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Founded in 2018, International Journal of Linguistics, Literature and Translation (IJLLT) is a double-blind peer-reviewed, monthly, open-access journal published by Al-Kindi Center for Research and Development. IJLLT was published bimonthly from 2018 to 2019, and will start monthly publication in 2020. IJLLT covers the latest developments in the broad areas of linguistics, literature and translation. With its uniquely broad coverage, IJLLT offers readers free access to all new research issues relevant to linguistics, literature and Translation. While the journal strives to maintain high academic standards and an international reputation through the suggestions of the international advisory board, it welcomes original, theoretical and practical submissions from all over the world.

Mailing Address

Publisher

Al-Kindi Center for Research and Development
Address: Amman, Jordan
E-mail: editor@al-kindipublishers.com
Web: www.al-kindipublishers.com/

International Journal of Linguistics, Literature and Translation

Address: Amman, Jordan
E-mail: editor@ijllt.org
Web: www.ijllt.org
Mobile: (+968) 97618847
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Female Bodies, Male Desires: Fighting (fe)male Conventions in the Writings of J.C. Mangan, J.S. Le Fanu and Bram Stoker

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ARTICLE INFO

Received: September 24, 2019
Accepted: October 27, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.1

KEYWORDS

Postcolonial literature, feminism, Anglo-Irish Ascendancy, Irish literature, nineteenth-century literature, J. S. Le Fanu, J. C. Mangan, Bram Stoker

Female figures in nineteenth-century writings are a controversial issue; used both as symbols for the nation and as epitomes of weakness and frailty, they tend to occupy a secondary role in the fictions of the major (male) writings. This figure, however, has not proven to be consistent, being used in some cases to strengthen the idea of a dominant, powerful nation, as in the case of the British notion of ‘Rule Britannia,’ while in others it has been used to de-masculinize and disempower the other, as is the case with nineteenth-century British misrepresentations of Ireland. Such a view has been challenged by new interpretations and scholarship, as well as by literary theory, and it can be asserted that the dichotomy female/weak vs. male/dominant is not as clear-cut as it could at first seem. Postcolonial readings of nineteenth-century texts can, therefore, shed a new light in the role female characters play in interpreting those texts. The literature written in Ireland during the ‘long’ nineteenth century is no exception; the short stories of J. C. Mangan, J. S. Le Fanu and Bram Stoker present readers with a new sort of female: a decisive and powerful force, ready to bring about national change. Both J. C. Mangan and J.S. Le Fanu deploy the female figure to abrogate and subvert a symbol which had been used by the British colonisers to ease their rule over Ireland, thus ushering not only a new, modern concept of the Irish nation but also a new perception of the Irish female, empowering the notion of the female as nation, and subverting British misrepresentations of Ireland as a female in need of a chivalrous (British) knight in shining armour which had justified British colonial interventions in Ireland. This trend is continued in the writings of Bram Stoker, which anticipate later deployments of the female during the Irish Renaissance to empower the Irish nation and fight off attached connotations of feebleness and frailty which British texts had assigned the Emerald Isle.

1. INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

The importance of the female figure in nineteenth-century literature has been explored in depth by many critics, most notably Elleke Boehmer, Gina Wisker or C. L. Innes among others. The female figure has had various connotations, both in colonial literature, and in nationalist and post-colonial literature. If for the first one the female represented the land to be conquered, for the second one it was the mother that had to be rescued, the motherland whose liberation “would also involve the recovery of the mother tongue” (Innes 138). C. L. Innes is quick to remind her readers that the iconic use of the female to represent the nation is not restricted to nationalist literature. As she puts it, “Britain and France are most frequently allegorized in female form, while patriotic citizens and colonial subjects were exhorted to fight for ‘Mother England’” (138). In similar terms, Gina Wisker reminds us that:

The idea of Mother Africa tends to indicate a close connection between women and the land and women and the maintenance of certain social behaviours […]. Much writing by male authors depicts Africa as a woman,
According to Wisker, what differentiates the point of view of colonizer and colonized is the perception of this female characteristic. Thus, while native peoples tend to perceive their motherland as celebratory, essentialist and mythic, the colonizers saw in the lands they were about to conquer a source of unexplored richness but also of adventure and the exotic. For them, those lands “appear as female body and a source of wealth. As such both the land and women are made exotic, exciting, sensual […] to be owned, altered and ravished.” (Wisker 112)

Though Wisker’s view of how native peoples treat the female is more benevolent—one could say even naïve—, the fact remains that the idea of the nation as female was also taken up by the nationalist cause. A paradigmatic example of this case is the figure of Cathleen Ni Houlihan representing Erin in Yeats’s homonymous play, and which was staged by the Irish nationalist leader Maud Gonne in 1902. This, of course, was a reaction to the British vision of Ireland as frail and in need of protection, which is in itself paradigmatic of the colonial enterprise. As Gayatri Chakravorty Spivak explains, the colonial quest was very often explicated in terms of “white men saving brown women from brown men”.

Colonial writing extended this vision of the colonized as feminine not only to the land itself but also to the subjects that inhabited it. This goes hand in hand with the definition of the self and the other discussed before according to which the self is defined in direct opposition to the other. Thus, if colonialist writing wanted to transmit an image of the colonizer as mature and masculine, the colonized other—be it Indian or Irish—had to be perceived as effeminate and childlike per force. In nineteenth-century colonial logic, it immediately follows that these peoples had to be saved from themselves, and thus colonial writing performed a twofold task—one the one hand, it defined the colonial self and, on the other, it justified the colonial enterprise. As Innes explicates, “in a nineteenth-century context it could be argued that these feminine nations needed benevolent (but firm) male governance, just as the English law enforced the belief that wives should be subject to their husbands.” (139)

Not that the female figure was better treated in anticolonialist literatures. Very often these literatures drew on the dichotomy of the aggressive warrior and the submissive, passive female as model figures of behaviour (Innes 140). Despite individual efforts to subvert it, this dichotomy remains an intrinsic part of many postcolonial nations, where public activity is defined as male, while private, domestic activities are defined as female (Innes 140). Hansen traces such representations in Irish literature back to the 1800 Act of Union, in which “each side defines the binary in terms of lustful masculine aggression against virtuous feminine vulnerability” (Hansen 14). Such national representations of the female could, nonetheless, be traced back to Irish legends and folklore, in which the male is very often portrayed as a warrior, while the female is either portrayed as a helpless damsel in need or as a powerful witch. Representations of the nation-woman waiting for the male hero to rescue her have so permeated Irish literature that they can be appreciated in Yeats’s Cathleen Ni Houlihan (1902); so profound is its imprint in the Irish collective unconscious that Denis Johnston has parodied it along with other nationalist icons in his play The Old Lady Says, No! (1929). This is, of course, not particular to Irish nationalism but rather a widespread characteristic of many postcolonial, anticolonial and nationalist literatures. Innes mentions that the identification of the nation as female and of the male as her saviour “frequently influences the portrayal of women in anticolonial and postcolonial literature” (140) and goes on to cite the examples of the writers Ngugi wa Thiong’o and Soyinka, who centre their fiction, and their male characters, around female characters that represent the story of their people. This is also the case in Irish literature, where women become somehow signifiers of the nation. Suffice as examples the case of Nora in J. M. Synge’s Shadow of the Glen (1904) and Pegeen in The Playboy of the Western World (1907), who are “perceived by audiences not only as ‘figures of Irish womanhood’ but also as in some sense representing the race as a whole in its suffering and its yearning for redemption” (Innes 141). Although these examples are more recent and, therefore, more accessible from a twenty-first century perspective, previous instances also abound. Maud, the female protagonist in Le Fanu’s Uncle Silas (1864) can be read in such terms. Her imprisonment and isolation in what constitutes her own property on the hands of his masculine, more powerful though distant relative yields such an interpretation.

This brief explanation suffices to see that the treatment of the female figure by both colonial and postcolonial literatures has been purposefully objectifying. Both colonizers and colonized looked for an iconic figure that could serve their interests by unifying different perceptions into a common one which helped them achieve their individual goals. Divergent as these were, it is nonetheless ironic that their treatment of the female was very similar, if not identical. This view is problematic for several women authors, who find the need to fight the association of the female as symbolic
of the nation, notably Elizabeth Bowen, the Irish poet Eavan Boland or the Nigerian writer Flora Nwapa (Innes 141-4). Their nineteenth-century precedent are, without a doubt, Edith Sommerville and Martin Ross (Violet Martin) who, in their depictions of Irish life, will focus on “a female figure from the native community in terms of whom or against whom she [Sommerville and Ross] can play off her conflicted sense of her Irishness, the battle in her spirit of two cultures, two loyalties, even two somewhat distinct senses or reality.” (Moynahan 173)

2. METHODOLOGY, RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Female characters are conspicuously absent in Mangan’s stories, and when they are present, it is usually as secondary characters. As has been seen, it is difficult to make a general statement when talking about Mangan’s writings—or Mangan himself—given that he was a prolific writer who treated several genres at the same time: poetry, prose, sketches, or translations. The tone of such writings is eclectic, ranging from the solemn to the comic. As with many other aspects of his writings, there are notable exceptions to this latter affirmation. Let us not forget that Amelrosa is the main character in “Love, Mystery, and Murder” and that Fanny, though not the main character, plays an important role in “The Threefold Prediction”; still, typical of the colonial literature he was subverting, Mangan’s emphasis is on the male. In the end—paraphrasing Elleke Boehmer—, the colonial enterprise was a quest for “big boys”, and though Mangan was subverting it, nowhere is it apparent that he intended to change the basic principles that operate in this literature. Subversion implies that the genre must be recognizable if it is going to be perceived as altered. Mangan’s stories adopt and adapt the colonial gaze. Typical of colonial literature, then, women are portrayed as submissive and secondary to the male. With the exception of Amelrosa in “Love, Murder, and Mystery”—a story in which the female character takes an unusually active role—the female characters in Mangan’s short fiction are dependent on the male characters. But Mangan is far from showing us a naively submissive female. His female characters, though resigned to their condition, are conscious of their situation and try to make the most of it. This is clearly seen in the character of Livonia, Braunbrock’s supposed lover in “The Man in the Cloak”. The first time the reader has an insight of her is by the use of direct speech, thus showing us a glimpse of her personality through her own words, “Ah! You don’t know the world like me. You are a child, Maud, an infant, a babe. Men never love the way you speak; they have not the soul” (Mangan, The Collected Works of James Clarence Mangan: Prose 1832-1839 244). At this stage Liviona is busy talking to her friend, Maud, about what the narrator classifies as “that one subject nearest [...] to the hearts of all women—Love” (Mangan, The Collected Works of James Clarence Mangan: Prose 1832-1839 244), when her conversation is interrupted by Braunbrock’s knock on the door. Liviona is shown to be a woman with a certain insight of the world. However, in her case, this insight also means that she is a deceitful woman, having another lover, as the reader finds out from Maud herself, “I do think Rudolf unlike anybody else; [...] if you could see him sometimes when he fancies no one is noticing him” (Mangan, The Collected Works of James Clarence Mangan: Prose 1832-1839 244). Her knowledge of the world brings her to adopt a cynical and, at the same time, practical vision of something that is considered by most as an elevated feeling, love. This can be seen in a very interesting reflection on the conditions of women on the lips of Livonia, “what right have you to exact or expect such a sacrifice on my part? Is Beauty to harness herself to the car of Ugliness?” (Mangan, The Collected Works of James Clarence Mangan: Prose 1832-1839 245).

Through Livonia Mangan is presenting the case of women under colonial rule, who, according to Elleke Boehmer, were ‘doubly or triply marginalized’ (216). Boehmer argues that the conditions of those women living under colonial rule differed notably from those belonging to the colonizing group. The latter, though marginalized in their own way, still had some niches of privilege and partook, more or less actively, in the colonizing enterprise, being “travellers and settlers, or as writers, diary-makers, log-keepers [...]” and therefore also “shared certain colonialist attitudes (most obviously, stereotypical responses to Indigeneous peoples)” (Boehmer 215). Colonized women were doubly marginalized, therefore, due to their status as colonial subjects and because of their gender. As Spivak puts it, “women are necessarily subordinated groups, whose expression cannot be other than in the language of the others who have subordinated them and so, in a sense [...] they cannot speak beyond the language available” (Wisker 135). Thus, to be able to survive in a male-dominated world, Liviona is forced to negotiate with the only tools she has at hand—Romance. Viewed in this light, her multiple courtships, her playing with Braunbrock and her words, “Ah! You don’t know the world like me. You are a child, Maud, an infant, a babe” (Mangan, The Collected Works of James Clarence Mangan: Prose 1832-1839 244), all acquire a new meaning, that of survival.

Liviona is the object of desire, the prize to be won or, as Boehmer puts it, ‘the reward for a job well done’, (73). The parallelism between her condition and that
of the conquering of land is very tempting if not unavoidable. As has already been mentioned, for colonial writers and colonialists themselves, women were perceived as a trophy, the reward to be obtained by the conquering male. As Boehmer says, ‘women figured [...] in the world beyond the seas [...] as seductive distraction or baleful presence, unmanning and polluting those who fell under her spell’ (73). In a colonial world, women had no voice of their own. Even if they lived and shared in the colonial bounty, they did not have a right to choose. The female was still seen as an object to possess, a trophy. Not once does Braunbrock consider Livonia’s sentiments. For him she is just part of the prize to be won but just as his attempt at bettering himself is doomed to fail, so his romance with Livonia is declared to be a fake.

Bearing in mind both the colonialist and the nationalist approach to the female as a nation-figure, Livonia’s situation becomes that of Ireland, which was, de facto, part of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. As such, it participated in the colonial enterprise, if rather unwillingly. Through their participation in the army or as settlers in distant countries, Irish people left their imprint in those countries they help to colonize, sometimes improving themselves and becoming rich as a consequence of this change. Like Livonia in “The Man in the Cloak”, they had to learn to make the best of a bad situation; Livonia does not love Braunbrock, as she makes explicit several times. For her, Braunbrock is just a means towards an end. However, this Entente Cordiale cannot come to a good end. Finally, Livonia’s affair is discovered and both she and Rudolf are threatened by Braunbrock with death. Similarly, Ireland’s partaking in the colonial enterprise had to come to an end if the Irish nation wanted to come into being again, no matter how profitable it could prove for some individuals. Mangan would be, thus, enforcing Hansen’s idea of the wrong marriage, for a metaphor for the necessity of disunion can be read in the character of Livonia.

As might seem clear by now, at the core of Mangan’s stories there is a deep criticism of the colonial enterprise and of all who partook in it, and though certainly Mangan’s work denounces the passive role of women, it is also clear from the example set through Livonia that they are to be held at least equally guilty. The colonial enterprise is a force for corruption, a destructive force which affects all those involved in it. And though references to the colonial situation in the story are subtle, they are nonetheless present. Let us not forget Braunbrock’s description at the beginning of the story.

The Herr Johan Klaus Braunbrock, he to whom we thus introduce the reader, was cashier to the Banking-house, and had lingered somewhat beyond his time on this evening, from what motive we may possibly understand by-and-by. Let us try to depict his appearance. He was a man of the middle size, rather clumsily made, but with a finely-shaped head, and features expressive of considerable intellect—mingled, however, with a large proportion of worldly astuteness and an air of penetration and distrust that bespoke but an indifferent opinion of mankind, or, possibly, a mind ill at ease with itself. His age might be about forty. His grizzled hair had retreated from his forehead, which was broad, but not high, and indented with many wrinkles. Upon the breast of his blue coat glittered a military star, for he had served in the Imperial Army as a colonel of Austrian dragoons, and his salary of six hundred crowns a month as cashier was reinforced by a pension of five hundred dollars, paid to him quarterly by the War-office (Mangan, The Collected Works of James Clarence Mangan: Prose 1832-1839 239).

Long though this introduction to the main character in the story might seem, it is also very telling, for the reader knows that not only has he been involved in the military but that he is also working in a bank. He is, therefore, involved in two of the institutions which benefitted more from—and represented best—the colonial enterprise. These two institutions mentioned together contribute to bring to the mind of the reader reminiscences of the colonial quest, even if subliminally. Most importantly still, Braunbrock, as member of those two institutions, is representative of that very same quest. The portrait the reader is given, therefore, is not a pleasant one, since he is referred to as indifferent to mankind, solely interested in himself and covetous; let us remember that even though he has a salary and a pension, he has designed a plan to enrich himself further through forgery. In his pursue of power, he is even willing to submit his eternal soul. If Braunbrock is taken to be representative of the colonial mission, then this is shown to be a quest for richness in which the means justify the end, an idea which was very far from the civilizing mission colonial reading was supposed to transmit.

This idea is also explored through the character of Livonia, who—as already stated—is equally corrupted. Even if her actions can be justified as an act of survival, everything in her demeanour points at greed rather than endurance. Not all feminine
characters are viewed in such a negative light, though. The portrayal of the female in Mangan is as varied as in colonial literature itself.

The representation of the female does not, however, seem to follow a predetermined plan. Mangan seems to have adapted his female characters to the needs of the particular narrative he was writing at the time. Thus, the female varies in strength and in presence, since in some stories, such as “An Extraordinary Adventure in the Shades”, it is not present at all, while in others, such as “Love, Mystery, and Murder”, the woman plays the main role.

All of them seem to have something in common—they are all constrained by the rules of a male-dominated society. Even in “Love, Mystery, and Murder”, Amelrosa—the main character—feels this constraint. This can be better observed in one of the final scenes, when Amelrosa, after all her misadventures, arrives at the palace of the Prince of Weathercock Island. Up to this moment, she has proved a character of strong will and resolution, able to pursue her desires to the utmost consequences. When she finally finds her supposed lover, she is denied an audience, which she accepts in an unbecoming meekly way.

Amelrosa advanced and endeavoured to gain a hearing, but in vain. The Prince protested that upon his honor he could not give any one an audience until he had concealed his eighth beaker. In the meantime, he drew from beneath a sofa a three-legged stool and tossed it into a corner, that the unhappy damsel might, if she pleased, accommodate herself with a seat. The Prince tossed off sic beakers with miraculous grace and rapidity, worthy of the son of a king (Mangan, The Collected Works of James Clarence Mangan: Prose 1832-1839 61).

What follows in the story is a continuation of the overall burlesque tone. Despite this, one cannot help but notice the degrading behaviour the Prince shows towards Amelrosa. Worse still, her attitude is completely submissive. Truth be told, female characters in the nineteenth century were not expected to behave as tomboys, embarking in adventures and going to faraway lands, especially if they belonged to the higher classes, as Amelrosa does. Still, her behaviour is in dissonance with the rest of the story and it certainly manages to capture the readers’ attention. Mangan certainly makes a point here, for if Amelrosa’s behaviour in this scene is in dissonance with the rest of the story, it is not so with the rest of the female characters in Mangan’s stories, and she certainly lives up to nineteenth-century expectations of the role a woman should take. Amelrosa is completely submissive to whom she thinks can be her husband—the Prince of Weathercock Island—and so obeys him, no matter how dismissive of her person he might be. In a way, the figure of Amelrosa is reminiscent of Maturin’s Immalee in Melmoth the Wanderer (1820). Despite her growing up in what can only be termed as an earthly paradise, she, too, falls prey to male desires by agreeing to marry Melmoth, “‘Wed me by this light,’ cried Immalee, ‘and I shall be yours for ever!’” (Maturin, Melmoth the Wanderer 360), an agreement she repeats again, once she has been “rescued” from her island and brought back to Spain with her family, under the Christian name of Isidora.

In the remaining stories, the female characters are shown as passive figures, always complying with the desires of the male characters and suffering their decisions. Paradigmatic is the case of Aurelia Von Elsberg in “The Thirty Flasks”. Aurelia is in love with Basil, the hero in the story; however, she decides to comply with her parents’ wishes for her to marry the Prince of Lowenfeld-Schwartzbach, even though her heart is set on Basil, “She tried, in compliance with the wishes of Papa and Mamma, to look at the Prince, but somehow the image of Basil constantly interfered with her best attempts” (Mangan, The Collected Works of James Clarence Mangan: Prose 1832-1839 195). In an exemplary case of the female question, Aurelia is given no real voice at all in the narrative. Even when the reader hears her utmost desires, these are transmitted through the agency of a third person narrator. Thus, the main female character in the story is doubly marginalized—in the story as well as through the narrative technique.

It is, however, in “The Threefold Prediction” where the female figure is explored more deeply and meaningfully. This story, along “The Man in the Cloak” and “The Thirty Flasks”, is Mangan’s finest, not only stylistically but also thematically speaking. Not in vain are these his last three original stories—let us not forget that “The Remorse of a Night” is a translation. As was mentioned before, “The Threefold Prediction” is also the story which deals more directly with the topic of colonialism. It goes without saying that this does not mean the story is mainly concerned with the colonial enterprise prima facie. As always with Mangan’s Gothic writings, these topics run under the surface, appearing at the right moment to emphasize feelings of guilt and remorse.

In the paragraph which preceded the beginning of this section, I referred to this story when alluding to the apparent lack of voice native peoples are given in colonial writing, hinting at the fact that this voice is further marginalized by the fact that it is transmitted through the character of a woman. This marginalization does, of course, also work for the
female. She is doubly marginalized because she is a woman and, therefore, her opinion borders in the child-like, and because of her closeness to native peoples. Doctor Grosstrotter dismisses her ailments on the bases of her nature prone to hallucinations, that is, to imagining things and to create stories—as children do—and, he then dismisses it further when he learns the source of those imaginings.

“Pardon me,” said I, “I know better. Your complete vigilance did not occur until after your swoon. No one ever sees ghosts when broad awake. Such hallucinations as yours always take place in the intermediate region between sleep and waking, which is the especial domain of imagination. From thence it is that this freakish and fantastic power brings forth creations various, according to the slumberer’s condition of mind and body. Had you been reading Jacob Boehmen instead of Bernardin St. Pierre I have no doubt that, like Mohammed, you would have been rapt that night into the seventh heaven.” (Mangan, The Collected Works of James Clarence Mangan. Prose: 1840-1882 136-7)

As can be seen, Fanny is a doubly marginalized subject. It is true that there is an element that diffuses this—the fact that Doctor Grosstrotter may be himself guilty of pride, a malady usually associated with medical practitioners and lawyers, since from the very beginning of the story he affirms he knows the remedy for Fanny’s illness, even before he has really done any check-ups. True though this argument might run, it does not alter the fact that Fanny’s opinions are given no credit but are rather dismissed as the product of an altered conscience caused by contact with the consequences of the colonial question. In fact, it is very telling that Mangan chose a female character to perform a threefold function, in consonance with the title of the story, for Fanny works as the prism through which not only the colonial and the female questions are seen but also through which Gothic is expressed. The association of these three elements in one single character contributes to their mutual perception as marginalized subjects, which in turn contributes to Mangan’s denunciation of the colonial quest. Let us not forget that the colonial enterprise meant more than the marginalization of individuals, it meant the marginalization of whole cultures which suffered a process of otherization and were subsequently considered as inferior. As we will explore later on, Mangan shows how the colonial is far from being a civilizing mission and how ultimately it has a heavy burden upon colonized and colonizers alike.

As we have seen, the female in Mangan is representative of the colonial gaze, portraying passive symbols rather than active, individual characters (Innes 144). It is true, though, that Mangan’s stories depict the figure of the woman as a marginalized subject and as slightly closer to the colonized other than their male counterparts. However, he is still depicting the colonial gaze, even if from a female perspective regardless of whether he intended to subvert it. The women who appear in his stories all belong to the same social group as their male counterparts, thus sharing in the same vices as them, even if reluctantly. Truth be told, they are trapped in a male-dominated world and their choices are limited. If European women “experienced discrimination in the masculine world of the Empire, still [they] more often than not formed part of the same race and social group as their male consorts.” (Boehmer 215)

Mangan’s representations of the female as the nation-body acquire a different resonance in Le Fanu’s stories. To the representation of the female as the nation—so widespread in the nineteenth century—one must add familial disruption. Margot Gayle Backus in The Gothic Family Romance (1999) asserts that “The Anglo-Irish gothic family romance [...] serves [...] to make parallel and therefore natural and self-evident the external, political realm and the internal, intrapsychic realm and, hence, the past and the present” (19). Indeed, many critics, among them Luke Gibbons or Jim Hansen, have seen in the Irish Gothic writers’ portrayal of Anglo-Irish families the underlying tensions which trouble the Ascendancy ruling class. In fact, for Hansen, marriages—particularly, failed marriages—define the boundaries of Irish Gothic fiction. As he asserts, “the generic boundaries of Irish Gothic fiction, and subsequently the entire genealogy of the canonical Irish modernist novel, should be redrawn around the central trope of the Gothic marriage. This new genealogy allows us to read the novels of Maturin, J. S. Le Fanu, Oscar Wilde, Bram Stoker, James Joyce, and Samuel Beckett as working within, responding to, or extending Ireland’s tradition of Gothic fiction” (Hansen 17-8). Gibbons’ analysis of Irish Gothic is yet more striking insofar as he delves into nineteenth-century depictions of Irish—in fact, Celtic—people as degenerate, an idea which is subsequently linked to British and Anglo-Irish fears of contagion, pollution and degeneration. All these ideas were widespread through the Victorian era and found their paramount expression in the blood-sucking vampire best represented in Bram Stoker’s Dracula. As Gibbons states, “[f]or Stoker—and for late Victorian culture—race was essentially a matter of blood, and the ease with which Count Dracula enters the mainstream of British society plays on anxieties
about its relationship to disease, heredity, and cultural intermingling” (78). This section will turn now to explore the nature of the Anglo-Irish dysfunctional family in relation to land ownership and belonging by delving into Le Fanu’s short story “A Passage in the Secret History of an Irish Countess”—itself a precursor of his novel Uncle Silas—by analysing how the Anglo-Irish necessity to justify and retain control of the land complicates and denaturalizes family relationships, themselves a portrait of the complicated relation of the Ascendancy with Ireland and Irish culture.

“A Passage in the Secret History of an Irish Countess”, first published in the DUM in 1838, is part of Le Fanu’s first collected stories, The Purcell Papers. Told from a female point of view, the plot is pretty straightforward: a young heiress goes to live to her uncle’s old family manor, where instead of finding the familial protection she craves for, she finds herself trapped—both metaphorically and literally. Finally, she manages to escape, and the story ends with a certain kind of divine justice, as her tormentors find “the terrible, the tremendous retribution which, after long delays of many years, finally overtook and crashed them” (Le Fanu. The Purcell Papers 118). The narrative stems around two basic plot elements which were to feature in Uncle Silas—a heroine undergoing an ordeal engineered by her father in his will, and the so-called ‘Locked Room Mystery’, a motif which seems to have been invented by Le Fanu and was subsequently adopted by other writers like Poe (Sage, Introduction x). A third one should be added to these: the murder story which haunts Margaret’s uncle and, therefore, all the family, and which prompts the execution of the will, intended to “prove to the world how great and unshaken was his confidence in his brother’s innocence and honour” (Le Fanu, The Purcell Papers 92). Even this brief recount suffices to show Le Fanu’s story as a portrayal of the twisted relationships inherent to Anglo-Irish families.

Forced marriages, infanticide, sexual abuse, haunted mansors or vampirism are all but manifestations of the Anglo-Irish tangled relationships with their native country, their Williamite past and their ambiguous relations with England, and such tropes often populate the works of such Irish Gothic writers as Maturin or Stoker. Being at the same time outsiders and insiders, Irish and alien to Ireland, the Ascendancy class have always been in need to reassert their claim to the land and to satisfy their need to belong, and in this Le Fanu’s work is no exception. His portrait of Anglo-Irish landed families often speaks out of a dysfunctional relation among the members of the families who populate his stories. This dysfunction manifests itself in various ways through the Dubliner’s writings, most typically involving father vs son quarrels or brother vs brother disparages, as has been seen in earlier sections. The epitome of these strained relationships can be appreciated in its prime in “Squire Toby’s Will. A Ghost Story”, in which the pater familias of an ancient Saxon family, the eponymous Toby Marston, master of Gylingden Hall, sets his two sons—the eldest, Scroop and the youngest, Handsome Charlie—against one another by disinherit the former, only to come in his afterlife (in the Gothic trope of a dream) to haunt Handsome Charlie and make him reinstate Scroop as the rightful heir of Gylingden. The consequences of such acts, the brutality stated in the story—both implicitly and overtly—, together with its being set in England, all act as constant reminders of the ferocity and incongruence of British rule in Ireland. The fact that the rightful heir is disinherit from his ancient estate and has to fight to recover what is legitimately his, acts as a reminder of the Williamite conquest of Ireland, in which many an Irish family was evicted from their rightful property. Similarly, the fact the Handsome Charlie is at odds with his situation as possessor of Gylingden, the fact that he is—quite literally—haunted by his past, is a faithful portrayal of the situation of the Anglo-Irish Ascendancy in Ireland.

Nevertheless, one of the most interesting figures in Le Fanu’s stories in terms of identity representations, claims to land ownership and belonging is, without a doubt, that of the female. In “A Passage in the Secret History of an Irish Countess” this plays a central role, since it is through the female narrator that the action in the story is focalized. In fact, readings of female representations in literature worldwide abound both in feminist and postcolonial interpretations. C. L. Innes has highlighted how Rushdie’s novels tend towards an identification of the female and the nation, as have other works by such postcolonial African writers as Wole Soyinka, Léopold Senghor or Camara Laye (Innes 137-8). In a less positive light, Elleke Boehmer has also shown how women have been doubly or triply marginalized, since they were not only subaltern beings due to their race but also to their gender (Boehmer 215-20). Such assertions should come as no surprise since female images were used all through the nineteenth century both in Britain and in Ireland to represent opposite interests. In Britain, Ireland was shown as a feeble woman in need of a protection which was readily supplied by the sturdy British male; at the same time, in Ireland this image was used by a nascent Irish nationalism to characterize British terror, where the British male was the terrorizer, while the binary Ireland/female was presented as the terrorized. Hansen traces representations like this back to Edmund Burke’s and William Sampson’s representations of familial relationships, ‘[w]here Burke had opposed the
Female Bodies, Male Desires: Fighting (fe)male Conventions in the Writings of J.C. Mangan, J.S. Le Fanu and Bram Stoker

concept of familial affection to terror in order to help craft and sustain the English system, Sampson evokes affection for the victimized in order to inveigh against an English system that is itself a form of terror.” (Hansen 14)

Undoubtedly, what both the Anglo-centric and the Irish nationalist vision share is their representation of the nation as female, even if their intentions in so doing differ. However, it would be an overstatement to assert that such representations were unique to Ireland; other nations were—and are—represented as female, among them France or even Britain when not set in opposition to Ireland. The difference seems to be that in the Irish case this feminization of the country was used by the British media of the time to feminize all of the Irish nation in an attempt to show the Irish as weak and in need of protection—even if this meant protection against themselves—, thus justifying the prior Williamite invasion and the subsequent narrative of colonization which was applied to the country.

Such narratives were commonly used when deploying an imperial system, forming part of what Elleke Boehmer defines as othering, a process which shows the colonial other as lesser when compared to the superiority of the colonizer. Women were only the by-product of such an enterprise, “as seductive distraction or baleful presence, unmanned and polluting for those who fell under her spell” (Boehmer 73). In fact, the Countess in the story is perceived and treated as this “seductive distraction or baleful presence” to which I have just alluded. Just at the beginning of the narrative, when she recalls her infancy, she speaks of her relationship with her father in such terms, “he seemed to take no further interest in my happiness or improvement than a conscientious regard to the discharge of his own duty would seem to claim” (Le Fanu, The Purcell Papers 86), already foreshadowing the central role the trope of colonization will play in the story.

