins because of an imbalanced relationship between humans and nature (Arianto & Simanjuntak, 2020). Human superiority will make people behave at will, including in their treatment of nature (Harun et al., 2023).

4.2.3 Prohibition against damaging the natural environment

In ethnoecological studies, the interaction between humans and nature is carefully examined. This representation of behavior is also reflected in the prohibition of damaging the natural environment, which includes changing positions and modifying graves at will. This was highlighted in an excerpt from the interview with the brother of Informant 2, as follows.

(7) *Jage kate dan sikap bile menginjak tanah pusare, besikaplah yang ramah dan santon, utamekan meminta ijin pade penjage pusare bukan sekendaknye. Termasok memperbaiki pusare, niat dah baek iringi juge dengan sikap nan elok.* [Watch your words and attitude if you intend to visit sacred land. Be friendly and polite, prioritizing asking permission from the sacred guardian, not

acting on mere whims. This includes repairing the sacred land with good intentions accompanied by a beautiful attitude.] (Informant 2)

Hilmanto (2010) highlights the inseparable connection between human culture and the environment, stressing the need for a balanced approach in preserving nature and respecting both. The sacred tomb Puak, located near Resort PT Tirta Riani Indah, requires permission from the key jury for any beautification or modification to ensure the preservation of its sacred elements. This aligns with ethical considerations within the caretaker tradition. Fremaux (2019), an ecomodernist, emphasizes the importance of an ethical path in all forms of modernization for environmental sustainability. Emphasizing an ethical imperative, she advocates addressing ecological issues, ensuring social justice, and promoting responsible environmental behavior amid the challenges of modernization.

4.2.4 Prohibition against stealing and wrongdoings

Garrard (2004) states that in ecocriticism, respecting nature involves recognizing the inherent value of the environment beyond human utility. Another prohibition discovered through the interview with the key jury was the forbiddance of taking anything from the grave, especially with certain bad intentions. This was explained by the caretaker in the following excerpt.

(8) *Pernah ade sang pengunjong (peziarah) yang datang ke makam untok mengambil sebongkah tanah kemudian buat ritual tertentu. Saye bisa merasekan kegelisahan yang penat oleh tingkah orang tu baek dalam mimpi atau dalam sendiri. Tolong dijage niat jika hendak bekunjong kesane.* [There were once pilgrims who came to the grave to take a piece of earth and then perform a certain ritual. I can feel the anxiety that is caused by the behavior of well-intentioned people in dreams or within myself. Please be mindful of your intentions if you want to visit there.] (Informant 6)

Informant 6 also mentioned that the soil from the tomb could be used by someone to harm others. This was typically done by business owners who did not appreciate other people’s businesses. Such actions would also destroy the sacredness of the tomb and cause anxiety for the caretaker. The caretaker is unable to filter visitors who have bad intentions, and it will affect them. Informant 6 mentioned that he would experience pain and wake up at night due to certain disturbances.

4.3 The Sea as the Central Life of Nature in the Sacred of Batu Belah

In Kampong Tua Nongsa, another ethnoecological representation is seen in the sacred Batu Belah on Putri Island. According to the myth, a dragon launched from Nongsa Island to the sea, creating Putri Island. The sacred significance of Nongsa Island, its beach, and Putri Island is upheld by various prohibitions, indicating profound and sacred values linked to Batu Belah and these locations among the Malay community.

4.3.1 Prohibition against committing adultery

The sacred *Batu Belah* was found on Puteri Island, across from the Malay of Kampong Tua of Nongsa, featuring an exotic tourist attraction that captivates the interest of visitors. A picturesque sea spans the distance between Nongsa and Puteri

Island, enhancing the scenic beauty of the surrounding landscape. From the beach, a prominent elongated island is believed by the Malay people to be the former path of a dragon. Visitors are advised to adhere to specific restrictions to ensure a respectful and harmonious visit to the site. This information was obtained by researchers through interviews with several other informants, including community advice consisting of traditional leaders (Informant 8), village officials (Informants 9 and 10), the younger generation (Informants 11, 12, 13, and 14), and community leaders (Informant 15). Among them is the following excerpt.

(9) *Diingatkan sangat untok anak-anak mude yang menyebrang ke Pulau Puteri, jage sikap kalian jangan buat yang tak senonoh. Alam tu tak diam, die memperhatikan ape yang kalian lakukan.* [Please remind young people crossing over to Puteri Island to be careful not to act indecently. Nature is not silent; it watches what you do.] (Informant 8)

The prohibition in (9) reflects the concept of cultural awareness regarding the interconnectedness between humans and the environment. This perspective emphasizes the intrinsic value of nature. Such awareness motivates individuals to encourage ecological ethics, promote sustainable relationships and steering clear of narrow anthropocentric views (Hilmanto, 2010).

4.3.2 Prohibition against using obscene language

Many traditional societies view nature as sacred and imbued with spiritual significance, leading to certain behaviors and language being deemed appropriate or taboo in natural settings. This reverence often extends to the language used, where taboo language or obscene words could be seen as a form of pollution or disrespect not just socially, but also spiritually, potentially disrupting the natural order or offending nature. The prohibition on saying dirty words when crossing the sea to the sacred of Batu Belah, and the avoidance of profane language in this context, reflect a deeper cultural and spiritual connection with nature, illustrating how language and environmental ethics are intertwined in the collective consciousness. This is reflected in excerpt (10).

(10) *Laut merupakan bagian dari keindahan, jangan kotori keindahan tersebut dengan ucapan-ucapan yang tak pantas. Bersikaplah sewajarnya dan cintai lingkungan alam.* [The sea is a part of beauty; don't ruin it with inappropriate words. Be good and love the natural environment.] (Informant 11)

The sea is celebrated as a manifestation of natural beauty, embodying the sublime and interconnectedness of ecosystems. Garrard (2004) demonstrated that the perspective to value the sea is not merely as a resource but as a symbol of ecological harmony. The ecocriticism approach recognizes the aesthetic significance of the sea, appreciating its role in shaping narratives that foster environmental consciousness and an appreciation for the intrinsic beauty of the natural world. It is akin to appreciating the true beauty of nature not with insults but with praise.

4.3.3 Prohibition against littering

Another prohibition emphasized by the society in Kampong Tua of Malay when people want to visit the Sacred of Batu Belah is that they are prohibited from polluting the environment. This prohibition, accompanied by myths, is also a reflection of Malay identity closely tied to the environment. They believe that nature would be angered if it were hurt or polluted, so people always emphasize concern for environmental cleanliness, especially on the coast. This is illustrated in the following excerpt.

(11) *Masyarakat melayu yang tinggal dipesisir pantai sangat peduli dengan lingkungannya. Karena tahu kerusakan lingkungan disebabkan oleh perbuatan manusia itu sendiri. Upaye yang dilakukan warga sekitar diantaranye gotong royong membersihkan pantai dari berbagai sampah dan kotoran. Jadi, masyrakatpun turut mengimbau pade pengunjung untuk menjage kebersihan lingkungan.* [Malay people who live on the coast truly care about their environment because they understand that environmental damage is caused by human actions. Efforts carried out by local residents include working together to clean the beach from various rubbish and dirt. Therefore, the community also urges visitors to maintain environmental cleanliness.] (Informants 9 and 10 [village officials])

Excerpt (11) reflects the emphasis on maintaining cleanliness as a form of a broader commitment to environmental stewardship. Heise (2011) highlights the interconnectedness between ecological well-being and human actions, where protecting nature is seen as essential for sustaining biodiversity and mitigating climate change. Safeguarding nature is crucial for averting disasters that impact human well-being. Anderson and Renaud (2021) emphasize that preserving ecosystems acts as a natural buffer, mitigating the impact of disasters. Conserving nature is an integral strategy for securing human communities against environmental threats (Arianto et al., 2021). This is also what the Malay community continues to encourage, striving to keep the environment clean from the threat of natural disasters.

4.3.4 Prohibition against damaging the marine environment

The emphasis on caring for the environment was also expressed by the Malay community leader, accompanied by the prohibition of damaging the marine environment. He mentioned that there had been a disaster because nature was angry, so they held a prayer together as a form of regret for destroying nature. The relationship between nature and society, particularly in the context of myths that prohibit damaging nature, reflected deep-rooted cultural and spiritual beliefs about the interconnectedness of humans and the natural world. This was described in the following conversation excerpt.

(12) *Suatu ketike pernah ade ae laot yang melunjak kedarat, semua karene perbuatan manusie yang tak peduli lagi dengan alam. Dengan itulah, kami masyarakat kampong mengadekan doa tujoh hari berturut, sebagai bentok kepasrahan pade yang kuase dan permohonan maaf atas kesilafan yang tak mempedulikan alam.* [Once there was a lake that surged to the ground, all because of the actions of humans who no longer cared about nature. With that, we, the village community, offered prayers for seven days in a row, as a form of submission to the ruler and an apology for our mistakes of not caring about nature.] (Informant 15)

Excerpt (12) reflects the relationship between nature and society, particularly emphasizing the connection between spiritual beliefs and nature. Taylor (2010) terms this phenomenon the ‘Dark Green Religion’. He investigates the spiritual dimensions of nature appreciation, illustrating how individuals and groups, often outside traditional religious structures, develop profound connections with the environment. This addresses the intersection of spirituality, nature, and environmental values in the context of today's global ecological challenges. In the context of myth, this is not only a form of ritual but also a spiritual dimension of a movement to appreciate the existence of nature.

4.3.5 Prohibition against berating

Another attitude that needs attention when heading to the split rock is not to curse. This abuse has the potential to go beyond the spiritual. The negative energy that comes out could disrupt the harmony and balance of nature, disturb spirits or Gods, and cause undesirable consequences. This emphasis was expressed in the following excerpt.

(13) *Ketika berada dilaut tak perlu mencaci maki. Selain menjaga lingkungan secara fisik juga penting untuk menjaga perkataan. Perbanyak pujian terhadap ciptaan bukan sebaliknya sikap mencaci dan merendahkan manusia lain dengan ucapan.* [When you are at the sea, there's no need to berate. Apart from protecting the physical environment, it is also important to protect our speech. Increasing praise for creation is not the opposite of scolding and degrading other humans with words.] (Informant 12)

The ethnoecological approach involves exploring values and meanings in human behavior reflecting the preservation of the natural environment. The excerpts presented in this study depict ecological representations of the sacred myth of Batu Belah, emphasizing the sea as the center of natural life. Various prohibitions closely tied to environmental sustainability, such as adultery, using harsh words, littering, damaging the marine environment, and weighing others down, are separately addressed. In ethnoecological studies, the symbiotic relationship is explained: humans depend on nature for survival, and preserving nature is crucial for ensuring its continuous ability to provide essential benefits. In ethnoecological concepts, the intricate relationship between nature and humans is expanded (Hunn, 2007; Nazarea, 1999). This encompassing perspective recognizes nature beyond living organisms, encompassing islands, oceans, and trees as integral components contributing to the interconnected relationship. The inseparable correlation between the beauty derived from interconnected natural elements and prohibitions against negative behaviors emphasizes the importance of upholding actions, attitudes, and ethics as integral moral values, reflecting a reciprocal appreciation within the framework similar to ethnoecological principles.

The Nongsa people exhibit a regular commitment to sea protection, using large nets to remove flooded dirt and rubbish from the beach; additionally, during sea waves' rise to residential areas, the key jury advises residents to hold a *kenduri* (feast) and prayer ceremony to seek protection from human errors, recognizing the connection between environmental damage and human actions. While ecocriticism in literature has explored oral literature, the implementation of ethnoecology in literary criticism remains unexplored. This research uncovers ecological phenomena in Malay ethnic habits reflected in sacred myths like Bumbum, Puak, and Batu Belah, emphasizing the intricate relationships between humans and nature, where the attitude of respecting sacred sites represents not just a myth but an essential aspect of nature, religion, and social ethics in society.