Far from fighting this image, the incipient cultural Irish nationalism used, in a remarkable example of mimicry deployment, this very same image but to suggest quite a different thing. Julia M. Wright has summarized it dexterously when she asserts that

The representation of Ireland as female is a common one, and, in its pro-Irish avatar, employs, and often collapses, two sentimental figures: the suffering maiden-indistress, requiring chivalric men to rise to her defence; the proudly defiant spirit, maintaining dignity and virtue in the face of powerful oppression. Always beautiful, often with a melodious voice, and necessarily sensible and moral, Ireland personified—whether Hibernia, Erin, or Kathleen Ny Houlihan, whether genius, spirit, or exemplary embodiment—becomes a rallying point for male heroism. (Wright 56)

These two images Wright speaks of do share an important characteristic which ties in very well with a concept of heroine which had been created and used well before the cultural nationalism of the 1830s—the Gothic heroine. By definition “well-bred, passive and respectable” (Day 16), she finds herself trapped in the Gothic world for reasons not her own, being subsequently “defeated in the course of the plot to demonstrate that virtue is [her] own reward” (MacAndrew 54). It is here where Le Fanu’s deployment of the female heroine acquires special relevance. Le Fanu’s characterization of the female heroine builds up to a questioning of Irish identity by reconsidering the role of Anglo-Irish Ascendancy in relation to land ownership, questioning their legitimacy. Quite literally, in this story possessing the female means possessing the land, since it is only by marrying her that the right to property can be gained. To be able to claim ownership over the land, masculine characters must first exercise control over the female—either by possessing her or by disposing of her, “The provisions of his [the father’s] will were curious [...] all his vast property was left to me, and to the heirs of my body, for ever [sic]; and, in default of such heirs, it was to go after my death to my uncle, Sir Arthur, without any entail” (Le Fanu, The Purcell Papers 92). As can be seen, the woman is objectified; she becomes a possession—a “body”—, a linking device to and a justification of inheritance. But this paragraph plays also two more functions: firstly, it casts a doubt over the narrator’s uncle, as just before the provisions for the will are read, the murderous past which haunts the family has been unveiled. Secondly, it brings to mind a fact which is paramount for the story and for Irish Gothic fiction—that the female is encapsulated by the male, a constraint which is to be maintained all through the story; the decision to move in with her uncle was taken by a male figure—her father—, once she enters the Gothic world—her uncle’s manor—she remains a prisoner of the male gaze, both physically and psychologically. Ironically, the same institution which should offer her protection

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2 As Boehmer asserts, “colonized peoples were presented as [...] less human, less civilized, as child or savage, wild man, animal, or headless man.” (Boehmer 76)

3The figure of the Gothic heroine descends from the earlier Sensational novel female figure. (Day 16)
collapses before her eyes and becomes a symbol of Gothic entrapment. Her cousin Edward frightens and terrorizes her, “if anything could have added to the strong aversion which I have long felt towards him, it would be his attempting thus to trick and frighten me into a marriage he knows to be revolting to me, and which is sought only as a means for securing to himself whatever property is mine” (Le Fanu, The Purcell Papers 101), while she regards her uncle “with the mingled fear and loathing with which one looks upon an object which has tortured them in a nightmare” (Le Fanu, The Purcell Papers 102). Even when the dysfunctionality of the family institution prompts her to escape her captors at the end of the story, she is ultimately saved by a male trope—the military garrison. As can be seen, the female remains a by-product of the male gaze: her world is defined and encapsulated by male actions.

There is still a deeper reading: if the female character is read under the dichotomy colonized vs. colonizer, and following the nineteenth-century convention which identifies the female with the nation, it can be asserted that the nation/female is entrapped in the dialectic of the colonial system. Paradoxically, it is this constant reinforcement of female entrapment which acts as a reminder of the male’s feeble position. On analysing Le Fanu’s deployment of the female narrator in Uncle Silas, Milbanks mentions that “[h]er perceptions and her story will be shown to be a way of describing the situation of any woman within [...] a debilitated and debased patriarchy” (Milbank 365). As Hansen reminds us, because of the feminization of Irish society, male characters in Irish Gothic fiction acquire and display feminine traits (Hansen 22). Curiously enough, male characters become passive, even if—as can be appreciated in the story—they still crave for a dominant role over the female. The result when read through a postcolonial lens is that male characters in Irish Gothic fiction tend towards violent outbursts due to their double nature as female/Irish and male/Anglo-Irish. This violence permeates all sectors of society, even its most basic pillars. In literature this violence manifests itself against the family institution, denaturalizing it (e.g. unnatural marriages) in an attempt to perpetuate the same family it has corrupted and to retain control over the land the claim. This, as Le Fanu’s story shows, results in the final disappearance of both the female/nation and the male/Anglo-Irish.

This constraint is further enhanced by the narrative structure itself. The stories contained in the collection are loosely connected by the usage of a common narrator, Father Purcell, a Catholic priest who gives authenticity to the narratives and introduces them (Sage, Le Fanu’s Gothic: the Rhetoric of Darkness 11). This mode of narration, typical of Le Fanu’s, has a deeper reading in terms of the female figure; despite attempts at textual integrity—“[t]he following passage is written in female hand and was no doubt communicated to my much regretted friend by the lady whose early history it serves to illustrate” (Le Fanu, The Purcell Papers 85)—the narration itself is handed down to the reader by two different male hands: first, by Purcell, who claims to have written the accounts down faithfully, and, ultimately, by the collector and publisher in the fiction of The Purcell Papers, who remains anonymous. Whether the narrative presented by both male narrators has been altered or not, there is no questioning that the female narrator remains constricted by the male gaze, i.e. she is actually not telling her own story. Further still, Le Fanu’s narrative technique further complicates the male vs female reading. By attempting to control her narrative, both Purcell and the anonymous male narrator lose control over the overall narrative since neither is fully telling the story. The very narrative structure foreshadows the final collapse of such workings since the act of constraining the female blurs the final male narrative. By using three subsequent narrators, Le Fanu distances the author from the reader, casting a reasonable doubt on textual integrity and—most importantly—authorship.

Thus read, the story can be interpreted as the fear of dispossession and the subsequent attempt by the Anglo-Irish Ascendancy to retain their social and economic status. Since male/Anglo-Irish can be seen as both agents and sufferers of the colonial enterprise, we can interpret their actions as the realization of the colonial system which was imposed on Ireland, and since the binary female/Ireland has already rejected Hansen’s unhappy marriage, the binary male/Anglo-Irish must resource to other means to preserve their claim, even if this is illegitimate and the means imply violence. Unlike true colonizers, the Anglo-Irish have no other place to call home, and much in the image of other settler and creole nations, they are forced to create their own. Rejection and defeat would imply becoming Maturin’s wanderer, not dead and yet not alive. Hansen reminds us how the Irish male must confront the issue of dispossession, as he finds himself cut off from the public sphere and from history, unable to claim ancestry nor look to the future (Hansen 22). Faced with the issue of dispossession and not belonging implied by the Countess’ rejection of the marriage proposal, Sir Arthur terrorises her thus, “if he were what you have described him, think you, girl, he could find no briefer means than wedding contracts to gain his ends? ’twas but to gripe your slender neck until the breath had stopped, and lands, and lakes, and all were his.” (Le Fanu, The Purcell Papers 102). This terrorising, however, only produces the opposite
reaction and the Countess revolts against her oppressors, which can be easily read as an allegory for the violent outbreaks which plagued Nineteenth-century Ireland and which the Ascendancy class so feared. Just as she is escaping, the Countess encounters the French maid who had aided her uncle to seclude her fast asleep, “A knife lay upon the table, and the terrible thought struck me—‘Should I kill this sleeping accomplice in the guilt of murder, and thus secure my retreat?’” (Le Fanu, The Purcell Papers 116)

Read in the context of the cultural nationalism of the 1830s, which advocated a reinterpretation of Irish history favouring a union of the native Catholics and the Anglo-Irish Ascendancy, the escape and ultimate decease of the male/ Anglo-Irish is a consequence of the unsuccessful attempt at illegitimate possession of the female/nation, a fact which leads the latter to revolt against the dominating masculine figure. Paradoxically, however, this act of liberation results in her—and her family’s—final extinction, thus ultimately terminating the female/nation. As we learn at the beginning of the narrative, “[Countess D—] is no more—she long since died, a childless and a widowed wife [...]. Strange! two powerful and wealthy families, that in which she was born, and that into which she had married, have ceased to be—they are utterly extinct” (Le Fanu, The Purcell Papers 85). Dysfunctional families like the one portrayed in “A Passage in the Secret History of an Irish Countess” are an acknowledgement of the waning power of the Ascendancy class. The final collapse of the family, a basic pillar in society, constitutes a warning against the oppressive systems deployed by the Ascendancy in relation to land ownership and the Catholic majority. Just as in the story there is no final reconciliation, only an attempt at retaining control by exerting domination, so the Irish nation could be doomed to disappearance should there be no national compromise. Quoting Backus, “Irish and Anglo-Irish identities in various ways symptomatically blur and collapse, so that both [...] are depicted as appropriated, unconscious bodies spoken by a demonic god of colonial history that, over time, consumes colonizer and colonized alike.” (Backus 108)

The female figure in Stoker is yet more complex to analyse. Many critics, among them Kathleen L. Spencer, have noted how the Dubliner’s longer fiction challenges Victorian fin-de-siècle anxieties about the threat of hybridization. Both Dracula (1897) and the Jewel of the Seven Stars (1903) portray ancient figures from the East (a vampire and a resurrected Egyptian Queen, respectively) which threaten modern Western civilisation—“seeking to objectively reproduce the Orient, Western science fails before the occult power of the East and instead becomes the surface on which the East reduplicates itself” (Wright 195). Stoker’s shorter fiction reacts differently to hybridization, however, as has already been pointed out. Hybridization is, for Stoker, the solution, not the problem.

In many of his stories, the female figure is still portrayed as a source of conflict or as a prize to be won, if not both at the same time. This is the case in “The Coming of Abel Behenna”. In this story, Abel Behennan and Eric Sanson, “both young, both good-looking, both prosperous, and who had been companions and rivals from their boyhood” (Stoker, Dracula's Guest and Other Weird Stories 75) fight over the love of Sarah Trefusis, who—unable to decide on either—lets them toss a coin, “the man who wins takes all the money that we both have got, brings it to Bristol and ships on a voyage and trades with it. Then he comes back and marries Sarah, and two keep all” (Stoker, Dracula's Guest and Other Weird Stories 80). The bet is given an extra turn by adding the prerogative of a timespan of a year. Abel wins the bet and sets off on his journey, keeping no communication with his betrothed, however. As time passes by, and the appointed period comes to an end without any news from him, Eric’s hopes are encouraged. It so happens that on the day which should see the coming home of Abel a great storm comes on, the “sea rose and lashed the western coast from Skye to Scilly and left a tale of disaster everywhere” (Stoker, Dracula's Guest and Other Weird Stories 84). The Lovely Alice, sailing from Bristol to Penzance, is caught up in this maelstrom, and a shipwreck follows. Without a minute’s hesitation, Eric goes to the cliffs to try and rescue anyone who may have escaped the disaster, showing great prowess by risking his life to save a man who had fallen into a recess, only to discover when lifting him with the help of a rope, that the person whose life he is saving is Abel,

On the instant a wave of passion swept through Eric’s heart. All his hopes were shattered, and with the hatred of Cain his eyes looked out. He saw in the instant of recognition the joy in Abel’s face that his was the hand to succour him, and this intensified his hate. Whilst the passion was on him he started back, and the rope ran out between his hands. (Stoker, Dracula's Guest and Other Weird Stories 87)

From then on, Eric becomes a haunted man, and strange tales begin to be heard about a monster appearing on the very same spot where he had dropped Abel. Finally, on the day of the wedding, the corpse of Abel Behenna is found, with the rope around his waist.
Of key importance in this story is the figure of the female, in this case incarnated in the person of Sarah Trefusis. The female figure in this story is characterized as both the prize to be won, and as a capricious and demanding goddess. Ironically, her role in the story is secondary, just providing an argument to trigger Abel’s adventure. Significantly, though, Sarah seems aware of the capriciousness of her wont. As has been mentioned before, unable to choose between her two suitors, she accepts a cruel offer—a toss of a coin in which one of them will get everything the other wants and possesses. In fact, it is her who adds the temporal span to the bet, “‘I’ll marry him on my next birthday,’ said Sarah. Having said it, she turned away with a bright blush” (Stoker, Dracula’s Guest and Other Weird Stories 80). But this instant of recognition does not last, as she does nothing to stop what she really knows will be a terribly curse on one of the men. In fact, since the very beginning, Sarah is described as “vain and something frivolous” (Stoker, Dracula’s Guest and Other Weird Stories 76). The female figure would then be incarnating Boehmer’s colonial prerogative of the woman as “seductive distraction or baleful presence” (Boehmer 70) or Innes’s land to be governed by the male (Innes 139). There is, however, a weak point in this argument. Keeping up with nineteenth-century tropes of the female as a representation of the nation, Sarah is revealed as a colonizer figure, being the reverse image of the colonial quest—she incarnates the colonizer’s homeland; Sarah is England sending her sons to the conquering of foreign lands. At the very beginning of the story, the narrator outlines both Abel’s and Eric’s foreign origins, “Abel Behenna was dark with the gypsy darkness which the Phoenician mining wanderers left in their track; Eric Sanson […] was fair, with the ruddy hue which marked the path of the wild Norseman” (Stoker, Dracula’s Guest and Other Weird Stories 75). Both Abel and Eric are a by-product of a much older hybridisation, which is portrayed in a positive light, as has been seen earlier on, both sporting good personal traits and a prosperous future at home. It is the figure of Sarah—the only one who can claim an ancient belonging to Cornish land—who pollutes and destroys them. Read thus, the story reverses one of the inner structures of colonialism, revealing it as a force for devastation—Sarah is not the prize to be won but rather the cause of destruction. Her caprice ruins Abel’s and Eric’s friendship, and prompting the death of the former and the unmanning of the latter—for Eric has lost all honour. If in Le Fanu the colonial quest destroyed one of the pillars of society—the family—, in Stoker another pillar collapses—friendship and the stability of community life.

3. CONCLUSION
In the Irish Gothic short story, then, the female figure constitutes an appropriation of colonialists’ views of the female. As has been seen, the identification of the female and the national was a widespread feature in nineteenth-century literature, and the incipient nationalist movements (among them the Irish) took advantage of this. In an attempt to justify colonization, British imperial powers sought an identification of Ireland as female, and therefore, weak, feeble and in need of protection. Further from dispelling this image, the nationalist movement reinforced it, only conveying the idea that the female nation ought to be saved from the colonizer invader. Female portrayals in J.C. Mangan’s short narratives build on this idea. Mangan’s female characters are dependent on their male counterparts, exemplifying the role of women under colonial rule. They become the object of desire, the prize to be won, even if this is against their wish. J.C. Mangan’s depiction of the female does, however, expose a further, perhaps less obvious consequence. Through the identification of the female with the nation, and her connivance with the colonial enterprise represented by his male characters, Mangan is also criticizing Ireland’s role in the colonial enterprise, even if this can be justified. Just like women under colonial rule, Ireland was colonized and colonizer at the same time. All in all, J.C. Mangan’s strongest criticism is that of the passive role assigned to women under colonial rule, for even in those stories where the female plays a more proactive role, they invariably end up submitting to the tidings of their male counterparts. The fact that this submission is always related to colonial rule constitutes a denunciatory stance of colonial standards and morals.

J.S. Le Fanu goes a step further and adds familial disruption to this equation, his depictions of Anglo-Irish families always signalling the underlying tensions of the Ascendancy class. Being originally alien to Ireland and in essence an invading force, the Anglo-Irish have always had the need to reassert their claim to proprietorship, a claim which is carried out by the possession of the female. In this J.S. Le Fanu continues with J.C. Mangan’s representation of the female as the nation, for in Le Fanu’s short narratives, possessing the female is, quite literally, possessing the land. The female figure is the key to inheritance and, paradoxically enough, this transforms the family home from a protective environment into an entrapment, an encapsulating space, denaturalizing the concept of the family. Paradoxically, Anglo-Irish efforts to control and dominate the female only reinforce their feeble position, thus concluding with their disappearance. As the works of Bram Stoker show, however, this can be prevented via hybridization. Notwithstanding, Stoker’s representation of the female takes a different approach.
to that of J.C. Mangan and J.S. Le Fanu. Stoker builds on the idea of the female as a nation-figure but he subverts the idea and displaces the focus so that the female is not the colonized subject but the colonizer, mother country sending away her children to destruction, becoming both the source of conflict and the prize to be won at the same time.

ABOUT THE AUTHOR
Richard Jorge Fernández received his BA in English Studies at the University of the Basque Country (UPV/EHU) and later on proceeded to enhance his knowledge in the field of literature with an MA in Anglo-Irish Literature and Drama at University College Dublin, where his minor thesis on the relation of Joseph Sheridan Le Fanu and the Gothic tradition was directed by Declan Kiberd. He completed his PhD at the University of Santiago de Compostela researching the relationship between the short story and the Irish Gothic tradition in the writings of James Clarence Mangan, Joseph Sheridan Le Fanu and Bram Stoker. He has worked as an English literature teacher at an IB school while continuing with his research on the Irish short story in the nineteenth century, and is currently Applied Language, Translation and Interpretation Senior Lecturer at the European University of the Atlantic.

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The Concept of Gender –Inequality in Sahar Khalifa's Muzakarat Imra'ah Gher Waqeai’á: Feminist Critical Discourse Analysis

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ARTICLE INFO

Received: September 21, 2019
Accepted: October 27, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.2

KEYWORDS

Gender inequality; Sahar Khalifa; Feminist Critical discourse analysis (CDA); Muzakarat Imra'ah Gher Waqeai’á (the memoirs of an un-realistic woman )

ABSTRACT

Sahar Khalifa is well-known for being the first feminist Palestinian writer, and for her sensitive, economical and simple style in introducing women, especially the oppressed wife who suffers to keep on her home and accepts the false convention and tradition. The study aims to analyze the used language to represent the concept of gender inequality linguistically. Moreover, the focus will be on the problems of feminist women in their society in the light of Sahar Khalifa’s “Muzakarat Imra'ah Gher Waqeai’á”. The researcher employs the Feminist critical discourse analysis as a tool to analyze the linguistic features of the language used by the protagonist ( Afaf), who is the only narrator in the novel. Therefore, the researcher will rely on Fairclough ‘s theory of discourse. The study aims to identify the narrative and feminist discursive strategies by focusing on the concept of gender inequality as represented by both lexical and syntactic choice of this discourse and the ideological and social implications. Consequently, this study is considered as the first study of its kind to focus on analyzing the used language by Khalifa linguistically in the light of the feminist CDA techniques such as lexicalization, figurative speech, colloquialism, personifications, and finally symbolism. The results show that Sahar Khalifa succeeded in utilizing her feminist discourse linguistically to introduce the problems that Palestinian women encounter without finding a solution and surrendering to reality.

1- INTRODUCTION

Women have an iconic image related to liberation in which they are the nucleus and the foundation of society. The novelists, especially the female- novelists highlight the women's rights to live freely to achieve freedom and happiness for themselves and others. Women were portrayed as the base of their society, on the other hand, without her righteousness, society will be destroyed. The Palestinian female novelists such as Sahar Khalifa, Layan Bader, Layla Alatrash …etc have provided the readers with prominent contributions in this field. Most of them focus on many essential issues connected with the criticism of the social injustices in comparison with the men. They invite women to rebel against the masculine society. Not only do the female novelists motivate women to struggle strongly to eliminate the traditional social constraints against women but also, they should play a major role in resisting the occupation as well. Sahar Khalifeh who is a woman novelist of the twentieth century has written a novel after novel, depicting the life of Palestinian women either socially or politically. The artistic development of the image of women in Sahar Khalifa’s novels, especially her “Muthakarat Imra’a Gher Waqeai’a " shows that the novelist is seeking to represent the woman as a free human being who makes a great contribution to build the nation on an equal footing with the man. Her novels trace the women’s role through the Palestinian 's struggle over the past three decades. Consequently, Sahar Khalifa is one of the most famous female Palestinian novelists who plays an effective role in supporting the issue of women. Both of her childhood and marital life, which lasted for more than 13 years, played a major role in her performance as a feminist pro-woman. Since her first novel,” لمن تعد جواري لثم” Sahar Khalifa has succeeded in attracting the attention of readers and critics and consolidating her presence in the literary arena. With the publication of her novel " Cactus" (1976) and "Sunflower" (1980), She
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has focused on portraying the catastrophic situation and the sufferings of the Palestinian man under the Israeli occupation in the West Bank and Gaza Strip since June 1967. In her novels, Khalifa focuses on delineating the daily life of the Palestinian society, its complexities and intricacies, mainly regarding the status of women and their relation to men in addition to supporting the men to face the Israeli occupation till she became convinced that the liberation of the homeland begins with the liberation of women from injustice and submission. Sahar Khalifa has focused on two of the most common narratives aspects in her novels until it became difficult to break through the struggle against the strange occupier and the struggle against the injustice of man and society to women. (Al-Qasim, 2005) In the same context, he continued to describe her life and to what extent it has been affected by the Palestinian values:

Sahar Khalifa has suffered what the Palestinian man suffered under the occupation; hence she was looking at the resistance as a tool that might build up the Palestinian society and help come up with new people whose struggles to place women in one place with men (Al-Qasim, 2005, p. 48).

Therefore, Khalifa has focused on describing the structure of the Palestinians with the precise details of what is attached to the Arab women and how the society persecuted them. Furthermore, she has focused on the women’s struggle to obtain their legitimate rights to live a decent life without associating them with false statements such as women and body. Khalifa tackled the issue of women and linked it to the liberation of Palestine. The two struggles met; the struggle of women within the structure of society to change masculine thought, and the struggle of the Palestinian man to obtain his legitimate rights (Abu-ElOmreen, 2018).

With more delving into her novels, the researcher contends that she believes in one important point that the liberation of the homeland without liberating the minds of individuals from the authoritarian ideas is deficient. Freeing individuals intellectually and respecting women’s rights is the first way to liberate the homeland. She has worked hard in several novels to highlight the role of women in supporting men socially, politically and economically, especially in her first novels, cactus and sunflower. (Al-Qasim, 2005) claimed that “On contrary to what she believed, injustice and persecution toward women increased Sahar was disappointed when the women offered both of men and the society many sacrifices but they were stuck to outdated customs and traditions”. In her novel, "Muthakarat Imra’a Gher Waque’a “, Sahar Khalifa reflects the extent of the continuing injustices towards women despite sharing with men in all aspects of life. In contrast to her previous novels which strengthened the status of women and their role in resisting the occupation.

Abu-Elomreen (2018) argued that “Muthakarat Imra’a Gher Waqea” “is one of the most famous novels of Sahar Khalifa, which sheds light on the status of women in the Palestinian society.” This novel shows the extent of women’s suffering within a masculine society as a way to address the issue of oppressed women. She relied on the feminist discourse in addressing the reader in which the voice of the protagonist is the only voice in the novel.

3. THE AIM OF THE STUDY
The researcher intends to

A- identify, describe and analyze syntactic and stylistic features of Arabic feminist discourse of Sahar Khalifa in the sampled texts.

B- identify the narrative discourse by focusing on introducing the self as represented stylistically through the interior monologue.

C- identify ideological and social implications by describing the concept of power as represented lexically and syntactically.

Thus, the study considers the description of specific linguistic and stylistic features, representing a wide range of lexical, syntactic, figurative and social aspects.

4. RESEARCH QUESTIONS
The researcher intends to answer the following questions to prove her point of views:

1- To what extent does Khalifa succeed in employing the feminist discourse to portray the concept of gender inequality?

2- How does Khalifa introduce the image of women (wife & daughter) in Palestine in a novel?

3- To what extent does Khalifa represent her life and a masculine society?

5. THE PREVIOUS STUDIES
The present study is considered as the first one of its kind tackling Sahar Khalifa’s novel through a linguistic study by applying the feminist critical discourse analysis techniques which examine the way how a patriarchal society deals unequally with women through Sahar Khalifa’s novel " Muthakarat Imra’ah Gher Waqei’ a (1986)". There is no available work of
feminist discourse analysis on this novel by surfing all the database online. However, we have many different types of research in other fields such as identity and the concept of home, but we do not have even a single study of Sahar Khalifa’s novels through feminist critical discourse analysis, so we are missing feminist CDA analysis for this novel. We have a study entitled, “The Multiple Resistance Strategies for, Survival under Israeli Occupation in the Novels of Sahar Khalifeh” issued by Khazar University Press, vol. 21 No. 4 (2018). In this article, the researchers shed the light on some concepts in Khalifa’s novels such as resistance and its effects on the Palestinian literature.

Furthermore, they focus on investigating the impact of occupation on Sahar Khalifa’s novels and how she portrays the image of women under occupation. The researcher tackled the ideology of self-sacrifice in martyrdom. Another study conducted by Breanne White entitled, Gender and Resistance in the Israeli-Palestinian Conflict: The Woman’s Voice in the Literary Works of Sahar Khalifa and David Grossman, Master of Arts, The Ohio State University, 2013, Near Eastern Languages and Cultures. As a result of lacking feminist critical discourse analysis in research, the researcher tries through a linguistic scope to analyze the used language by Khalifa as an attempt to criticize the outdated conventions towards women despite their roles in society. Focusing on feminist discourse analysis as an approach to analyze the language that is used in novels or other literary works. In the study “Feminist critical discourse analysis and children’s fantasy fiction – modelling a new approach “that was conducted by Sanna Lehtonen (2007) who considered the possibility of applying feminist critical discourse analysis (CDA) to examine gender in children’s fantasy fiction. On the other hand, Michelle M. Lazar (2007) in her article “Feminist Critical Discourse Analysis: Articulating a Feminist Discourse Praxis” investigated the feminist critical discourse analysis’ at the nexus of critical discourse analysis and feminist studies, with the aim of advancing rich and nuanced analyses of the complex workings of power and ideology in discourse in sustaining hierarchically gendered social orders. A recent study that was published titled “Critical Discourse Analysis on Ideology of Feminism in Nawal A-Sadawi’s ‘Muzakkirat Thobibah’, both the researchers Karlina Helmanita and Zainal Rafli(2018) aim at carrying out a critical discourse analysis on the ideology of feminism in the novel Mudzakkirat Thobibah by Nawal Al-Sa’adawi, through linguistic features in the symbol.

6. METHODOLOGY
6.1 Feminist Critical Discourse Analysis
In respect to the study for the topic, the researcher employed the feminist critical discourse analysis to analyze the used language in the target novel. The word "discourse" comes from the Latin word “discursus” which means conversation, or speech. However, modern science gives discourse rather broad meanings. Discourse includes a wide area of human life but here, the term "discourse" is explained in the context of Linguistics especially applied Linguistics. Two groups of the Linguists are denoting the discourse. One group says “Texts” only while the other “Speech”.

Such Two broad categories have been described by Fairclough (1992) who claimed that “Discourse is an abstract noun that emphasize on large units such as paragraphs, utterances, whole texts or genre in addition to its being a countable noun presenting a practice which is signifying the word. According to (1990) novels, short conversations, or groans might be characterized by social content, purpose, a source, and a goal named “discourse” Both Hodge and Kress (1988) revealed the difference between message, text and discourse. “A message is the smallest semiotic form, which serves a social content, purpose, a source and a but the largest units are Text and Discourse. The difference between the texts and discourses is in the structure of message while they changed by the material realization of systems of signs. (Hodge & Kress, 1988). Feminist Critical Discourse analysis (FCDA) is an analytical research technique which examines the way social power abuses or dominates focusing on issues related to women. In Critical Discourse Analysis, the word critical is self-explanatory which discourses the hidden ideology and social power. It is a set of Linguistic procedures applied to a text to uncover the hidden cultural and ideological meanings. The aim of using the feminist critical discourse analysis (feminist critical discourse studies) is to understand the complex workings of power and ideology in discourse in sustaining gendered social arrangements hierarchically (Lazar M., 2007). Naturally, a feminist CDA perspective is interdisciplinary, therefore, it suggests the use of language and discourse studies for the investigation of feminist issues in gender and women’s studies. According to Lazar (2010) a feminist CDA as a research program is known for its overtly political stance and it is concerned with the analysis of various forms of social inequality and injustice. So, the basic aim of using the feminist critical discourse analysis (CDA) is to unveil the hidden ideology in Khalifa’s texts.
The researcher relies on (feminist CDA) to analyze the language that is used by the novelist to focus on women’s oppression and subjection. In “Muzakarat Imra’a Ghir Waqai’a” “unrealistic woman”, Khalifa employed the narrative style in her feminist discourse to delve into the reader’s subconscious and be aware of women’s sufferings of the gender inequality that, in turn, leads them to the deprivation of their rights in a male dominant society. Consequently, the researcher intends to analyze some quotations from the novel linguistically in the light of feminist CDA techniques such as lexicalization, figurative speech, colloquialism, personifications, and finally symbolism.

According to the Oxford dictionary, lexicalization is a process of making words express a concept. Therefore, it can be defined as a process through which concepts are put into words in a given language. For instance, technical verbs and expressions: The bottle entered the cave. – “enter” expresses motion.

Figurative speech such as metaphors, similes, and allusions give readers new insights. Take metaphor as an example. Metaphor can be defined as the process of comparing two unlike objects or things, which may have some common qualities. (the notice to the startled grass).

Personification is a figure of speech in which a thing – an idea or an animal – is given human attributes. Take this sentence as an example (The wind howled in the night).

Symbolism can be defined as the use of symbols to signify ideas and qualities, by giving them symbolic meanings. Symbolism can take different forms. Generally, it is an object representing another, to give an entirely different meaning that is much deeper and more significant.

Colloquialism which has Latin origins that means “conference” or “conversation.”, is used in informal or everyday language in literature (Jalalpour & Hossein Tabrizi, 2017). In other words, it can be defined as popular and conventional proverbs is considered as the language of inheritance.

Taking into consideration - Ideology, which can be considered as a system of various ideas, intends to constitute the large power blocks. Language as a medium of ideological forces focuses on legitimizing the relations of organized power. In other words, Ideologies form the basic systems of belief or social representations of specific groups This means that they are not personal beliefs shared by groups, as is also the case for grammars, socio-culturally shared knowledge, group attitudes or norms and values (Ibrahim, 2016).

It can be assumed that ideologies form the basis of the belief systems or social representations of specific groups. In social and cultural representation power-relationship becomes the most essential base to guide the activities of societies. In other words, they guide the social activity within in-group and out-group members of the community. For example, in some countries, due to cultural conventions, women are completely under the control of masculine power. They cannot take or make any decision without returning to men.

6.2 DATA COLLECTION

According to Cook (1990) novels, short stories and groans may be called discourse rightfully. So, for the present study, the sample is one novel; “Muzakarat Imra’a Gher Waqaeia”, by Sahar Kalifa. This novel is easily available in the market in printed form and e-book form. Though the whole of the novel will not be analyzed, yet certain quotations from it will be chosen for the analysis.

7. DATA ANALYSIS

A. Agency: The use of I and We

The novelist relies on using the feminist discourse in which the reader ought to listen to one voice; the voice of the protagonist “Afaf”, the direct internal dialogue (soliloquy) that depends on the first-person narrator speaker (I) in which the story is most prominent leading to intimately presenting the narrative style, as well, we hear the voice of the tortured ego whispering to herself (Hamoud, 2013). As previously mentioned, the only sound that was heard in the novel is the voice of the narrator and there was no presence of other voices, that refers to her suffering from an internal conflict with the outside world that repeatedly happens during the incidents in the novel. The researcher contends that the internal conflict happens, as a result, to struggle against her submission to the cultural and social values she faces, the other one was with the external world who forces her as a woman to accept the reality as itself. In this respect, Afaf introduces herself as

أم أبنتي المقتفي، وتتى كذلك حتى تزوجت وأصبحت زوجة ناجر، "أحياناً أكون الأثنين معاً، فحين يصفر الزوج يناديني "أم أبنتي المقتفي"، وحين يضرب الوالد يناديني "أم امرأة الناجر"

(4)

That can be translated into English as, "I am the daughter of the inspector until I got married and became a merchant’s wife, and sometimes I was both together. When the husband makes fun of me, "O daughter of the inspector," and when the father gets angry to call me "O merchant’s woman" (Khalifa, p. 4).
The novelist intends to start her novel with this expression ‘I’m the daughter of the inspectors’ and ‘I’m the wife of a merchant’ to reveal her own fragmented identity from the beginning of the novel. She lives in a society that restricts her movements as a child and degrades her as a girl at the earliest age of her life. The gender inequality is present as a key role in revealing the conflict, especially her dad chose her husband and drew her future by choosing a rich merchant.

Even when she wanted to introduce the others, she aims to introduce them from her perspective. She talked instead of her husband. My husband always asks himself, saying “Why did not I divorce her since the beginning?” (Khalifa, p. 22)

تحتى يسأل الزوج نفسه لماذا لم أطلقها منذ البداية

The same thing with the other characters happens in the novel to her family members and her friend Nawal. For instance, she presents her mum concerning the doctor’s ‘reply more than herself when she was taken to a doctor.

سمعت أمي تسل والدي عن الطبيب وعني

I heard my mum asking about me and the doctor (Khalifa, p. 5)

Khalifa’s narrative style that depends mainly on one narrator has great effects on enabling the protagonist to focus on which events she wants to narrate and to attract the readers’ attention toward her perspective, whereas it was dependent on the form of self-healing and self-effacing to reveal its suffering and crises with itself and with its social environment (Abu-ElOmreen, 2018

B-Lexicalization

Gender inequality is present at the beginning of the novel to express the extent of Afaf’s loss in which the novelist succeeded in using the expressive words (unwanted-daughter, wife), both words are connected with submission and obedience without remembering her name as a human (Afaf). In other words, the self and the feminine identity disappeared when they were linked to inspection and trade.

" Even before marriage, my name had been in my father's passport among a group of names, I had been dominated by an appalling fear. My fear reached an extent even not to make any decision. I was ashamed of my fear until the point of scandal " (Khalifa, p. 74). Afaf intends to convey a message that divorce culturally is considered a scandal that she couldn’t be forgiven for it, while a divorced man can marry again and choose any girl he wants, therefore, she should be aware of the cultural conventions which if she was divorced and came back to her family. Khalifa argues one essential issue that women suffer from, which is divorce. In the masculine society, divorce for a woman is unacceptable conventionally and traditionally.

When she thought of divorce as a solution to her tragic life and to leave her husband whom she didn’t love,
she found herself restrained and unable to start a new life without a man. In other words, she is afraid to face the community again without a man

(I remembered that I haven’t been on a plane alone and I didn’t travel for many miles alone …… I’m always with a partner).

Her identity always followed the other; her husband or her father, therefore her personality depends on the existence of one of them. Afaf has tried to find herself and established her identity without relying on them. Nearly at the end of the novel, Afaf wanted to start her life without any restrictions, but her decisions come as advice by her friend (start again).

Sahar Khalifa succeeded in employing the technical action verbs and repetition in expressing herself concisely such as in

(казفي أنذرت الأ ذرة تحت عليه فانتهت على اختنق جميع تنقصت)

"appalling fear caught me. I applauded it and in return it did. Everyone choked but only I breathed "

These technical verbs are very impressive in presenting her lost personality. Afaf expressed the clash of her world with the values of society. The result of that clash is alienation even if she lives with her family. She refused to marry the merchant but she was forced to get married to him. The technical action verbs were sufficient to carry the pain of her living among people who called her a reckless girl. Focusing on telling the reader from the first lines using technical term skillfully in describing her inability to reject parental dominance and her rejection of outdated habits.

Khalifa is known as Victoria Verigin of the twentieth century where she utilizes the feminist discourse to shed light on the women’s issues in a society that considers her existence only to serve men. In this novel, she presents the image of women due to her society as if she is nothing.

(Khalifa, p. 115)

"As I know the woman is an ephemeral"

1-Metaphor
She continues in narrating the unjust gender inequality when she highlights the use of some cruel qualities to describe unmarried girls as if they are extra-burden over their community.

Afaf describes herself as (ина زانية في صيغة عنصرية) in a masculine society. Here, her feminine identity again is lost between false qualities and dealing with her as a human being. (Abu-ElOmreen, 2018)

All that I was looking forward to was restoring myself and regaining my self -respect”.

Hamoud (2013) argues one important thing that “Afaf always convinces herself that she is unable to stand up again and support herself as an independent one, she will not change her reality because of the social conventions that will not support a woman, therefore, she rebelled through her imagination”.

Khalifa portrays her protagonist as “A woman suffering from the dominance of the past over her present and future, " (Hamoud, 2013). This led to a terrible imbalance in which she did not live in her childhood, adolescence or marriage,

(أحسست أن قطعة من ذلك الماضي وان الماضي مازال حولي وان الماضي مازال حولي واني)

(I felt as if I’m a part of the past and that past is nostalgic and I was still waiting for him to pass through the alleys to see me in front of him) (Khalifa, p. 28).

Therefore, she lives waiting for the past, not the future, and her life stopped on the events in that past depending on her dreams and memories. Afaf portrays herself living in the prison of gender inequality as a result of cultural misunderstanding.

I am still standing at work, one foot is on the ground while the other is on the air, lying on bed in this position for ages, one day, I woke to find myself a merchant’s wife, I got regretted then I remembered the days of prosperity and the house of the inspectors, I was disappointed and convinced that Misery was my destiny and I did not try to overcome it with change. (Khalifa, p. 45).
Portraying misery as something can be passed, as well as, holding a comparison between the bachelorhood and the marriage refer to the inner struggle. She wants her readers to reach the same extent; the submission itself in both lives. It is a crystal clear that Afaf suffers a double alienation; inner and external conflict, whereas she lives with a husband whom she does not love that increases her feeling of expatriation, (Hamoud, 2013). Consequently, she again surrenders to her society. She only had one way to get rid of that feeling that is thinking about the past and childhood. Living between the past and the present and holding the comparison between them lead her to be unable to make the rightful decision.

Afaf keeps on introducing the escape from the effect of gender inequality by starting new careers through practicing to painting and storytelling to express and satisfy her talents and to assert herself but she failed. 

(I cannot express my destiny, as I had been lost between the past and the present)

Khalifa, p. 43)

(Instead of helping me to achieve what I wanted to have, he deprived me of the peace of mind and friendship).

In depicting her love story, she focuses on her father’s dealing with the issues of love in a conceiving way arguing to what extent an oriented society who seeks to find a rich bridegroom in the Gulf countries without asking about his past. From her point of view, her dad sentences her to death. Her marital life continues even though marriage comes into failure.

2-Metonymy

Envy comes as a result of the differences and inequalities between the two genders female and male. In many occasions, Afaf envies the boys’ position in society.

"The Guardsman and the guarded light the candles and the vaporizer for you " (Khalifa, p. 53)

The metonymy here indicates her envy because of not being a baby-boy. She did not get the same respect. She lives in a negative alienation that refers to the contradictory life.

If I lost him, what I should wait for) (Khalifa, p. 97)

Her request to travel to her country alone is the first step toward the solution. She asks herself if she gets divorced, who will take care of her. It is a metonymy indicating her fears from the future if she got divorced, how the society accepted her.

(I dreamt of sleeping between the hugs of my mum and my homeland that the more increase in my free time, the more leisure time I get)

The metonymy of homesickness and missing her mum is used to leave a wonderful impact on the reader to sympathize with her situation (Al-Qasim, 2005).

Khalifa worked on presenting Afaf as the victim of alienation that made her a little girl who is moving towards her mother to sleep. Her rebellion comes to reality when she decided to break away from her husband and make it a true decision. Despite her conviction that her decision is rejected by her community, she decided to challenge social values. Here, conversation with the Irish woman was in an attractive way to support her decision (. you are a brilliance). The employment of this conversation supports Afaf’s intention to start up a new life, furthermore, her meeting with her ex-beloved affects her personality with the support of her friend Nawal when she advised Afaf to restart her life

(I couldn't express my destiny, as I had been lost between the past and the present)

This metonymy refers to how much gender inequality has affected her personality that, in turn, leads her to be lost between the past and the present.

The pro-woman novelist, Sahar Khalifa was so creative in employing the figurative speech in her speech to present her suffering from false social tradition. Whereas she used many of the narrative devices to offer us the fragmented identity because of the dead social habits she faced in her life. Despite her roles and sacrifices, that in turn, makes her feel that a woman is the weakest member of the society for believing in males being power and dominance over females.

3-Personification

The novelist Sahar Khalifa, relied on this type of figurative speech to insist on two important things, her escape from reality that was fed up with false habits, and entertaining herself from thinking about the reality. Particularly, she personified two things, an apple and her cat. She portrayed her cat as a woman who lived the same suffering and oppression with the same reaction toward her society.
also, the apple given by her dad’s friend, Afaf dealt with it as her friend, so it shouldn’t be eaten. I hope they will be merciful to the apple (Khalifa, p. 4)

**D- COLLIQUALISM**

Sahar Khalifa is famous in employing conventional proverbs in presenting gender inequality. Her heroine, Afaf, remembers her brother’s birth and putting the apple (Khalifa, p. 139), "the good luck and the blue bead". Its well-known that families have fears of envy, so they intended to put a bead without doing the same thing with the birth of a girl.

Traditionally, Envy is a result of the differences and inequality between the two genders female and male. In many occasions, Afaf envies the boys’ position in society. She criticizes the dated tradition.

"May it rid of all evil eyes (Khalifa, p. 53)"

Furthermore, her mum asked her to stop eating at the same time as her brother without caring about his weigh-in contrast to Afaf’s motherhood (Khalifa, p. 150)

Furthermore, the novelist used a poetic verse mixing standard and colloquial language to present the image of a woman has been created to serve men, hence she tried to add a new protest toward the cultural and social conventions.

(...)

"ألا أيها العمر هل من بديل، لزوج مقيت ولم تجبر على الطالع والنازل"

(Oh my years, is there any alternative for a dirty husband and a pile of laundry? (Khalifa, p. 114)

**E- SYMBOLISM**

An action, an event or a word spoken by someone may have a symbolic value, in this novel, Khalifa utilized the concept of symbolism to indicate how the gender inequality leaves a great impact on Afaf’s personality. The title itself is a symbol of leaving the reality to live in a world of imagination as a trial from Afaf to stop clashing with her society. In (The memoirs of an unrealistic woman) Sahar used the words "مذكرات إمرأة غير واقعة". The daughter of the inspector and the wife of the merchant) Here the symbolism theme is clear, the "inspection" Refers to the meaning of masculine control, and "trade" carries the meaning of consumption where the cultural identity of women completely vanished. We return to the famous saying of Simon de Beauvoir: "A woman begins by saying that I am a woman when she tries to define herself, and no one does that". The refusal of her love for the neighbour’s son symbolizes the father-authority mainly.

When he forced her to marry the merchant as a reaction to her love story. Afaf had an intimate relationship with childhood memories; for her, the apple wasn’t an apple. She dealt with her as a living thing and gave her names such as Amera, Samira…her apple was different. It continued presenting the self-indulgence that has suffered from the rejected love and the abominable. In her article, Hamoud (2013) stated that he novelist criticized the society and to which stage of destruction that Afaf reached after leaving her husband. Afaf tried to revive her life after meeting her old love, but surprisingly he sought to have sexual relation.

By the end of the analysis of the selected corpus for this thesis, the researcher has found that the hidden ideology that controls the Palestinian society is a male dominant ideology. As for the concept of power, the research has concluded the following.

**F-POWER RELATION AND SOCIAL IDEOLOGY**

Taking into consideration the power relation in Palestinian society, masculine authority and dominance have great impacts on the women’s submission and obedience. In this novel, Khalifa tackles the social aspect of Palestinian society as the main focus of the novel. The racist ideology imposed its control over Palestinian culture, made man the centre of power. Moreover, she highlights the issues of women oppressed in a masculine society. The heroine of the novel, Afaf, suffers from coercion because she is a female in a masculine society that considers women as a burden and a second class human-created only to serve men. Afaf has an identity crisis as a result of an impersonation of identity. Impersonation of identity, which is considering her the only narrator of the novel, is a sign of non-reconciliation with oneself. From the beginning of the novel, Afaf reveals her fragmented self. She lives in a society that binds her with restrictions and devalues her as a human being. Afaf has tried to accept the restriction of the outdated conventions, therefore, she relies on narrating her story on the soliloquy to reveal her suffering and crisis with the social environment.

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When my husband was angry, he would call me the daughter of the inspector and when my father got mad at me, he would call me, the merchant's wife.

Due to the ideology of the masculine society, women were dependent and owned by their dads and husbands. So Aafaf surrounded by restrictions that shouldn’t be neglected that enforced Aafaf to accept her a fragmented identity to satisfy the masculine ideology.

8. RESULTS
"Muthakarat Imra’a Gher Waaqea’a " (1986), written by the prominent Palestinian novelist, Sahar Khalifa, depicts the emotional and conceptual growth of a woman. The story covers the turmoil of the female character overcome by fear, frustration, and helplessness. In the first part of the novel, it was clear that there was a similarity between the life of the writer and the life of the heroine of the story. Both suffered from patriarchal authority, the authority of society. It also discusses the importance of women’s honour according to social and cultural conventions.

Generally, the novel reflects the battle of the woman with the reality and the difficulties that she faces to free and emancipate herself away from the restrictions and restraints of the masculine authority over her. Aafaf had an inextricable relationship with the social environment, which she considered herself as the weakest person in the face of the influence of society.

Khalifa is glorified by the use of various narratives and dialogues, flexibility in using the language between the classical and the colloquial, and she maintained her spontaneity in the choice of words and phrases and was characterized as usual by her short sentences and her few sharp words in their meaning and rhythm. She also adopted the method of the cat in exile. Moreover, she wanted to convey the reader that her protagonist is surrendered to the painful reality that she lived, but in fact, she is actually an unrealistic woman because she has encountered false customs and traditions.

The narrative style of the individual speaker provided the heroine, (Aafaf), with the ability to choose the positions and events that she wanted to focus on. Furthermore, it makes the voice of Aafaf, the protagonist of the novel, the only voice presented to the reader with the sole point of view. If she presented the views of one of her family’s members or her friend, Nawal, that was by invoking and reviewing their conversation in the past. Aafaf dreamt to have an ordinary life with her love, but she was crashed with the harshest reality that moved her to life the past where she found her lovers, identity and happiness. She is completely shocked and distracted by that beautiful past, which she is fantasized about. Near the end of the incidents, she is restored to her consciousness and chose her present with all his cruelty, preferring him to the great illusion that he has experienced all the past years in exile.

9. CONCLUSION
Sahar Khalifa, herself, being the heroine of her novel "Muzakarat Imra'ah Gher Waqea’a" (1986), translated as ”memoirs of unrealistic woman” weaved her novel so as to capture the avid reader’s attention towards her artistic illusionary narrative devices so as to let them surrender to the reality around them. In her turn, Sahar Khalifa could portray Aafaf’s actions’ and ideas’ to be opposed, while others don’t. The writer, herself, intended to convince her readers to feel that Aafaf was an unreal woman in her society who lived in her own old and approved beliefs, concepts and ideas were for about a hundred –years-ago or more.

However, today in the last quarter of the 20th century the world has developed and changed greatly that its concepts, ideas, and even life itself have changed too. The whole world has become a global society. Hence, the question arises; how Aafaf becomes satisfied with her current situation of her society and the surrendering of her akin people, the continuing dominance of such concepts, beliefs that have influenced woman and marginalized her to be on the margins of the society of work? such dogmas and concepts have not only caused the man to feel paralyzed and marginalized, but they made him ignore his personality and being a rootless, submissive and helpless creature that distrust his powers as well, praying in the hope that the mercy and the justice of the heaven come and support him. However, during such long wait who knows!! Moreover, such a society has suffered severely under the harsh and dominant powers and the fires of such an external occupation. Thus, the society itself has become distrusted, unreal, unpredictable, unrecognizable and unacceptable. Hence, the woman may rebel and revolt against her society. Consequently, Aafaf, the heroine of a very realistic novel of Sahar Khalifa’s came to play such a role in this novel.

10. RECOMMENDATIONS
“The memoirs of an un-realistic woman” is one of the most significant novels, written by the creative novelist, Khalifa in which she intends to criticize the masculine Palestinian society that ignored the women’s roles and sacrifices. The critics ignored it due to its focus on the social issues the contrast to her previous novels; The Cactus, A Hot Spring The Sunflower. Therefore, there will be a need to shed the lights on this novel and its importance such as the clash between the reality and self, the concept of identity, the concept of Home, ..
etc. Furthermore, there is a real need to focus on the linguistics analysis of her novels especially on introducing the oppressed women in Palestine and the Arab world. There is an intensive need to focus on the used language in Kahlifa’s novels to reveal the real suffering from the outdated conventions and false traditions surrounding women and restricting their roles socially and culturally.

REFERENCES
Arkais Vocabulary Identification as Efforts to revitalize the Language with a Panai: Ecolinguistic Perspective

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ARTICLE INFO

ABSTRACT

This study examined arkais vocabulary found in Panai Malay Language (PML), a mother tongue found in three districts namely Panai Tengah District (Labuhan Bilik), Panai Hilir District (Sei Berombang), and Panai Hulu District (Ajamu). The formulation of the problem in this research was how was the existence of archaic vocabulary in PML? The purpose of this study was to find out how much arkais vocabulary is in PML, so it could find out the potential level of threat and extinction of PML. This type of research was a descriptive study that used a quantitative approach. The data collection technique used is the note-taking. The data analyzed were written data obtained from an archaeological vocabulary study. The results obtained show that (1). The archaic PML eco-lexicon includes the home eco-lexicon, wood, flora, fauna, fish, (2). Flora eco-lexicon is the most archaic eco-lexicon, (3). Panai Malay is at the Beginning Threatened level (level 3)

KEYWORDS

Revitalitationi , Arkais, Melayu, Panai

1. INTRODUCTION

Indonesia has a variety of regional languages and spread from Sabang to Merauke. In the regional languages, there are also various dialects. The diversity of dialects is a reflection of the ethnic and cultural diversity of Indonesian people. In the Language Development and Development Agency data, it is stated that from 1992 to mid-2017 669 regional languages have been mapped throughout Indonesia and there are many other regional languages that have not been mapped. Among the hundreds of languages found in Indonesia from year to year the number continues to decrease, endangered, in an insecure position, even some are heading for extinction. One of the regional languages that is in an insecure position is Panai Malay Language (hereinafter referred to as PML).

PML is a regional language used as a mother tongue in three sub-districts in the area of Labuhan Batu Regency, Rantau Prapat. PML speakers are spread over 3 districts namely Panai Tengah District (Labuhan Bilik), Panai Hilir District (Sei Berombang), and Panai Hulu District (Ajamu). The potential for PML insecurity from extinction is beginning to be seen from the characteristics of PML speakers in the three districts. In the Panai Tengah Subdistrict, Labuhan Bilik, parents competed to send their children to school outside the area. Labuhan Bilik’s daughters migrate to schools outside the city, such as in Rantau Prapat, Kisaran, Medan, Jakarta, and even abroad such as Saudi Arabia, Cairo, Egypt, and so on. Certainly, while attending school outside the region / abroad, the languages used are Indonesian and foreign languages. Even if there was a use of PML, even then only occasionally, when meeting with the same speaker the frequency of use was relatively low. This condition clearly results in the use of PML in daily communication not being maximized, which results in the continued use of PML being threatened.

Likewise, Panai Hilir sub-district, which has the capital city of Sei Berobang who are ethnic Chinese, have long controlled the trade sector. In daily communication for fellow ethnic Chinese, this ethnic group prefers to use Chinese, although sometimes it is mixed with Indonesian. Whereas trade communication with local residents in general uses Indonesian language occasionally mixed with PML. Even if it uses Panai Malay, the PML language that is used is only just, not fluent. Thus the use of PML is increasingly marginalized.
It is also different from the use of PML in the Panai Hulu District which has thousands of cities, Ajamu. This district is known for its plantations. As is usually the case with plantations, Ajamu is dominated by people who speak the Java Region. The language used in daily communication is mixed between Javanese, Indonesian and Panai languages. In addition, there are also many residents who come from Tapanuli, whose daily life is more dominant using ethnic Batak among ethnic groups. This condition will also speed up PML's vocabulary.

Furthermore, the destruction of some ecosystems in PML speakers' areas causes the loss of some vocabulary in communication. In the past, Labuhan Bilik was famous for producing high-quality wood, now the wood has become extinct. The community is very difficult to get wood materials to build houses. Now wood for building houses is very rare. As a result, today the community tends to build houses no longer using the traditional "tungkat house" / stilt houses, but houses in the form of shop houses or shophouses, all of which no longer use wood, but are made of stone, cement, and iron.

What are the consequences? Of course, it will bring unfavorable effects in the vocabulary of PML. With people rarely making houses made of wood and stage models, words related to objects, shapes, and activities are no longer used in communication, which will gradually disappear from circulation (archaic), for example, said bondol, telan, galogar. These words are rarely used because the construction of new houses does not use wood or not a stage model. Bondol is wood located at the bottom of the door frame. Galogar is wood that can telan. Telan is the wood where nails on the floor boards.

Likewise, in the field of marine ecosystems. The Panai area which is famous for its fish products, especially fish terubuk, is now hard to find. The fish are almost extinct. Due to the scarcity of this terubuk fish, people rarely consume it. The consequence is that words related to the type of terubuk fish dishes are rarely used. For example, anyang terubuk, and the ingredients make it like the word mumbang (coconut pistil), Roncah (mixture), and so on.

Paying attention to the phenomenon of the frequency of PML usage which is getting weaker and the damage to some ecosystems in the area, will accelerate PML vocabulary. If this is negated, it is feared that the number of PML archives is increasing, and in the end, it will threaten the survival of PML. This condition must not be allowed to drag on, it must be revitalized immediately to avoid extinction. Noting the linguistic phenomena as above, it is deemed necessary to conduct this research.

1. LITERATURE REVIEW
1.1 The Definition of Arkais

Etymologically, arkais or archaic is derived from Greek, meaning "from an earlier period and not used anymore or something that has the characteristics of ancient or antique. Something in linguistics that has been used for a long time and is no longer used is often called "archeism". Understanding from the dictionary and linguists above can be concluded that the archaic vocabulary is words that are no longer used and out of date or ancient, or forms of words that are no longer common. Words that are rarely heard and are hard to find again, but archaic vocabulary can also be defined as the language used because of the elements of the past that have survived to the present day. Language, as well as its speakers, is dynamic.

1.2 Language Revitalitation

Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia Daring (2017), revitalization is interpreted as 'the process, method, act of reviving or activating' something that was previously powerless. Language revitalization is defined as an effort to improve the form or function of language use for languages that are threatened by language loss or language death (King, 2001).

Revitalization is an effort or form of activity to increase the vitality (vitality) of a language. Increasing the life force of the language includes efforts to develop and protect language as well as fostering language speakers. Language revitalization aims to increase the use of the language, even language users will increase. In this connection, revitalization in this context is an activity to expand the linguistic system of a language (minority) and create a new sphere in its use by new types of speakers (King, 2001: 5–9).

Revitalization can be done through the learning of local languages by the speakers of the languages
Revitalization of regional languages is carried out after knowing the vitality level of the language. Languages that have a high level of vitality or are safe need not be revitalized. Revitalization only needs to be done in languages where the vitality level is weak based on the results of the language vitality test. (Guidelines for Conservation and Revitalization of Languages: 2017: 7-8)

1.3 Eco-Linguistics Theory

Ecolinguistics is a discipline that examines the environment and language. It is interdisciplinary linguistics, which juxtaposes ecology and linguistics (Mbete.2009: 1). Based on that, language is very closely related to its environment. The language can be lost or extinct if the ecology that supports it is also extinct.

According to Thohir (in Mbete, 2010: 2), ecology is the study of all types of living things, including humans (with culture and language and its relation to "the environment"). Furthermore, what is meant by the human environment and the environment is everything that resides in around humans, both in the form of inanimate objects, as well as the bodies or organisms in which there are humans.

Louis and Calvet (2006) define ecology as the study of organisms and their environment, while language ecology is the study of language and its environment. In this case, the relationship between language is itself, between language and society. Departing from these philosophical thoughts, the environment becomes one of the important studies in Eco-linguistics.

The importance of Eco-linguistics is because the language that is dynamic is associated with the environment. The nature of language is dynamic (changeable) in accordance with the times and social life of the speakers speaking. That is, of course, the vocabulary used changes and updates because the old vocabulary is rarely used. This is caused by the lack of confidence of the community in using the language, influenced by modernization, social factors by looking at the local language is the language used by the language groups used by the lower classes; farmers, traders, or laborers. However, in terms of scientific scholarship, it does not look at language levels (prestige or not).

Based on empirical facts, some Malay speakers in Labuhan Bilik no longer use and know archaic words and meanings, let alone used in everyday speech events. Departing from these problems, researchers, language academics, observers, interested people, connoisseurs, learners, the government (regional), and the language user community, and others must realize and pay attention and cooperate seriously so that the language vocabulary is not lost and extinct without us knowing. Because it is not something that can be underestimated, but it must be taken seriously and important for the identity of the Malay community in Labuhan Bilik, should researchers, language academics, observers, interested people, connoisseurs, learners, government (regional), and the user community language, and others must realize and pay attention and cooperate seriously so that the language vocabulary is not lost and extinct without us knowing because it is not something that can be underestimated, but it must be taken seriously and important for the identity of PLM speakers.

Research on PLM has not been done much. Documented research includes PLM research conducted in 1999 Aiyub, et al. with the title Structure of Panai dialect Malay. Furthermore, the research “The Oral Tradition of Cenggok-Cenggok at the Panai Labuhanbatu-North Sumatra Malay Marriage Ceremony by Tengku Winona. Sharina Amanda's 2014 research entitled Reconstruction of Langkat Malay, Serdang Malay, and Panai Malay. Research on Taboo in Panai Malay in 2018 and Clitika research in Panai Malay 2018 by Hilman Haidir, these studies were very encouraging However, these studies only provide a preliminary description of the existence of PMLs, but have not examined how to preserve efforts to maintain the existence of the PML in its use.

Research on the revitalization of archaic vocabulary has been done by several experts. The first study was conducted by Lumbantoruan (2005) entitled "Study of Toba Batak Language Vocabulary". The research was a thesis at the University of North Sumatra. The research aims to find archaic words and word-arising factors in the Toba Batak language. The research focused on 484 words taken from several written sources. Data submitted to monolingual speakers as many as 60 questionnaires and to bilingual speakers as many as 60 questionnaires. The results showed that word arising was faster in bilingual speakers than in...
monolingual speakers. From the age level, word arising is more common at a young age, both in monolingual speakers and bilingual speakers. Word arising due to linguistic factors included phonological aspects, morphological aspects, and semantic aspects. In addition, word arising can also occur due to sociolinguistic factors.

The second study was conducted by Nadra et al. (2010) presented in the article titled "Comparison of Color Concepts between Old Age Speakers and Young Age Speakers in the Rao Mapat Tunggul Dialect" group. The study examines the development of language, especially on the concept of color. This development was observed by comparing the use of the concept of color by speakers. The grammar of words in this study was also observed by comparing the use of language by speakers.

The third study was conducted by Yulis (2013) entitled "An Analysis of Dead Words of Minangkabau in Koto Tabang-Pariaman Dialect". The research was a thesis at the Postgraduate of Padang State University. The study uses a qualitative descriptive approach with the aim of finding the Pangkaman dialect of the Minangkabau language that is no longer used by young speakers in Koto Tabang.

Yulis's research is also complemented by the research of Dewi, et al in 2017, with the title Minangkabau Language Vocabulary which has the Potential Arkais in Kaba Cindua Mato (KCM). This research can be classified as library research because researchers collect data from written sources in the form of books (manuscripts that have been recorded). However, to make a conclusion, the researchers also conducted field research by distributing questionnaires to a number of respondents to determine the level of vocabulary. The data of this study are all clauses in which there are archaic vocabularies. The object of this study was the archaic vocabulary found in the KCM manuscript. The archaic vocabulary referred to in this study was the vocabulary found in the KCM manuscript, but was no longer used by speakers of the Minangkabau language at this time. The results of his research stated that Kaba Cindua Mato was one of the documents written in the Minangkabau language. Kaba included classical kaba that can represent the use of vocabulary in the Minangkabau language in the past. Based on a careful reading of the Kaba Cindua Mato (KCM) manuscript, it was concluded that changes in the Minangkabau language, among others, led to potentially archaic vocabulary. The vocabulary was almost no longer used by speakers of the Minangkabau language today. If the vocabulary was no longer used by a speaker, he will become archaic. The archaic vocabulary in question is the vocabulary found in the KCM manuscript but was no longer used by speakers of the Minangkabau language at this time. The results showed that in the KCM manuscript there were 122 archaeological potential vocabularies divided into 43 verbs, 6 adjectives, adverbs, and 68 nouns. All of the potentially archaic vocabulary found in the KCM manuscript then tested to active Minangkabau speakers to find out the level of archaicism. Based on the respondent's answer, it was concluded that the age of the respondent influenced their opinion on the narrative of a word. Respondents under the age of 20 choose more archaic vocabulary; respondents under the age of 40 choose more semi-archaic vocabulary, while respondents under the age of 60 choose more active vocabulary. All archaic potential vocabularies found in the KCM manuscript are tested to active Minangkabau speakers who live in Padang City. Based on the respondent's answers, it is obtained a description of the level of vocabulary of the vocabulary that of the 122 vocabulary that has the potential to be archaic there are 22 vocabularies that are still active, 46 vocabularies that are semi-archaic, and 56 vocabularies that have been archaic. Opinions about the level of sarcasm may not be exactly the same if tested on active Minangkabau speakers in other areas because each speaker has their respective tendencies. Therefore, it is recommended that other researchers examine the Minangkabau language arising in other areas so that the vocabulary of the Minangkabau language can continue to be preserved.

2. METHODOLOGY

This research used qualitative and quantitative research methods. Quantitative research used to find answers to how the existence of PML archives, while qualitative methods were used to find answers about the potential threat of extinction of PML. The data collection technique used the note taking technique. The data analyzed by written data obtained from informants namely words and classified as archaic. The results obtained show that in PML there are archaic words.
3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
3.1. The Existence of Archaic Vocabulary

Early research on archaic vocabulary in PML has been done by Amran et al. in 2016. The researchers collected 787 words of data collected from 11 informants. Vocabulary that becomes the data of findings, then included in a questionnaire that contains 3 options, namely Option A for criteria still recognizing and using, option B for criteria still recognizing, but not using, and option C for criteria not recognizing and not using. The conclusion of this study is really very surprising, because of the 787 PML vocabularies asked to 55 respondents, it turns out that 626 vocabularies or about 79.54% belong to archaic words. The above data can be grouped in Ecolinguistics studies as shown in the following table.