5. CONCLUSION

Ethnoecology is concerned with the exploration of the values and meanings contained in human behavior and ethnicity, especially behavior that reflects the conservation of the natural environment. This study found that there are three important ethnoecological representations of ecology conservation in the framework of ethnoecology behind the story of the sacred myth of Bumbum, Puak, and Batu Belah toward Malay people in Batam, they are (1) the ecological ties between forests and humans in the sacred Bumbum, (2) the reflection of the wise king in the sacred of Puak, and (3) the sea as the central life of nature in the sacred of Batu Belah. The ethnoecological elements found in the sacred sites reveal thoughtful connections between human behaviors and the natural world. Prohibitions against cutting down sacred trees, picking leaves, defecating around the tree, and other restrictions are not merely myths but reflect an intricate relationship that emphasizes ethical considerations and environmental custodianship. The stories behind these sacred myths underscore the deep-rooted cultural, spiritual, and ethical values that guide human interactions with nature. In essence, the Malay community's ethnoecological practices provide insights into preserving cultural heritage, maintaining a harmonious relationship with nature, and confronting contemporary environmental challenges. The interconnectedness between cultural beliefs, practices, and the natural world highlights the reciprocal appreciation within an ethnoecological framework, emphasizing the need for ethical values as integral moral principles in human-nature interactions.

While this study provides valuable insights into the ethnoecology of Malay sacred myths in Kampong Tua Nongsa, Batam, it has certain limitations. Firstly, the research relies on qualitative methods, such as direct community involvement and in-depth interviews with a limited sample size of 21 informants. This raises concerns about the generalizability of the findings to the broader Malay population in Indonesia. While the study explores the cultural significance of the sacred myths, it does not explicitly address the socio-economic factors or contemporary challenges faced by the Malay community regarding the industrial development in Batam, which could offer a more comprehensive understanding of their current situation.

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Exploring Ethical Frontiers: Moral Dimensions in the Tapestry of Contemporary Indonesian Literature

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Abstract

Literary works have the potential to enhance a reader's internal reservoir of life values without being dismissive. Contemporary Indonesian literature specifically imparts moral messages to its readers. This study aims to explain the moral dimensions present in this literature, utilizing descriptive qualitative methods. Purposive sampling was employed for data collection, covering words, sentences, and discourse representing morals from contemporary Indonesian literary works. This research relies on a literature study for data collection, employing the dialectical method for analysis by oscillating between literary texts and social reality. The findings reveal diverse moral dimensions within contemporary Indonesian literature, each contributing significantly to enriching the reader's inner repertoire. These moral dimensions include (1) transcendental: aligning oneself to God, (2) struggle against evil (jihad fii sabiilillah), (3) nationalism, (4) getting closer to God (transcendental value), (5) gender equality as respect for women, (6) upholding the dignity of women, (7) remembering God (dhikr), (8) low morale leading to corruption, (9) upholding religion above worldliness, and (10) religious idea: life is a pseudo-game. The study's implications suggest that contemporary

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Indonesian literature serves as a significant source for fostering moral values, contributing to readers' inner development by highlighting themes such as spirituality, societal responsibility, and ethical conduct. This insight can inform educational and cultural initiatives to promote moral awareness and consciousness.

Keywords: Contemporary Indonesian literature, moral dimension, sociology of literature.

1. INTRODUCTION

Literature is a work of art about the imaginative existence of humanity using language as a medium. Reflections of socio-cultural realities depicted in literature, apart from being works of art, also influence inviting, prohibiting, and even influencing readers. From a humanitarian perspective, literary works contain various aspects of life such as social, moral, customary, and ethical (Carr, 2014).

Literature as a reading source for society has become one of the media that is transforming following the flow of globalization and current developments (Widiastuti et al., 2022). Literary genres, including poetry, fiction (short stories and novels), and drama, are children of the era that depict the patterns, ideals, aspirations, and behavior of society. In line with the views of Nasir and Ufairah (2023), that the essence and existence of literary works are interpretations of life. Literature is expressed by writers through poetry texts, prose fiction, and dramatic plays which utilize the aesthetics of language for a more dramatic effect.

As a work of art, literature, apart from entertaining, also teaches morals without having to preach through narratives in short stories or novels, lines and stanzas of poetry, and dialogue in drama plays. Encouraging moral values among learners can be achieved by utilizing literature (Husnaini & Parendi, 2022). It can make its readers more cultured, more sensitive, and more caring about their social environment, and have empathy for the poor and national problems in addition to their relationship with God.

If we look closely, it can be revealed that the decline in people's morals can be influenced by several issues, such as politics, the economy, society, dan technology (Latif et al., 2022). The 'two languages' that dominate Indonesian society are the political language which is winner-oriented, and the economic language which is profit-oriented. Therefore, the country may lose politicians or economists because they will be replaced by other statesmen. However, if the country has lost morals, the nation will become extinct or at least experience a decline.

Ironically, the phenomena of corruption, collusion, and nepotism–the main reasons for the reform movement that overthrew the new order (Saputra, 2018)–have recently become increasingly rampant. How many government bureaucrats such as ministers, governors, and mayors/regents (executive), law enforcement officers namely prosecutors, judges, and police (judicial), and people's representatives namely members of the People's Representative Council (legislature) are caught in corruption? Moral decadence, such as premarital relationships among teenagers, the habit of drinking alcohol, drugs, crime, and domestic violence, is increasingly widespread in society. Strictly speaking, currently, Indonesian society is experiencing an alarming moral crisis (Davies, 2020). On the other hand, the 21st century confronts us with several national problems, including global competition which demands an increase in the quality of human resources. Human resources with competitive and comparative advantages, and moral integrity will be able to win the future (Hamadamin & Atan, 2019).

Along with the globalization of the world, we are now heading towards an unpredictable future. We must be able to face it without having to lose direction or become alienated from the values of local wisdom inherited from our ancestors, one of the sources of moral teachings that is often contained in literature. Theoretically, according to Setyaningsih (2017), local wisdom is a manifestation of the cultural teachings of a local community which are sometimes noble.

The contradiction is, that even though literature has the potential to become a source of moral education that can enrich the readers' inner repertoire, in reality, literature has not yet become interesting reading for society. An indicator of this is that the culture of reading literature in society is very minimal. The circulation of creative literary books such as poetry collections, short stories, novels, and drama texts in society is also minimal. The average number of literary books in school libraries is minimal.

Several studies are relevant to this research. Kosasih (2013) studies moral values in Malay classical Islamic literary works. Nurgoho and Suseno (2019), study the moral values in the short stories of the *Suara Merdeka* newspaper as an alternative literature teaching material in high schools. Akbar et al. (2021) analyze the moral message in an Acehnese legend. Rachman and Susandi (2021) examine moral values from the perspective of literary sociology in the novel *Paradigma* [Paradigm] by Syahid Muhammad. Azkia et al. (2021) examine the violation of moral values in the novel *Aku Lupa sebagai Perempuan* [I Forgot that I'm a Woman] by Ihsan Abdul Quddus and its implications for learning in high schools. Nama and Sudewa (2022) examine moral values in the *Hikayat Maharaja Bikrama Sakti* (The Tale of Maharaja Bikrama Sakti). Burhanuddin and Mahsun (2023) investigate the moral values in the short story *Si Kakek dan Burung Merpati* [Grandfather and the Pigeon] by Muhammad Fudoli. The moral values found in these studies include self-confidence, submission, love, affection, and balance in life in this world and the hereafter, as well as the education of human personalities. Hence, the difference between this study and the previous studies mentioned earlier is that the latter only studied one or two literary works, including novels, short stories, and legends. Meanwhile, this present study examines several contemporary Indonesian literary works, both in poetry and prose fiction (short stories and novels).

Considering various limitations, the analysis of the moral dimension in contemporary Indonesian literary works is limited to literary works selected according to the research objectives (purposive sampling). This research aims to describe the moral dimension in contemporary Indonesian literature; thus, the research question is:

- How does the moral dimension manifest in contemporary Indonesian literature?

Uge et al. (2019) note a decline in the values of local wisdom, prompting this research to address the weakening understanding of cultural values in literary works. Data analysis reveals abundant moral ideas and messages in contemporary Indonesian literature, offering valuable insights into readers' inner enlightenment and emphasizing the didactic value of literature (Culler, 2002).

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Contemporary Literature

According to Ahyar (2019), literature is a work of art that contains many elements of humanity and life, including thoughts, feelings, and beliefs. Al-Ma'ruf and Nugrahani (2019) state that literature is a work of art that expresses the existence of humanity with all its variations and twists and turns imaginatively and creatively using aesthetic language as the medium. Al-Ma'ruf and Nugrahani (2022) further specify that literary work is a medium for the expression of a writer in the form of imaginative fiction that contains the values and essence of life that are felt, thought, lived, and experienced by the writer. Literary works and real life, especially community or social life, are two interconnected things (Setianingsih, 2019).

Literature is a sign system (Culler, 2003). Many literary researchers are of the view that without including social aspects, that is, without viewing it as an act of communication, or as a sign, literature cannot be researched and understood scientifically. Hugh (1972, in Aminuddin, 2015) stated that literary works that have literary weight must meet two main criteria. The two criteria are (1) the relevance of the values of human existence which are described through art, imagination, and invention, all of which have a unified whole, are in harmony, and have coherence in achieving certain goals (integrity, harmony, and unity), and (2) power of expression, breadth, and charm presented through form (texture) as well as the arrangement of linguistic elements and verbal structure (consonant and clarity). Inayyah and Simanjuntak's (2022) statement is true, that novels as a literary genre can provide moral education to readers to avoid or oppose violence in their lives.

In line with that, contemporary literature is literary work that contains nationalist elements or a national spirit using Indonesian as the medium (Rosidi, 2003). Based on Rosidi's (2003) view, this means that contemporary literature began to emerge in 1921/1922, namely the Balai Pustaka Force with several phenomenal works at that time, such as the romance *Azab and Sengsara* [Doom and Misery] by Merari Siregar published in 1920, and *Sitti Nurbaya* by Marah Rusli published in 1922. Also, poems by Mohammad Yamin, Muhammad Hatta, Sanusi Pane, and others were published in Jong Sumatra magazine. The collection of poems *Homeland* by Muhammad Yamin reflects the spirit of nationalism and love for the country. In line with that, Yudiono (2010) explain that writing the history of Indonesian literature can be based on stylistic, thematic, character development, or social context, all of which are a means of placing literature in such a way that it has meaning for the people. In this way, contemporary Indonesian literature is literature that lives and develops in the new Indonesian society which expresses nationalism, and no longer regionalism. Contemporary literature appears in the form of poetry, short stories, serial stories, novels, and dramas.

2.2 Morals

The goal of society is to create a prosperous life by upholding morals because morality is a code of ethics that allows people to coexist peacefully in groups. For Bertens (2011), the term 'moral' is used to determine the boundaries of a person's character, temperament, will, opinion, or behavior that can be classified as right, wrong, good, or bad. In the context of moral and didactic aspects, the literature contains educational value that can lead readers in a certain direction. Therefore, a valuable literary work is a literary work that contains didactic values. Understanding literary works is nothing more than an effort to give meaning to the literary work as a whole (Culler, 2002). Moral values in literary works are values conveyed by the author to educate humans in all aspects or issues of life and life so that humans can regulate their behavior to become good humans.

Morals (morality) is a term for referring to other humans in actions that have positive values. Nurgiyantoro (2015) coin morals as norms that are the ideas accepted by society about human behavior, and what is good and bad. Morals that are taught well will increase a person's ability to avoid despicable traits that can damage themselves and others (Elkabumaini & Ruhyana, 2016). Moreover, morals are (1) principles relating to right and wrong, good and bad, (2) the ability to understand the difference between right and wrong, and (3) teachings or descriptions of good behavior (Nata, 2013).

According to Kaur (2019), moral education is taught at home and school, such as loving fellow human beings, respecting elders, not making mistakes, never lying, loving one's country, not being jealous, etc. But nowadays crime thrives everywhere. Therefore, morals are closely related to issues of life and human life, including issues of human relationships with (1) themselves, (2) other humans in the social sphere, (3) the natural environment, and (4) God (Nurgiyantoro, 2015). The human relationship with oneself is something that involves the inner self and psyche of an individual which includes self-extension, self-esteem, self-confidence, fear, shame, longing, resentment, loneliness, etc. Human relations with other humans concern a person's relationship with other people personally, which includes love, affection, friendship, etc. The human relationship with nature can be defined as a form of human relationship with nature, including flora and fauna. Human relationship with God, namely love and devotion to Him, which includes belief, worship, surrender, and so on. Therefore, the moral values of injustice, for example, are a bad thing, and politeness and generosity are good things (Rodriguez-Soto et al., 2022).