Table 1: Vocabulary of Arkaic PML Connected to Eco-Lexicon of Rumah (House)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Words</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Responden’s Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>alang</td>
<td>Poles that position the house horizontally</td>
<td>A 26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>anjungan</td>
<td>The attic used for the royal son's silence</td>
<td>A 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Babi kuRus</td>
<td>A type of hard wood that is usually used for home support poles</td>
<td>A11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Bondol</td>
<td>Wooden transverse under the door that serves as a barrier / lock the door</td>
<td>A 33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Bungkolan</td>
<td>The highest roof support crosses the position of the sky</td>
<td>A 25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Gulung-gulung</td>
<td>Roof brace</td>
<td>A 28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Jonang</td>
<td>Board posts for the walls of the house</td>
<td>A 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Kajang</td>
<td>Plaited palm leaves for the roof of the house</td>
<td>A 26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Kaso jantan</td>
<td>Roll-up buffer</td>
<td>A 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>LahaR</td>
<td>Wooden retaining / buffer stage house which is located at the bottom of the house</td>
<td>A 52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>mamaRang</td>
<td>Take palm leaves from the tree to make the roof of the house</td>
<td>A 37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Pantok angin</td>
<td>Ventilation</td>
<td>A 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Rebeh</td>
<td>The house that wants to fall down</td>
<td>A 12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>SameR</td>
<td>House walls made of woven nipah leaves</td>
<td>A 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Somat</td>
<td>Make a roof from palm leaves</td>
<td>A 27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>Susun siReh</td>
<td>The walls of the board are stratified</td>
<td>A 32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>Tunjok langit</td>
<td>The highest roof support pole</td>
<td>A 21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Vocabulary of Arkaic PML Connected to Eco-Lexicon of Kayu (Wood)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Responden’s Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Alu/antan</td>
<td>Wood as a means of pounding something (rice pounder, sweet potato leaves)</td>
<td>A 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Basong</td>
<td>A type of wood that is made as a cover / stopper bottle</td>
<td>A 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Bongang</td>
<td>Wood made as a human aid</td>
<td>A 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Kotok</td>
<td>Drum</td>
<td>A 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Punak</td>
<td>A kind of wood</td>
<td>A 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Pale</td>
<td>A kind of lightweight wood</td>
<td>A 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>maRanti</td>
<td>A kind of wood</td>
<td>A 12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Simpak</td>
<td>Broken wood / tree</td>
<td>A 14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3: Vocabulary of Arkais PML Connected to Eco-Lexicon of Flora

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Responden’s Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>AmpaR</td>
<td>Yellowing rice</td>
<td>A: 5 B: 10 C: 40 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Babal nangka</td>
<td>Jackfruit Pistil</td>
<td>A: 14 B: 7 C: 34 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Balinjau</td>
<td>Small tomato</td>
<td>A: 13 B: 17 C: 25 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>baRombang</td>
<td>A type of plants that bear fruit on the beach</td>
<td>A: 38 B: 3 C: 14 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Binalu</td>
<td>Parasitic plants</td>
<td>A: 35 B: 8 C: 12 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>CokuR</td>
<td>Galangal (An Asian plant of ginger family)</td>
<td>A: 45 B: 4 C: 5 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Gelatang</td>
<td>Itchy plants</td>
<td>A: 8 B: 10 C: 37 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Jambu kalutok</td>
<td>Guava</td>
<td>A: 9 B: 15 C: 31 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>kaRakap</td>
<td>Smooth betel leaves</td>
<td>A: 30 B: 12 C: 13 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Kontus</td>
<td>Old coconut for nursery</td>
<td>A: 3 B: 6 C: 46 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Lecina</td>
<td>Chilli</td>
<td>A: 5 B: 6 C: 44 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Lanjung</td>
<td>Tall tree</td>
<td>A: 13 B: 15 C: 27 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>maRundut</td>
<td>A tree with thick fruit</td>
<td>A: 8 B: 18 C: 29 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Mayang</td>
<td>Coconut flower</td>
<td>A: 40 B: 6 C: 9 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>Mumbang</td>
<td>Coconut pistil</td>
<td>A: 41 B: 5 C: 9 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>Nipah</td>
<td>Plants to make the roof of a house</td>
<td>A: 7 B: 16 C: 32 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>PunggoR</td>
<td>Dead tree</td>
<td>A: 10 B: 16 C: 29 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>Seludang</td>
<td>Mayang coconut that has dried</td>
<td>A: 28 B: 11 C: 16 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>saRusong</td>
<td>Dried banana leaves</td>
<td>A: 6 B: 10 C: 39 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>Simpak</td>
<td>Broken tree</td>
<td>A: 14 B: 17 C: 24 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>Tembatu</td>
<td>Palm fruit</td>
<td>A: 11 B: 16 C: 28 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>Upeh</td>
<td>Betel nut</td>
<td>A: 23 B: 10 C: 22 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Vocabulary of Arkais PML Connected to Eco-Lexicon of Fauna

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Responden’s Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>buRan</td>
<td>Great ape</td>
<td>A: 44 B: 3 C: 8 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Cengkok</td>
<td>Beruk, black monkey</td>
<td>A: 44 B: 4 C: 7 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Cingkanit</td>
<td>Pig lice</td>
<td>A: 35 B: 10 C: 10 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Keluang</td>
<td>Big bat</td>
<td>A: 29 B: 10 C: 16 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>kalimunuR</td>
<td>Dandruff</td>
<td>A: 6 B: 17 C: 32 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Kupang</td>
<td>Latter-shelled anima</td>
<td>A: 44 B: 4 C: 7 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>mangkuRtuk</td>
<td>Chickens that are about to lay eggs</td>
<td>A: 12 B: 14 C: 29 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>mangalaboR</td>
<td>Fish caught</td>
<td>A: 9 B: 17 C: 29 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>mayaRudut</td>
<td>Ducks are chasing humans</td>
<td>A: 7 B: 15 C: 33 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Pekbud</td>
<td>Smooth anchovy</td>
<td>A: 18 B: 3 C: 34 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Ronek</td>
<td>Mouse</td>
<td>A: 9 B: 14 C: 32 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Rongit</td>
<td>Mosquito</td>
<td>A: 11 B: 16 C: 28 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Sikapkap</td>
<td>A kind of bird</td>
<td>A: 13 B: 17 C: 25 Number: 55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5: Vocabulary of Arkais PML Connected to Eco-Lexicon Fishery – Fishman

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Responden’s Answer</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Ambang</td>
<td>Place fishing equipment in the boat</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Bolat</td>
<td>Fishing gear mounted on the river bank</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Gebeng</td>
<td>Large carrier canoes</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>kajaR</td>
<td>The trapper is made of yarn like a net</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Katiok</td>
<td>Fishing gear in the form of a lot of fishing line without bait</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Kisa</td>
<td>Fishing gear</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Lukah</td>
<td>Bubu, a fishing gear</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Sampan dopi</td>
<td>Small canoe</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Senta</td>
<td>Sampan bones</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>siRnip</td>
<td>Charged boat</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Tajok</td>
<td>Ribs canoe</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Tuako</td>
<td>Big ship</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2 The Level of Threat and Extinction of PML
The level of threat and extinction of PML can be determined based on the scale of the threat level of extinction. This scale was compiled by referring to the opinions of Grenoble and Whaley (2006: 18) which made the criteria used by UNESCO, the level of threat and extinction of languages classified 6 scale, namely the language:

1. Safe,
2. Risky,
3. Starting to be Threatened,
4. Severe Conditions,
5. Almost Extinct, and

Saragih (2012) explained that a language that is in a safe position has several indicators including that all generations of speakers use that language in all domains of language use in the language-speaking community. When compared with other languages in the community of speakers, safe language functions as a language in the realm of government, education, and commerce. By its nature, a safe and secure language becomes the language of the country and has the highest morale, authority or prestige among other languages because this language functions in all aspects of the speaker’s life. Taking into account the indicators above, it is certain that:

1. PML does not work in the realm of government in the three speaking regions. The language used in the realm of government is Indonesian.
2. PML does not function in the realm of education, even if it is used only in lower classes, namely classes I and II.
3. PML is used in full trading. It is said to be incomplete, because traders in the Panai Hilir sub-district, Sei Berombang, are ethnic Chinese.

The security classification of a second language is a language that tends to have the risk of extinction. Language that is risky (at risk) is (a). languages with limited domains of use (b) the number of speakers is smaller than other languages in the community. (c) Generally, this language has speakers from various age groups (d). and the number of speakers who still survive. Taking into account BMP in social life, it can be concluded:

1. The realm of using BMP is limited, but the speakers are the biggest speakers compared to other language speakers in the community.
2. PML Nutritionists come from all age groups.
3. The number of PML speakers is classified as still surviving.
4. Based on these criteria, PML is not in a risky position.

The third language position is the position of the language that began to be threatened (disappearing) Criteria for language that began to be threatened include (a). if observed, the number of speakers has shrunk from generation to generation, (b). The realm of usage is limited, and the realm of usage especially in households is beginning to be replaced by other languages with wider communication power.
Noting the above criteria and adjusting to PML conditions in the field, it can be stated that:

1. The number of PML speakers was gradually shrinking. This was due to the large number of migrants from outside the region. In addition, the nature of the children who go to school outside the school and in general after finishing college and working outside the area. With so many young people who do not return home, it will reduce BMP speakers gradually.

2. The realm of using PML was currently limited, only within the family and community. According to condition, PML may have been classified as being in a position of being threatened. This is also reinforced by previous research which found many PML vocabularies classified as archaic.

The fourth classification was a severe condition. The language in severe condition (moribund) is (a). a language that is no longer used by the younger generation or by children. (b) In other words, this language is not inherited or passed on by the old generation to the younger generation. (c). Except by elderly speakers for special purposes, this language is not used by the younger generation. Taking into account PML in the community it can be stated that BMP is not at the Bad Level because PML was still used at all ages, parents still use the BMP language as a mother tongue so that the inheritance is still from generation to generation.

Near extinct languages were languages where the number of speakers was only a matter of fingers, especially the older generation. Taking into account the 5th classification, PMLs are currently not in the level of extinct extents, because there are still many open PMLs.

4. CONCLUSION
Based on the studies that have been conducted, several conclusions can be drawn, namely:

1. The archaeological PML eco-lexicon includes the home eco-lexicon, wood, flora, fauna, fish.
2. Eco-lexicon Flora is the most common gangland eco-lexicon.
3. Panai Malay Language is in the Threatened Beginning (level 3)

5. ACKNOWLEDGEMENT
Firstly, I would like to extend my thanks to Mrs. T. Silvana Sinar who has contributed to the work and Sri Ninta Tarigan who has helped the author translate this journal.

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REFERENCES
Lexical Borrowing in Spoken Lukabaras in a Multilingual Context

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ARTICLE INFO

Received: September 24, 2019
Accepted: October 27, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.4

KEYWORDS

Lexical Borrowing, Multilingual setting, Lukabaras, Domains of interaction

This paper investigated the borrowing of lexical items into spoken Lukabaras due to the influence of Nandi language in a multilingual setting. The data was collected in Chepsaita Scheme in Uasin Gishu County, Kenya. The scheme is that of a multilingual setting and presents a phenomenon in which the languages that come into contact apparently influence each other. The predominant language is Nandi, but other minority languages such as Lukabaras, Lutachooni, Luwanga, Lulogooli and Lubukusu are also spoken there. As a result, one of the outcomes of the contact is the transfer of linguistic features which occur at the lexical level. This paper therefore set out to identify and describe the lexical items that the speakers of Lukabaras borrow from the dominant Nandi language in the home and business domains of interaction. In this paper, the lexical items were collected through audio recording and analyzed descriptively. The findings of the study showed that lexical borrowing into spoken Lukabaras in Chepsaita was a communication strategy used by minority Lukabaras speakers to coexist with the dominant Nandi community. However, the borrowing constrained communication between Lukabaras speakers using the borrowed versions and the nayive Lukabaras speakers not residing in Chepsaita Scheme.

1. INTRODUCTION

As is common in most multilingual communities, Kenyans have always juggled their languages to fit various contexts (Michieka, 2012). In addition to English and Kiswahili, there are over forty native languages that are spoken by the indigenous Kenyan tribes (Kebeya, 2008). Consequently, in the interaction of these languages, there is usually a tendency for speakers to transfer certain linguistic items such as lexical, morphological, syntactic or semantic from one language into the other (Trudgill, 2003). Thus this paper sought to identify and present instances of lexical borrowing in spoken Lukabaras due to the influence from the Nandi language in Chepsaita Scheme, in Kenya.

Lexical borrowing, according to Grosjean (2010), is the integration of a word from one language into another by changing the phonology and the orthography of a foreign word to fit into the target language. Meyerhof (2008), argues that if speakers of one language move to a new environment outside their own linguistic area, they will learn the languages that are spoken in the new setting. Muysken (1999), points out that the most common and specific type of influence resulting from language contact situations is the borrowing of words.

As observed by Mandila (2016), lexical borrowing may be a communicative strategy the speakers of a target language use to bridge the communication gap with speakers of a donor language in the context of interaction. In doing, so one language can add several words to its lexicon as a result of the influence exerted by another language whenever there is contact between the speakers. This is observed in multicultural and multilingual contexts like Chesaita Scheme, in which as Rendon (2008) observes, language is more oriented towards the accomplishment of communicative goals.

In this perspective, since Lukabaras and Nandi languages in Chepsaita Scheme have had a long history of contact, there was need to establish the
mechanisms they have employed to adapt to their socio-communicative needs in this multicultural setting. The current paper investigated the unidirectional influence Nandi language has had on Lukabaras. While the focus was on lexical borrowing there was need to establish the motivation behind the absorption of the foreign lexical elements into spoken Lukabaras.

Lexical borrowing has been classified into various types which include lexical invention and loan blends/hybrids. Lexical invention according to Muysken (1997), involves hybrid blends between the source language and the target language free and bound morphemes. This paper was guided by these assertions to further inquire into what kind of lexical borrowing occurred in the interaction between spoken Lukabaras and Nandi language in Chepsaita Scheme.

Adams (2012), argues that the home domain is depended on by a multilingual society since it is common and has family subdivisions into role relations of family members. Within the domain of business, we have the sub domains of private business and marketing. The language used when people are doing business is therefore important because it is used in the transactions, and facilitates exchange of goods and services This paper focused on lexical borrowing from Nandi language and concentrated on the home and business settings as the major interactive situations between Nandi and Lukabaras the languages.

In view of the foregoing discussion, the present paper ultimately set out to establish the communication gaps occasioned by lexical borrowing in spoken Lukabaras. As observed by Mudogo (2017, 2018), lexical choices that speakers make are significant in the communication process. In this view the paper further inquired into whether or not the borrowing into spoken Lukabaras in Chepsaita impeded comprehensibility with other Lukabaras native speakers. There was also need to establish the scales of lexical borrowing. Lewis (2009) reclassified Luhyia as a macro language and the various dialects promoted to the status of languages. The reclassification is noted to be due to the fact that there is no standard Luhyia language but rather each Luhyia speaker speaks one of its varieties. Available studies differ on the exact number of dialects that comprise the Luhyia language (Marlo, 2011).

**Lukabaras language and lexical borrowing**

According to Marlo (2011), the Luhyia language is made up of a minimum of nineteen dialects which include Lubukusu (spoken in Bungoma County); Lukhayo, Lumarachi, Lusaamia, Lunyala-B, Lutura (spoken in Busia County); Lulooogoli, Luutirichi, Lunyore (spoken in Vihiga County); Lwiskuka, Lwitakho, Luwanga, Lumarama, Lutsosoto, Lunyalaka-K, Lukiisa, Lukabaras, Lutachoni (spoken in Kakamega County, the latter also spoken in Bungoma County). Muandike (2011), identifies Lutura spoken in Busia, while Kebeya (2008), splits Lunyala into B (Busia) and K (Kakamega) Simons & Charles (2018), has listed Lukabaras as one of the members of the macro language Oululuyia. Also known as Kabaras, the Kabras largely occupy Malava Sub County in Kakamega County.

The speakers of this language also spread to parts of the neighbouring Mattete Sub County, Kakamega East and parts of Uasin Gishu, Nandi Counties and Trans Nzoia. The name "Kabaras" as cited in (Mukulo, 2016) was derived from the Ababalasi sub group of the Kabras by the British. Therefore, Kabras are the people who speak Lukabaras. There was need to carry a study that would add to the existing literature on Lukabaras. As one of the Kenyan indigenous languages, Lukabaras has apparently not been extensively documented.

Studies done in Lukabaras such as Mukulo (2016), investigated how English loanwords are adapted to fit into the Lukabaras phonological system. Mukulo’s study showed how the pronunciations of English loan words are constrained by the Lukabaras phonological structure. Mukulo’s study, further concluded that all the English nouns which are adopted by Lukabaras are first morphologically conditioned and nativised through nominal prefixation since all the Lukabaras nouns have prefixes.

The findings in Mukulo’s study showed that any loanword which enters Lukabaras is assimilated both morphologically and phonemically so as to fit into the Lukabaras’ morphological and phonological structure. The present investigation however, deviated from Mukulo’s work by considering identifying and describing the pattern of the borrowed lexical items by Lukabaras from Nandi and not English. There was also no attempt to do a phonological analysis of the borrowed items from Nandi language by Lukabaras speakers.

Mudogo (2011), studied comprehension challenges facing Lukabaras listeners in interpreting news broadcast in Luhya by non-Kabaras presenters of Mulembe FM. The study sought to establish whether there were constraints in interpretation or meaning loss when the Kabras listen to news aired in Luhy by the non-Kabaras presenters. The study found out that the kabras listeners have comprehension constraints in
interpreting some news broadcast in Luhya by the non Kabras presenters of Mulembe FM since the interpretation strategies employed were not effective. In this view, the researcher underscores Mudogo’s assertions that appropriate lexical choices are key in facilitating effective communication. However unlike Mudogo (2011), the paper investigated lexical borrowing and did not focus on the interpretation of these items through news broadcasts but through the language contact of Lukabaras and Nandi in the home and business domains.

Similarly, in the investigation of lexical choices and their significance in communication, Mudogo (2016, 2018) established that successful communication must involve appropriate negotiation of meaning between speakers and listeners. With the focus on Lukabaras, the author established that the intricate nuances of meaning in a language are often tied to the lexical choices which in communication dictate the semantic realization and hence cannot be overlooked in communication. He further established that the rendering of lexical items were not appropriately captured in Mulembe FM Luhya news translation and hence resulted to many cases of semantic loss.

Mudogo’s (2017.) investigations illustrates how various levels of linguistic analysis are relevant to the communication process. However, a study that would investigate the significance of lexical borrowing involving Lukabaras, a Bantu Language, and Nandi, a Nilotic Language was necessary. The present study therefore focused on lexical borrowing patterns and their significance in the communication process. This is because; if the borrowed lexical items in Lukabaras are not appropriately negotiated by the communicators, there will be communication breakdown.

2. METHODOLOGY
This paper adopted a descriptive research design in which the identification and description of lexical borrowing in spoken Lukabaras was interpreted using qualitative methods. The researcher specifically focused on Lukabaras speakers who are intermarried with the Nandi speakers and those in the business interactive domains to select 36 respondents. The research used a data extraction guide to collect a corpus of 400 words from the key respondents through audio recording then using systematic random sampling transcribed 120 items from which at least thirty percent was derived for discussion in focus groups. The sample thus comprised 40 words representing both nouns and verbs in the two domains of interaction. The main unit of analysis was the lexical item which was presented and analysed in form of single words.

3. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION
Lexical Borrowing in spoken Lukabaras
The paper identified borrowed lexical items in spoken Lukabaras from Nandi language through questions that targeted names of things and certain actions in spoken Lukabaras. The researcher investigated the borrowed items in the home and business interactive situations, through FGD’s.

The study was informed by the Borrowing Transfer Theory (Odlin 1989, 2004). This theory states that when languages come into contact, transfer or diffusion of material from one language to another takes place. Odlin (1989, 2004) therefore notes that Borrowing transfer refers to the influence a second language has on a previously acquired language (which is typically one’s native language). As argued in this theory the process of transfer involves foreign linguistic elements being adapted to the native system of the target language at various levels such as phonological, morphological, lexical, syntactic, semantic and pragmatic. Accordingly, the study found the BT theory beneficial in explaining the transfer of linguistic material at the lexical level from Nandi language into spoken Lukabaras in Chepsaita Scheme.

This paper established that Lukabaras speakers borrow different words and expressions from the Nandi language during their interaction in Chepsaita Scheme. According to what was observed in the linguistic data posted in Table 4.1 the borrowed words reveal that there are various alterations such items undergo in the process of transfer from the donor language into the target language. The modifications on the words have given rise to loan blends or lexical inventions which were morpho-phonologically adapted into spoken Lukabaras though they did not exist in this language.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Borrowed Lukabaras</th>
<th>Native Lukabaras</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M’Chepsaita muno niwenya</td>
<td>Mshivala muno niwenya</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>okhumenya vulai wenyen orule</td>
<td>okhumenya vulai wenyen orule</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>olubuchani</td>
<td>oluchesi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tsia onunie omwana oyo,</td>
<td>Tsia onunie omwana oyo,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alenyanga ekineti.</td>
<td>alenyanga elituru</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Go and breastfeed that child, they want a breast.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Lexical Borrowing in Spoken Lukabaras in a Multilingual Context

From table 4.1 above, it was observed that the form of the borrowed word into spoken Lukabaras varied from the native Lukabaras form. The study established that these forms posed communication constraints among speakers of Lukabaras. The data collected further revealed that speakers of Lukabaras borrowed words like ekimieti, erioti etc whose forms were a modification from Nandi words. The study established that the motivation behind the adaption of these words into spoken Lukabaras was the need for Lukabaras speakers to coexist with the Nandi in the home and trade settings.

**Lexical Borrowing involving Nouns**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nandi</th>
<th>Lukabaras borrowed form</th>
<th>Native Lukabaras form</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>moita</td>
<td>emoita</td>
<td>eshimosi</td>
<td>calf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kiinet</td>
<td>ekineti</td>
<td>elituru</td>
<td>breast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kimiet</td>
<td>ekimiet</td>
<td>obusuma</td>
<td>ugali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moet</td>
<td>emoeti</td>
<td>eyinda</td>
<td>stomach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chorwet</td>
<td>omuchorweti</td>
<td>omulina</td>
<td>friend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muren</td>
<td>omureni</td>
<td>omusatsa</td>
<td>man</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lubchan</td>
<td>olubuchani</td>
<td>oluchesi</td>
<td>sweat</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the data collected for investigation, the study targeted spoken Lukabaras words used by respondents to name referents. Some of these words were: breast, calf, crowd, rock, leaves, ugali, goodness, truth, greetings, age, time, temptation, traditional tray, in-calf, and traditional mortar, friend, girl, guest, house, market, man, sweat, cooking pot, cooking stick etc.

Furthermore, in choosing the nouns, the researcher was able to collect data that fairly represented the life and environment of Lukabaras speakers in their interaction with Nandi speakers. The researcher was able to go for specific referents as guided by a data extraction guide. The examples of some of the nouns were presented as shown in table 4.2 below.

**Table 4.2: Table showing sample Borrowed Nouns**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Form of borrowed noun</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>People and parts of the body</td>
<td>Ekineti, omuchorweti, omureni,</td>
<td>Breast, guest, friend, Man, girl,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Olubuchani, emoita</td>
<td>sweat, Old, finger, stomach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Household items and things</td>
<td>ateluti, eshinuti, ekimieti, ekoti,</td>
<td>Traditional tray, Traditional mortar,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>at home</td>
<td>omukango, echibungusi, echeko</td>
<td>ugali, house, cooking stick, cooking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic animals</td>
<td>Emoita, erioti,</td>
<td>Calf, in-calf</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in table 4.2 above, the researcher targeted these particular nouns because they fall in the category of things that were common in the daily speech of spoken Lukabaras in the interaction with Nandi in Chepsaita Scheme. The respondents were also able to recall these words easily and give spontaneous answers. As noted earlier, it is not every noun that the study investigated. The nouns that were collected for this study were obtained from categories that named people and parts of the body, household items and things at home, domestic animals, objects and the physical environment and objects in the social-economic environment. The data was recorded and presented as shown in table 4.3 below.

**Table 4.3 Table showing categories of Borrowed Nouns**

The table 4.3 above reveals that the data collected for this study comprised nouns that targeted categories of things that were common. As observed earlier, it was easy for the respondents to identify names for parts of the body, things used at home and household items, objects, people, domestic animals and the physical and socio-economic environment of an individual. The study thus derived the following generalizations from these categories of borrowed nouns.

It was observed that in the category of nouns borrowed for people and parts of the body, Lukabaras speakers in Chepsaita scheme borrowed more words that name people than those that name parts of the body. For instance the words; omutoti, omuchorweti, omurenzi, omuchepu, and omuosi were common nouns relating to people and were borrowed more than olubuchani, eshiyeti and ekineti which are examples of words naming or relating to parts of the body.

The data collected also showed that not many words that named domestic animals or related to domestication of animals were borrowed into Lukabaras from the Nandi language. The study identified items like emoita and erioti as shown in the table. It was observed that this category had fewer lexical items into spoken. The category of nouns borrowed for house hold items included names of some of the commonly used house hold items in the home. The study identified examples of words such as; ateluti, eshinuti, ekimieti, ekoti, omukango, echibungusi etc. There were varied reasons for the prevalence in borrowing of words in this category into spoken Lukabaras. The respondents informed the study that words for items like ateluti and eshinuti were commonly adapted into spoken Lukabaras since they were shared in ordinary usage by speakers of the two communities both at home and in trading.

Some of the words borrowed in the category for objects and the physical environment included amasaka, oluandeti and etulwa. It was also observed that just like words in the category of domestic animals, this category instantiated less borrowing. The study attributed this to the forms of the words in this category in Nandi which showed that many of them could not be nativised into spoken Lukabaras. This category also included items whose names did not feature commonly in the ordinary interaction between Lukabaras and Nandi speakers.

The study further observed from the linguistic data shown in table 4.3 that words in the category of nouns borrowed for social-economic environment were commonly borrowed. Like the borrowed words in the category of people and parts of the body, many words in this category were easily adapted into spoken Lukabaras in Chepsaita. These words included; eyimanda, etukhuli, elitiemu, emiendo, ekaroni, eshirechi, echamuke etc. The ease of borrowing many of the words in this category was due to the frequency of interaction between the speakers of Lukabaras and in the social –economic environment like at home and on the market.

### Lexical Borrowing involving Verbs

Rendon (2008), argues that verbs, unlike nouns, are not purely content items but carry structural information. This would make them more difficult to borrow than nouns, since their borrowing would require knowledge of the source language beyond the lexicon (Rendon, 2008). The present paper discovered a similar situation in the investigation of lexical borrowing in spoken Lukabaras and therefore chose questions whose target answers were verbs that were common activities among the Lukabaras speakers. This was to enable the researcher to obtain data that would give a fair reflection of the influence of Nandi language on spoken Lukabaras.

The verbs that were investigated included to eat, hit, wash, open, pierce, close, hear, annoy, harass, stand, pay, beat, tie and steal. The data obtained was presented as shown in table 4.4 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nandi</th>
<th>Lukabaras borrowed form</th>
<th>Native Lukabaras form</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>muut</td>
<td>muta</td>
<td>tuya</td>
<td>hit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pir</td>
<td>pira</td>
<td>khupa</td>
<td>beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>keun</td>
<td>kauna</td>
<td>yosia,singa,fua</td>
<td>wash</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rat</td>
<td>rata</td>
<td>naatsa,voya</td>
<td>tie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kwer</td>
<td>kwera</td>
<td>khupa</td>
<td>hit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ker</td>
<td>kera</td>
<td>yikala</td>
<td>close</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Lexical Borrowing in Spoken Lukabarasi in a Multilingual Context

From the table 4.4 above, the study observed that there was borrowing of verbs into spoken Lukabarasi from Nandi language. This was revealed through the discussants as recorded in the foregoing example;

Example 1.

i. Discussant 1: *Kauna* ofundu fulia khowanze okhutekha.

ii. Native Lukabarasi: Yosia ofundu fulia khowanze okhutekha

iii. English gloss: Wash those things before you start cooking

In example 1 above, the discussant used the borrowed verb Nandi word *kauna* (wash) instead of the native Lukabarasi version *yosia* (wash). Similar to the observation was made on the borrowed nouns into Lukabarasi. The borrowed form of the verbs was a modification of the Nandi language as it can be revealed from Table 4.4. The study also observed that the borrowed forms of the verbs did not exist in native Lukabarasi. The study established that due to the mismatch between Lukabarasi borrowed forms and the native Lukabarasi versions, communication between a speaker of Lukabarasi from Chepsaita interacting with other native speakers of Lukabarasi faced intelligibility challenges.

Scales of Lexical Borrowability

According to Arabski (2006), language transfer is not equal in all areas of language contact. It is argued that lexical borrowing is more permeable to transfer than other levels of linguistics (Arabski, 2006). On the strength of this assertion, the current study considered the lexical aspect in spoken Lukabarasi in Chepsaita. As further pointed out by Rendon (2008), the major process involved in the majority of contact situations is borrowing that occurs most extensively on lexical items. Similarly, Muysken (1999) agrees with these views and argues that the lexicon is the most readily borrowable element.

The research concentrated on the noun and verb word categories as the basic units of analysis. According to Rendon (2008), noun borrowing is a universal of language contact and languages can borrow further lexical material only if nouns are borrowed first. It is posited that there is a possibility of a language having a larger number of borrowed nouns than the number of borrowed items in another lexical class within the same language.

However, it is argued that noun borrowing is less frequent in situations involving two culturally similar groups with a long history of contact because there are few objects unknown to either group. For instance, many dialects of the macro language Luhya are mutually intelligible and culturally similar. As such the level of noun borrowing among them is less frequent. Rendon (2008) further argues that for two culturally different groups that scarcely had contact in the past, the need to adopt items referring to new physical objects surpasses other considerations.

According to Thomason and Kaufmann (1991), the position of loan verbs in the scales of borrowability is not fixed. Some scholars such as Field (2002), consider verbs as the second largest lexical class while others put them either after adjectives (Muysken, 1997) or consider both as having the same scope. Rendon (2008), however notes that verbs are not only borrowed in many contact situations, but their number is also relatively high. Nevertheless, Rendon (2008), further observes that while the evidence confirms the borrowing of verbs across typologically different languages, it is still notable that verbs are borrowed with less frequency than nouns.

A case of a Bantu language coming into contact with a Nilotic language would have such a situation where speakers borrow and adopt foreign lexical items from the language of the other. Most indigenous Kenyan languages that come into contact and are members of culturally different orientations, would exhibit this situation.

The present investigation, in this perspective, investigated lexical borrowing in spoken Lukabarasi, a Bantu language in the context of interaction with Nandi, a Nilotic language in Chepsaita Scheme. The two languages being culturally different, this study contended that nouns were among the words that Lukabarasi speakers largely adopted due to the influence of the Nandi. The study relied on the home and business domains of interaction and established that there were more nouns than verbs borrowed into spoken Lukabarasi in Chepsaita.

4. CONCLUSION

The findings of this paper concluded that there was lexical borrowing into the Lukabarasi spoken in Chepsaita Scheme. Accordingly, the noun category was borrowed more than the verb. The investigation further established that Lukabarasi speakers borrowed
these items as a communicative strategy to coexist with the Nandi in the home and business domains of interaction.

However, as observed from the linguistic data showing borrowed nouns and verbs represented in Table 4.1 and Table 4.2, there was a significant variation in the forms of the words borrowed into Lukabaras in Chepsaita with those forms of native Lukabaras in Malava. Some of the borrowed lexical items were either foreign or had different forms in native Lukabaras. For example the words yata, kasa, ruta, muta, kauna, omuchepu, ekoti, olubuchani among others had the following corresponding forms; yikula, ulira, tuya, yosia, omukhana, eyinzu and oluchesi. This paper thus concluded that the variability constrained communication between Lukabaras speakers residing in Chepsaita Scheme and other Lukabaras speakers living outside the Scheme.

REFERENCES


The Effect of Youtube on High School Students’ Second Language Acquisition

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ARTICLE INFO

ABSTRACT

Received: October 01, 2019
Accepted: October 25, 2019
Published: November, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.5

The research investigates the effect of watching Youtube videos on students’ second language acquisition based on Krashen (2002). To achieve this aim, this research employs descriptive qualitative method. The data was taken from Junior High School Students in East Barito regency. In collecting data, the researchers used observational method. Student’s utterances were observed after watching Youtube’s videos. The result of the analysis shows that Youtube’s video blogging has effect upon students in SLA. The students get new English vocabulary from various genres of videos. They also improve their English sentence structure found on the video to sentence structure with other words. Video blogging is part of informal environment English as second language acquisition given the benefit in this research so that the student can learn English from different objects, apart from school.

KEYWORDS

Student, Second language acquisition, Youtube

1. INTRODUCTION

Teenage period, as a student in junior high school, is fully of many assigned by the teacher. The Indonesian student must follow the regulation from school and government. Teacher must prepare the students for their better future. However, school and environment cannot be separated. It means that there is a role of environment in student’s study at school. The Indonesian student in future have to compete with the student from abroad. However, the skill of foreign language now is fundamental of educational background in the future.

In Indonesia, one of the basic foreign languages to study is English language. That is because English language is becoming an international language which is very important to study for Indonesian students so that they can use it to communicate with people from around the world. In order to provide better education to Indonesian students, the government releases the rule about second or foreign language learning for student through regulation about English teaching. Indonesia is one of the countries that makes English as an international language that is included in the school learning curriculum. And this English is categorized as a Foreign language or can even be a second language (L2), if the first language (L1) is mastery of acquisition, L2 or foreign mastery through learning (Chaer, 2009: 167). It means that the students can learn L1 with their family at home, but for learning L2 (English) can mastery it in school.

Therefore, the Indonesian government stipulates legislation No: 20 concerning the National Education system Article 37 Paragraph 1 of 2003 concerning English being the only language that students must learn from the junior high school level until students are in college. But now, there are several languages that are taught in Indonesian schools; such as French, Japanese, Germany and so on. But the focus on this paper is on English as Indonesian students’ second language acquisition.

In the process of learning English as second language acquisition is not easy as what people think. There are many obstacles in the process of learning. Student must understand about the structure of English language. In mastering and learning English, it is not easy for Indonesian students because there are several obstacles faced, including listening and writing as receptive skills and reading and speaking as productive skills. In addition, there are three language elements that support these four skills, namely pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar (language structure). These four skills are obstacles that are very common when students learn English. The most frequently encountered obstacle is that the structure of Indonesian and English is different so learning is needed more specifically for three elements of...
English. Because students rarely use English everyday conversation only when learning English. Practice is needed more often to intensify English language skills.

Nowadays, Indonesian students can learn English language not only in the class and get the material from their teacher. There are many ways to learn English as their second language. It can be from movie, social media, television serial, novel, song, video on Youtube and so on. In the digital era, student can easily find any materials of English language as subject for learning. Second language learning now is should not only be learned with the conventional way, such as learning and waiting for teacher giving the material. Student must be more active himself/herself to find the English material.

The biggest tool of education in the digital era now is Youtube. It has become more popular application of video for learning. There are many things that can be learned from Youtube. There can be negative or positive effects of using Youtube. It depends on how the students use it. Youtube was first launched in 2005 and has now become one of the most visited websites in the history of the internet. The students can access Youtube for study purposes.

As as millennial generation, Indonesian student in junior high school now is mostly accessing Youtube’s video which relates to Youtuber artist. Junior high school students in East Barito regency mostly like to watch Youtube’s vlog (video blogging) based on their favorite vloggers (maker of video blogging). It can be vloggers from Indonesia or international vloggers watched by students. Mostly, the vloggers use English in their videos and this is a reason to encourage the researcher conducting the research. After watching video blogging (vlog) in bilingual or in complete English language, Indonesian students get the benefit from it for their second language learning. This is the modern ways to learning English than conventional ways.

The phenomenon of watching Youtube’s video also happens in East Barito’s junior high school students. The students like watching the video which represents their hobbies or dream in the video. They like to watch video blogging (vlog) in many genres of Vlog in Youtube, such as game, food, lifestyle, fashion, car, motorbike, and so on what they like to see. From watching the video, the students can get effects for their behaviour. It focuses on language term, the student will get new language which relates to good and bad language. At least, they learn about English from Youtube’s video.

This study also aims to answer one research question: What is the effect of watching Youtube’s video blogging (vlog) for Indonesian students in second language learning?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

People speak to other using the structure of language. Also, the language behavior must also be considered when people talk to each other. The study of both aspects is psycholinguistics. Linguistics examines the structure of language, psychology examines language behavior or language processes (Chaer, 2009). These two fields of study research language as its formal object while the procedures and methods are different. Linguistics focuses on the structure of the language, while the psychology focuses how people can produce the language by the language processes in their mind.

In line with that expressed by Chaer (Kridalaksana, 2008) states the definition of psycholinguistics which is the study of the relationship between language and language behavior. Gleason, et all. (Chaer, 2009) stated that psycholinguistics research emphasizes the psychological process in the acquisition and use of human language. There are three core parts of psycholinguistics research, namely, 1. comprehension, namely how people can understand spoken and written language, 2. speech production, how humans produce language, 3. acquisition is how humans learn language. So, in other words, psycholinguistics is related to the nature of the structure of language, the acquisition of the structure of use when speaking and understanding the speech. (Firmansyah, 2018) states that the development of children’s language skills is influenced by the environment.

Meanwhile, there is a difference between second language acquisition and learning for student second language. There are some ways for language acquisition based on scholar’s theory. The best way to get language is by natural. Naturally, second language acquisition is the acquisition of a second / foreign language that occurs in everyday communication, free from teaching or leaders, teachers. There is no uniformity in the way. Each individual acquires a second language in his or her own way. Interaction
requires language communication and encourages language acquisition. Two important features of natural language acquisition or spontaneous interaction are occurring in everyday communication and free from deliberate systematic leadership. This happens with the students in East Barito regency, they learn English as their second language from Youtube’s video. The results can be various based on their comprehension.

Ellis (1986) uses the terms acquisition and learning to distinguish whether a person has language skills through acquisition or learning. Acquisition refers to unconscious acquisition of language, while learning refers to conscious acquisition of language. Krashen (1987) set it as one of the hypotheses / predictors of success in the SLA Theory he proposed. Krashen said that linguistic input factors are the most important factors (input hypothesis), but affective factors are filters (affective filter hypothesis) that allow these inputs to be utilized or not in the learning process. So, affective factors play a role as determinants of input acquisition. Second language acquisition based on natural thing is also appropriate, but there are several ways to learn second language. First is the role of formal environment in second language acquisition. Second is the role of informal environment in second language acquisition.

The role of formal environment in second language acquisition is in mastering a language. It can be through the process of acquisition and learning, the language environment cannot be ignored, the involvement of the language environment is needed. The involvement of the formal language environment in the process of acquiring a second language, according to Ellis (1986), has two aspects. These aspects are (1) the sequence of the acquisition of the second language itself and (2) the success in mastering the second language. Ellis explained that the sequence of development of the second language acquisition in the acquisition of language is an absolute sequence of levels and must be passed by language learners in the framework of mastering the second language.

In the previous discussion, it was explained that the informal environment plays a large role in the acquisition of second languages. The role concerns the problem of the existence of the informal environment as input material and also for monitors. The informal environment is very diverse. The informal environment is related to this which is limited to those who tend to play a more important role in terms of second language acquisition. Some of these environments are (1) foreign speaker language, (2) teacher language, (3) parents and (4) learner peers. The foreign contact environment provides a role in language acquisition. This role can be seen from what was stated by Ellis (1986), that the language of foreign speakers has similarities to the language of the parents of the learners. The similarity lies in the characteristics of simplification and adjustment.

Krashen (2002) states that there is a contribution of formal and informal environments for second language learning. In these studies, two sorts of linguistic environments are contrasted: artificial, or formal environments, found for the most part in the classroom, and natural or informal environments. It is not simply the case that informal environments provide the necessary input for acquisition while the classroom aids in increasing learned competence. Both formal and informal have contribution in second language acquisition and learning by students. In conclusion of the wide area of second language acquisition and learning based on explanation before. It can be noticed that there are three ways of second language acquisition based on scholars; they are natural, formal environment, and informal environment of second language acquisition and learning based on their role. In this research, the researcher used informal environment to analyze the problem. The Indonesian student in East Bari regency learn English language as their second language not only in formal environment (classroom), but also from environment of the Youtube’s video.

According to (Restianti, 2009) the language acquisition activities are characterized by the following:

1. Occurs in informal, no-load, and out-of-school situations;
2. Ownership is obtained not through formal learning in educational institutions, such as schools or courses;
3. Take place spontaneously; and
4. Experienced directly by children produces meaningful language contexts.

In addition, Chaer (2009) studied competency processes and performance processes. These two
processes are two different processes. Competence is the process of mastering grammar spontaneously / unwittingly. The performance process includes the process of understanding and the publishing process. These two types of processes have been controlled by the child will and his linguistic ability. So, linguistic abilities consist of the ability to understand and publish new sentences. Based on the above statement, what is analyze about student second language acquisition and learning after watching Youtube’s video. The possibility is in linguistics abilities.

Since first launched, now Youtube becomes most popular website of sharing videos. Video blogging has big role in Youtube. Vlogs began to appear in 2000, at that time a young man named Adam Kontras borrowed a video of a friend's time and moved to the Los Angeles area to get a Business Show call at the time. This video became the longest video blog in 2000. Then in November, still in 2000 another young man named Adrian Miles joined in making a video but was different from the others. He made a video that only contained words and images and named the video as a Vlog. This is the Vlog that we recognize until now. Although Vlog began to exist in 2000, but in Indonesia it only started viral around 2014.

Vloggers in Indonesia now are very developed in Indonesia. There are many Indonesian vloggers who have millions of subscribers with various genres or kinds of videos uploaded. This makes adolescents in Indonesia really like watching vlog whether it's Indonesian, English or a mixture of both languages. This is why Indonesian student can get second language learning from informal environment.

3. METHODOLOGY
3.1 Population and Sample
This research employs a qualitative method. The researcher uses qualitative method because this research focuses on the text as the primary data. According to Vanderstoep and Johnston (2009: 7), qualitative research produces narrative or textual descriptions of the phenomena under the study. In this research, the researcher will investigate the conversation containing English language of Indonesian students. Method is a process of achieving research objectives, while research itself is a series of scientific activities that include problem search period, problem discovery period, and problem-solving period (Sudaryanto, 2015:1). Problem solving period includes several stages, namely the stages of providing data, the stage of data analysis, and the stage of data analysis presentation. The sample of this research is taken from several junior high school students in East Barito regency of 9th grade. Not all of the student in 9th grade are analyzed, but only six students as representation because they often watch video blogging. The main criterion of correspondent is actively watching video blogging (vlog) on Youtube. The location of correspondent is in Junior high school at Patangkep Tutui district, East Barito regency, Central Borneo province, Indonesia

3.2 Instruments
The data was collected by using recording and note taking techniques. According to Sudaryanto (2015:133), recording technique aims to record the utterances that the informants produce, while note taking technique uses data classification. Also, the researcher used interview test as the instrument.

3.3 Data Analysis Procedures
This research used descriptive-qualitative method. Then, the steps of the data were that firstly the researcher asked permissions to conduct a research in Junior high school at Patangkep Tutui district, East Barito regency, Central Borneo province, then after selecting the samples, the researcher did interview test to the subjects, recorded the conversations, and analyzed it by writing down the pattern of the sentence that were uttered by the students.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
In this part, the results of this research are divided into two sections: Findings and Discussions. In the first section, the result of analysis relates to the problem stated before covering the effects of watching Youtube’s video in student second language acquisition. Further, the second section presents the explanation of each result of analysis.

In this section, the researcher describes the data findings from student’s utterance after watching Youtube’s video blogging. All the data shown in the table shows the frequency of occurrence of uttered by the students.

The aim of this part is to answer the questions in the research problems. The first data finding shows the
relation between the first question in the research problems. The results are various based on the genres of video blogging they watch and they will be displayed in the following table.

Table. The occurrence of English After Watching Youtube’s Video Blogging based on the Students Second Language Acquisition.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>English as SLA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Smart people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Like</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Comment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Share</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Subscribe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Hi Guys or what’s up Guys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Official</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Vlog (video blogging)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Beauty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Don’t forget to like</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Don’t forget to comment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Don’t forget to share</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Review</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Travel / travelling / traveller</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Share story</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>Hey dude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>Bye guys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>Diss rap</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>It’s because of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>Hi guys! Welcome back to my Youtube channel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>Next Episode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>Hits and cool</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>Part</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>Tips and trick</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>Featuring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.</td>
<td>Challenge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.</td>
<td>Official account</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.</td>
<td>Birthday Surprise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.</td>
<td>Trying foreign snack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30.</td>
<td>What’s in my mouth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31.</td>
<td>Daily make up routine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32.</td>
<td>Daily activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33.</td>
<td>Make up beauty vlogger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34.</td>
<td>Horror Game, Chicken Dinner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35.</td>
<td>Okay, what is this?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36.</td>
<td>Let’s see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37.</td>
<td>Support channel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38.</td>
<td>Enjoy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39.</td>
<td>Outfit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40.</td>
<td>Minimalist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41.</td>
<td>One brand make up tutorial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42.</td>
<td>What’s in my bag</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43.</td>
<td>Get ready with me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44.</td>
<td>Japan, Europe, USA, Korean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45.</td>
<td>King of Youtube, Queen of Youtube, Father of Youtube</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All the data above are gotten from the interview with the students who actively watch Youtube’s video blogging. The students get many English words from watching Youtube’s video blogging. They watch the video blogging from Indonesian vlogger every day and indirectly they get used to the English words they hear from the video. The habit of watching Youtube’s video blogging brings big effect for student’s second language acquisition and learning.

The students get new vocabulary in English language and the way how to express it in real life. That is what they do not get from school. The kind of English learning based on the video blogging has various results. It depends on what kind of genre video they watch for. Some students who watch beauty video blogging (video) will get English vocabulary in the term of beauty, such as make up, tutorial, my bag, brand, and so on. Student who likes to watch game vlog will find the words, such as horror, fuck, damn, review new video game and so on. Those who like about common vlogger will find the words, such as don’t forget to subscribe, share, like, comment, review, unboxing, and so on based on data in the table. The kinds of English language vocabulary and others are various based on the video genre. But it helps them to improve their English skill and knowledge in second language learning.

In this section, the researcher will discuss the discussion of data from the results of the analysis that has been submitted in the previous results section. The section will discuss the effect of watching Youtube’s video blogging (vlog) in student second language acquisition and learning.

The language acquisition based on Youtube’s video blogging is different for each genre. Some data is presented in the following sentence about common English words in video blogging (vlog). The example of common thing in vlog shows as follow.

Hi guys! Welcome back to my Youtube channel
Hi Guys or what’s up Guys
Don’t forget to like
Don’t forget to comment
Don’t forget to share
Don’t forget to subscribe
The data above happens when a vlogger starts his/her own video on Youtube. These common words are always appeared in video blogging in beginning of video. All genres of video blogging contain that words or clause or sentence. It becomes as icon of words in Youtube’s video blogging. The vlogger is use to say those words to say “Hi” or greeting to his/her followers.

Seeing and hearing those words or sentences everyday make student familiar with these words. Sometimes the students in junior high school at East Barito regency use that term of words or sentences to communicate with others. In classroom learning, the student will not get that term of English. They improve their English language skill and knowledge after watching the video blogging every day. Based on the researcher’s interviews from the students, from the sentence “don’t forget to like or share” it is analyzed that the students can use that term by associating different words; such as “don’t forget to eat or study”. The root of sentence is “don’t forget to..” then they improve it by themselves. So, what is the relation of second language acquisition and learning. The relation is in the positive effect given by watching video blogging in order to improve student’s English skill as their second language acquisition and learning.

The next example is in beauty video blogging (vlog) which improve student’s language acquisition in beauty words.

One brand make up tutorial
Daily make up routine
Make up beauty vlogger

The data above show that students can get new English language vocabulary in beauty terms. Female students like to watch beauty vlogger in order to improve their skill in make up and the way to look beautiful or interesting. It is not only about getting knowledge about beauty things; female students also get words or sentences of English language in beauty terms. Female students know some terms of English language which relates to beauty words or sentences. These can be used in their daily communication with other people. They can find out that Youtube’s video blogging is the best way for second language acquisition and learning in beauty terms of English language more effective than books in school.

The next example of game video blogging (vlog) is based on the data findings.

Horror Game
Fuck
Damn
Chicken Dinner

Based on the data above, male students know well about the game video blogging (vlog). Mostly male students play the game and they watch the video about the game. As the case with the female students, male students will get the new English language basically of English language on game terms. But, sometimes the game vloggers say bad language or swear words. These need attention from student to be more aware in selecting the words both good language or not. In school, the game terms are seldom appeared in English material. Another reason improving students’ English language from game video blogging is the language use in game. Most of the games are from abroad not from Indonesia. That is why language in game is mostly English language. It matches with English language for learning based on game. From watching game video blogging the student can improve their English language.

Based on the explanations and examples, the researcher puts several genres of video blogging (vlog) in this discussion as representation of the data findings. The main point present in this part is that Youtube’s video blogging (vlog) has big effect upon junior high school student in East Barito for second language acquisition and learning. From watching the video blogging in various genres, students get new words, phrases or sentences in English language and they improve sentences structure with other words. They totally learn English language as second language acquisition and learning from every video watched every day. Youtube’s video blogging (vlog) is a part of informal environment in second language acquisition and language. It has success upon students in East Barito improving their English language as second language acquisition and learning.

5. CONCLUSION

Based on the findings and discussions, the researcher has made a final conclusion dealing with the effects of Youtube’s video blogging (vlog) in junior high school student’s second language acquisition and learning. The conclusions can be explained as follows.
Youtube’s video blogging (vlog) can influence the student’s second language acquisition and learning. The effect of vlog is in student’s improvement with the structure of English language words, phrases and sentences found in different videos and reconstructing it with new words in same structure found in other videos or different parts of the video. It can be seen from the observation of the students that they can do it well. Students’ English language vocabulary technique are also developed based on various genres of video they watch before. Youtube’s video blogging (vlog) has big role in informal environment second language acquisition and learning in English language.

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REFERENCES


The Role of Dubbed Cartoons in Supporting Third Culture Kids: A Case Study of the Toy Story Trilogy
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ARTICLE INFO

ABSTRACT

Received: October 01, 2019
Accepted: October 25, 2019
Published: November, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI:10.32996/ijllt. 2019.2.6.6

Although the act of dubbing per se asserts the nationalistic identity of a given language and its traditions, it has the potential to make viewers forget the foreignness of the movie presented. Dubbing foreign material, mostly presenting the Western or American culture, can be an effective medium to crisscross the cultural barriers between what is "us" and what constitutes "them." Therefore, it is a powerful cross-cultural venue for not only observing a great variety of cultural practices but also for developing strong cross-cultural skills. Moreover, the variety of topics presented in these dubbed movies represent an epitome of the hybrid culture or "third culture." In this sense, dubbing provides a multi-dimensional form of support to Cross-Cultural Kids (CCKs). This paper questions the ways through which dubbed cartoons assist Cross-Cultural Kids (CCKs) in general, and Third Culture Kids (TCKs) in particular, through hypothesizing the existence of a mid-way form of global interaction and third culture reproduction. It also examines the effects these dubbed movies impart on TCKs insofar as they grant them the chance to look to the world anew through three basic approaches: liminality, liquidity and mediation. This resonates with a new form of globalization: globalization-from-within that may usher in a new phase of global interaction. Dubbed in Egyptian Arabic, Disney's Toy Story Trilogy is a quintessential example of this approach, since it provides TCKs with two cultures: one heard and the other watched. The product is pregnant with ideas and supportive techniques which sustain TCKs through their journey to cross-cultural assimilation.

KEYWORDS

Dubbed cartoons, cross-culture skills, Cross-Culture Kids, Third Culture Kids, Toy Story Trilogy, globalization, Egyptian Arabic

1. INTRODUCTION

Is it possible to draw upon the collective wisdom of different civilizations and construct a new synthesis of views that ensures human survival and prosperity without sacrificing the richness of diversity that characterizes the human family? (Reed 1999, 24)

This paper takes as its point of departure the new forms through which children’s awareness of the "Other" increases through exposure to dubbed cartoons reflecting the culture(s) of "the Other" presented in the viewers' native language. This process, it is argued here, adds to the growing sense of harmonious integration among different cultures in the process of cosmopolitanism and globalization.

Dubbing, the process of lip-synchronization of movies and other film productions, has gained widespread popularity since the 1930s. Recently, the number of dubbing projects have increased to a remarkable extent in all Arab countries in general, and in Egypt in particular. Dubbed cartoons are prominent; they have received a great deal of attention for the sheer benefits—culturally and economically— the film industry gains. From the cultural perspective, dubbed cartoons can be seen as a milieu for crisscrossing barriers among world cultures. They present to their viewers the "foreign culture" in a "local" attire. It is argued here that this process assists the generation of "third culture" where the native local culture presents itself powerfully in the voice of native artists, while the events take place in foreign countries, forming a synthesis of the "we" and the "Other." The interaction
The Role of Dubbed Cartoons in Supporting Third Culture Kids: A case study of the Toy Story Trilogy

The paper is also an examination of the approaches of support dubbed cartoons can provide TCKs: liminality, liquidity and mediation. CCKs include some basic forms: traditional Third Culture Kids (TCKs), immigrant children, or refugees, or those who are exposed to "different cultural worlds in one country," and international adoptees or children of minorities. (Pollock & Van Reken 2009, 13) For the purpose of this paper, the focus will be directed to TCKs since they are the targeted audience for dubbed cartoons. It is suggested that the boom in the dubbed cartoons market can sustain TCKs in overcoming the challenges of identity formation, among other things, through highlighting the commonalities that tie all such types.

Prominent among these dubbing projects are Walt Disney's animated cartoons whose themes, in most cases, can be described as cross-cultural. This can be clearly seen in the Toy Story trilogy whose characters, locations and, on top of that, themes are likely to be found almost everywhere in most countries. They, one can argue, tackle universal issues that can positively contribute to the educational, emotional and intellectual development and integration of younger children from different cultural backgrounds.

To dub these cartoons into Egyptian Arabic means to present such issues to the respective children - as well as their concerned parents - from a universal perspective. This, in turn, nurtures a tolerant flexible reception of the "Other" which - if wrought and produced with a cosmopolitan heart and mind - will ultimately yield fruitful results in the years to come. Vanessa Leonardi (2008) stresses the role played by the media in audiovisual translation (AVT) in the process of globalizing world cultures. She observes that "in an increasingly globalized world, there is a need to unite people and eliminate all forms of discrimination, and AVT can certainly help in this respect." (169) This target can be achieved when considering the notion that AVT provide venues which encompass intra-lingual (or monolingual) and inter-lingual (or bilingual) forms of translation – namely subtitling and dubbing. They, Leonardi asserts, have the virtue of maintaining one's identity while promoting cultural pluralism at the same time. (169)

2. THIRD CULUTRE KIDS (TCKs): CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES
Being a TCK means in the basic sense to be exposed to at least one foreign culture which might be mostly different from the local one. The term CCK is a modification of the original traditional concept of Third Culture Kids (TCKs) which entails the mobilization of the child to other countries. David C. Pollock and Ruth E. van Reken (2009) define a TCK as one who "has spent a significant part of his or her developmental years outside the parents' culture. The TCK frequently builds relationships to all of the cultures, while not having full ownership in any. Although elements from each culture may be assimilated into the TCK's life experience, the sense of belonging is in relationship to others of similar background." (13). TCKs are heralding an era in which cultural identification is niche, personal, and fluid, and multiculturalism is an advantage. In his 1984 talk at the International Conference of Missionary Kids (ICMK), Ted Ward predicted that TCKs would be the prototype citizens of the future. Now, after more than two decades of Ward's prophecy, the significant increase in global mobility has made it come true. TCKs have become a usual case throughout the world, whatever the reason for their mobilization is. As of 1999, the number of TCKs worldwide was estimated at four million. Additionally, TCKs report lower self-esteem as compared to non-TCKs.

The most prominent challenges TCKs face are those related to identity formation and culture shock. With the high rate of mobility for reasons related to their parents' jobs or other formal commitments, TCKs find themselves with a growing sense of no-place and rootlessness. Most of them may suffer from being alienated from their peers or "foreign friends." The result is a form of fragmented identity that synthesizes a number of cultural backgrounds. Yet, the agony escalates when one bears in mind that

(TCKs) have to trade in their social network of relationships, crucial to adolescent development, for new ones each time they move. Others may only sojourn to one country before repatriating, but they experience mobility indirectly if, for example, they attend an international school that caters for expatriate families and therefore has a high student turnover rate. Even though they stay in one place, those who know them change with each
new academic year as their old friends move away and new ones come. Thus, the people who mean the most to them are geographically scattered.

(Danau Tanu 2015, 20)

Both psychologically and socially, these TCKs find it difficult to cope with the culture shock they undergo, witnessing a rupture in cultural continuity.

However, in light of the globalization process that has normalized mobility and relocation, these challenges bear the fruits of a number of positive sides of being a TCK. Mobility issues can provide chances for flexibility, while culture shocks generate a resolve will to cope with and even assimilate the new culture. With the accumulation of experience, TCKs become more capable of redefining their identities and re-modulating their interpersonal relationships. They are given various life choices and chances which abound to form an asset rarely found if they were to be fixed in their passport country. Taking life decisions and the flexibility to interact with the "Other" are among these merits.

3. SUPPORTIVE APPROACHES AND DUBBED CARTOONS

With their ever-changing lifestyles in mind, TCKs tend to find in dubbed cartoons three major supportive approaches: liminality, liquidity and mediation. Liminal situations describe those in which TCKs find themselves between two-states, resulting in the need to face the new culture challenge. Dubbed cartoons play a vital role in supporting TCKs become more apt to harmonize themselves with the two situations. The heard dialect, with voices of native popular actors, reinforces their "home" culture, whereas the watched scenes link them to their new milieu. TCKs' parents, in most cases, resort to their native dialect in their everyday interaction with their TCKs, and this increases the possibility of normalizing themselves with this liminality. In this case, liminality becomes a blessing. Youngsters are more likely to get the utmost benefits of both while watching the dubbed versions of their favourite cartoons.

The second approach to TCKs' capability of benefitting from this liminality is their high-level liquidity in identity construction. They gain open-mindedness and reach an equilibrium out of their fragmented identities, since, in the words of E. S. Fanøe and G. Marsico (2018), "cultural identity has been conceptualized as a never finished result of an interactional context-dependent process where individual and collective levels are in a mutual shaping relations." (89) Dubbed cartoons provide these kids with examples of such blending of identities which help them overcome any negative experiences due to this fragmentation. Presenting everyday life situations in their native dialect will give them the chance to emulate the behaviors they watch, and in so doing, overcome their challenges.

Thirdly, mediation is a constructive way to live the "in-betweness" of the globalized community. It leaves room for intolerance to whatever TCKs find in their "foreign" country. One of the supportive mediation instruments is dubbed cartoons. TCKs find in them a resource to learn and socialize with their peers at schools, clubs and other institutions. Norma McCaig (1996) maintains that

in an era when global vision is an imperative, when skills in intercultural communication, linguistic ability, mediation, diplomacy, and the management of diversity are critical, global nomads are better equipped in these areas by the age of eighteen than are many adults. Why? Because they have spent years developing these skills as strategies for social survival in times of transition. (100)

Mediation becomes a strategy for acquiring, as well as, practicing the social skills TCKs gain in the new society. They nurture a sense of tolerance with the passage of time and, entering into adolescence, they become more aware the cultural differences around them. Dubbed cartoons in general, and The Toy Story Trilogy in particular, are prized over other types of dubbed movies with the sheer universal themes they present, which form a strong basis for TCKs' mediation.

4. GLOBALIZATION-FROM-WITHIN

Globalization – if it adopts and applies the universal principles of cosmopolitanism that calls for equality among all individuals and nations - can provide promising solutions to the issues faced by TCKs. The cosmopolitan version of globalization can provide new vistas of thought through which TCKs can view the whole planet as having many versions of cultural aspects that also reflect respect and concern for everyone’s serious problems of life. In this case, they
shift in perspective from marginalized "Global Nomads" to normalized "Global Citizens."

The two basic models of globalization are globalization-from-above and globalization-from-below. While the former is dictated by the powerful and the rich nations, negating the rights of the deprived, the latter attempts to grant the marginalized and poor a safe place under the sun. Both models work according to pre-set agendas, and this may account for their unsuitability to the high rate mobility TCKs undergo. A third model is suggested: "globalization-from-within." It denotes the natural processes of cosmopolitanism that TCKs normally go through while growing up in their third culture global community. They familiarize themselves with this mid-way situation and achieve a kind of equilibrium between whatever cultures they come to know.

Being in line with the principles of cosmopolitanism that calls for spreading justice and equality among all individuals and nations, globalization-from-within can substantially contribute to the process of doing away with such terms as "the upper class, the dominant nations or powers, and the elite classes. Such terms as "the under-developed nations" and "the uncivilized communities" can one day disappear from common usage or, at least, marginalized if "globalization-from-within" is given a chance to apply its cosmopolitan principles of justice and equality among all individuals and all nations. Thus, Reed's call for "a global civilization based on the principles of equality, justice, and life enchantment" (1999, 31) can be realized.

The media in general, and movies in particular, can substantially contribute to realizing that ideal of globalization-from-within model. J. Champoux (1999) highlights the importance of creatively using film scenes in classroom situations; they can provoke good and positive discussions. This necessarily calls for reassessing one’s values and self if marred with narrow provincialism that deny others the milieu necessary to be equal with the powerful ones even though they were unfairly categorized as belonging to "the lower classes or backward nations" and many other pejorative or degrading terms. As such, movies – dubbed cartoons included - have the potential to build bridges among different cultures, and facilitate cross-cultural dialogues. Hence, "films are entertaining, engaging and in many cases stimulate curiosity towards other cultures. Films can be very valuable intellectual exercise in deciphering other cultures" (Pandey 2012, 331) because they can creatively promote – often in subtly molded interactions among the characters of the movie – the values of interpersonal understanding and cross-cultural tolerance.

5. THE TOY STORY TRILOGY

Toy Story is an animated media franchise created by Pixar and distributed by Walt Disney Pictures, beginning with the original 1995 film, Toy Story. The franchise focuses on a group of toys that secretly come to life and end up unexpectedly embarking on life-changing adventures.

All three sequels were highly acclaimed, with the first and second films getting a perfect 100% rating. The third film in the series became the highest-grossing animated film and the 9th highest-grossing film of all time. It also became the third animated film in history to be nominated for the Academy Award for Best Picture, following Beauty and the Beast and Up.

Toy Story 1 (1995)

The plot involves Andy getting a new Buzz Lightyear toy, and Woody thinking that he has been replaced as Andy's favorite toy. As a result of Woody's jealousy, he tries to knock Buzz behind a table, but accidentally knocks him out of the window. Realizing that he did something awful, Woody determined to set things right, so he attempted to save Buzz, and both try to escape from the house of the next-door neighbor Sid Phillips who likes to torture and destroy toys.

Toy Story 2 (1999)

The plot involves Woody getting stolen by a greedy toy collector named Al. Buzz and several of Andy's toys go around the Tri-County Area to save him. Again the group of toys get into a series of breath-taking adventures to save Woody who insists on returning to his owner, Andy. In this part, the events cast plenty of shadows on Woody's glorious past, reminding the audience once more of the value of the Old.

Toy Story 3 (2010)

Set ten years after the events of the second film, the plot focuses on the toys accidentally being dropped off at a daycare center while their owner, Andy, is getting ready to go to college. The film contains over 150 new characters, according to Pixar. It is currently Pixar's highest-grossing film of all-time worldwide,
surpassing *Finding Nemo*. Themes of separation and the possibility of continuity hover over the events with Andy getting older and refusing to get rid of his dearest toys to the daycare centre, gifting the cute girl Bonnie with them only when he becomes certain she can take care of them as much as he used to.

6. BENEFITS OF THE DUBBED VERSION

With this in mind, the *Toy Story* Trilogy provides a rich environment for positive cultural transmission of values that can contribute to the process of global homogeneity. Set in a US cultural milieu, the events can seem foreign to Arab children. Yet this sense of alienation vanishes once two facts are stressed in this regard. First, most of the targeted audience are accustomed to the main issues discussed in the story. Second, dubbing the three movies into Egyptian Arabic redresses any unfamiliar incidents, scenes and even characters in a way largely familiar to the audience.