Morals are formed by ethics. Morals talk about how things should be, while ethics talk about how good it is. Therefore, morals and ethics can be said to be morals. In fact, in Islam, morals are a barometer of the quality of a person's faith. This means that the perfection of a person's faith can be seen from the goodness and nobility of his morals. Rasulullah Saw. said: "The best believer is the one with the most noble morals" (H. R. Abu Dawud from Abu Hurairah). That is also why in Minang culture there is a very popular expression among the people there that tradition is based on *sharia,* and *sharia* is based on the book of Allah. This is embedded in the following expressions of the Minang people: *Adat basendi syarak* 'tradition based on Islamic religious law', *syarak basendi kitabullah* 'sharia based on al-Qur'an'. Sharia is the law derived from the scriptures of Islam, primarily the Quran and the Hadith, forming a fundamental aspect of Islamic teachings

As a literary work, the novel is a processing of social problems by Indonesian intellectuals, including writers, since the 1920s. In this case, writers are members of society who are bound by their social environment, so novels are created by writers to be enjoyed, understood, and utilized by society. Literature is also expected to be able to give a satisfying impression to its audience because the main aim of this literature is to provide satisfaction, aesthetic impressions, and values in a novel that can provide positive value to its audience (Afrila et al., 2021).

2.3 Sociology of Literature

Sociology, which rests firmly on a historical sensibility, questions the way we organize ourselves through numbers and alternative ways of measuring reality, ethnographically oriented works are interested in ways of inhabiting the world understood numerically (Camargo & Daniel, 2021). Sociology depends on the social conditions of community society which are reflected in literary works with imaginative polish. Literary works that attract people's attention, if they are read continuously, will be stored in them and will cause turmoil in their souls (Wasik & Liliani, 2019).

Sociological studies in literature aim to obtain a complete picture of the relationship between authors, literary works, and society. The sociological approach to literature is widely used today (Pradopo, 2021); its attention is on the documentary aspect of literature which is based on the idea that literature is a mirror of its time. Thus, literature is a direct reflection of various aspects of social structure, familial relationships, class conflicts, etc. The task of literary sociology is to connect the experiences of fictional characters and situations created by the author with the historical reality from which they originate.

Literary sociology is developed as an innovation from the structuralism approach which was considered to have ignored the relevance of society as the origin of literary works. Literary sociology assumes that literature must function the same as other aspects of culture (Ratna, 2003). So, in literary sociology, literary works are seen as socio-cultural documents that reveal the socio-cultural reality of a society at a certain time. Ratna (2003) explain the analysis model in literary sociology typically uses the dialectical method which includes three types of forms. First, analyze the social problems contained in literary works, then relate them to reality. Second, similar to the earlier analysis, but by finding the relationship between the elements. Third, analyzing literary works to obtain various information, which is carried out in certain disciplines.

3. METHODS

This research uses a qualitative descriptive method with content analysis or thematic techniques. Qualitative research is research aimed at describing and evaluating phenomena, events, social activities, attitudes, beliefs, perceptions, and thoughts of people both individually and in groups (Bachri, 2010). Descriptive research is research that tells, examines, and interprets existing data to provide an overview of how contemporary problems are solved. In this research, researchers carried out data analysis using a descriptive qualitative approach.

The data used in this research is in the form of excerpts from literary texts that represent morals with data sources in the form of contemporary Indonesian literary works in the genres of poetry, prose fiction (short stories and novels), and drama. The selection of genres and/or works of contemporary Indonesian literature as data sources was carried out using purposive sampling techniques (Sugiyono, 2016). Moreover, the data collection techniques in this research are documentation and note-taking (Sugiyono, 2016). This means that researchers read documents in the form of literary works intensively and note important things. Data validity is carried out by triangulation of data sources and data-based. Triangulation was done by looking at data from various sources and then cross-checking them with each other.

Data analysis was carried out using thematic analysis using Goldmann's (1980) dialectical method. This is in line with the literary sociology approach used in this research. Through the dialectical method, a dynamic relationship and continuous tension can be seen between the four components, namely text, author, reader, and reality or the universe (Abrams, 1998). Using the dialectical method, the literary sociology approach was seen as an attempt to describe elements that show the relationship between moral aspects as imaginative realities in literary texts with social realities in the real world (Ratna, 2003). In implementation, to reveal moral meaning in literature, researchers conducted a back-and-forth study between imaginative reality in literary texts and social reality in the real world and vice versa.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As a result of the authors' creativity and reflection on life phenomena in their socio-cultural environment, literary works are rich in various life values that can enrich their inner treasures. Literature is always attached to and related to stylistics or beauty in its creation (Rajendra, 2020). Furthermore, it expresses moral messages in the form of humanitarian existence and innovative ideas (Wildan et al., 2023). Life values vary in literary works, including local wisdom values. Local wisdom refers to the knowledge, practices, and values associated with the unique culture of a particular region or community (Rubingah et al., 2023). The development of local wisdom can be carried out through communities in the surrounding environment (Sofyan et al., 2019). In contemporary Indonesian literary works, many moral messages found in this study expressed all aspects of life. These moral messages include (1) transcendental: aligning oneself to God, (2) struggle against evil (*jihad fii sabiilillah*), (3) nationalism, (4) getting closer to God (transcendental value), (5) gender equality as respect for women, (6) upholding the dignity of women, (7) remembering God (dhikr), (8) low morale leading to corruption, (9) upholding religion above worldliness, and (10) religious idea: life is a pseudo-game.

4.1 Transcendental: Aligning Oneself to God

A transcendent taste, surpassing all human aspirations, prompts individuals to bow down to the clear voice within the soul due to its greatness. Submissive in both ideals and behavior, as well as in intention and work. The novel *Ronggeng Dukuh Paruk* [*Ronggeng* Dancer from Dukuh Paruk] by Ahmad Tohari in 1982, tells the story of Srintil, a girl who was eleven years old at that time. She was born and raised in Dukuh Paruk Village and was a village girl who was not beautiful, smelly, and was not liked by many people. However, after she succeeded in becoming a *ronggeng* (a type of Javanese dance in which couples exchange poetic verses as they dance to the music of a *rebab* or violin and a gong), people praised her.

(1) *Dan kemudian Srintil dengan nilai-nilai kemanusiaannya sendiri merasa selera agung, meski tanpa sepatah kata jua, membuka pintunya bagi segala manusia dan kepada tiap-tiap jiwa untuk masuk dan menyelelaraskan diri kepadanya.* [And then Srintil, with her own human values felt a great taste, even without a word, opened the door for all humans and for every soul to enter and align themselves with her.] (Tohari, 1982, 355)

Transcendental aspects that are essential for human life are also contained in literature. Through this novel, Tohari (1982) encourages readers to always follow the voice of their conscience in their actions and creations which whisper the truth. This is important so that people do not get trapped in the abyss of immorality which usually starts from following the whispers of lust (Muzakkir, 2012). For this reason, humans must try to align their behavior with God's teachings. This section reminds us of the words of Allah in the Al-Qur'an:

(2) *Yaa ayyatuhan nafsul muthmainnah, irji'ii ilaa rabbiki radhiyatan mardhiyyah, fadkhulii fi 'ibaadii wadkhulii jannatii.* [O serene soul, return to your Lord to obtain His pleasure and enter the ranks of servants (who believe) and enter My heaven.] (Q.S. Al-Fajr: 27-30)

In this verse, Allah calls the death of calm and peaceful souls when they die, those who are pure because of their faith and the pious deeds they do, so that they obtain what Allah promised to them, that is heaven.

4.2 Struggle against Evil *(Jihad Fii Sabiilillah)*

Through his poem, *Negeri Para Bedebah* [Land of the Bastards] in 2009, the poet, Adhie M. Massardi, not only conveys ideas about socio-political, national economic, and humanitarian problems but also a call to fight in the way of Allah against and eradicate crime. He read this poem in the KPK (*Komisi Pemberantasan Korupsi* or Corruption Eradication Commission) office yard as part of an action of concern for the KPK on November 2, 2009. It was then published by Viva.co.id on November 7, an online newspaper, in the same year. His poem emphasizes that humans must do good and prevent evil, as shown in (3).

(3)	*Tahukah kamu ciri-ciri negeri para bedebah?*	Do you know the characteristics of a land of bastards?
	Itulah negeri yang para pemimpinnya hidup mewah	That's a country where the leaders live in luxury
	Tapi rakyatnya makan dari mengais sampah	But the people eat by scavenging through rubbish
	Atau menjadi kuli di negeri orang	Or working as laborers in other's lands
	Yang upahnya serapah dan bogem mentah.	Whose wages are cursory and raw punches
	Di negeri para bedebah	In the land of bastards
	Orang baik dan bersih dianggap salah	Good and clean people are considered wrong
	Dipenjarakan hanya karena sering ketemu wartawan	Imprisoned just because they often meet journalists
	Menipu rakyat dengan pemilu menjadi lumrah	Cheating the people with elections has become commonplace
	Karena hanya penguasa yang boleh marah	Because only the ruler can be angry
	Sedangkan rakyatnya hanya bisa pasrah.	Meanwhile, the people can only surrender.
	Maka bila negerimu dikuasai para bedebah	So if your country is ruled by bastards
	Jangan tergesa-gesa mengadu kepada Allah	Don't be in a hurry to complain to Allah
	Karena Tuhan tak akan mengubah suatu kaum	Because God will not change a race (a group of people)
	Kecuali kaum itu sendiri mengubahnya	Unless they change it.
	Maka bila melihat negeri dikuasai para bedebah	So if you see that the country is being ruled by bastards

Usirlah mereka dengan revolusi	Drive them out with revolution
Bila tak mampu dengan revolusi, dengan demonstrasi	If you can't do it with revolution, with demonstrations
Bila tak mampu dengan demonstrasi, dengan diskusi	If you can't do it with demonstrations, with discussion
Tapi itulah selemah-lemahnya iman perjuangan!	But that's the weakest faith in the struggle!

Massardi (2009)

In the fourth stanza in (3), there is a very clear explicit invitation and appeal to the reader to fight back and even eradicate crimes committed by officials/high-ranking state officials who live luxuriously without caring about the people whose lives are miserable (Tube, 2020). If we look closely at the 4th stanza of the poem in, that is: //So if you see that the country is being ruled by bastards/Drive them out with revolution/If you can't do it with revolution, with demonstrations/If you can't do it with demonstrations, with discussions/But that's the weakest faith in struggle!//; it is an embodiment of the Qur'anic verse which reads:

(4) *Allazina amanu wahajaru wajahadu fisabilillah biamwa-lihim waanfusihim a'damu darajatan indallahu waulaika humulfaizun.* [Those who believe and migrate and strive in the way of Allah with their possessions and themselves are of a higher rank.] (Q.S. At-Taubah: 20)

The verse means that those believers with strong faith, and willing to sacrifice their wealth, body, and soul, for the truth are of the higher rank in the eyes of Allah. The verse implies that these individuals, who exhibit such deep faith and readiness to make sacrifices, are considered to be of a higher rank or status in the eyes of Allah. This higher rank could be associated with increased spiritual closeness, favor, or reward from the divine.

4.3 Nationalism

Apart from socio-cultural and humanitarian issues, contemporary Indonesian literature also expresses the dimension of nationalism, namely nationalism and attitudes that reflect love for the nation and state. Tohari (1982) inserts elements of nationalism in his novel *Ronggeng Dukuh Paruk*.

(5) "*Yang sampean maksud dengan kaum penindas?*" [What do you mean by oppressors?]
"*Kaum imperialis, kapitalis, dan para kaki tangannya. Tak salah lagi!*" [The imperialists, capitalists, and their henchmen. There's no mistaking it!]
(Tohari, 1982, p. 138)

Tohari (1982) considers the imperialists, capitalists, and their accomplices to be oppressors. Since Indonesia's independence, there are no longer colonialists who control the homeland. After the independence of the country's sovereignty, the influence of imperialism, capitalism, and liberalism in economics became a new reality that had never occurred in this country. It is currently battling the two major global ideologies that are sustaining its development in this period of globalization: socialism, which is supported by communist countries, and liberalism, which is supported by Western nations (Rogers et al., 2020). Because of this, imperialists, capitalists, and their accomplices are considered the oppressors of the people, as portrayed in (5).