Undoubtedly, dubbing, with its role in blurring the lines among the seemingly different cultures, has played a crucial role in presenting and casting the trilogy in an Egyptian mold and fashion that most viewers hardly feel vexed by the idea of watching “a foreign movie.” One merit of such a strategy is that the movies could overcome any chance of a cultural shock and the language limitation; TCKs find it very difficult to understand and appreciate humor, satire and verbal expression of feelings in a language they do not know well. The dubbed versions in colloquial Egyptian Arabic simultaneously guarantee both identity preservation and awareness of the Other.

As Satish Pandey (2012) has pointed out, using movies in a classroom situation or context has aided a lot in the cross-cultural management course for these movies could enlighten students with many culturally related issues and alert them to the various strategies that could assist in the process of global unity. While Champoux (1999) finds in the cinema, not only a potential but also the ability to “create unique experience [giving] it unbeatable power as a teaching tool” (207), one can adopt and apply the same trajectory of thought to dubbed movies. The linguistic, social and even moral experiences the trilogy presents are more likely to affect children’s acceptance of the Other – here the Western culture - as well as open up the gates to self-awareness through indulging in the process of reevaluating the extent of similarity – and also differences - between what is presented and what is there in the children’s own societies. Speaking the same tongue and uttering the same colloquial, slang and idiomatic expressions can affect a shift in the TCKs point of view about the “foreign culture,” rendering it no foreign at all. This result can be due to practices of creative dubbing that depend upon local dialects to avoid alienating listeners from the cultural content that can be useful to many, if not all, cultures.

The dubbed version of such cartoons has also several other technical merits. It largely lacks the problem of lip-synchronicity which many opponents of dubbing claim as the main point of its imperfection. Since the characters’ lip-movements do not give precise articulation of words and sentences, this removes any chance of illusionary discrepancy between what is said and what is heard on the screen. What is more, children at their early stage are not geared towards this very technical side of the production. They, however, focus mainly on the events that seem to arrest their attention, and are attracted by the interesting characters and the speed of actions.

This argument gives dubbing priority over subtitling that often causes a kind of perplexity to children who are unable to read fast the captions, or are unable to read altogether. With subtitling, the typical gap - often associated with the slow reading process or the "noise" caused by some alienating versions of the Standard Version of Arabic - between “us” and “them” is still there. This dichotomy vanishes in the case of dubbing. Pandey (2012) recalls when one of the students in his research about using films in teaching cross-cultural management admits: “I learnt that nothing is impossible, though cultural differences are there but attitude to mix and adapt with other cultures, and respect to other cultures helps in cultural adaptation. The movie also depicted how people get culture shock and learn to overcome it” (330).

Concerning information processing, the dubbed version provides the targeted audience with content that can be easily processed and comprehended. Moreover, creative dubbed versions can affect their conduct in day-to-day life situations pursuant to what they “learn” from those movies that often show how "good" characters ultimately win against the "evil" ones. The localization process that often carries cosmopolitan principles simply makes such movies more understandable and likeable for the new audiences without sacrificing the cultural specificity of the origin. Dubbers, in addition, have the freedom to clarify matters that the original text may pose as challenging. For instance, in the case of the *Toy Story*...
Trilogy, they could successfully integrate a full load of culturally-rooted content in the dialogues to the extent that most of the issues discussed are clearly understood by the average viewer, whether a child or a parent.

7. NATIONAL, INTERNATIONAL OR TRANSNATIONAL
At this historical juncture of globalization and cosmopolitanism, dubbed cartoons mark a shift from the nationalistic preference for subtitling over dubbing. Akin to the remarkable acceptance of transnational companies in the world marketplace of the twenty first century, societies have witnessed a comparable shift in their acceptance of dubbed productions of all types: TV programs, series, movies and cartoons.

Traditionally, dubbing has been associated with the preservation of the nationalistic feeling of the target communities. Prior to the information technology influx at the outset of the third millennium, Martine Danan (1991) insisted that dubbing and nationalism are identical, albeit the economic burden. This is understandable since dubbing provides at a large scale the opportunity to preserve, and even boast of, one’s nationalistic feelings. Communicating in the same language used by the targeted audience’s, dubbing becomes “an assertion of the supremacy of the national language and its unchallenged political, economic and cultural power within the nation’s boundaries” (Danan 1991: 612). Bearing in mind the various nationalistic characteristics that Fasold (1983) endows upon language, taking advantage of the natural flavor of the native language or vernacular seems to allow for a mass acceptance of the dubbed movies; this is so since it is the symbol of national identity, used for everyday purposes and accepted as a symbol of authenticity (77).

Yet to confine the use of dubbing to just fulfilling nationalistic purposes cannot be accepted at its face value. In line with the principles of cosmopolitanism that assert the equality of all individuals and all nations, one can contend that dubbed cartoons help as transnational tools for universal issues that assert the values of securing justice and equality for all. This cosmopolitan approach can be easily observed in the Toy Story Trilogy. The first part, for instance, discusses the tension arising between the old and new generations particularly in their relative modes of thinking and the lure of modern technologies. This is shown in the character of Andy who receives Buzz Lightyear, a space fighter fully equipped with the state-of-the-art-technologies, as the best birthday party. Woody, the traditional cowboy Sheriff, gets heated and feels envious of this intruder. Worthy of note is that the other toys confirm this “human” attitude which takes the story further to cover a series of events projecting more tension till Woody, unintentionally, throws Buzz into the garden of Sid, the sadistic child. Now, Woody’s valour and nobleness direct him to take the course of action of saving Buzz. This part ends up with the lesson that both the past and the present are no enemies any more. They, on the contrary, can cooperate to assure human homogeneity as well as the universality of the human cause.

In the second part, TCKs encounter another set of universal themes, prominent among which is the issue of the humanistic bond in the face of greed in a deadly competitive economic world. Al, the greedy shop owner, steals Woody and decides to make a “good” deal by selling it to a Japanese museum along with the rest of the complete set of toys (the evil inspector, Jessie and his horse. In this case, Woody refuses to stay there, insisting to return to his real owner – Andy. On their part, other toys take all the risk to get Woody back. The real meaning of belongingness and fellowship is exposed in this part, which adds up to the new global dimensions which add more assets to the dubbed version.

The third part tackles a very critical humanistic issue: growing up and doing without the toys. The whole part revolves around the best environment one must choose as one’s home. Suffering in the daycare centre, the toys were fumed at Andy’s decision. Yet, to know at the end that their transference to the daycare centre has been done by mistake, the toys’ deep conviction in their comfort and ease at Andy’s house got consolidated. The distinction between the vain and pompous characters in the daycare centre and the cute and careful Bonnie opens the viewers’ eyes to the need for a fruitful discussion about where one should live with younger children.

As such, dubbing the trilogy gives homage to reaching a kind of equilibrium between what is “domestic and nationalistic,” on the one hand, and what is “foreign and international.” It is neither national nor international; it is “transnational.” One feature of today’s globalization status quo is the spread of
transnational companies that could be part of any society, despite the voices reminding people of their foreignness. Similarly, TCKs are more likely to accept the content of dubbed movies as transnational. They find nothing counter-intuitive there to deserve going against them.

Dubbing has also left room for the realization that the dubbed cartoon is not totally a domesticated local version. Through keeping some alien signifiers other than the dialogues, the movie still retains its “foreign” nature. Children can still grasp that the dubbed version they have been watching is a translated version. Some elements are to be mentioned in this respect. The names of main characters are kept, largely, in their original: Woody, Bonnie, Sid, Ken, Barbie and Lotso, to name just a few. The use of “identical sets, identical image composition and the rest of the sound track (every sound that is not the spoken word)” (Ascheid 1997, 32) hammers the idea that this is a foreign movie produced originally in a different language. This has to do with the tolerance the children are surely to have towards “the Other” insofar as it has a humanistic message and bears amble grounds of similarity to their milieu through using their native language in addressing or tackling issues relevant to them. In the words of Antje Ascheid (1997), dubbing cartoons relieves those belonging to different cultures from the burden of exerting an effort to assimilate behavior, values, and language alien to them in ways that help viewers from other cultures to assimilate and pass much easier through “cinematic identification, the suspension of disbelief and a continuous experience of unruptured pleasure.” (33)

8. TWO DIFFERENT MOVIES
Hermeneutically speaking, the dubbed cartoon can be seen as a completely new production. Ascheid (1997) insists that the dubbed version has much more to say about the issue of equivalence in cross-cultural translation than just the transference of all what is there in the original version:

(T)hese new characters are uttering a translated, which always means interpreted, appropriated, and recreated new text, thus undergoing fundamental shifts in the construction of their national and cultural identity and context….the dubbed motion picture becomes a new and fundamentally re-contextualized product (33).

In light of this observation, the values that can be assimilated from the movie, resign its cultural specificity to a more globalized and universal one. If this is so, then dubbed movies are largely analogous to those produced in the multiple language era when directors used to produce the same movie in different languages.

Dubbing, as translation practice, has also to do with the fact that translation per se is a form of rewriting the original text. It is largely affected by, as Jeremy Munday (2001) contends, the ideology of the translator as well as the poetics they heed to throughout the translation process (130). In today's globalization approach to language and culture, the need to find a unified version of accepting other cultures has become persistent.

Dubbing, with its keen relationship with the notion of "doubling" (Delia Chiara 2009, 147) the production and hence reaching larger audiences, could do a great deal of benefit rather than harm to both the original product and the targeted audience. TCKs find in the dubbed cartoons a safe harbor in which they learn and practice the possible ways of overcoming the challenges of identity fragmentation and psychological alienation, for they have already experienced this liminality.

9. CONCLUSION
The need to unite people through adopting the fair values of justice and equality can be creatively presented through dubbed cartoons. They may substantially contribute to TCKs' attempts at mastering cross-cultural skills that are of paramount importance to their feelings of such values. The paper has attempted to prove that dubbing can form bridges across different cultures, thereby increase the sense of homogeneity. Thanks to the creative productions in Walt Disney’s Toy Story Trilogy, which often project cosmopolitan principles that harmonize domestic as well as universal issues, dubbing cartoons proves the prospected fruitfulness of the suggested globalization-from-within model. With the widespread concerns about TCKs' problems and challenges, this paper has presented a view of the ways dubbed cartoons can provide support to those youngsters, focusing more on their chances of benefits rather than loss. Depending on the examination of liminality, liquidity and mediation in terms of dubbing, it is more likely that these benefits can be achieved in real life, even if on the long run.
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Saeed Ahmed Gazar is a lecturer of English Literature, Department of Foreign Languages, Faculty of Education, Tanta University, Egypt. He got his MA in 2006 from the Faculty of Arts, Menufya University, Egypt for a thematic study of the concept of incarnation in the poetry of Dylan Thomas. In 2012, he got his PhD from the Faculty of Arts, Tanta University for a comparative study between the poetic visions of Percy Bysshe Shelley and Amal Donkol. His major academic interests are ecocriticism, feminism, eco-feminism, cultural studies and global studies. He has presented papers in international conferences at Helwan University, Egypt (2016); Centre for Developing English Language Teaching (CDELT), Ain Shams University, Egypt (2018); and Cairo University, Egypt (2018).

REFERENCES


Attitude Conception: The Role of Blended Learning in Environmental Education

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ARTICLE INFO

ABSTRACT

Received: September 21, 2019
Accepted: October 27, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.7

Technology transition stage in 21st century try to reach the goal of elaborate the educational quality for knowledge transfer in learning process. Blended learning is interest variety of technologies utilization that combined from face-to-face learning and E-learning process. This study intends to convey the role of blended learning based on teacher’s perception with respect to attitude conception. The student attitude is the major affective factor to language instruction and become a predictor of successful language learners. Therefore, the presence of blended learning was providing opportunities for students to independently hold control of achieving the learning goals. Data was gained from 68 students and teachers as the fundamental facilitators or as the main controlled of attitude process in students by applying blended learning and students as a subject of instructional process. The data gained was analyzed qualitatively that create from observation and interview. The results of study were [1] blended learning is more appropriate than traditional learning, [2] percentages of blended learning for environmental education is frequently occurring on Self-Paced Learning which obtained 41% , and [3] the role of blended learning seen from attitude conception that found on the students integrative motivation, instrument motivation, and attitude toward the environmental education. Thus, this study suggested controlled teacher’s perception for teaching that might help students for instructional technology skill by attitude from role of blended learning on preparing suitable digital literacy.

KEYWORD

Blended Learning, Traditional Learning, Attitude, Environmental Education

1. INTRODUCTION

Teaching in this period of encourage intake has become a significant challenge for educators to incorporate technology in language learning. Chronicle Research Service (2009) and U.S Department of Commerce (2010) report that due to their prosperity, students continue to demand increased access to the benefits of technology and to apply flexible asynchronous learning experience. In the 21st century, rapid technological developments make students think the learning experience process is not necessarily in the classroom. They think by utilizing existing technology, the learning process can also take place and be made more delightful. Some students feel that using a face-to-face learning model is too old-fashioned or traditional while implementing E-learning in the learning process is not out-of-date and provides results that are in line with expectations and is more effective. But a learning process that only uses technology or that only applies E-learning cannot be fully successful. This is because the learning styles of students are different and teacher

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role in fluency the learning process for basically students SLA. Furthermore, the teachers do not have primary guidance to identify the students ‘conceptual attitudes.

The learning process can be balanced by combining electrical learning (E-Learning) and traditional learning (face-to-face) instructional models. Teachers should play their roles to adjust a continuum from an informal to a traditional learning process as a guide, and facilitator to integrate the educational process (Brown, 2000; Ibrahim, et.al., 2013; Kelly, 2015; Rido, et.al., 2016; Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Sari, et.al., 2019). The teacher’s role has developed to provide appropriate guidance and feedback to students and ensure the successful use of E-learning and face-to-face learning model, namely Blended Learning. Meanwhile, the active participants in blended learning will gain success based on the role of students’ behavior (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Students’ attitudes are investigated as indicators of students’ experience of blended learning. These will help develop students’ interest and allow them to be more interactive and active in their learning (McBride, 2009). Basically, applying the blended learning model has a significantly positive impact on students’ attitudes to this modern system of learning.

Based on the previous research, blended learning achievements can exert the greatest impact on enhancing environmental education for students’ learning goals (Kaur, 2013; Mazloumiyan et.al, 2012; and Okaz, 2015). Subsequently, Wildavsky (in Wena, 2014; 2014) revealed the main weakness of E-learning, namely the lack of face-to-face interaction between teachers and students. Another research conducted by Menon (2019) set up the online platform for the supplementary role of blended learning. Potential online learning merely focuses on classroom management such as materials design, curriculum and teacher development. Thus, the central interest developed in the students’ attitudes is affected by the applied blended learning. Krashen (2002: 22) states that motivation is the attitudinal factor which attempts to relate posited predictors of students’ second language proficiency. Moreover, teachers have difficulties to analyze and identify the students’ attitudes level based on the information assessment focused on integrative motivation and instrumental motivation for L2 learning process.

For this reason, the researcher studied whether attitudinal factors in blended learning increases or decreases EFL students’ motivations. However, applying face-to-face or traditional learning is also very important. The advances in technology are so extensive that teachers must learn to use them in order to maintain students’ attention. Thus, the research aims to [1] compare blended learning and traditional learning, [2] the quantity of blended learning for environmental education, and [3] recognize the role of blended learning seen from the attitude conception that is constructed by the teacher’s perception.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Blended Learning

Blended learning is a learning system that combines face-to-face learning and E-learning.

Blended learning is a worthwhile concept in learning where the transferring of knowledge is done in class and online (Bielawski & Metcalf in Husamah, 2014). The merger is when meetings are organised directly through online media that can be accessed anytime. Face-to-face learning is combined with E-learning in order to make the best use of the limited time available, while avoiding boredom by using technology.

Furthermore, Merrow (2012) interpreted blended learning as a traditionally designed class instruction (which itself varies greatly) and technology-mediated instructions. In other words, Blended learning is a blend of traditional-based learning combined with the technology-based learning. A similar opinion was also announced by Annisa (2014: 108) who stated that blended learning is a learning system that face-to-face learning (classical) helped online learning (through the use of E-learning facilities or internet media access). Based on the discussion of experts, a collection of ideas in blended learning can define it as a learning strategy that is intended to achieve learning objectives by integrating classroom or face-to-face learning with technology-based learning and information conducted online. Carman, (2005) identifies five terms as important elements of blended learning:
1.1.1 Live Event.
Direct or face-to-face learning (instructor led instruction) is synchronously in the same time and place (classroom) or the same time but different places (virtual classroom). For certain people, this direct learning pattern is still the main pattern.

However, even this direct learning pattern needs to be designed in such a way as to achieve the goals as needed. This pattern can also combine the theories of behaviorism, cognition and constructivism so that meaningful learning takes place.

2.1.2 Self-Paced Learning.
That is to combine with self-learning (self-learning) which allows participants to study anytime, anywhere using a variety of learning materials specifically designed for independent learning both text-based (textbook, worksheet, paper, etc.) and multimedia-based (video, animation, simulation, images, audio, or a combination of all of them).

Learning materials, in the current context can be delivered online (via the web or through mobile devices in the form of: streaming audio, streaming video, and e-books) or offline (on CD, and printed). Self-paced learning also controlled the students' characters buildings delivers on their materials understanding.

2.1.3 Collaboration.
Combining both teacher and students in the learning process can cover the process of transferring knowledge. Thus, the designer of blended learning must concert in forms of collaboration, both collaboration between peers or collaboration between students and teacher through possible communication tools such as chat rooms, discussion forums, e-mail, websites, and mobile phones. Collaboration is directed at the construction of knowledge and skills through social processes or social interactions with others, it develops from deepening material, problem solving and project-based learning.

2.1.4 Assessment.
In blended learning, the designer must be able to construct a combination of types of assessment both test and non-test, or tests that are more authentic (authentic assessment / portfolio). In addition, it is also necessary to consider ingredients between forms of online assessments and offline assessments.

2.1.5 Performance Support Materials.
The process is to combine face-to-face learning in class and E-learning to develop the environmental education to support it. Learning materials are prepared in digital form, and can be accessed by teachers or participants either offline (in the form of CDs, MP3s and DVDs) or online. If learning is assisted with a Learning / Content Management System (LCMS), also make sure that this system application is properly installed and easily accessed. Based on the explanation above, the implementation of blended learning prepared to improve the education quality in Indonesia.

The Indonesia government decided to solve the problem complexity in education by develop the technological experience in manage the students’ materials. The solution armed with an initial understanding of the basic concept of blended learning will try to discuss study conditions now by presenting blended learning as an innovation in the world of learning in Indonesia to overcome the problems that are in the modern days.

2.2 Traditional Learning
Traditional learning focuses on transferring materials and developing students’ capabilities by the classroom activities. The traditional instruction allows the teacher and students to hold face-to-face interactions in the same situation. The subjects of study usually develop in students’ materials designs that build on students’ textbook. Therefore, the aspects of self-pace learning in traditional instruction are still on the low level. Observation, culture building, and face-to-face interaction is presented by the teachers or facilitator (Kaur, 2013).

The advantages and disadvantages of face-to-face learning allow discussions on Woodall’s theory (2010). First, the advantages of traditional learning are the dissemination of unhampered materials to be accessed by the students. In the additional interest of topic, the traditional learning certainly supports particular teacher-centered method. It also provides the gradually material transfers for teacher-role and to explain the difficult concepts or theories. Second, the disadvantage- the cost of the learner transfer can be expensive if the location of school is far from...
home. Based on Woodall (2010) the students are required to attend sessions at a set time and usually need to bring textbooks. The sessions should obey the school rules that are teachers-based, and commonly the students get a passive interaction and their attention is prone to distraction.

Based the explanation of traditional learning, the research will compare the face-to-face learning and E-learning process in the collect interaction process on blended learning. The research has integrated the traditional learning and technological using for seen the students needed for enhance their attitude development to support the capability in self-regulation.

2.3 Attitude

Allport (1971) in Herman-Brennecken (2013: 62) defined attitude as a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual’s response to all object and situation with everything related. Another concept is offered by Smith’s (1971) perspective that an attitude is the element of organization of beliefs around an object or a situation to respond the preferential manner. And the research result of Memeghani (2016) is that attitude markers received less attention compared with engagement markers; the most common attitude marker found in the presentations was “interesting”. Basically attitude is human behavior of a person in interacting or communicating with fellow humans. Attitude is very necessary in everyday life. Someone who is polite does not necessarily have a good attitude. When attitude is applied to everyday life, we get a responsibility for taking students motivation result to contribute their communicative competence and performance skill.

The definition of attitudes toward blended learning can be examined on six aspects: learning flexibility (can hold the learning activity everywhere), study management (stay on the appropriate time), technology, online learning (utilize the tools in learning process e.g. educational application program), online interaction (virtual communication), and classroom teaching (Tang & Chaw, 2013). Attitudes investigated in such a way are indicators of student's encouragement for blended learning.

Interestingly, students who generally have positive attitudes (and great levels of motivation) toward learning also have more positive attitudes toward online learning in blended courses (Zhu, Au, & Yates, 2013). In general, applying blended learning model to the classroom activities has a significantly positive impact on students' attitudes to this system. Attitudes toward blended learning are similar to those toward the usage of social media for academic purposes (Acar, 2013). Learners' satisfaction with a course delivered by the means of blended learning is closely linked to their attitudes to this type of instructional setting.

Krashen (2002) constructed that the attitudinal factors would attempt to relate posited predictors of second language proficiency to these two functions. Motivation in learning process divided by two fields that were suggested by Yamin (2011: 234), namely extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation. Extrinsic motivation is a learning activity that grows from the motivation and needs of a person that is not absolutely related to their own learning activities. The definition of intrinsic motivation is based on understanding the needs and encouragement that is absolutely related to learning activities. The same opinion with Krashen, Gardner and Lambert (1972: 3) in Chaer (2009: 251) motivation related to second language has two functions, namely integrative motivation and instrumental motivation.

Integrative motivation, defined as the desire to be like valued members of the community that speak the second language, is predicted to relate to proficiency in terms of the two functions. The presence of integrative motivation should encourage the acquirer to interact with speakers of the second language out of sheer interest, and thereby obtain intake. A low filter for interactively motivated acquirers is also predicted for similar reasons. In Stevick's terms (Stevick, 1976: 113), the interactively motivated performer will not feel a threat from the "other" group and will thus be more prone to engage in "receptive learning" (acquisition), rather than "defensive learning". Instrumental motivation, defined as the desire to achieve proficiency in a language for utilitarian, or practical reasons, may also relate to proficiency. Its presence will encourage performers to interact with L2 speakers in order to achieve certain ends. For the interactively motivated performer, interaction for its own sake will be valued. For the instrumentally motivated performer, interaction always has some practical purpose. In a study by Demetriadis, and
Pombortsis (2007), students showed a positive attitude regarding e-lectures in a blended learning course. Regionally, few studies indicated high positive attitude of female and male students toward blended learning courses (Alseweed, 2013; Al-Saai, Al-Kaabi, and Al-Muftah, 2011).

3. METHODOLOGY

Blended learning methodology is defined as applying and implementing more than one method, strategy, technique or source to education. The aim of this study was to investigate the constructing blended learning, thus students were interested in following the process learning by attitude conceptual. Face-to-face and E-learning were combined by assessing the students' attitudes towards traditional and blended methods aiming at getting empirical evidence of the effectiveness of blended learning and its association with students’ motivation and satisfaction when learning English Foreign language. The study uses qualitative methods to compare the factors of blended learning and traditional learning process.

3.1 The subjects of the study

The subjects of the study, consisting of a total of 68 students and teacher who attended the blended learning class, were randomly selected from the undergraduate students enrolled in the English Language Class during 5 months of March until July 2019 in Yogyakarta and Jakarta. That district was chosen by the conditional gab of applying the technological tools to the educational process. This course was focused on improving the students' listening, speaking, reading and writing skills in order to improve their learning and employability skills. The traditional teaching method was applied by face-to-face lectures, formal assignments and evaluation processes. The blended method was applied by face-to-face lectures, live and recorded virtual classes by some applications (e.g. Q-school), recorded lectures, discussion form, student forum, extra exercises and training, along with formal assignments and evaluation processes. That point will be analyzed by the researcher.

3.2 Instrumentation

To achieve the purposes of this research study and evaluate the effectiveness of the use of Blended learning to supplement classroom, it was necessary to technological implied of attitude conception, therefore, the researcher prepared the following instruments:

3.2.1 Observation

The researcher has been able to observe a number of classroom activities by using blended learning and traditional learning to compare the activity gaps that affect tutoring within the teaching/learning instruction. The observation holds on teacher’s perception by using face-to-face and Q-school apps.

3.2.2 Interview

The researcher interviewed 11 students from Yogyakarta and 7 students from Jakarta, who were selected randomly. Students were asked about their attitudes towards implementing blended learning in learning the English Language class. Therefore, the researcher clarified to their teachers, in total 60 teachers, about the students’ achievement. By conducting interviews, the researcher aimed to obtain further support on students' responses.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Blended learning was developed around in 2000 and is now widely used in North America, Britain, Australia, Circles College and world of training (Dwiyogo, 2013). As a learning strategy which combines traditional learning (face-to-face/classical) with E-learning (through use of facilities/internet media), blended learning designs and implements good learning in terms of content and delivery done online.

4.1 Comparing blended learning and traditional learning

Various studies also show that blended learning is more effective compared to conventional learning with face-to-face systems or with E-learning systems or online learning. Its effectiveness is supported as follows:
4.1.1 Submission of learning can be carried out anytime and anywhere by utilizing a network system such as the Internet.
4.1.2 Students are offered flexibility to study teaching materials or materials stored independently by using teaching materials stored online.
4.1.3 Discussion activities take place on a regular basis online / offline and take place outside class hours, discussion activities take place between students and teachers or between students themselves.
4.1.4 Teachers can manage and control learning done by students outside student learning hours.
4.1.5 Teachers can ask participants to study the subject matter before face-to-face learning take place by preparing supporting tasks.
4.1.6 Target material can be taught according to the set target.
4.1.7 Learning becomes flexible and not stiff.

Based on the observation and interviews with the participants in Yogyakarta (32 students, 3 teachers) and Jakarta (30 students, 3 teachers), the researcher constructs the comparison result of learning by using blended learning and traditional learning based on the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Achievement of learning process</th>
<th>Blended Learning</th>
<th>Traditional Learning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Four skill implementation (listening, writing, reading, listening)</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forum discussion (Question-answer)</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upgrading technological acquire</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude conception</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assignment and evaluation process</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student-centered</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-pleasure to learn</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Habitual discipline</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appropriately learning management (Time)</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Innovatively learning atmosphere (Setting)</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factual students understanding</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Real time correction</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2 Percentages of blended learning for instructional education

Based on the theoretical review from Carman, (2005) it was revealed that there are five keys to implementing learning using blended learning such as [1] Live Event. Direct or face-to-face learning (instructor led instruction) is synchronously in the same time and place (classroom) or the same time but different places (virtual classroom), [2] Self-Paced Learning. That is to combine with self-learning (self-learning) which allows participants to study anytime, anywhere using a variety of content (learning materials) specifically designed for independent learning both text-based and multimedia-based (video, animation, simulation, images, audio, or a combination of all of them), [3] Collaboration. Combining both educators and students in the learning process can cover the process of transferring knowledge, [4] Assessment. In blended learning, the designer must be able to concoct a combination of types of assessment both test and non-test, or tests that are more authentic (authentic assessment / portfolio), and [5] Performance Support Materials. The process to combine face-to-face learning in class and virtual settings, the researcher obtained the percentages of students’ achievements from observation and interviews with the teachers who employed blended learning in their teaching process.
Diagram 1. Percentage of student’s achievement in blended learning reliability

From the diagram above, the result of students’ achievements using blended learning shows that Self-Paced Learning is frequently occurring by 41%, which is significantly more than the others such as live event, collaboration, assessment, and performance support material. The self-paced learning aspect takes more pleasure on students-centered approach. Student-Centered Learning (SCL) approach is a learning model that places students as the center of the learning process.

In applying the Student-Centered Learning concept, students are expected to be active and independent participants in the learning process, who are responsible and take the initiative to obtain their learning needs, look for sources of information to be able to help their needs, search and publish their needs and sources they find. In certain limits students can choose for themselves what they will learn (Harsono, 2005: 176).

In the process of student-centered or as Carman called it self-learning, the students are free to improve their creativity, critical thinking, and technological literacy. Teacher should design innovative materials. Based on the interview with the teacher from Jakarta, she used Q-school to practice blended learning. The process happened on the first steps, she told all the students to use their Internet access and their own textbook (text-based and multimedia-based). Therefore, she began the lesson by showing the students enthusiast proved their online attendance on blended learning. As a result, all students became more motivated to follow E-learning. Thus, student’s motivation was increased by practicing in blended learning.

Motivation has a close connection with learning. Because the class will be conducive, if the process of transferring knowledge supported by the students’ motivation. To set the right atmosphere, such classrooms need motivation born in a class (extrinsic) environment and in students (intrinsic). Especially motivation from outside brought by educators. Extrinsic motivation is motivation that can obtained from the surrounding environment, while intrinsic motivation is the opposite of extrinsic motivation, where motivation is obtained from within a person. Motivation has various types, both in the form of material or just mere driving words. In the scope of education, motivation that is commonly used by educators is material motivation; teachers develop creativity uses a variety of strategies to achieve the curriculum goals. In this case, the important activity for the next educator is to choose a pattern or model of learning that enables students to be active participants in the learning process.

The lowest one is Performance support Materials which gained only 3%. This happened because the Indonesian education system does not entirely facilitate blended learning and accepts the technological developments overture. Another aspect of the interview with the teacher from Yogyakarta was the difficulties faced while making a digital material and the lack of motivation to change the lecturing model which seemed easier. This happens when the teacher’s mind-set is set on the old- models of teaching.

4.3 Construction factor in blended learning by attitude conception

The application of blended learning can be used as an organizing teaching strategy, teaching delivery, and teaching quality because blended learning is able to accommodate extensive technological developments in the 21st century without leaving learning face to face (face-to-face). Blended learning students will be able to compete and overcome educational challenges especially for students at the college level who have big educational challenges. There are five challenge in college education:

[1] new educational models that bring more competition than traditional models,
[2] a lot of new publishing and research which is not well understood by decision makers, [3] digital media is expected to promote literacy in education for academic professionals, [4] experiment with technological applications especially innovative ones are often regarded as outside role of a
researcher, and [5] in the Open Source world, the library is under pressure to develop new ways to support students. That is the reason why blended learning should balance the attitude conception. Based on the attitude conception, the researcher analyze the blended learning adopted the theoretical view of Krashen (2002), as follows:

4.3.1 Understanding Integrative motivation, defined as the desire to be like valued members of the community that speak the second language, is predicted to relate to proficiency in terms of the two functions. It encourages acquirers to engage and obtain intake. In this part, students should have a desire to learn English initially, as the interview with over 16 students showed that they are getting good scores in English because they like this learning process. Integrative motivation also effects actual behavior in blended learning process.

4.3.2 Satisfying Instrumental motivation, defined as the desire to achieve proficiency in a language for utilitarian, or practical reasons, may also relate to proficiency. The purpose of instrumental motivation is clearly stage on the high position in learning process. According to the data accumulated by interview, students mostly showed that they wanted to improve more in English as a Foreign Language and follow the technological developments to confront the international challenges, but others said it was enough only to get a good score in English. Although the instrumental motivation necessarily not only build the students to fluent in L2 but also intent on complete attitude value.

4.3.3 The role of teacher attitude and classroom environment took seriously effect for create students’ motivation. The attitude of students in the learning process describe the students’ behavior in teaching-learning interaction, student attitudes can appear in the form of will, responses, changes in feelings and etc.

There are times in a learning process that students are active, but there are also students who are passive. Less active students might not like the teacher’s performance in teaching or even the learning situation. In this case, the attitude has a correlation with the teacher’s designed model of teaching that the researcher studied in blended learning. Participants that consisted of 66 students and teachers from Jakarta and Yogyakarta always commented on positive reason that generally shown at the process of blended learning and precisely created the students to have good behavior to develop their ability and skill on creative thinking high level achievement.