4.4 Getting Closer to God (Transcendental Value)

As a writer and poet, Ebiet G. Ade's works are very familiar with religious or transcendental nuances, both divine and humanitarian. Almost all of his poems are full of elements of religiosity which tickle the reader's conscience to always be grateful to God for the gifts he has bestowed on humans. The infinite gift is 'time', as portrayed in his lyrical poem *Masih Ada Waktu* [There's Still Time], in his album *Sketsa Rembulan Emas* [Golden Moon Sketch], released in 1988.

(6)	*Kita mesti bersyukur* *Bahwa kita masih diberi waktu* *Entah sampai kapan* *Tak ada yang bakal dapat menghitung*	We must be grateful We still have time Do not know until when No one will be able to count
	Hanya atas kasih-Nya *Hanya atas kehendak-Nya* *Kita masih bertemu matahari*	Only by His love Only by His will We still meet the sun
	Sampai kapankah gerangan *Waktu yang masih tersisa* *Semuanya menggeleng* *Semuanya terdiam* *Semuanya menjawab tak mengerti*	How long can it be? Time that is still left Everyone shakes their heads Everyone is silent Everyone answers they do not understand
	Yang terbaik hanyalah *Segeralah bersujud* *Mumpung kita masih diberi waktu*	The best thing is Prostrate yourself immediately While we still have time

Ade (1988)

Apart from reminding us of the importance of being grateful, Ade (1988) also invites readers to prostrate or worship Allah while we are still given a long life. A prostration is an act of submission and humility to Allah (Rahmadani & Thahir, 2022), as shown in //The best thing is/ Prostrate yourself immediately/While we still have time//.

4.5 Gender Equality as Respect for Women

Interestingly, Oka Rusmini in her novel *Tarian Bumi* [Earth Dance] published in 2007, expresses women's struggle in resisting male hegemony as can be seen in the following quote.

(7) *...Sejak kapan orang-orang di desa ini melarang gadis cantik sepertiku ikut menari?* […Since when did people in this village forbid a beautiful girl like me from dancing?]. (Rusmini, 2007, pp. 20-21)

(8) *Salahkah kalau sekarang aku ingin jadi penari yang dipuja-puja? Penari yang dapat menghidupkan sekeha joget desa ini! Begitu banyak sekeha joget yang muncul. Kudengar mereka semua memiliki pragina yang luar biasa. Di atas panggung tubuh pragina-pragina itu benar-benar jadi api yang membakar setiap nafas laki-laki. Luar biasa. Aku ingin melebihi pragina-pragina itu. Aku yakin Kenten, aku bisa melakukannya.* [Is it wrong that now I want to be a respected dancer? Dancers who can liven up this village dancing scene! So many dancing scenes appear. I hear they all have extraordinary praginas. On stage, the bodies of pragina women really

become a fire that burns every man's breath. Extraordinary. I want to go beyond those praginas. I'm sure Kenten, I can do it]. (Rusmini, 2007, pp. 20-21)

The novel emphasizes that women must emancipate themselves from the constraints imposed by traditional or societal norms that impede their freedom of movement and activities. Women should not be objectified by men. Hence, women must strive for dignity and self-respect to establish their presence and stand on equal footing with men. According to Nasution & Saad (2020), Q.S. Al-A'raf 7:172 informed that since from the womb, all humans acknowledged that Allah is the One God and the Creator, without distinction between men and women. In the initial stages of human creation, there was no discrimination based on gender.

4.6 Upholding the Dignity of Women

An interesting problem in Indonesian literary works is the problem of the message to uphold the dignity of women. Y. B. Mangunwijaya expressed this in the following novel *Burung-Burung Rantau* [Wandering Birds] in 1992.

(9) *Memang aku perempuan! Puan dan empu, pembela kehidupan, penggendong si lemah! Ya, aku berkacak pinggang dan jari-jari mengepal! Jangan coba-coba main-main, kusepak anumu sampai kau menjerit-jerit kesakitan! Ya, aku punya harga, dan tinggi hargaku! Bukan kecantikan modalku! Itu yang kau mau. Tetapi aku bukan bahan gerabah yang dapat kau bentuk menurut kehendakmu! Ya, aku ada! Apa? Kausebut ini tidak pantas itu tidak menurut adat? Aku, ya akulah yang menentukan sendiri mana pantas, mana adat! Bukan kamu! Dan bukan ibuku sekalipun!* [Indeed I am a woman! Ladies and gentlemen, defenders of life, carriers of the weak! Yes, I put my hands on my hips and my fingers clenched into fists! Don't try to play around, I'll kick your genital until you scream in pain! Yes, I have a price and a high price! Not my capital beauty! That's what you want. But I am not a pottery material that you can shape according to your wishes! Yes, I am! What? Do you call this inappropriate or not according to custom? I, yes I am the one who decides for myself what is appropriate, what is customary! Not you! And not even my mother!] (Mangunwijaya, 1992, p. 254)

The quote in (9) from the novel shows that women deserve respect, with their dignity acknowledged and upheld. They possess equal potential and competencies as men, and are fully capable of becoming advocates for the vulnerable. In Islam, for example, this religion has organized the duties of men and women, by their respective natures, without the intention of lowering one's gender (Nasution & Saad, 2020).

4.7 Remembering *(Dhikr)* God

Ebiet G. Ade, through his many poems (which are then sung), is skilled at conveying moral messages about the importance of caring and maintaining good relationships with fellow humans. This is shown in one of his songs, *Berita kepada Kawan* [News to Friends] released in 1979, in his second album, *Camelia II*.

(10)	*Kawan coba dengar apa jawabnya* *Ketika kutanya mengapa* *Ayah ibunya telah lama mati* *Ditelan bencana tanah ini*	Friends, try to hear what the answer is When I asked why His parents died long ago Swallowed by this land disaster
	Sesampainya di laut *Kutanyakan semuanya*	Arriving at sea I asked everything

Kepada karang kepada ombak kepada matahari	To the coral, to the waves, to the sun
Tetapi semua diam tetapi semua bisu	But all is silent but all is mute
Tinggal aku sendiri terpaku menatap langit	I was left alone staring at the sky
Barangkali di sana ada jawabnya	Maybe there is an answer there
Mengapa di tanahku terjadi bencana	Why is there a disaster in my land?
Atau Tuhan mulai bosan	Or God is getting bored
Melihat tingkah kita	Look at our behavior
Yang selalu salah dan bangga	Who is always wrong and proud
Dengan dosa-dosa	With sins
Atau alam mulai enggan	Or nature starts to be reluctant
Bersahabat dengan kita	To be friendly with us
Mari kita bertanya	Let's ask
pada rumput yang bergoyang	On the swaying grass

Ade (1979)

Ade (1979) engages in a thoughtful and critical examination of the reasons for the occurrence of disasters on Earth. His perspective underscores the importance of introspection to comprehend the root causes of such events. The imperative is clear: the preservation of the natural environment is crucial. The correlation between human actions and the incidence of natural disasters is highlighted by Harun et al. (2023). They assert that the occurrence of these calamities is often intertwined with human activities that either inflict harm on nature or neglect the significance of environmental stewardship. This perspective suggests that human actions, marked by environmental disregard or damage, contribute to a state where nature reacts unfavorably, akin to expressing 'anger' or becoming 'unfriendly' towards humanity.

4.8 Low Morale Leading to Corruption

Corruption in the novel *Ladang Perminus* [Perminus Farm] published in 1990 by Ramadhan K. H., is described as not merely due to economic deficiencies or weaknesses, but rather as having become entrenched in government institutions. In conditions of dilapidated economic and bureaucratic governance, exacerbated by the immoral behavior of officials who do not care about the fate of the people, corruption has become a social phenomenon that spreads everywhere (Wibowo & Aqil, 2023). This can be seen in the following excerpt of the novel.

(11) *Korupsi sekarang sudah menjadi wabah. Gentayangan di mana-mana, merasuk ke mana-mana. Kulihat, sekarang kita sudah sulit untuk memisahkan mana milik negara dan mana milik pribadi.* [Corruption has now become an epidemic. It is everywhere, it has penetrated everywhere. I see, now it is difficult for us to separate what is state property and what is private property.] (Ramadhan, 1990, p. 185)

(12) *Sudah segala macam peraturan dan undang-undang dikeluarkan, tapi korupsi terus merajalela.* [All kinds of regulations and laws have been issued, but corruption continues to run rampant.] (Ramadhan, 1990, p. 186)

In (11) and (12), low moral values are shown through the characters of the novel, the Managing Director and Kahar, who are in control of the government and are immoral officials. To fulfill their lust for a luxurious life, many government officials are involved in acts of corruption (Harun et al., 2023).

4.9 Upholding Religion above Worldliness

The novel *Kemarau* [Drought] by A. A. Navis in 1957, states the importance of humans to uphold religion above humanity. Whatever humanity is, no matter how heavy it is, it must still be placed in obedience to Allah (Rahmadani & Thahir, 2022). This is illustrated in (13).

(13) *Walau apa katamu terhadapku, walau kauhina, kaucaci maki aku, kaukutuki aku, aku terima. Tapi untuk membiarkan Masri dan Arni hidup sebagai suami istri, padahal Tuhan telah melarangnya, ooo. Itu telah melanggar prinsip hidup setiap orang yang percaya pada-Nya. Kau memang telah berbuat sesuatu yang benar sebagai ibu yang mampu memelihara kebahagiaan anaknya. Tapi ada lagi kebenaran yang lebih mutlak yang tak bisa ditawar-tawar lagi, Iyah, yakni kebenaran yang dikatakan Tuhan dalam kitab-Nya. Prinsip hidup segala manusialah menjunjung kebenaran Tuhan.* [No matter what you say to me, even though you insult me, you curse me, you curse me, I accept it. But to let Masri and Arni live as husband and wife, even though God has forbidden it so. It has violated the life principles of everyone who believes in Him. You have indeed done something right as a mother who is able to maintain her child's happiness. But there is another, more absolute truth that cannot be negotiated, yes, namely the truth that God says in His book. The principle of life for all humans is to uphold God's truth.] (Navis, 1957, p. 112)

Navis (1957) conveys the moral message in this novel that when we are faced with problems in this life between the world and the hereafter or God's teachings, we must uphold God's teachings even though they are difficult. In (13), Navis' (1957) moral message is very clear "But there is another, more absolute truth that cannot be negotiated, yes, namely the truth that God says in His book. The principle of life for all humans is to uphold God's truth" (p. 112).

4.10 Religious Idea: Life is a Pseudo-Game

The religious dimension is revealed in *Dilarang Mencintai Bunga-Bunga: Kumpulan Cerpen* [It Is Forbidden to Love Flowers: A Collection of Short Stories] by Kuntowijoyo published in 1992. An excerpt from the short stories collection is shown in (14).

(14) *Jangan sedih, Cucu. Hidup adalah permainan layang-layang. Setiap orang suka pada layang-layang. Setiap orang suka hidup. Tidak seorang pun lebih suka mati. Layang-layang dapat putus. Engkau dapat sedih. Engkau dapat sengsara. Tetapi engkau akan terus memainkan layang-layang. Tetapi engkau akan terus mengharapkan hidup. Katakanlah hidup itu permainan. Tersenyum, Cucu.* [Don't be sad, Grandson. Life is a kite game. Everyone likes kites. Everyone likes to live. No one prefers to die. Kites can break. You can be sad. You can be miserable. But you will continue to fly the kite. But you will continue to hope for life. Let's say life is a game. Smile, Grandson.] (Kuntowijoyo, 1992, p. 4)

Jewelry is a symbol of joy and fun. So, in life, the pleasure we experience is only superficial. The joy that humans experience sometimes turns into sadness. Just like in a game, in facing the bitter reality of life (grief, misery), humans do not need to be sad because grief does not last forever. The story highlights that sadness will be replaced by joy. Therefore, in facing any reality of life, whether it is joy or sorrow, humans do not need to dissolve and have patience in facing any obstacles (Fadlilah et al., 2022).

Based on Islam, this trust can be found as a hypogram in the Al-Qur'an in the last sentence of the verse shown in (15), "the life of this world is nothing but deceptive pleasure".

(15) *Kullu nafsin żā`iqatul maụt, wa innamā tuwaffauna ujụrakum yaumal-qiyāmah, fa man zuḥziḥa 'anin-nāri wa udkhilal-jannata fa qad fāz, wa mal-ḥayātud-dun-yā illā matā'ul-ghurụr.* [Every soul will taste death. And only on the Day of Resurrection shall you be paid your wages. Whoever is kept away from hell and put into heaven; then indeed has been lucky. The life of this world is nothing but deceptive pleasure.] (Q.S. Ali Imran: 185)

Moral messages in literature can be a medium for moral education for students. In line with the views of Prayitno et al. (2022), national education shapes morals civilizes the nation to have noble character, and develops the potential of students to believe in God.

5. CONCLUSION

Based on the results of the research and discussion of the various literary works above, it can be concluded that contemporary Indonesian literary works contain many moral dimensions. Moral messages in literature can provide inner enlightenment for readers about the values of life. Appreciating the meaning of literature can refine readers' minds and hone their sensitivity towards fellow humans. These moral dimensions include (1) transcendental: aligning oneself to God, (2) struggle against evil (*jihad fii sabiilillah*), (3) nationalism, (4) getting closer to God (transcendental value), (5) gender equality as respect for women, (6) upholding the dignity of women, (7) remembering (dhikr) God, (8) low morale leading to corruption, (9) upholding religion above worldliness, and (10) religious idea: life is a pseudo-game. The study's implications suggest that contemporary Indonesian literature serves as a significant source for fostering moral values, contributing to readers' inner development by highlighting themes such as spirituality, societal responsibility, and ethical conduct. This insight can inform educational and cultural initiatives to promote moral awareness and consciousness

It is realized that research on the moral dimension in contemporary Indonesian literature is still limited to literary works that are popular among the literary community, both works and writers. Common limitations in this research include potential subjectivity in interpreting moral dimensions, the scope and representativeness of the sampled literary works, and the generalizability of findings beyond the specific context of contemporary Indonesian literature.

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Subversion of Neo-Imperialist Hegemony: A Postcolonial Study of *Red Birds* by Mohammed Hanif

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Abstract

Although the erstwhile colonies in the Third World are free from the colonial occupation, the imperialist hegemony continues, to be resisted in the societies. For, such enterprise has provided the pretext for the concepts of 'Self' and 'Other' followed by occupation, a reign of violence and terror loosened upon the natives. This paper aims to study Red Birds (2018) a novel by Mohammed Hanif to highlight the plight of the 'Other' with their aggressive vitality and fervor of resistance to counter the imperialist agenda-hegemony. As qualitative research, it employs the postcolonial method, while seeking theoretical insights from the arguments of Orientalism by Edward Said, and the theory of hegemony by Antonio Gramsci to be interpretive in nature to analyze the text. It explores how the text, gleaned selectively from the novel offered, like Orientalism a fabric of textual analyses that is highly critical of the Eurocentric notions and hegemony of the Western world. It underlines the ways and practices sketched by the novel through the troubling encounter of the characters from the East to the West to offer a subversive narrative to the failure of the efforts and narratives of the West. For better analyses of the text to underline the American neo-imperialism and the native dreams of subversion, it takes to the tone of Gramscian precepts to conclude that the powerful subjugates through hegemony–the geo-political method used to

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gain indirect imperial dominance which is maintained mainly through ideology instead of using means like economic force, or coercive strategies.

Keywords: Eurocentrism, center and periphery, hegemony, 'self' and 'other'.

1. INTRODUCTION

The two terms colonialism and imperialism are closely related and complementary to each other. Said (1993) defines colonialism as the establishment of settlements on distant territories. On the other hand, imperialism refers to the theory, practice, and attitude of a dominating metropolitan center that rules a distant territory. Colonialism can be considered a sort of geographical violence, and it is an activity that takes place in the peripheral areas of the center–colonial countries. It has two methods to operate. Sometimes it is content with establishing settler colonies in the far-off distant lands. At other times, it does not establish settler colonies but aims at the exploitation of the periphery–colonized countries, to achieve economic gains. However, imperialism is an ideology through which the metropolitan center operates upon the periphery, without physical presence for the same end (Young, 2016).

Colonialism and imperialism have affected the world for centuries. The world has been divided into two warring factions—a binary. On one side are the colonizers/centers with power. On the other side, there are colonized/marginalized—'Other', whom Gramsci (1971, p. 9) calls "subaltern" which has been misrepresented by the colonial imagination, as negative, mysterious, exotic, and "a race of less-than-humans". The negative portrayal of the natives helps the colonizers to define themselves in comparison to the colonized as "civilized" people with "intellectual and rational faculties" (Crehan, 2016; Said, 1978; Sartre, 2015, p. 13). In his article, "Edward Said and Postcolonial Theory: Disjunctured Identities and the Subaltern Voice", Burney (2012, pp. 41-42) contends how Said's work has shifted the focus of attention from the "dominant, logocentric, and mainstream" narrative to the emergent discourse, native culture, and intellectual contributions, unique geopolitical fabric of the Other/periphery, that could find a place in the centers of teaching and learning, what he calls "a pedagogy of the Other".

A postcolonial reading of the play such as *The Tempest* (Shakespeare, 1958), originally written in 1610c, offers us a colonial "encounter between the civilized and the wild" (Marrouchi, 1999, p. 29), something that Sartre (2015) calls "racist humanism" (p. 13). Sartre (2015) holds that imaginatively "Europeans have been able to become men through the creation of slaves and monsters in other cultures" to manipulate ideologically the subjugated people (Sassoon 1991, p. 230). Shakespeare offers us a shining example in this regard through the play. To weaken, subjugate, and maintain his control on the island he has occupied, Prospero discredits the main figure on the island–Caliban, by 'describing' him as "not honored with a human shape" (Shakespeare, 1958) and labels him as a "deformed", "wild", "beast", "dwarf", "tortoise", "mix of fish and man", etc., before he subjects him to physical violence and torture (Vaughan, 1991, pp. 10-14). The dramatic presentation of the play is typical of the third world like Pakistan, India, Afghanistan, Africa, or any other nation that has been subjected to Western dominance. They have been exposed to enslavement, torture, massive massacres, cultural destruction, and deprivation of land and resources under the Western occupation. They lost almost everything along with their respect and pride in their culture. Worst of all, their history is diluted to present them as if they had no civilization and belonged to the Stone Age (Young, 2016), under Western colonialism. Nkrumah (1965), the Ghanaian leader, considers neo-colonialism as the worst form of colonialism. He argues that it allows the powerful nations to exercise immense power over the weak nations. Such exercise of power is without any responsibility and liability and as a result, gives rise to a reign of inexplicable oppression and violence. For those who suffer at its hands, it means exploitation without any redress and compensation.

However, by the time colonization was wreaking havoc on the occupied territories, the marginalized/colonized nations of the world started a political and intellectual resistance against the colonialists to wrest back power from the latter. In this way, there emerged a body of literature called postcolonial literature (Young, 2016) to redress the wrongs of Western dominance. Colonialism did end in the last century due to the resistance of the colonized against it. However, autonomy and freedom in the colonized societies are still missing. Neo-colonialism emerged at the hands of the West to replace colonialism. Western powers have continued to manipulate global politics and have maintained economic hegemony. There has occurred just a change in form with the end of colonization. In substance, nothing has changed. Decolonization means just a change in political and economic setup as the former masters continue to rule by establishing political, cultural, ideological, and economic hegemony (Gramsci, 1992). In this way, freedom remained an illusion for the colonized people (Said, 1993). Gramsci (1971) underlines this situation as:

> The traditional ruling class, which has numerous trained cadres, changes men and programs and, with greater speed than is achieved by the subordinate classes, reabsorbs the control that was slipping from its grasp. (Gramsci, 1971, pp. 210-211)

Engagement of the resistance literature finds it imperative to offer an unambiguous and convenient critique against the manipulative presuppositions of the Eurocentric intellectualism/propaganda/cultural hegemony/historic bloc. For Gramsci (1971), ideological and political superstructure is fundamental to fracture the mechanism and base of hegemony (Sassoon, 1991). In such circumstances, postcolonial literature offers a response to counter the ideological, theoretical, and psychological standpoint of the neo-colonial world. As Sartre (2015) says in his preface to *The Wretched of the Earth* (Fanon, 1963) the white people “had the Word”, and the colonized people learned how to use it against the colonizers. Writers from the periphery have seized the means of communication and power of representation from the colonizers to present their own culture. Fanon (1963) says that the European elite committed to manufacturing a native élite:

> …with the principles of Western culture, they stuffed their mouths full with high-sounding phrases, grand glutinous words…whitewashed [them]. These walking lies had nothing left to say to their brothers; they only echoed. It came to an end; the mouths opened by themselves; the yellow and black voices still

> spoke of our humanism but only to reproach us with our inhumanity. (Fanon, 1963, p. 7)

Hanif (2018) seems to contend that all sorts of machination even violence of the West to control the 'Muslim teenage Mind' of his characters falls flat. Mohammed Hanif, born in 1964, a British national of Pakistani origin, described as 'Pakistan's brightest voice' by the *Guardian*, is the author of critically acclaimed books like, *A Case of Exploding Mangoes* (2008), *Our Lady of Alice Bhatti* (2011), *The Long Night* (2002), *What Now, Now That We Are Dead?* (2008), and *The Dictator's Wife* (2008), and *Red Birds* (2018). He earned his academic specialization as a pilot and chose to work as a journalist after divorcing his job as a pilot in the Pakistan Air Force. He has bagged many international awards for his remarkable literary work. His last work, *Red Birds,* set in a war-torn and half-forgotten place located in some conflict-ridden Muslim country, sketches characters caught in a never-ending war, who disillusion readers about the claims put forward about them.

The novel opens with Major Ellie, an American pilot crash-landing in a desert, hallucinating after ten days of starvation and worrying about dehydrating to death, taking refuge in the very 'enemy camp' he was tasked to bomb and meets Momo from there. Momo, like his 'brain fried mongrel' with the mind of a poet-philosopher–Mutt, is one of the central characters of the novel, who ceaselessly searches for his missing brother–Ali, who seems to have been swallowed by a ghostly and mysterious American military base, used for local war operations, called the Hangar. The pilot lies to Momo that his plane crashed on the way to deliver American aid to locals in need. Momo, a hustler born and bred in the wartime of the desert, does not give the lie the dignity of a moment's consideration and startles Ellie with "You can't be a child in this place for long" (Hanif, 2018, p. 15). Because it is a Godforsaken spot, where nobody can afford to be innocent. Mutt describes the situation as "God left this place a long time ago, and I don't harbor any delusions about my own role on this earth, but I can imagine what he must have felt. He had had enough. I have had a bit more than that" (Hanif, 2018, p. 26).

Hanif (2018) offers a remarkable critique of the disconnected, outsourced, and technologically-dependent methods of contemporary war. At one point Ellie, espousing the war-was-better-in-the-good-old-days mentality of his superior officer, muses: "We used to have art for art's sake; now we have a war for the sake of war. No lands captured, no slaves taken, no mass rapes, fuck their oil wells, ignore their mineral deposits. You can outsource mass rape. War has been condensed to carpet-bombing followed by dry rations and craft classes for the refugees" (Hanif, 2018, p. 32). While exposing the inseparable ugly relationship of capitalism, empire, and liberal politics, he highlights the ridiculousness of neoliberal warfare of unspeakable violence committed by neo-imperial powers of the world to create societies dependent on them. As Major Ellie flatly puts it:

> If I didn't bomb someplace, how would she save that place? If I didn't rain fire from the skies, who would need her to douse that fire on the ground? Why would you need somebody to throw blankets on burning babies if there were no burning babies? ...You need fireworks to ignite human imagination. (Hanif, 2018, p. 201)

In *Red Birds,* Hanif (2018) pins the typical American way of defining the 'Muslim mind' through their cosmopolitan academic practices, where the victims of war are the subject of academic experimentation and research. It particularly, stands out in its portrayal of precarity that best describes the lives of the refugees from all sides and from which even such a dedicated and professional Western academician as Flowerbody, a character in the novel, who had come to study the situation in the refugee camp and surroundings, fails to extricate herself. Hanif intrigues particularly the character of a fifteen-year-old precocious teenager named Momo as a foil to Lady Flowerbody, who is shown to be analyzing her refugee subjects in a 'cold', 'impartial' and impassioned, orientalist manner for her Ph.D. thesis on the "Teenage Muslim Mind". Momo baffles the 'scholar' with his understanding of the Western utilitarian approach to the East and plans to christen her for the fulfillment of his own plans of retrieving his missing brother, Ali.