5. CONCLUSION
Blended learning is a learning model that transfers between face-to-face learning and E-learning. Simply defined, blended learning is a traditional design class instruction (which itself varies greatly) and technology-mediated instructions. Therefore, blended learning can be achieved through the learning process, the power impact of blended learning support on upgrading technological acquire, prioritize students-center, appropriately learning management (Time), Innovatively learning atmosphere (Setting) that compare with traditional learning. The result of study are [1] much proper blended learning than traditional learning, [2] percentages of blended learning for instructional education is frequently occurring on Self-Paced Learning which obtains 41% than the other field, and [3] the construction factor in blended learning by attitude conception such as integrative motivation, instrument motivation, and attitude toward the classroom and teacher. Thus, this study suggested controlled teacher’s perception for teaching that might help students for instructional technology skill by attitude from blended learning on preparing suitable digital literacy.

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An Investigation of Male and Female Voices: Does Voice Gender Categorization Depend on Pitch?
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ARTICLE INFO

ABSTRACT

Received: September 24, 2019
Accepted: October 27, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.8

Gender is a remarkable, socially basic concept got from appearances and voices, yet the cerebrum forms hidden gender segregation have not been greatly investigated. The current study investigated male and female voices and the difference between their pitch. To fulfill, 26 male (n=23) and female (n=23) advance EFL learners were selected from a private English language institute. Firstly, the measured brain response differences were observed between female and male voices beginning at 93 ms. Then, using normal, high- and low-pitch voices, pitch differences was checked between both genders. The findings revealed early effects (31–74 ms) was made by differences in pitch. Gender impacts were viewed with implicit pitch processing, but were not viewed with utilization of pitch. Moreover, stage between 191 and 276 ms differentiated male from female voices, independent of pitch. Thus, these data indicated that voice gender processing included two phases; a very early pitch or frequency distinction and a later more precise distinction of gender.

KEYWORDS

Gender, Voice, Pitch, Frequency

1. INTRODUCTION

The human voice consists of sound made by a human being using the vocal tract, such as talking, singing, laughing, crying, screaming, shouting, yelling etc. The human voice frequency is specifically a part of human sound production in which the vocal folds (vocal cords) are the primary sound source. (Other sound production mechanisms produced from the same general area of the body involve the production of unvoiced consonants, clicks, whistling and whispering.)

Generally speaking, the mechanism for generating the human voice can be subdivided into three parts; the lungs, the vocal folds within the larynx (voice box), and the articulators. The lungs, the "pump" must produce adequate airflow and air pressure to vibrate vocal folds. The vocal folds (vocal cords) then vibrate to use airflow from the lungs to create audible pulses that form the laryngeal sound source. The muscles of the larynx adjust the length and tension of the vocal folds to ‘fine-tune’ pitch and tone. The articulators (the parts of the vocal tract above the larynx consisting of tongue, palate, cheek, lips, etc.) articulate and filter the sound emanating from the larynx and to some degree can interact with the laryngeal airflow to strengthen or weaken it as a sound source.

Adult men and women typically have different sizes of vocal fold; reflecting the male-female differences in larynx size. Adult male voices are usually lower-pitched and have larger folds. The male vocal folds (which would be measured vertically in the opposite diagram), are between 17 mm and 25 mm in length. The female vocal folds are between 12.5 mm and 17.5 mm in length.

The difference in vocal folds size between men and women means that they have differently pitched voices. Additionally, genetics also causes variances amongst the same gender, with men's and women's singing voices being categorized into types. For example, among men, there are bass, baritone, tenor and countertenor (ranging from E2 to even C6 and higher), and among women, contralto, mezzo-soprano and soprano (ranging from F3 to C6 and higher). There are additional categories for operatic voices, see voice type. This is not the only source of difference between male and female voice. Men, generally speaking, have a larger vocal tract, which essentially gives the...
resultant voice a lower-sounding timbre. This is mostly independent of the vocal folds themselves.

Human spoken language makes use of the ability of almost all people in a given society to dynamically modulate certain parameters of the laryngeal voice source in a consistent manner. The most important communicative, or phonetic, parameters are the voice pitch (determined by the vibratory frequency of the vocal folds) and the degree of separation of the vocal folds, referred to as vocal fold adduction (coming together) or abduction (separating). The ability to vary the ab/adduction of the vocal folds quickly has a strong genetic component, since vocal fold adduction has a life-preserving function in keeping food from passing into the lungs, in addition to the covering action of the epiglottis. Consequently, the muscles that control this action are among the fastest in the body. Children can learn to use this action consistently during speech at an early age, as they learn to speak the difference between utterances. Surprisingly enough, they can learn to do this well before the age of two by listening only to the voices of adults around them who have voices much different from their own, and even though the laryngeal movements causing these phonetic differentiations are deep in the throat and not visible to them.

From another point of view, how people sort the world is a major inquiry in psychological sciences (Murphy, 2004). Exceptionally compelling is the order of socially and socially applicable boosts, for example, faces and voices. There is to be sure solid social strain to order gender classification precisely even in states of corrupted or not exactly finish tactile contribution as, e.g., confirm by our shame when mixing up the gender of a questioner via telephony. Luckily, such missteps are uncommon as gender classification is effectively and precisely seen through the voice alone (Whiteside, 1998), even in a nutshell on-discourse vocalizations, for example, chuckling or moans (Childers & Wu, 1991; Kreiman, 1997). 

There is a significant gender dimorphism in the vocal contraption of male and female adults, influencing both the source and channel parts of voice creation (Titze, 1994). These anatomophysiological contrasts bring about various acoustical contrasts between the voices of male and female grown-up speakers and specifically the mean essential recurrence of phonation and formant frequencies (Childers & Wu, 1991). The crucial recurrence (identified with the apparent pitch) is a variable of sounds that can be effectively distinguished. When all is said in done, the basic recurrence of a sound is conversely corresponding to the size of the source, that is, children will in gender have voices with a low recurrence or low pitch, and grown-up females will in general have voices with a high F0 or high pitch. Nonetheless, this basic relationship doesn't generally hold. For example, Rendall, Kollias, Ney, and Lloyd (2005) demonstrated that in spite of the fact that men, by and large, have a bigger body-size and speak with a softer tone recurrence and formant frequencies than females, recurrence and subjects' gender classification can't be anticipated from body-size.

Commonly, adults can easily and precisely extract gender from acoustical data in voices. Specifically, the impression of voice gender essentially depends on the crucial recurrence (Lavner, Gath, & Rosenhouse, 2000; Mullennix, Johnson, TopcuDurgun, & Farnsworth, 1995) that is by and large higher by an octave in female than male voices; yet, pitch covers extensively among male and female voices. Utilizing social adjustment standards, in any case, Schweinberger, et al. (2008) set up that the portrayal of voice gender was moderately free of low-level acoustic data, as eventual outcomes were nullified with sinusoidal tones coordinated for principal recurrence (Schweinberger et al. 2008). This exhibited, in spite of the fact that voice pitch and gender classification are connected, other data is utilized to perceive a person's gender from his/her voice. Other acoustic parameters that may add to gender classification recognizable proof incorporate formant frequencies that mirror the separating activity of the vocal tract on voice creation (Ghazanfar & Rendall 2008; Latinus & Belin 2011) and which are likewise turn down the volume (Whiteside 1998).

Studies have exhibited that gender acknowledgment likewise depends on fleeting data (Fu et al. 2004), as fleeting reversal of voices diminishes gender classification acknowledgment. These investigations exhibit that despite the fact that voice gender is by all accounts essentially perceived through voice pitch, different components can be utilized to precisely perceive gender classification, demonstrating that the impression of pitch and gender can be separated (Lattner, Meyer, & Friederici, 2005).

Functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) contemplates have featured areas situated along the unrivaled fleeting sulcus (STS) answerable for preparing of voices, for both etymological and extra-semantic data in people (Belin et al. 2000) and macaques (Petkov et al. 2008). The preparing of extra-etymological parts of voices connected principally the front STS—the fleeting shaft—of the correct side of the equator, as just this locale segregated vocal from non-vocal sounds without discourse data (Belin, Zatorre, & Ahad, 2002). Examination of gender
handling of voices with fMRI has created conflicting outcomes demonstrated that female voices delivered more grounded reciprocal reaction than male voices, with a correct side of the equator predominance, particularly in the unrivaled worldly gyrus (STG), while Sokhi, Hunter, Wilkinson, and Woodruff (2005) detailed that female voice preparing included the STG while male voices delivered a bigger reaction in the privilege prefrontal. Lattner, Meyer, and Friederici (2005) likewise examined pitch observation paying little respect to voice gender classification, and indicated that voice pitch included a system of districts limited shut to Heschel's gyrus. They indicated that high-pitch voices actuated a neural system like female voices while low-pitch voices instigated a bigger action in the left front cingulate gyrus; pitch judgment included the privilege prefrontal cortex.

The time course of neural voice preparing of voice attributes isn't surely known, and the writing, once more, reports conflicting outcomes. An event-related potential (ERP) study featured a voice-explicit response (VSR) 320 guys after upgrade beginning (Levy et al. 2001); the VSR, a frontal positive avoidance bigger for vocal than non-vocal improvements, was seen as consideration needy as the distinction among vocal and non-vocal sounds vanished when sound-related upgrades were unattended (Levy, Granot, & Bentin, 2003). Since that first examination, others have detailed a previous mark of voice handling (Rogier et al. 2010). While Murray et al. (2006) revealed early impacts in a living/non-living order, Charest et al. (2009) utilizing a scope of vocal improvements, including non-discourse vocalization and creature vocalization (feathered creature cries), demonstrated a particular reaction to voices beginning at 120 guys after upgrade beginning and cresting at 200 guys, for example in the idleness scope of the sound-related P2 part. Adjustments of the sound-related complex at the P2 inactivity have been depicted utilizing complex improvements: it was balanced by discourse (Titiinen, Sivonen, Alku, Virtanen, & Naatanen, 1999) and by personality preparing in a voice acknowledgment worldview (Schweinberger, 2001). Concentrates that examined the time course of voice gender classification handling are meager, with one examination indicating a balance of the N1/P2 complex following adjustment with gender consistent vocal connectors (Zaske, Schweinberger, Kaufmann, & Kawahara, 2009). The adequacy of the N1 was diminished for male voices following adjustment to male voices, while the P2 to female voices was decreased after adjustment with female voices. Subsequently, there is little data on gender classification separation of voices, and none that have decided the spatial–worldly cerebrum designs that record this basic human ability. In the present investigations, we investigated the time course of voice gender handling utilizing ERPs. We proposed the accompanying theories: (1) the impression of pitch and gender classification are connected yet can be separated (Lattner, Meyer, & Friederici 2005); (2) pitch handling happens sooner than gender discernment as recommended by studies showing balance of early sound-related ERPs (P50) by sound frequency (Liegeois-Chauvel et al. 1994); (3) neural action touchy to gender classification would be viewed as more noteworthy actuation to female voices, over right front destinations (Lattner, Meyer, & Friederici 2005; Zaske, Schweinberger, Kaufmann, & Kawahara, 2009). To address these theories, we quantified the neural movement identified with gender classification arrangement of voices and the job of contribute gender separation utilizing ERPs. Members performed gender order on sound clasps of voices. The job of crucial recurrence, saw as pitch, in gender classification of voices was resolved in a subsequent report, utilizing low-and piercing voices just as expected voices. To maintain a strategic distance from repetition with the covering issues in the two investigations, we present the techniques and consequences of the two examinations pursued by one general discussion.

2. METHOD
2.1 Participants
The participants of this study were 26 male (n=23) and female (n=23) advance EFL learners who were selected from a private English language institute. In fact, two intact classes were selected. Their age range of 21-26 years old. None of the participants reported any hearing problems. They all gave informed written consent and the study was approved by the institute faculties.

2.2. Auditory Stimuli
Forty English words were spoken by the participants. The words were monosyllabic. The participants voices were recorded using a Voice Recorder. The participants also spoke the words utilizing high- and low-pitched voices; speakers were trained to speak the words, making their natural pitch a higher or lower frequency, but not forcing their voices—keeping them as natural-sounding as possible, while making clearly audible changes in the pitch. All speakers were able to do so. All of the subjects completed the experiment with normal voices first and then the study with the pitch-altered voices.

2.3. Sound Analysis
With the help of professional statistician, Praat software (Boersma & Weenick 2001) was run and parameters like mean pitch, range (difference between the minimum and the maximum of pitch for each
gender) and formant frequencies (F1 to F4) plus sound duration and words’ start time were measured. Moreover, two repeated measures ANOVAs were run: the first on the normal voices only, and the second one on all six categories. Voice gender was a between-subject factor, while word was a repeated factor (14 levels), when all six categories were included pitch was also a repeated factor with 3 levels.

### 2.4 Tasks and Design
Boosts were introduced binaurally by means of earphones at ordinary talking levels (68 ± 5 dB); between upgrade interims changed haphazardly somewhere in the range of 1,480 and 1730. The introduction request of upgrades was randomized crosswise over members. During the undertakings, a focal obsession cross was appeared on a screen 80 cm before the subjects, who were approached to keep up focal obsession and cease from making eye developments. Members squeezed one key for male voices and another for female voices (balanced subjects); in the two analyses, members were told to react as precisely and as fast as could be expected under the circumstances. Directions for the undertaking in the subsequent investigation educated the subjects that the pitch of the voices might be adjusted and, therefore may not be a legitimate prompt to segregate gender.

### 3. RESULTS
Comparing the normal voices, an effect was observed on the fundamental frequency (mean frequency (p = 0.000), which was higher for female than male voices and on the Frequency range (P = 0.051), which was significantly larger for male voices (Tables 1 and 2). Words affected mean frequency of the first three formants (P = 0.041; P = 0.021; P = 0.018 for F1, F2, and F3, respectively), in line with previous reports (Hillenbrand, Getty, Clark, & Wheeler, 1995). All other acoustical parameters, F4 frequency, sound duration and word start time were not affected by words or speakers’ gender.

### Table 1: Sound analysis for female participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>High-pitched</th>
<th>Normal</th>
<th>Low-pitched</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sound duration</td>
<td>319.98 ± 15.9</td>
<td>316.19 ± 11.9</td>
<td>336.88 ± 5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Start time</td>
<td>8.21 ± 2.11</td>
<td>11.22 ± 2.96</td>
<td>8.31 ± 3.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>frequency</td>
<td>419.12 ± 14.9</td>
<td>301.19 ± 9.14</td>
<td>208.16 ± 3.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>range</td>
<td>86.14 ± 13.98</td>
<td>93.19 ± 21.12</td>
<td>31.09 ± 4.97</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Moreover, analyses of frequency indicated an expected effect of gender (P = 0.018) and pitch (P = 0.001), with no interactions; female voices were on average higher pitched than male voices, and frequency was highest for high-pitch voices, while it was the lowest for low-pitch voices (Tables 1 and 2). Frequency range was still larger for male voices as shown by a speakers’ gender effect P = 0.037, yet it was not modulated by pitch. Formant analysis revealed that F1, F2, and F3 frequencies differed with words. All other acoustical parameters, F4 frequency, sound duration and word start time were not affected by words, speakers’ gender or pitch.

### 4. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION
Generally speaking, the researchers reported the neural correlates of voice gender perception. At first, the researchers listened to female and male voices, while performing a gender categorization; then, pitch-altered voice stimuli were included to dissociate pitch processing from higher-level gender representation processing. These two views revealed significant differences between the processing of female and male voices, both behaviorally and neurophysiologically.
At the social level, gender contrasts were found in precision just for the pitch-changed voices with pitch adjustments affecting female than male order. In the primary investigation, RTs were longer for female than male voices. In study 2, members ordered same-gender classification voices quicker than inverse gender voices, as revealed with faces (Yamaguchi, Hirukawa, & Kanazawa, 1995; Cellerino, Borghetti, & Sartucci, 2004). Additionally, members sorted the voices with the most run of the mill pitch quickest, i.e., high-pitch for female voices and low-pitch for male voices. These outcomes indicated that an individual’s gender classification is to some extent gotten from principal recurrence (pitch), and give social proof that high f0 are normal of a ladylike voice and, the other way around (Whiteside 1998; Murry & Singh 1980; Mullennix, Johnson, Topcu-Durgun, & Farnsworth, 1995). However different parameters, for example, transient data or formant recurrence, are unmistakably used to perform voice gender classification order as it stays solid even without a standard f0 (Schweinberger, 2001; Fu, Chinchilla, Galvin, 2004). The f0 territory could be a prompt for gender classification that remaining parts even after the pitch adjustment, as it was bigger for male voices paying little mind to pitch. Our outcomes likewise showed contrasts in the handling of female and male voices, as pitch adjustment appears to disturb female more than male voice classification. This could appear inconsistent with results indicating that the female voice observation depends more on worldly data than does the acknowledgment of male voices (Murry & Singh, 1980), yet, the improvements utilized in our two examinations were short, and transient data may have been decreased.

Examinations of the spatial–fleeting cerebrum examples were basic in uncovering contrasts in the handling of male and female voices; while investigation 1 uncovered contrasts at a few spatial– transient groups, study 2 explained that lone the impacts inside the P2 inactivity range were explicitly identified with gender classification recognition, as per Zaske et al. (2009). Early ERP contrasts, beginning at 30 ms post upgrade beginning in study 2 and at 87 ms in study 1, were owing to pitch handling, however not gender preparing as such. It has recently been exhibited that the Pa or P50, a positive potential happening in this idleness go, was touchy to upgrade recurrence and its geography reflects changes in dipole direction with expanding recurrence (Pantev et al. 1995). This adjustment in geology has been proposed to mirror the tonotopy of the essential sound-related cortex (Pantev et al. 1995). Along these lines, in the present investigations, early impacts for the most part found in geology changes because of pitch, likely reflect recurrence handling contrasts in the sound-related cortex among high and typical to-low pitch voices. In study 1, male voices evoked a bigger N1 than female voices and this regulation by voice gender classification was additionally clear in geographical contrasts. In study 2, nonetheless, N1 was not influenced by pitch or gender, nor was any spatial distinction seen inside this inactivity go. N1 mirrors the preparing of physical and worldly parts of sound-related improvements (Naatanen & Picton 1987) including recurrence (Zaske et al. 2009). Abundance of the sound-related N1 has been demonstrated to be touchy to the physical likeness between improvements in adjustment structures (Zaske et al. 2009). N1 idleness and abundancy decline with expanding recurrence utilizing unadulterated tone upgrades, particularly for unattended tones (Crottaz-Herbette & Ragot 2000) steady with the aftereffects of our investigation 1. It has likewise been indicated that particular consideration impacts the N1 segment (Neelon, Williams, and Garell, 2006), and that consideration regarding pitch veils the N1 regulation by recurrence. This recommends the littler N1 for female voices found in study 1 relates to programmed pitch handling; this was not seen in study 2 because of consideration being coordinated away from pitch as it was not prescient and subjects were educated that pitch had been adjusted. This contrast between the two investigations is reliable with great examinations indicating that the sound-related N1 is delicate to consideration impacts (Naatanen & Picton 1987).

Female voices evoked a before and additionally bigger P2 than male voices in the two investigations: somewhere in the range of 170 and 230 ms contrasts were seen over fronto-focal mind territories that include the P2 segment. A prior P2 to female voices was accounted for in a past report (Zaske et al. 2009) and was proposed to reflect higher major frequencies in female voices. Our outcomes are in logical inconsistency with this theory, as shrill voices, with the most noteworthy crucial recurrence, evoked the most recent P2. However, Zaske, et al. (2009) additionally recommended that P2 could record a perceptual as opposed to a physical handling of female gender. In our investigations, examination between mind geographies to high-pitch male voices and typical female voices demonstrated that male voices, even with a higher f0, yielded littler reactions than female voices at a similar area and idleness go. Along these lines, the consolidated aftereffects of the two investigations propose that neural instruments that underlie P2 are engaged with a voice gender portrayal generally preoccupied from low-level, for example pitch, data. The P2 part has likewise been appeared to list voice handling (Charest et al. 2009; Rogier et al. 2010), as its plentifulness was higher for vocal than non-vocal sounds. Lattner, Meyer, and Friederici
(2005) showed that an infringement of audience members’ desires prompted a voice-explicit mind reaction 200 ms after boost beginning. It has been proposed that P2 is a list for discourse handling, as P2 is bigger to vowels than tones (Tiitinen, Sivonen, Alku, Virtanen, & Naatanen, 1999) and is delicate to voice preparing in a voice acknowledgment worldview (Schweinberger 2001). These impacts on P2 abundance may reflect voice affectability as opposed to discourse handling. In spite of the fact that the point of our article was not to think about neural connects of voice discovery, our outcomes bolster the theory that P2 may reflect gender voice handling (Charest et al. 2009). Sokhi et al. (2005) detailed that female voices enacted the correct front STG though male voices actuated the precuneus. This was not obvious in our examination as geographies to male and female voices were similar, proposing that a typical cerebrum source is at the birthplace of the P2 for male and female voices. In any case, as fMRI information doesn’t give fleeting data, the mind zones depicted by Sokhi et al. (2005) likely could be actuated at various latencies with the end goal that initiation of the STG around 200 ms prompted a bigger P2 for female voices and the precuneus enactment may happen later and drive contrasts we saw at the VSR inactivity in left back areas.

Despite the fact that the specialists discovered huge impacts in these two investigations, we recognize a few impediments. To start with, it is important that lone three voices for every gender classification were utilized in the examination, with fourteen things for every voice. This is a low number of voices, despite the fact that normal for this sort of research (for instance, five speakers for each gender classification in Zaske et al. 2009 and four speakers in Schweinberger et al. 2008). Future examinations ought to incorporate more chronicles of various voices, yet an intriguing inquiry is use voices over the age range to decide whether the age of the speaker impacts the separation of the gender classification of the speaker. Second, it is smarter to have more preliminaries per normal, to acquire significantly more clear segregation of the spatial–transient example. The danger of this would be habituation of the reactions. The way that we discovered critical impacts, with a respectable number of subjects and utilizing vigorous insights, reliable with and developing different examinations in the writing, gives us certainty that the discoveries are veridical.

Taking everything into account, this examination uncovered that sound-related ERPs record both pitch and gender preparing of voices; pitch handling begins early and is tweaked by consideration, while gender classification separation happens around 200 ms and is likely connected with different parts of voice handling (Charest et al. 2009; Zaske et al. 2009). Therefore, we suggest that gender handling of voices has two phases. An early tonotopically-delicate stage appraises the pitch of the approaching sound; this can be a successful gauge of voice gender. In any case, when pitch data is represented, apparently contrasts at the P2 idleness stay at front-focal areas, recommending that gender segregation of voices happens at this inactivity. We recommend that genuine voice gender preparing happens at the P2 dormancy while pitch handling, which could be an increasingly fast surrogate for gender classification preparing, happens a lot prior.

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The Themes of Attachment and Love in Jane Austen's Emma: A Critical Study

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ARTICLE INFO

Received: September 28, 2019
Accepted: October 12, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.9

KEYWORDS
themes, love, attachment, Emma: Jane Austen

Abstract
The present study aims at studying critically the themes of attachment and love in Jane Austen’s Emma. Jane Austen is the first important woman novelist who stands above both the classical and romantic movement. Moreover, through the fixed character in her novel, "Emma" Jane Austen treats various themes: attachment, love and marriage and thwarted love. The writer also uses them as a medium for criticizing her own society in general and the other societies in particular. Furthermore, married to a clever husband, Emma resembles an unsuccessful marriage based on sexual attraction. Finally, the paper ends with the conclusion that, love, or attachment-the word she preferred—had a precise and perhaps peculiar connotation for Jane Austen. Essentially, it expected the quality of affection that might be found between the members of a happy family. Young men and women who become honorably attached to one another were something more than siblings, something less than lovers.

1. INTRODUCTION

Jane Austen’s Emma is a beautifully conceived dramatic novel. Originally published in three volumes, it succeeds in endowing each volume with its own surprise and cunningly contrived climax: it is also deliberately didactic. However humorously presented, Mr. Woodhouse's 'vulturinarianism' is tiresome and self-centered; Mrs. Elton's vulgar snobbery (and her lack of respect for her betters) is wholly in excusable; Mr. Frank Churchill's good nature and polished ease of manner conceal of a lack of candor and a willingness to give pain to others. Intelligence is better than stupidity, as the example of Miss Bates clear, but active goodwill is better still.

Jane Austen’s ironic stances forces the reader to think about issues; the restriction of the 'world' of the novel, whether geographical, numerical or social, does not diminish the principles involved.

2. Jane Austen's Contribution, Reputation and Writing Career

Jane Austen is hailed as an author of great achievement. Six novels of assured success surely constitute a healthy body of literature which no serious student of the subject can ignore. Nor have they been ignored. Jane Austen who achieved little fame during her life, emerged as a monument of outstanding fiction writer in the twentieth-century. The third millennium has welcomed her as a writer to be read worldwide. (Omer, 2002, p.1)

Almost all major critics of modern day England, like Malcolm Bradbury and Laurance Lerner, have had important comments to make on Austen’s comments to make on Austen’s contribution to English fiction. Scholars, other than the English critics, have added to the growing body of Jane Austen in good measure. One might think that it would be a rash act to undertake research into such an overworked author. Has not all the salience of this important author been looked into? Then why undertake a fresh work? The answer is simple: one has a right to record one’s impression of a writer one likes. One hears so much about the age of anxiety these days, so much about void and ennui and alienation, so much about the collapse of values. Let’s go back to an eighteenth-century society and have a look at a portrait of family and social relations. In addition to relief and artistically pleasure, we shall find them, in good measure, relevant to our own age of globalization (ibid. p.2)

2.1 Jane Austen’s Life: Family and Social Background

Jane Austen’s father, the Reverend George Austen, was descended from a Kentish family. Unfortunately, he was orphaned at an early age and was left no...
property. His uncle, an attorney at Tonbridge, took the trouble of educating him. Leaving Tonbridge School, he got a scholarship to Oxford and later became a fellow of St. John’s College. He then took Orders and got married in 1764 and benefices were found for him. His uncle bought him the rectory of Deane in Hampshire. In addition to that, Mr. Knight, a distant relative, presented to him the adjoining rectory of Steventon. The two villages were close together and he was able to do the work of the two parishes. He chose for his wife miss Cassandra Leigh, whose father had been a Fellow of All Souls and whose uncle was Master of Balliol for fifty years. The family lived at Deane until 1771 when they left it for Steventon, where Jane was born in the year 1775 and spent the first twenty six years of her short life.

Jane Austen was the seventh of eight children: six boys and two girls. The other girl was Cassandra who was two years older than Jane and was the nearest to her heart. They were devoted to each other and, when apart, wrote to each other continually.

The Austen family was a lively, affectionate, and intelligent one. The members were very fond of one another. Jane and Cassandra spent a great deal of their time with their brother Edward in Kent, who was given Godmersham by the widow of Mr. Knight in 1778. The two sisters seldom paid visits together, since one daughter was always needed at home. Thus the visit to Godmersham always meant a rush of letters to be exchanged. The life witnessed in the letters is similar to the lives of girls portrayed in the novels. There is a great deal about walking, riding, excursions, playing, singing and sketching. They also read novels and did a lot of needlework. They also visited cottages, gave ‘shifts’ to old women, went to church, and had balls. Jane loved dancing; a passion which she bestowed on the heroines of her novels. Her life can be well epitomized by reading her letters. The rush of letters was continued again after they had parted and few letters were needed.

To increase his income, Mr. Austen took pupils. A Thomas Fowle was one of them. Cassandra later became engaged to him; but he died in 1997 of fever in the West Indies where he was sent as an army chaplain. Cassandra never married. The two sisters led the life of spinsterhood together. They had offers but they would not accept a marriage not based on true love.

After Jane’s death Cassandra told her niece, Caroline, that she and Jane happened to meet someone one summer by the sea who was attracted to Jane. They young man didn’t declare himself, but had he done so, she was sure he would have been accepted. After a few weeks, he and Jane parted and he died before they could meet again.

Mr. Warre Cornish mentions this story in his life of Jane Austen. Mr. Austen Leigh, her nephew and the brother of Caroline, does not attach much importance to it in his Memoir. He thinks that it is likely that the gentleman loved his aunt, but does not believe that her heart was ever won by anybody. All that he would admit was a ‘passing inclination’. This cannot mean that he disbelieved Cassandra, who knew her sister better than any brother or nephew could. But he must have distrusted Caroline’s account of the story – thought that she might have misunderstood Cassandra or had touched it up (Kennedy 1969:36).

It is not likely to think that Jane Austen accepted spinsterhood without regret. She was once an energetic girl who used to dance and flirt and was likely to love and marry. To compensate for this loss, Jane and Cassandra made a sisterly alliance, which mitigated the loneliness of their single lives. They relied on the intellectual resources and the warm relationship with their brothers who valued them.

In addition to that they were given adequate liberty than most of their contemporaries. Jane’s girlhood ended by the year 1800. Mr. Austen took the determined decision of leaving Steventon and retiring to Bath. On this occasion Jane was not happy and even miserable. They removed to Bath and remained in it until the death of Mr. Austen in 1805. Upon the death of Mr. Austen, the widow and her daughters removed to Southampton. About this period litter is known because letters between the two sisters were scarcely exchanged. Maybe the sisters were not often apart and few letters were needed.

The rush of letters was continued again after they had settled in Southampton and Jane once expressed her relief with which she escaped from Bath. It is evident that during the years of Bath she was not happy and she could not write during this period. In 1804 she attempted a novel, the Watsons, but after a few chapters she abandoned it and she never took it up again.

They stayed at Southampton until 1809 when they moved to more pleasant surroundings. The mother and sisters were offered a cottage on Edward’s estate at Chawton in Hampshire. In these country surroundings Jane was able to resume writing. During five years, three of her novels saw light: Mansfield Park, 1811-13; Emma, 1814-15; and Persuasion, 1815-16. That was in addition to the three earlier books, which were being arranged for publication, and then Jane Austen was getting into print.
Jane Austen’s books achieved a mild success. Most readers were not enthusiastic about them, but Jane was content with whatever little praise or money she could gain. The contemporary critics took no notice of her. Compared to her contemporary Fanny Burney (1752-1840), she was considered a failure. She was not in touch with the literary world. She never corresponded with or met any other writer. Probably, she never in her life met somebody who was her equal in achievement or talent.

Jane Austen is said to have been diffident and shy in company and she would have found fame uncomfortable. But she might well have enjoyed the contact with men of letters, which a more spectacular success might have won for her. Some of her contemporaries appreciated her work, but she never knew about that.

One incident was counted as a success for Jane in the field of contacting the effective characters of her day. Mr. Clarke, the Librarian at Carlton House, told her that the Prince regent greatly admired her works and intimated that she might dedicate the next one to His Royal Highness. Accordingly, Emma was dedicated to the First Gentleman in Europe—the Prince Regent. Mr. Clarke also suggested that she should attempt ‘an historical romance, illustrative of the August House of Cobourg’. She replied that if her life depended upon her ability to write a romance she would certainly be hung before she finished the first chapter (Kennedy 1969:33).

The above story shows that Jane Austen wrote for the pleasure of writing and that pleasure was the true reward Jane Austen was doomed to receive. Jane escaped the sweets of success and celebrity but she also escaped their perils.

In the year 1816 Jane’s health began to deteriorate but would not accept the life of an invalid. Notwithstanding her sinking health, she commenced a new novel, Sandition, in which she makes fun of hypochondriacs. Of it only a fragment is available which at least indicates her courage and zeal. In 1817, she accompanied Cassandra to Winchester in order to see a doctor there. They stayed in College Street in a small house where a plaque to her memory is hung before she finished the first chapter (Kennedy 1969:33).

At her death Jane Austen occupied no place in English Literature. She was rated lower than many contemporaries, whose names fifty years later, had been completely forgotten. On the other hand, she is today lodged among the lasting classics (Kennedy 1969:55).