The novel is wonderfully humane when it paints the dark side of war. But it is utterly savage in its treatment of the ideological implications of war and conflict. It documents a counter-discourse through the encounter of his characters from the East and the West. It seems to dramatize the theory of Orientalism by Said (1993) who reiterates that Orientalism is "a Western style for dominating, restructuring, and having authority over the Orient…even produce—the Orient politically, sociologically, militarily, ideologically, scientifically, and imaginatively" (Said, 1993, p. 3) through the process of othering/marginalization. *Red Birds* sketches an encounter of opposing ideologies discussed by the characters from the East and the West in a miserable setting of a war-torn Muslim society. It reflects the Orientalist approach to the East based on their fantasies of centuries presented by the characters from the West in conversation with Momo and Mutt. The text is full of dark comedy and witty eviscerations of war following the mores of unconventional satire to draw out human ugliness, true brutalities of war of US foreign policy through the narrations of characters, particularly Mutt, "whose wisdom comes from his sense of smell, which extends to emotions and motivations. Fear smells like rotting apples, unrequited love like mustard. Regret is burnt bread. Tricks smell like onions and delusions like vinegar" (Nayeri, 2018).

Red Birds have been explored by researchers worldwide. However, the area of exploration this study aims for evades the scholarly discussions till now. It aims to underline the situation and the ways, in which the native 'Other' questions the prevailing ethics and puts up resistance to the forces of hegemony, through an in-depth study of the *Red Birds*. It endeavors to explore how the text foregrounds not only the political and social milieu of the subjugated native culture which is exposed to the barbarity of foreign invasion of the West, but also the native ethics, unconventional characters, and modes of narration that are not so common to the tradition of fiction, that seemingly intrigue to the castigation of the Western research and understanding of the native culture. While focusing on the objectives the study will try to answer the following research questions:

1. How are colonialism, imperialism, neo-imperialism, and hegemony being presented in *Red Birds*?
2. What intrigues a person to question the dominant narratives in *Red Birds*?
3. How/and why do the characters of *Red Birds*, particularly Momo and Mutt, question the social, political, and academic set-up they live in?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Foreign dominance has plagued the world for centuries and its effects have been very profound and far-reaching. It proved disastrous for the 'Other' nations resulting in the annihilation of their culture. Those who survived this tyranny of foreign dominance could not get rid of its consequences to date. The end of colonialism was expected to restore native pride in their culture and history. Ironically, this did not happen. The native societies continued to suffer due to the formation, formulation, and new tactics of control from the old powers. Charney (1987) argues that the "survival of the colonial system" continued "despite formal recognition of political independence in emerging countries which become the victims of an indirect and subtle form of domination by political, economic, social, military or technical means" (Charney, 1987, p. 48) and "practices of domination…by old colonial powers" (Freund, 1984, p. 235). Hanif (2018) highlights the situation in his novel *Red Birds*, emphasizing characters, dialogues, and the overlooked theme of hegemony and resistance explored by scholars.

Aslam (2018) documents an interview with the author of the novel, "Mohammed Hanif says *Red Birds* is set in a war-torn and half-forgotten place located in his head" through *The Hindu*. He documents the reactions of the author about the social and political landscape sketched in the novel, besides the approach the author has adopted to infuse the novel with his personal experiences of the war and conflict-torn societies like his own, into the text. In a striking comment he explains the uncertainty of a conflict-ridden society where everyone is a participant and a victim:

> But we are perpetrators, collaborators, and victims of this war. But sometimes, when we are sitting in the safety of our homes in Lahore or Karachi, it's easy to forget that there is a war—but maybe we are living off that war, maybe we have made our fortunes from that war. (Aslam, 2018, para. 12)

Farhan (2019) in a book review titled "*Red Birds* by Mohammed Hanif", claims that the text is a greatest accomplishment for it has successfully blended the diverging prospects—comic and tragic offers a narrative of prose with "no ornamental frills and no redundant fancifulness" but "engaging style and the gripping narrative [that] make it an interesting" (Farhan, 2019). There are reviews like, "'*Red Birds*': Mohammed Hanif's most sorrowful novel is swallowed up by its grief" by Nair (2018), "Mohammed Hanif's *Red Birds*: a Wildly Satiric, Piercingly Real and Darkly Humorous Narrative" by Saha (2019), "Mohammed Hanif's *Red Birds* brims with anger at the absurdity, ugliness and human cost of war" by Tripathi (2018), "'*Red Birds*' is blistering—and funny—critique of America's military meddling" by Athitakis (2019), and "A New Novel Stars the Dupes, Villains, and Victims of America's Forever War" by Sehgal (2019), written about the novel. But all of them give a general understanding of the text. However, there are some serious studies conducted recently on the text, which are detailed in the following way.

In his article "Mohammed Hanif's *Red Birds*: 'Anti-Colonial Textuality' and Beyond", Karim (2020) elaborated on this point of US-dominated neo-imperialist academic and research practice through which the Muslim world is defined, marked, and labeled as the exotic and incomprehensible Other. Even though the novel is full of symbolic connotations on various levels, the precarity of the existence of such a wasteland ensures that the signifiers do not reach their intended signified. We find how characters frequently end up misconstruing or misinterpreting various signs. As Veyret puts it, "Beyond the failure of signs, the failure of our ethics of precariousness is suggested" (Veyret, 2021) by the book. "Representing Muslims: A Postcolonial Study of Mohammed Hanif's *Red Birds*" by Anjum et al. (2021), gives a very debilitating account while adopting an inductive and exploratory approach as a research methodology to study the text. They claim that as an Orientalist piece, *Red Birds* serves the narrative of the Neo-Orientalists. For, it's a 'mouthpiece in depicting and representing Muslims as backward and savages'. The study supposes that the novel despite promising its readers to challenge and question the imperialistic, cosmopolitan, and US-centric (mis)representation of the Muslim as the Other, ironically ends up criticizing Islam itself as a backward religion that is incapable of admitting any flexibility and change (Anjum et al., 2021). "American Imperialism, Third World, and the Politics of Violence and Decolonization: A Fanonian Reading of the Colonial World of *Red Birds*" by Naz (2022) argues that the novel offers an understanding of the process of decolonization as a natural outcome of the subversive effect of colonial violence. The paper discusses the book given the precepts of Frantz Fanon about colonization and decolonization. She claims that:

> The colonizer's violence not only helps maintain his power but also precipitates the process of decolonization–in tandem exacerbates the aggressive vitality of the incarcerated subject in much greater strength and force than that of the colonizer to counter the violence of oppression. (Naz, 2022, p. 49)

"Benevolent Violence: Bombs, Aid, and Human Rights" in Mohammad Hanif's *Red Birds* by Sadaf (2022) elaborates that the novel highlights the absurdity and futility of war and violence that fractures the lives of people across boundaries. It underlines how the text offers a dystopic and paradoxical society, where violence is ever-present in various forms to act out a drama of the "global civilizational clash", in which you are simultaneously a victim and perpetrator repetitively and cyclically. It asserts that the novel offers a larger existential message as "the novel's uniqueness lies in the characters' prolific observations about the inevitability of this business of life and this business of war, …and the ongoing colossal contradiction—that we can be at peace when there will always be some people who continue to get bombed" (Sadaf, 2022, pp. 14-15).

While we notice a good deal of studies have been conducted on the text, hardly any of them have dealt with the idea of the imperialist hegemony and its repercussions on the subject space and the following resistance. Some of them have elaborated on the idea of colonialism, but the idea of imperialist hegemony and its subversion has evaded their discussions. However, they have not diluted the criticism of the US-dominated worldview which is being advanced as the only authentic worldview according to some characters as the American Woman named Cath.

3. METHODS

The study employs the Postcolonial method to explore the text. It is qualitative research that utilizes textual references related to the cultural, social, and political context of the subject under study to analyze the discourse that surrounds Western hegemony in the erstwhile colonies in the East or Africa. Being interpretive in nature, it seeks theoretical insights from the arguments of Orientalism by Edward Said (1993), and the theory of hegemony by Antonio Gramsci (1971) to explore how the novel *Red Birds* foregrounds a cultural milieu of a postcolonial Muslim society, under Western neo-imperialism, with stories, characters, voices, images, traditions and history of people, who are normally misrepresented or excluded from the dominant literary conventions. It discusses the ideas of colonialism, orientalism, and imperialism what's the primary focus of the Postcolonial method to glean a fabric of textual references from the novel under study, to underline how it offers a counter-discourse that is critical of the Eurocentric notions and Western hegemony.

This paper aims to look at the experiences of the people caught in the limbo of American imperialism through the prism offered by Orientalism and Gramscian theory of hegemony. It is especially interested in the study of the cultural legacy left by colonialism and imperialism and the aftermath. It sketches an ideological response to notions put forward by imperialism. It studies the political and social narratives surrounding imperialism and aims at the understanding of the power relations that sustain colonial and neo-colonial practices. It focuses on the politics of knowledge and tries to explain how the cultural knowledge about the colonized was applied to subjugate them. It endeavors to underscore how the theories of the 'center' by which the subjugated world is perceived, known, and understood are destabilized by the resistance of the local/native knowledge and understanding. In short, it aims at balancing the imbalanced binary power relationship between the colonizers and the colonized people by creating intellectual spaces for the subaltern people to raise their voices.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Colonialism, Imperialism, Neo-Imperialism, and Hegemony

Resistance to imperialist hegemony is a natural reaction induced by the operations and practices of a hegemonic space. Cudjoe (1980) claims that "resistance is an act, or a set of acts, that is designed to rid a people of its oppressors, and it so thoroughly infuses the experience of living under oppression that it becomes an almost autonomous aesthetic principle" (p. 186). It involves both violent and non-violent ways. Reflecting the effectiveness of non-violent resistance, Chenoweth and Stephen (2011) claim that it has proved more effective than violent resistance over the past century to attain political goals. In this regard, Gramsci (1971) says, the "consciousness" of a human being is a "historical process". So, to defy the hegemony of power, "[T]he first thing to do is to make such an inventory" of your cultural traces- that helps you to understand "historical process" and the product of the process- your 'consciousness' (pp. 335, 356-365). Throughout this paper, it tries to prove that the selected text challenges the new imperialism, by sketching oriental characters speaking their own consciousness and their own historical situation that has been based on their troublesome life experience. They defy the narratives of the powerful. The characters put up a very effective resistance to the new imperialistic forces.

Neo-colonialism and the resistance to it are most spectacularly witnessed in current-day Muslim societies for certain reasons. On the one hand, the West is trying to subjugate and manipulate their rich economic resources. On the other hand, they are important for their geographic location to weaken the adversaries of the West. Most significantly, Muslim culture or Islam, Huntington (1996) identifies in the last century, as one of the "challenger civilizations", and a center of a major shift of economic, political, and military power from the West in the post-Cold-War period, is going to defy the values of the Western "universalism" (pp. 102-120, 183-185). To truly appreciate the challenge that Islam poses to the Western worldview, one may cite Said's (1997) *Covering Islam*, in which he points out the myriad of ways in which the Western academia has continuously misrepresented and misinterpreted Islamic worldview. According to Said (1997), "Islam represents not only a formidable competitor but also a late-coming challenge to Christianity'' (p. 4). Gordimer (1973) says that if one wants to know the facts about the Moscow retreat of 1812, history books will help him. But if one is interested in knowing the horrors of this war and the pain and turmoil through which the people of that time passed, he should read *War and Peace* by Tolstoy (Gordimer, 1973, p. 7). *Red Birds* presents an excruciating picture of conflict and turmoil that brews only the miseries of the ordinary people in Muslim societies without giving any respite to their torn lives. He underscores this intensity through the choice of words, he chooses to describe the horrors of the war-torn society in the book in the following way: "I feel these are not words, these are tears of blood" (Aslam, 2018, para. 20).

Imperialism is divided into two eras–the old, colonial imperialism and the new one- neo-imperialism. The division is based on differences in time only. Both forms have the common objective of acquiring control of foreign territories followed by their exploitation. American neo-imperialism has its roots in the idea of American exceptionalism which emphasizes its difference from other expansionist countries. Its primary focus is Western hegemony and economic subjugation of the natives through psychological operations of 'manipulation' without the physical presence in the native countries (Akbar, 2003, p. 269; Tilwani, 2015, p. 131). Thomas Fried while examining American neo-imperialism in the current era is successful because the US military is safeguarding the economic interests of their nation (Fried, 1999). According to Said, western neo-imperialism and subjugation have been possible because of orientalism. Said argues that the work of Orientalists about the Eastern people was political in nature and it served the imperialist agenda facilitating the justifications of the Western dominance in the Orient. It molded the Western academic world and influenced their cultural imagination. Out of this, there emerged a public policy that proved lethal to the Orient. The Orient was constructed as the opposite of the Western world (Said, 1978). Said (1993) comments, "[T]he novel [any orientalist text that presents a western version of reality] as a cultural artifact of bourgeois society, and imperialism are unthinkable without each other" (pp. 70-71). *Red Birds* offers a remarkable consciousness and understanding of the presentation and representation of the Orient through the characterization, plot, and setting of the novel.

Orientalism offers a remarkable approach to examining how Western epistemic control and domination have paved the way for Western intervention and hegemony in the politics of the Orient (Said, 1978). Gramsci (1971) furthers the idea by claiming that hegemony is a geo-political method used to gain indirect imperial military dominance of a city-state over another city-state, to exercise power over the colonized people by the hegemon. Dominance is maintained through ideology instead of using means like economic force, violence, or coercive strategies (Sassoon, 1991). The norms and values of the dominant culture are propagated to the extent that they become 'natural' and 'common sense' (Gramsci, 1971, pp. 419-424). The novel draws characters who are well aware of their surroundings and are hardly appropriated by the Orientalist characters of the novel.

The strategies of imperialism have also become subtler in the current times. Instead of using brute force like their colonial ancestors to subjugate the 'Other', the new masters use soft power. Now countries are invaded in the name of democracy, human rights, and intervention (Sugirtharajah, 2011). Momo is very critical of their divine civilizing mission. When imperialists say that education is going to solve all their problems, he feels skeptical. He questions that how just a few elementary principles of science and works of art can make them stand equal to the colonizers. He says:

(1) "Education, they said. Education gonna solve all problems… Maybe you can get all your science and all your art education and then become a waiter on those boats". (Hanif, 2018, p. 21)

Momo, the central character of the novel, is a wisecracking teenager and a self-proclaimed entrepreneur with delusional schemes to turn his misfortune into profit. Harboring world-weary suspicion, he lives in the refugee camp with his feckless father, grieving mother, and nerd brother, Bro Ali. Though he may seem to us a devil-may-care sort of person deep down in his heart simmers a quiet hatred for the Americans for their nasty hypocrisy. He tells Ellie:

(2) [T]his place may look poorer than Afghanistan, and more violent than Sudan, but thank God there's no ideology at stake. Not for them, not for us. They bomb us because they assume we're related to bad Arabs. We steal from them because that's all we can do. They take our boys because they think that's all we have. And to lure the boys they sent out their tallest soldiers, their shiniest vehicles. (Hanif, 2018, p. 52)

Red Birds is set against the backdrop of a US bombing in an unnamed Middle Eastern country where the action begins when an American Major Ellie crash-lands near a refugee camp in a war-ravaged desert. It is the imperialist bomber of the invading American army who is seen crash-landing on the very site he was sent to bomb. Also, quite naturally, the issues of displacement, trauma, and disillusionment with war are inextricably tied with the narrative. The three sections of the novel are named The Desert, The Camp, and The Hangar–an American military facility, which are also the names of three locations where the action of the novel is set, and these locations further contribute to the circularity and repetitiveness in the novel. However, the narrative goes beyond its immediate depiction of the pangs of claustrophobia and disillusionment especially through such imageries as red birds rising and flying upwards in the sky, and mirages appearing and disappearing, etc. In an interview, Hanif says that although the novel seems symbolic, particularly, in its setting of the Camp, but:

(3) The situation is surreal at times… At the center of the novel is a house destroyed and a missing brother. I don't think there is anything symbolic there. Sometimes we look for symbols when there are none. Sometimes we wish there were symbols instead of bombs, or missing boys were

allegories for something, but they are not. I am sure we have all had a glimpse of a refugee camp or an abandoned army base. Yes, ordinary life can be surreal at times. (Aslam, 2018, para. 14).

4.2 Underling the Dominant Narratives while Sketching a Social, Political, and Academic Set-Up

In Butler's *Precarious Life* (2006) and *Frames of War* (2009), we get a vivid picture of how the military and administrative machinery of the USA has deliberately attempted to downplay the enormity of the collateral damage that their invasion of Middle Eastern countries has inflicted on the collective psyche of the people. Several Pakistani English novelists have portrayed the aftermaths of the US invasion of the Middle East and USA-led 'War on Terror' in and around areas of the Afghanistan-Pakistan border and their role in the subsequent rise in the homegrown Jihadist attacks on UK and European soil. Kamila Shamsie's (2017) *Home Fire*, Nadeem Aslam's (2008) *The Wasted Vigil*, *The Blind Man's Garden* (2013), and *The Golden Legend* (2017), strive to portray the effects of such vicious geopolitical turmoil on the marginalized Muslim population. Mohsin Hamid's *Moth Smoke* (2000) and *The Reluctant Fundamentalist* (2007) also depict the relentless marginalization, otherization, and consequent disillusionment of the protagonists with the Western culture. Hamid's (2017) *Exit West* concerns itself with the problems of emigration and refugee problems. Mohammed Hanif's *Red Birds* is a scathing critique of the United States' anti-humanitarian War on Terror in the Middle East where the US armies have only rained countless bombs on various villages and border areas and thus destroyed and uprooted a huge number of families and societies. Farhan (2019) writes in his review: "The most essential and noticeable feature of Hanif's writing is the description of the brutal aftermath of war… The novel is a scathing yet wry critique of American war policies and coercive US involvement in the Middle East" (para. 3).

The novel opens with Bro Ali's missing status. Ahsan (2020) describes Bro Ali's situation succinctly in his essay*:* "Momo's older brother, Bro Ali, has been seduced away from his grieving family into a nearby US Hangar (an American military facility, capitalized for maximum ominous effect) with no prospect of ever returning" (Ahsan, 2020). He went to the Hangar and never returned. He was an informant to the Americans giving them bombing targets. Momo wants to figure out the riddle of Bro Ali's disappearance. With Ellie and the American academic and aid worker nicknamed Lady Flowerbody, Momo hatches a plan to bring his brother home.

One of the strategies through which imperialism establishes and consolidates itself is through maintaining epistemic control. The dominated societies are first studied and then defined in the light of racial prejudices. All the positive attributes are given to the dominant while the dominant is described in negative stereotypical terms. Though Momo criticizes his people for their little acts of thievery and their failure to retrieve the missing boys, he does not fail to notice the corruption and hypocrisy of the USA. He blames them for being the biggest thieves of all, their immaculate and flawless paperwork proves to provide school, electricity, and water reservoir to the refugee camp but on the ground, there is no such thing. He says:

(4) The international-aid types, nice-smelling do-gooders who were the biggest thieves of them all. But they did their paperwork. Do you see that crater there? That was gonna be a dam for a water reservoir. Do you see that pile of shining steel poles tied down with chains and locks? That was gonna be electricity. Do you see that shack with two buffaloes in it? That's my alma mater. For

every wad of cash being pocketed, for every sack of grain or sugar being stolen, there is a pile of paperwork to prove that it's not being stolen. (Hanif, 2018, p. 19)

In this way, he deconstructs the myth of occupier's positive 'Self' image i.e., their claim of being superior beings and on a divine mission to bring civilization to the uncivilized corners of the world through the work of paper and pen.

Hanif (2018) provides an instance of abrogation of epistemic control through the way Momo deals with Lady Flowerbody. Lady Flowerbody has arrived at the camp to work on post-conflict resolution strategies and to study the trauma of the 'Young Muslim Mind'. Being the subject of different research since he was 11, he is aware of the motives behind such research. He terms the refugee camp as a destination for foreign tourists and derides the foreign academics. For, they come into the refugee camp to conduct surveys, take interviews, and then sitting in the comforts of their homes publish books about the desert people and the 'Young Muslim Minds'. He says:

(5) It was simple, they bombed us and then sent us well-educated people to look into our mental health needs. There were workshops called 'Living with Trauma' for parents, and there was a survey about 'Traditional Cures in a Time of Distress and Disorder'. Our Camp was a tourist destination for foreign people with good intentions. (Hanif, 2018, p. 39)

He thinks that under the garb of advocating God's sacred mission, she might be taken as a sort of service provider. He feels skeptical about such academics and decides not to cooperate with them anymore. Rather he plans to somehow include Lady Flowerbody in his rescue mission for the safe and secure retrieval of Bro Ali. In this way, he plans one step ahead of the imperialists. Momo demonstrates the appropriation of power from the victimizers. He understands things in Marxian terms. To him, the strategy of shedding tears and cursing the enemy is not going to work. If the residents of the refugee camp want Bro Ali and other boys back; it would be through the use of force. He criticizes the lethargic attitude of his people who have just one ideology– make *moolahs* and thank your Creator. He says:

(6) This whole nation's brains are fried. You live in this compound; your brains are fried. We can train them all their life and then when it comes time to put it into practice, they going to forget their training and go back to God. When it's time to run to the trenches or evacuate in case of a fire or even form a simple queue to get their rations, half of them start shouting God is great, and the other half start cursing each other's ancestors. Their sons keep going away and they keep waiting for them hoping they will return one day bearing goody bags from a better world. (Hanif, 2018, p. 39)

As a representative of the Western occupying forces, Major Ellie seems to be harboring a deep-rooted dismissive attitude towards even the essential Muslim practices and culture. So, he describes it mysteriously, as Said says. When he doesn't understand the things he simply judges it negatively. When he hears the *Azan* (the Muslim call to prayer) from Momo's house, he reacts in the following way:

(7) "It seems the person calling out to the people has been dragged out of bed and wants to get back to sleep". (Hanif, 2018, p. 140)

He then even wonders:

(8) "…about the sanity of a culture where people start doing stuff at a time of a day when stars are still burning bright when you cannot even see the next person's face properly". (Hanif, 2018, p. 141)

While his commentary shows his ignorance of the culture, he turns it to his credit as a typical orientalist imperialist by describing it in negative terms. Hanif shows how this worldview is shattered by Momo again and again through the plot of the novel.

The character of Momo is an ambivalent one. He dislikes Americans but at the same time, he wants to be like them to defeat them. He is the one very displeased with his native place for it does not offer any business opportunities necessary to sharpen his entrepreneurial skills. He is fond of watching Nat Geo shows and dreams that one day he will be able to launch massive global projects. His native place is too humble to offer opportunities. This causes dissatisfaction in him, and he yearns to be like the white people for whom life is full of opportunities. But at the same time, he harbors feelings of hatred and resentment towards them. He calls them thieves and usurpers and is fully determined to take revenge upon them. He wants to equip himself with the resources and the position of the white people to use them against them.

Hanif (2018) reverses the roles of the powerful and the powerless in the novel. The relationship between Momo and the Americans also undergoes a shift and swipe of roles. It is no longer the conventional one where the white people are the masters, and the native people are their slaves–the deaf and dumb ones who are devoid of rationality. He fully understands the cunning tactics of the white people and knows how to abrogate and appropriate the frame of power from them. He knows that his people have been exploited a lot by the imperialists and it is his turn to take revenge upon them by seizing the helm of affairs from them. This attitude becomes evident when we analyze his relationship with two characters i.e., Lady Flowerbody, the foreign researcher working on her Ph.D. thesis, and Ellie, the lost American pilot.

Being the subject of several foreign research, surveys, and workshops, Momo has the realization that their relationship is not more ennobling than the relationship between a quivering rat and the scientists conducting experimentation on it (Hanif, 2018, p. 55). This ignoble and dehumanizing relationship is not acceptable to Momo, and he is ready to subvert it by abrogation and appropriation. The moment Lady Flowerbody enters their house, the whole house becomes skeptical and weary of her presence among them. Momo recalls the time when their refugee camp was a tourist destination for foreign researchers. He mocks them that they first wrought havoc on them by bombing their land and then they send their highly educated people to study their mental health needs (Hanif, 2018, p. 38). When Lady Flowerbody calls him for a preliminary interview, he thinks that he must know her intentions before it. He says:

(9) [W]e shall see who is going to interview who. (Hanif, 2018, p. 52)

(10) Similarly, when Flowerbody briefs Momo about her research plan, Momo replies: "I have been the subject of many studies since I was eleven. 'Growing Pains in Conflict Zones'. 'Tribal Cultures Get IT'. Even 'Reiki for War Survivors'…I get PTSD, she gets a per diem in US dollars" (Hanif, 2018, p. 66).

Hanif (2018) offers a bitter criticism of Western research and knowledge. This is due to the role it has played in the subjugation of Oriental nations and the propagation of the imperialist agenda. In studying the factors that gave imperialism a global success, one cannot ignore the role of research and knowledge. Every aspect of the non-western nations was very meticulously studied, verified, and classified. Then the same knowledge was used to invade and colonize them. In this way, various fields of knowledge and research helped imperialism in the achievement of its goals (Said, 1993). In this regard, Said argues that even those departments of culture like critical theory and literature that were otherwise considered neutral became biased and prejudiced when they were employed in the service of imperialists. They interpreted the subordinate and weak cultures in the light of Eurocentric notions and the result of this epistemic control was a myriad of negative stereotypes attributed to the natives (Said, 1993).

In the American imagination, the refugee camp is considered the place where evil flourishes and where you can smell the evil even from the skies. The camp offers a practical shape of the Western imagination, exposed by Said, as evil, bad, or a human wasteland. It is Hanif's introduction of supernatural and paranormal entities such as the "ghosts" and the inexplicable presence of the "red birds" that further problematize the Western attempt to classify, categorize, and appropriate the exotic orientalist knowledge of the Other. Towards the end, even a hardboiled materialist and rationalist Lady Flowerbody is compelled to accept the presence of the ghosts that seem to respect no notions of man-made boundaries of culture and society and easily hop from one place to another:

(11) "I don't believe in ghosts but here they are jumping from wall to wall, completely oblivious to local culture and traditions". (Hanif, 2018, p. 111)

The ghosts seem to symbolize the repressed unconscious of the Otherized oriental subjects and also remnants of the trauma from continuous and prolonged war, besides the inner desire of the refugees to escape their tragic condition of being stuck in a limbo-like state between war and peace, and between life and death. The Western narrative proves too one-dimensional to capture the crux of the 'exotic' Other.

Hanif (2018) seems to have shattered the ideological structures, Western academia through its Eurocentric notions about the Orient has produced negative stereotypes and the hierarchical distinction between the 'Self' and the 'Other'. He explains that Alatas contends that native people have been considered indolent and unproductive in comparison to other races, particularly the Europeans, in complete contrast to what they indeed are with glorious civilization, culture, and literature (Alatas, 1977). Momo does not fall for the white people's honey trap and manages to have his own uninfluenced thinking and decisions. He rejects the stereotypical representation of his people as bad, evil, and uncivilized. Through his experiences with the white people, he reaches the truth that the white people are not infallible creatures. They are fraudulent thieves.

Normally, imperialist forces remain cautious about the transfer of knowledge to the natives. They don't import knowledge but discourse and polemics. Because they keep in mind that the 'education' imparted to the natives should create slaves mentally from the natives and ready them to serve the colonizers rather than equipping them to challenge the hegemony and control of the West. Momo does not accept the education that is based on a few scientific principles. It is enough to make him a servant of the white people just like Father Dear which is unacceptable to him. He wants to be equal to the white people (Hanif, 2018, p. 21). The characters who show an attitude of compliance towards the colonizers are described by the other characters in very derogatory terms. First Dear who has a servile attitude towards the colonizers is not liked by Momo and Father Dear. He is considered a lazy and petty bureaucrat who licks the boots of white people and who can trade off his son for the wealth of the world. He is suffering from the disease of the love of white people (Hanif, 2018, p. 75). Hanif (2018) sketches him in terms of Gramscian "consciousness", which, attaches one to a specific social group, it influences moral conduct and the direction of the will, with varying efficacy but often powerfully enough to produce a situation in which the contradictory state of consciousness does not permit of any action, any decision or any choice, and produces a condition of moral and political passivity (Gramsci, 1971, p. 333).

However, Hanif (2018) draws another character, a female foil to First Dear to successfully subvert the myth of the Western mode of woman empowerment and emancipation when he portrays the character of Mother Dear in her full glory. By the end of the plot, when all the characters arrive at the Hangar, we see how desperate she is to find her son, Mother Dear orchestrates a daring rebellion against the enemy forces. She appears as a much more powerful and independent woman than Cath or Lady Flowerbody. Another character is Momo's anthropomorphized dog named Mutt who got half of his brain "fried" and now reflects on situations either comically or with a sarcastic and pungent irony. Mutt seems to be defying the Western colonial master's uncompromising emphasis on logic and reasoning as the only means for attaining worldly knowledge and he is not a product of Momo's imagination either. Mutt even reflects on his pathetic condition in this war-ravaged wasteland where actual war continues to force him to apprehend that he might starve to death or "roast under the sun" in the place God has left "a long time ago" if he doesn't take some action against it (Hanif, 2018). In this way, the selected work highlights the resistance offered by the subjugated people and shows that, unlike the colonizers' representation of the colonized world, the native populations are very active and much more responsive against oppression. In addition, they know the white man's strategies of violence and misrepresentation of the culture.

5. CONCLUSION

This study attempted to show how the marginalized others under neo-imperialism are centered in *Red Birds* to ventriloquize their own understanding of the historical setting they are placed in and not dictated by the foreign powers. Like Orientalism, it highlights how the imperialist West views and treats the othered East through the metonymical encounter of the characters in the novel from the East and the West and how the subjugated East resists, negates, and belittles the Western presentation of the East. In *Red Birds,* we find how the employment of a multi-narrative technique helps us recover the voices thrust earlier into the periphery, and with the introduction of multi-character viewpoints, the narrative gains in diversity and plurality which then challenge the Western colonial master's hegemonic discursive practice. Also, by incorporating even the perspective of such a non-human Other, as Momo's pet dog–Mutt, Hanif (2018) seems to stress the inclusive nature of the multi-perspective narrative mode of Bakhtinian 'carnivalesque' kind in which a variety of voices are allowed to interact to break down conventions and enable genuine dialogue that consequents the chance for a new perspective and a new order of things. In this way, it not only deconstructs the colonizers' myths about the natives but also constructs the world from the point of view of the periphery. It shows that under the European garb of elevating and enlightening missions of knowledge, there were lurking dark and evil forces that ripped the natives of their pride, respect, and wealth.

This study is an attempt to offer an insight into the subject of imperialism and counter-strategies, elaborated by the theory of orientalism and hegemony, adopted by the colonized subjects to undermine the workings of the hegemon, through the exploration of *Red Birds*. It has been realized that the marginalized are centered on drawing on their knowledge about the Western ways of violence and misrepresentation of the Orient to infuriate and oppose the imperialist, with the consciousness of their cultural, social, and political setting sketched in a narrative mode that's typical to the Orient. Some writers chose subjects related to feminism or socialism, etc., to write about, keeping in view their concern for, and interest in, the issues their society deals with. Mohammed Hanif chooses to write about the subject in his award-winning fictional work, *Red Birds*, seemingly, because of the proximity to the times and space of Afghanistan and Pakistan that has been bombarded with bombs and negative portrayals through media, when he would have been writing the novel. The subject discussed is very dear and unavoidable to the current day intellectual schools of the world for practical implications. The study was limited to a literary analysis of Western neo-imperialist attitudes and resistance to it sketched in *Red Birds*, which comprises the primary text of this study. It does not explore the subject in a large number of works across the genres and disciplines to reach the generalization that can be approximately more accurate. In addition, it is necessary to mention that, although this work is ideologically rooted in some historical periods, as we discuss colonialism, imperialism, and neo-imperialism, it has not been a historical study. Therefore, a historical study, combined with a postcolonial approach across genres and disciplines, would enhance the study. This study is further confined to a post-colonial reading of a single text, lacking assumptions or results from alternative methodologies. Further research should explore recent works and approaches to critically analyze neo-imperialism and assess how texts respond to different methods.. In addition, resistance to the dominant ethics and the traditional modes of narration is a subject of scope for further exploration.

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Figure 1 illustrates the process from the manuscript submission stage to publication.

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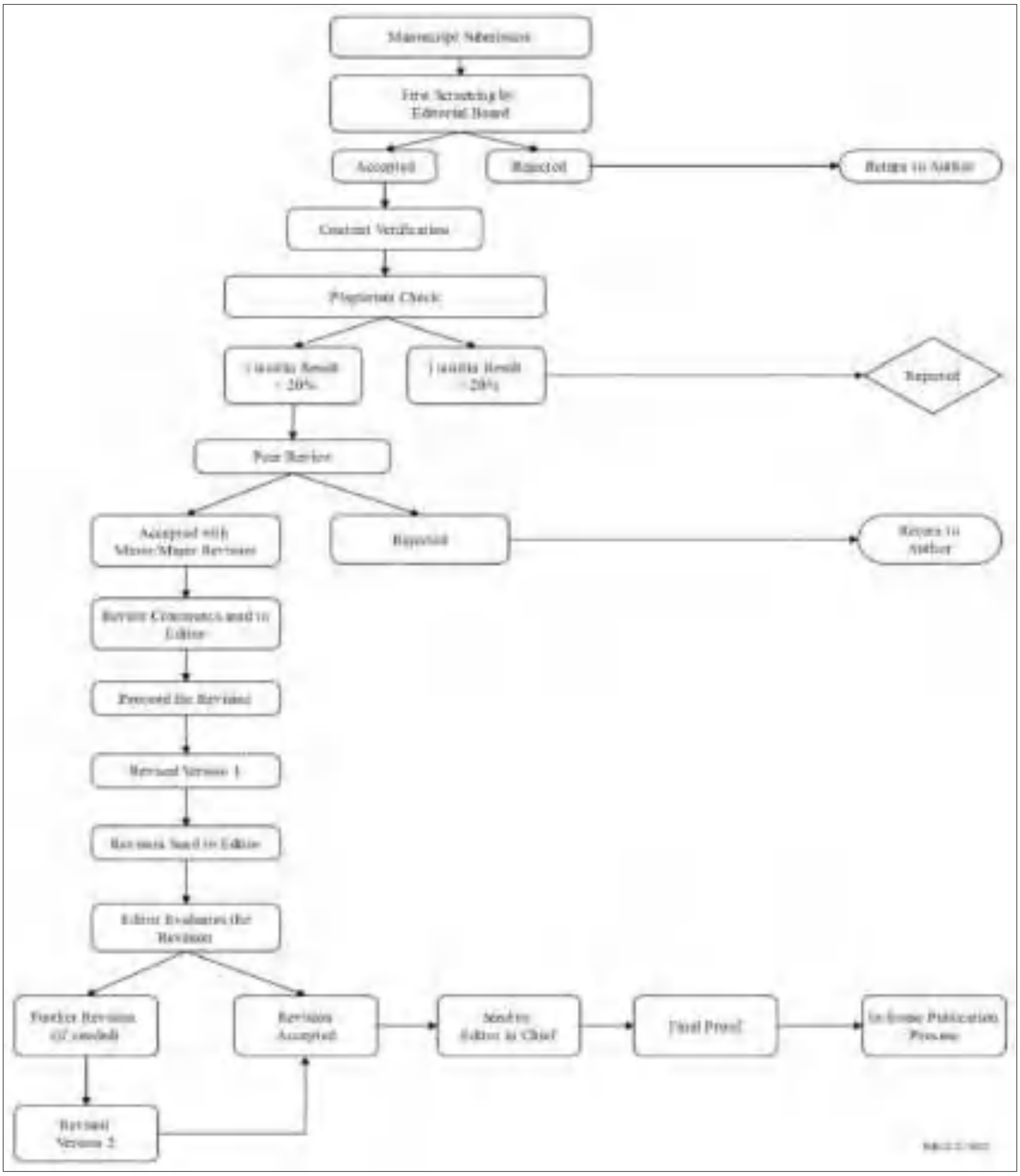

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