Many readers, even in the United Kingdom, have an impression that Jane Austen was an early Victorian, a contemporary of the Bronte Sisters. This faulty idea is due to two reasons. The first reason is the way in which the motion pictures show the characters of the novels. Jane Eyre, Catherine Earnshaw, and Elizabeh Bennet, for example, are dressed in the same fashion that makes the audiences think of them as contemporaries. The other reason is the standard of Jane’s books themselves; the books look so completely removed in thought, sentiment, and atmosphere from all that readers associate with the eighteenth century, Richardson (1689-1761) and Fielding (1707-1754) are, for readers, the typical novelists of that age. There is a gulf between Jane Austen’s Elizabeth and Richardson’s Pamela that cannot be bridged. The two girls resemble different worlds, although the same reign witnessed the deaths of Richardson and Jane Austen (Kennedy 1969:8).

To some readers, her date and period are vague. They know that she was a pre-Victorian, but they think of her as a nineteenth century novelist, ‘the first swallow of a new summer’. Factually, in so far as she belonged to any period she was Georgian. The Victorians did not pay her much attention; she belonged to an age from which they have too recently escaped.

When Jane Austen was mature enough to look at people around her with a critical eye, she must have noticed three things. Firstly, she noticed that the manners and the culture to which she had been used in her father’s house were not universal. Secondly, much lower standards can be witnessed in large country houses, among powerful landowners. Thirdly, these great people were not aware of their shortcomings. They think of themselves as a superior class, better bred than anybody else. In their opinion a man who has to work is to rank lower than one who has not to. Jane Austen portrayed and bore witness in her novels to these characteristics of her society.

Notwithstanding her criticism of the privileged classes, Jane Austen did not intend to attack them. She didn’t satirize them and she didn’t mean to act as a satirist, because her genius was for comedy and the core of the joke was that the landed gentry thought itself superior, but factually was not.

In the twentieth century, new interpretation of Jane Austen’s novels appeared in the previous Soviet Union. They described Jane Austen as a ‘Marxist before Marx’. The novels were interpreted as an expose of the economic basis of social behavior.
These interpretations are politically oriented and they misconstrue the general direction of Jane Austen’s thought. Her social criticism as well as her interest in the material welfare of her characters is not at all politically motivated. To Jane Austen, the political situation was taken for granted. According to Butler, she is not a sycophant of wealth or rank. The class she deals with has local, not national importance. In the eighteenth century term, Jane Austen is a Tory rather than a Whig (Odmark 1981:134).

A lot has been said about Jane Austen’s range. The recurring question is how much of England did Jane see? She was ignorant of the northern and the western extremities but if is not true that she rarely ventured beyond Hampshire and Bath. Factually she traveled through fourteen countries. She knew three cities intimately and was acquainted with many stretches of the English coastline. She knew the whole of southern England (Lane 1986:12).

Village life suited Jane Austen well, but she was also familiar with London. This familiarity was an important part of her cultural background, which added to her assurance as a commentator on society. Her brother Henry had a London home, which she visited occasionally. The theatre, galleries and museums of London contributed to Jane Austen’s experience. With Henry she visited Drury Lane, Covent Garden and the Lyceum, where they took a private box. In 1969, she attended Astleys equestrian theatre. Henry also took her to Liverpool Museum, the British Gallery, and an exhibition of paintings at Spring Garden (Lane, 1986, p.167).

The idea that her subject matter is limited cannot be justified, because the class of the gentry resembles the backbone of England. Characters of that class were well portrayed in Jane’s novels in a way that made her work timeless. Jane Austen paid due attention to the question of choosing a marriage partner, which is vitally important to anyone’s life. It is true that Jane Austen was keen not to move out of areas which she knew through and through. She applied her irony to these well-known areas and so what she wrote was realistic and fascinating.

2.2 Jane Austen’s Literary Career, Fame and Style
Although Jane Austen lived into the nineteenth century, she is considered and eighteenth century novelist because her art has the qualities of the eighteenth century novel. Jane Austen brought the novel of family life to its zenith. Her works were not affected by the ugliness of the outside world. She kept the action to scenes familiar to her through her own experience. Her first novels were refused by publishers and she had to wait for about fifteen years after beginning to write before any novel was accepted. Northanger Abbey, for example, was sold to a bookseller in Bath for ten pounds, but he didn’t publish it, and it was brought back later on.

Though Jane Austen wrote her books in troubled years which included the French Revolution, her novels were calm portraits of social life. She appreciated the significance of the family relations in human affairs. Two of her brothers were in the navy, but she took no notice of the violence of nations.

During the mid-eighteenth-century Johnson was the greatest man of letters. Cowper was the most eminent poet in the last quarter of it. The two of them dominated Jane Austen’s youthful horizon. Johnson died when she was eight years old and Cowper when she was twenty four. Johnson was the prose writer she most admired and Cowper her favourite poet (Gillie 1977:37).

Jane Austen modeled her characters upon Johnson’s. Her style is like his in the way that it has definition, balance and assurance, which reflects faith in clarity, judgement, and good sense. Their styles include a clear sightedness about the incongruity between pretence and reality which makes irony a more prevalent tone in the eighteenth century writing.

According to her brother, Henry Cowper was Jane Austen’s favourite poet. The contemporaries whom she admired among poets were the conservative poets: Scott with his ballads and romances, Crabbe with his eighteenth century couplet (Gillie 1977:54).

Jane Austen was not only conservative in her poetic taste, but she was also isolated from contemporary writers. This isolation from the intellectuals of her day makes any study of her work, which is little concerned with sciences and philosophy of her day, and more concerned with the usual cultural interest of her contemporaries and readers, widened only by her choice of literary or cultural influences.

Compared to Fanny, Jane Austen had a wider field. Fanny satirized the meanly born and respected the great. Jane Austen was not so respectful of the great. She found promising materials in the simple and the great.

The six novels which built her fame and success were written over a period of twenty-one years between 1796 and 1817, but they were all published close together between 1811 and 1818. Jane Austen’s work is a living example of perfection. She wrote because she loved to write and she always did her utmost best to perfect her work. She once said laughingly about some designs which she had made to amuse an infant.

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3. The Themes of Dependence and Independence and Attachment and Love in Jane Austen’s Emma

3.1 The Story of the Novel

Jane Austen's Emma is a love story in which young men and women who live in the same area meet at dances, in each other's homes or while walking in the village.

Emma, the main character, is a clever, pretty, twenty-one-years-old, who lives alone with her father, Mr. Woodhouse, near the village of Highbury. She becomes friends with seventeen-years-old Harriet, who has been abandoned by her parents. Emma decides that she will find a suitable husband for Harriet, but stops her marrying Robert Martin, a local farmer, because she thinks he is not enough for her. She believes that Mr. Elton, the local vicar, would be a much better match.

Her Attempt to make a match between Harriet and Mr. Elton fails miserably but, undeterred, she tries to pair Harriet with Frank Churchill. However, Frank announces a surprise engagement to Jane Fairfax, while Harriet herself believes that Mr. Knightly, a close friend of Emma's, is in love with her. As it turns out, Mr. Knightly is really in love with Emma and asks her to marry him. She accepts and decides to stop interfering in other people's lives. So, when she hears that Harriet has accepted Robert Martin's second proposal of marriage, she wishes the couple all the best. (Blake, p.61)

3.2 The Theme of Dependence and Independence in the Novel

The theme of Emma is 'dependence or independence' but of mind rather than pocket. To understand how Jane Austen handles this theme we must listen to the voices of her characters-and especially to the voice of the narrator—with great care. What deduction are we to draw from the final words of the narrative comment? Is Emma protecting her father's image of her or is she protecting her own image of herself? Or has she simply not begun to think about her own character: is there a real danger that she secretly suspects she may be perfect? Understanding others is difficult, especially if our perceptions are dulled by prejudice or self-absorption. (Milligan, 1984/2005, p.70).

We are given the word 'playful' to hear Emma's tone of voice, but her father, his mind clouded by imaginary ills, misses it. Emma's witty high spirits run the risk of insincerity: she is good at the kind of conversation that promises no commitment. But she is genuinely concerned, as we see here, if her teasing remarks go astray. She is to learn during the course of the novel how deeply such talk can hurt.

Mr. Knightley is immediately established as a man of discernment, honesty and candor, interested enough in Emma to take notice of her, concerned enough to speak genuinely to her. The courtship of Emma and Mr. Knightley—the unavowed mainspring of the novel—is a gradual matching of styles of speech; 'liveliness' is one thing: insincerity is quite another. Mr. Knightley's grave conversation implies a deep attachment to values which are gradually revealed by unfolding action of the novel.

It is a sad mistake to see Jane Austen as preoccupied with worldly success and the nice calculation of income and estate. Money was undoubtedly necessary and significant in the lives of Jane's Austen's women because it assured a level of privacy, independence and freedom to maintain certain social values which they (and she) thought worthwhile. For an unmarried woman the line between independence and drudgery was easily crossed. In her own life Jane Austen's had experienced the precariousness of a woman's independence; her private life of imaginative creativity had to fit in with the demands of a large circle of family and friends. Of the women in her novels only Emma Woodhouse thought of herself as having a personal independence which she might use as she wished.

To conclude, Jane Austen was always ready to contrast undisciplined emotion with those recognition of the intensity of human feelings which could be acted upon because they had been understood. The independence she sought for her heroines was a spiritual freedom: money and position freed them from external constraints; self-knowledge freed them from the great and little passion which destroy life or demean it.

3.3 The Theme of Attachment and Love in the Novel

Jane Austen's Emma is set in the large and populous village almost amounting to a town of Highbury, where Mr. Woodhouse has a substantial property. Emma is a penetrating story of self-discovery, infinitely sharp in its dissection of the self-deception of its protagonist. Marriage may have been the expected outcome for her heroines, but Jane Austen is not content to relate a simple story of courtship with its tribulations and ultimate success. In her novels 'love' has clear ethical and spiritual connotations. Her lovers are not expressing any single domestic affection; they are affirming values upon which their civilized society depends.
Emma is blind about herself, her friends, her own wishes and her own best interests. She takes an interest in Harriet Smith, a girl of no family and uncertain parentage, who has been educated at the local school. Harriet is interested in a decent local farmer but Emma encourages her to set her sights higher. She first tries to throw Harriet into the arms of Mr. Elton, a young clergyman who has a rather higher sense of what is due to him. He surprises Emma by proposing to her; when she refuses, he soon returns with an acceptable bride. Emma and Harriet are then involved with Frank Churchill, a neighbor's son who has been adopted as the; heir of a rich family. His parents see Emma as a suitable match for; Emma thinks Harriet might be in love with him; in fact, he is secretly engaged to Jane Fairfax, the niece of a poor and rather ridiculous spinster. Finally, to her horror, Emma discovers that Harriet is really in love with Knightley; a neighboring landowner and Emma's brother-in-law, who has been her friend for years. Her feelings on hearing this news give her some insight into her own affections.

Emma is suffused by subtler but hardly gentler irony, Emma Woodhouse is, like Elizabeth Bennet, clever and independent, but she is spoilt, and too used to having her own way. In the first chapter a beautiful balance is maintained: Emma's father is shown to be amiably selfish and demanding, intellectually no more than a cabbage. We admire the good-humor and self-restraint with which Emma ministers to his wants and protect him from anxiety or irritation. On the other hand, we see that her solicitude comes in part from her desire to maintain and increase her own independence. Emma enjoys the feelings that, unknown to her, people are dancing as she pulls the strings. She contemplates life aesthetically, and tries to bring things that she would find fitting, nicely patterned, appropriate. Even when she imagines herself in love with Frank Churchill it is the artistic appropriateness of such a relationship that she seems to gain most satisfaction from.

4. CONCLUSION

Every step Emma takes into the world of feelings is mistaken, whether she is trying to promote or prevent marriage. As always in Jane Austen moral questions are illuminated by social behavior. When the self-important Mr. Elton, the vicar, refuses to dance with the illegitimate Harriet Smithson at a ball Mr. Knightley, not a dancing man, immediately takes on to the floor. Similarly, the consequence of Emma's self-well and too-great freedom are finally made clear to the reader when she is rude to poor, silly Miss Bates at the Box Hill picnic. Excessive courtesy is likely to be distrusted in Jane Austen, as denoting insincerity, but a failure of courtesy is almost always a sign of egotism and hardness of heart. It is when the enormity of her breath of decorum is brought home to her that the process of regeneration begin in Emma, climaxed by her realization that she is in love with Mr. Knightley, who will give her life the firmness of principle it has so lacked. This is something the reader has had the chance to realize all long, because though Emma is not aware herself of the real nature of her feeling for Mr. Knightley, the reader has been given the clues that should have enable him to guess it. In fact, the novel is plotted with all the minute, deceptive skill of a detective story; the surface appearance of the action hints will understand the truth of what is going on better than the heroine from whose point of view we see the action.

REFERENCES


Investigating the Effect of Structure Complexity on Students’ Recognition of the Subject Slot
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ARTICLE INFO
ABSTRACT
Received: September 18, 2019
Accepted: October 11, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.1

The subject slot is a main part of any English sentence (Martha & Robert, 2012). The recognition of the subject slot is therefore a crucial step in understanding and comprehending a sentence. This paper studies the effect of the internal structure of the subject slot on its recognition by students learning English as a foreign language (EFL). The students are given written tests containing sentences with different subject structures. Those structures vary from simple to compound-complex. The results support the main hypothesis of the study: the degree of the complexity of the structure affects the students’ recognition of the subject slot of a sentence. The surprising finding of the study, however, is that a compound subject, whether simple or complex, is easier for the students to recognize than a non-compound complex subject structure. The findings of the study are intended to positively contribute to the process of teaching a language. Regarding the findings of this study, EFL instructors can draw their students’ attention to the different structures of a sentence. The students need to know that some parts of the sentence are to extend or add information to the slots of the sentence but not change it.

1.INTRODUCTION
Teaching grammar is always part of the process of learning a language. The underlying reason for this, as Brock Haussamen (2003) has stated, is the fact that teaching grammar is of great importance. It provides students with needed knowledge for improving their reading and writing.

In general, teaching a language involves providing students with the main grammatical rules of that language, as it helps students understand the main parts of a sentence and how those parts are put together to convey an idea. When students are able to analyze the different structures of a language, they are more likely able to develop their understanding and comprehension of that language (Kim & Sells, 2008).

Of course, not all sentences have the same internal structure. In addition to sentences with simple structures, we can find or even use sentences with different levels of complexity. Although English sentences can vary in their structures, they all have two main parts in common: the subject and the predicate (Martha & Robert, 2012).

The goal of this paper is to investigate the effect of the complexity level on students’ recognition of the subject slot. The study focuses on this topic because understanding the structure of a main part of a sentence is a core element in communication, whether in delivering or receiving messages.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW
2.1 Syntax and Language Comprehension
“Syntax has to do with how words are put together to build phrases, with how phrases are put together to build clauses or bigger phrases, and with how clauses are put together to build sentences” (Miller, 2002).

A language consists of words, but it is not enough to understand the words. It is important to learn how to use those words in a way that communicates meanings.
and ideas effectively. In addition, the knowledge of the structure of a language helps the learner receive the messages of others in the way that they intend them to be received (Danvas, 2017). Yule (2006) also emphasizes the point that the use of syntax should be taken into consideration when learning a language. Gottardo, A. and others (2018) have carried out a recent study in which syntactic knowledge has contributed to reading comprehension.

Syntactic complexity has been found to have a variety of effects on the performance of languages learners. Jill, G. and Jennie, E. (2002) have conducted a study to investigate language comprehension and to measure the development of understanding false beliefs in a course over a period of one year. The subjects were students aged 3 to 5 years, and the results emphasized the fact that “the mastery of a specific aspect of syntax, namely, tensed complements, is a precursor and possible prerequisite of successful false-belief performance” (Jill and Jennie, 2002). Stephanie Durrleman, Theodoros Marinis and Julie Franck (2016) found that syntactic complexity affects typically developing (TD) French children across three age groups. Veliz de Vos, Monica, Riffo, Bernardo, Luis Salas-Herrera, Jose and Roa-Ureta, Ruben (2018) have also found that syntactical complexity, besides other variables, significantly affects the performance of subjects.

2.2 Sentence Syntactic Structure and Comprehension
A sentence is the main and basic structural unit of a language (Gompel, 2013). Learning a language therefore requires mastering the structure of sentences in that language. The structure of sentences has been the main interest of many research studies on language syntax. Among these books is Understanding Sentence Structure: An Introduction to English Syntax by Christina Tortora (2018). It is a very recent book that guides learners in a simple and practical way to understand English syntax.

Studying language syntax in general, and sentence syntax in particular, has been a main part of the process of learning a language. The ability to analyze sentences leads to a better understanding of language and improves language accuracy, comprehension and paraphrasing (Blake, 2007). The evaluation and understanding of a sentence depend on the relationship between the subject and the verb with its complements (Davison, 1950), and Davison considers students’ understanding of the order in which words are placed in a sentence to express a specific meaning a source of power (the English Journal: Power from Sentence Patterns, p. 382).

Friederici (2002) states that analyses of brain activation within sentence processing network indicate that the “building of syntactic structure precedes semantic processes and that these interact only during a later stage” (Friederici, 2002)

This study considers the importance of understanding the structure of a sentence in learning a language. It places an emphasis on one of the main parts of any English sentence, that is, the subject. It studies the effect of the structure of the subject slot on students’ recognition of that slot. It examines whether a change in the complexity level of the subject slot leads to a misunderstanding of that slot.

3. HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY
The hypotheses of the study are:
1. There is a relationship between the structure of a sentence and the recognition of its slots.
2. It is easier for students to recognize the subject slots of sentences whose subjects are simple-structured.
3. Recognition of the subject slot is more difficult for sentences with complex and compound structure subjects.
4. Students find it most difficult to recognize subject slots in sentences with compound-complex subject slots.

4. METHODOLOGY
This study is based on the assumption that the structure of the subject slot in an English sentence affects students’ recognition of that slot, whether during analysis or comprehension of that sentence.

To achieve the goals of the study, students are given a written test that includes sentences whose subject slots have different levels of complexity: simple, complex, compound, and compound-complex. They are asked to identify the subject slot of each sentence. Before taking the test, the students learn about the two main parts (slots) of any English sentence, the subject and the predicate.
The written tests include the following sentences:

**Sentences with simple subject**
- The dog chased the cat.
- Some dogs chased the young cats.
- That firefighter is Yusef.

**Sentences with compound subjects**
- Neither Alice nor Peter wants to come to the party.
- Either Tim or Peter will take care of the problem.
- Neither the pillows nor the curtains match the couch.

**Sentences with complex subjects**
- The best defense against the atom bomb is not to be there when it goes off.
- The man with a mustache who had followed us inside walked over to the telephone.
- The giant, yellow bee flying over the flowers has big eyes.

**Sentences with compound-complex subjects**
- That new boy from Paris and the tall girl with the long hair put a lot of garlic in their food.
- Neither the boots by the door nor the flip-flops in the living room will be here anymore if you don’t put them away.
- Everything on the bed and everything in the closet was organized in under an hour.

### 4.1 Study Design
- The participants are learners of English as a foreign language (EFL).
- This study shows the effect of the internal subject slot structure on the ability of a group of participants to recognize the subject slot of sentences.
- Four subject slot structures have been presented in the written test: simple, complex, compound-simple and compound-complex.
- The sentences used in this study have been taken from the following webpages:
  - [www.grammar-monster.com/glossary/subject.htm](http://www.grammar-monster.com/glossary/subject.htm)
  - [www.thoughtco.com/both-and-neither-nor-either-or-1210736](https://www.thoughtco.com/both-and-neither-nor-either-or-1210736)
  - [english.ucalgary.ca/grammar/course/sentence/2_1b.htm](https://english.ucalgary.ca/grammar/course/sentence/2_1b.htm)
  - [en.grammaring.com/the-gerund-as-subject](http://en.grammaring.com/the-gerund-as-subject)
  - [example.ourdictionary.com/compound-subject-examples.html](http://example.ourdictionary.com/compound-subject-examples.html)
- When correcting the papers, the participant is expected to identify the complete subject slot. If the answer misses one word in the subject slot, the answer is considered wrong. In other words, if a participant identifies the whole subject slot with all of its expanding or modifying words, she receives full marks. Otherwise, her answer is wrong. This has been communicated to all the participants.

### 4.2 Subjects
In total, 107 students have participated in this study. They are all learners of English as a foreign language (EFL). They are students at College of Languages, Princess Nourah University (PNU) in Saudi Arabia. Their age ranges between 18 to 22 years.

### 5. DATA COLLECTION
The subjects are distributed into three groups: two are in the Applied Linguistics Department at level three (3X2 & 3X4), and one in the English Translation Department at level three (3E1). At the first three levels, the students enrolled in both departments take common language courses. They have completed a course on grammar entitled “Grammar” with “Azar, B. S. (2009) Understanding and Using English Grammar” as the textbook and during this study, they are studying another advanced grammar course entitled “Grammar in Use.”

All the subjects have practiced analyzing sentences to identify their slots to finally decide on the pattern of each sentence. The first step in this process involves that they should recognize the subject slot and then move on to the predicate slot with its complements. The inability to recognize a slot would most likely result in a deficiency in understanding the internal structure of the sentence and consequently a difficulty in comprehending that sentence.

The students are given a written test in which they are asked to identify the subject slot of given sentences. The sentences have subjects with different internal structures to show the different levels of complexity. The sentences given to each group of students are different but have the same purpose. The subject slots in all the sentences are in a noun phrase form. The complexity of the slot structure occurs when
expanding its headword (the main noun in the noun phase) by modifiers. Those modifiers (Martha and Robert, 2012: 129-149) can be added before or after that headword (prenoun and postnoun modifiers). The degree of complexity in this study is measured as follows:

**Simple Subject:** the head of the noun phrase in the subject slot has no postnoun modifiers. It can have prenoun modifiers, determiners, adjectives or nouns.

**Complex Subject:** the head of the noun phrase in the subject slot has postnoun modifiers, prepositional phrases, participial phrases or relative clauses.

**Compound Subject:** the subject slot has two or more compound noun phrases.

**Compound-Complex Subject:** the subject slot contains two compound-complex noun phrases.

### 5.1 Method of Scoring

Each group of students in the three test sessions is given four sentences. The students are asked to draw a circle around the subject slot. Achieving a full score on each sentence depends on the students’ identifying all the words included in the subject slot. After correcting the papers, the subjects’ performance was recorded as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structure of Subject</th>
<th>3X4 (39)</th>
<th>3E1 (36)</th>
<th>3X2 (32)</th>
<th>Total (107)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Simple Subject</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compound Subject</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complex Subject</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compound-Complex Subject</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(The table shows the number of the students who could identify the correct and complete subject slot under each type of the four different structures of that slot.)

### 6. DATA ANALYSIS

The following figure shows the general performance of the students on the written test.

The above figure shows the following:
1. The students’ highest performance is on the first type of subject slot (simple). 71% of the students get this type correct.
2. The students’ lowest performance is on the sentences with complex subjects. Only 18.7% of the students get this type correct.
3. The students’ performance on the compound subjects, whether simple or complex, is higher than their performance on the complex subjects. In total, 53.3% get the compound simple subject correct, and 44% get the compound complex subject correct.

### 7. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Based on the analysis of the students’ performance in identifying the subject slot of given sentences, the hypotheses of the study are to be tested in the following way:

1. **There is a relationship between the structure of a sentence and the recognition of its slots.**
   The students’ performance on the given test supports this hypothesis. The students’ recognition of the subject slot is affected by the structure of that slot. The percentage differs from one structure to another.

2. **It is easy for students to recognize the subject slots of sentences whose subjects have simple-structure.**
The study also supports this hypothesis. More than 70% of the participants could recognize the subject slot with simple structure.

3. Recognition of the subject slot is more difficult for sentences with complex and compound structure subjects.

The study supports this hypothesis. The recognition of the subject slot with complex and compound structures, however, does not reflect the same result. The students find it easier to recognize the compound subject than the complex subject slot. The subject with complex structure is found to be the most difficult one for students to recognize. Only 18.7% of the students could recognize that slot.

4. Students find it most difficult to recognize subject slots in sentences with compound-complex subject slots.

Based on the performance of the students who participated in this study, this hypothesis is found not to be true. The most difficult structure of the subject slot for students to recognize is the complex one.

The previous discussion of the hypotheses of the study leads us to put the four subject structures discussed in this study in the following order according to the students’ ability to recognize them:

Simple
Compound-simple
Compound-complex
Complex

8. CONCLUSION

This study aims to investigate the effect of the degree of structure complexity on students’ recognition of a sentence subject slot. The subject slot has been chosen because it has been noticed that some students cannot understand a sentence since they do not have the ability to recognize its two main parts: the subject and the predicate.

Sentences vary in their internal syntactic structure. Not all sentences have simple structure. This has led the researcher to study the effect of structure on students’ recognition of the first main part of any sentence. The study has proved this effect with different percentages. Based on the analysis of the collected data, it has been found that:

1. The structure of the subject slot has an effect on students’ recognition of that slot.
2. This effect varies among the different structures.
3. The simple-structured subject is found to be the easiest structure for students to recognize.
4. Students find it easier to recognize compound-structure subjects, whether simple or complex, compared to complex-structure subjects.
5. Students find it more difficult to recognize the complex-structure subject than the compound-complex subject.

Despite the limitations of the current study, it can hopefully play a role in improving the process of language learning. To master a language, one should master the main component of any language, which is a sentence (Gompel, 2013). Knowing that the structure of a sentence can influence students’ understanding of that sentence might make language teachers pay extra attention to this factor.

From the research’s point of view, it is not enough to let students know that sentences are different. They should know what kind of differences could be found in each slot. The sentence slots can be expanded in different ways that might make sentences very long, but in the end, all sentences have two main parts: the subject and the predicate (Martha and Robert, 2012). Each part can be modified and expanded with specific words, phrases or clauses to add more details to that slot, but this does not change the main structure of the sentence.

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Power of Identity in Charity Advertising: A Systemic Functional Linguistic Approach
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ARTICLE INFO

Received: September 12, 2019
Accepted: October 10, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.11

KEYWORDS

Power of Identity, SFL, CDA, Charity Advertising, Political and Social authority

ABSTRACT

In previous research on advertising discourse, not much attention was given to the significance of the linguistic choices used by endorsers to show their power of identity. This study aims to analyze the linguistic choices made in three ads of Children Cancer Hospital Egypt 57357 (57357 CCHE) to show the power of identity of political and social authority. Only the parts in which the authorities give their unfiltered verbal feedback on their visit to 57357 CCHE are chosen to be investigated. The uniqueness of the event in which a social authority appears as a political authority (conscript) in 57357 CCHE advertisements urged the need to explore the discourse of such ads to consider the power of identity. The first advertisement is that of the political authority (Egyptian Armed Forces representative) visit to 57357 CCHE. The second advertisement is that in which Egyptian celebrity Mohamed Ramadan as a conscript (a political authority) gives his verbal feedback on the visit to 57357 CCHE. In the third ad, Mohamed Ramadan as a social authority visits 57357 CCHE. A Critical Discourse analysis is applied through Holliday’s Systemic Functional linguistic (SFL) approach. Based on the ideational, interpersonal and textual analysis, it is concluded that each of the authorities derives his power of identity from the authority he embodies. The power of identity affected the linguistic choices, the logical sequence of discourse and the use of language by the endorsers to relate to audience.

1. INTRODUCTION

Although the main aim of an advertisement is to persuade viewers of buying something or accepting an idea, it can be said that advertising is a type of communication through which specific messages of social and political realities are conveyed (Turhan & Okan, 2017). Advertising is a lively form of discourse which clarifies how people communicate and relate to each other in different contexts where they carry out daily activities (Freitas, 2013). In charity advertising, the main communicative purpose of the ads is to urge people to donate money for specific social cause (Elias, 2013), yet the discourse of such type of advertising can be said to reflect much about the endorsed figures’ ideologies, social and political affiliations and identities.

Since 2009, Children Cancer Hospital in Egypt 57357 (57357 CCHE) has started its charitable advertising campaign to raise money for the treatment of unprivileged children who suffer from cancer. What is unique about this campaign is the endorsement of both social and political authorities (figures) to influence audience to raise fund for this outstanding social cause. In Fact, endorsing celebrities as social authority in charity advertisements has been a frequent technique used previously, yet the endorsement of political authority in charity ads is relatively a new advertising strategy implemented in 57357 CCHE campaign.

In previous research on advertising discourse not much attention was given to the significance of the linguistic choices used by endorsers to show their power of identity. Thus, the current research aims to analyze the linguistic aspects used by political authority (Egyptian Armed Forces representative) and that used by social...
authority (celebrity Mohamed Ramadan) in 57357 CCHE advertisements to identify power of identity each authority represents. Power of identity is defined operationally in the current study as the dominance of personal values, attributes and self-validation throughout a communicative event.

To the researcher’s knowledge, identifying power of identity by analyzing charity ads discourse is an area which is under-examined, as much of the attention in the study of charity advertising discourse has been given to exploration of the impact the ad content has on the viewers affections and emotional reactions.

Halliday’s Systemic Functional linguistic approach (SFL) is the analytical paradigm on which this study is based. A quantitative and qualitative analysis of linguistic choices made by both political and social authorities in 57357 CCHE three charity ads are carried out to indicate power of identity of each authority.

The following research questions provide a guide to the current research:

1. What are the linguistic choices made by social authority (celebrity Mohamed Ramadan) in the verbal feedback on the 57357 CCHE visit to show power of identity?

2. What are the linguistic choices made by political authority (conscript Mohamed Ramadan) in the verbal feedback on the 57357 CCHE visit to show power of identity?

3. What are the linguistic choices made by political authority (Armed Forces representative) in the verbal feedback on the 57357 CCHE visit to power show identity?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The current research focuses on the power of identity as indicated by verbal signs. Systemic Functional linguistic is the tool used to describe, analyze and interpret the discourse under investigation.

2.1 Theoretical background

2.1.1 Systemic functional Linguistic (SFL)
According to Halliday (1978), SFL model is constructed in relation to three metafunctions; ideational, interpersonal and textual. The ideational metafunction represents the message conveyed by a text in which the text is considered a representation of external reality. Text analysis based on ideational function is formed of transitivity and voice. Transitivity is a system which presents ideational function in grammar and compromises the following six processes:

1) Material processes: indicates physical action in the real world.

2) Relational processes: expresses possession, equivalence, attributes...

3) Mental processes: represents cognition, affection and perception processes.

4) Verbal processes: represents communication processes

5) Behavioral processes: Hybrid processes which is mainly a blend of a material and mental process.

6) Existential: represented by an empty “there” in the position of a subject to indicate the Processes of existing.

As for the interpersonal metafunction, it defines the relationship between the speaker and those who receive his message. Interpersonal metafunction includes varies uses of language to express social and personal relations. It considers the speaker’s or the writer’s ‘social distance, identity, and social status. Mood and modality are two key terms of interpersonal function. Mood focuses on the role the speaker selects and the role assigned to the addressee in a speech situation. Modality refers to the speakers’ opinion about and attitude towards a proposition truth stated in a sentence (Sharififar &Rahimi, 2015; Bank, 2002).

The textual functions relate mainly to mode; it describes the channel in which communication takes place. Briefly, textual function refers to the internal organization of a text which includes thematic structure, cohesion and information structure (Bank, 2002).

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Data Collection

Three televised charity ads of 57357 CCCE are selected to address the verbal feedback given by political and social authority endorsed in the ads. Only the scenes where a brief verbal feedback given by social and political authority are selected for content and linguistic function analysis to pinpoint power of identity. The verbal feedbacks are the only parts of the advertisements chosen as they contain a direct unfiltered verbal message facilitating analysis to
explore identity. (See Appendix A, B & C for more transcript of verbal feedback of three ads.)

• The political authority is a group of Egyptian Armed Forces officers and conscripts. The spokesman of the group is Brigadier General of Staff Hythem El Tayaa who gives the feedback on behalf of the group.
• The social authority is Egyptian movie star Mohamed Ramadan, a popular figure who gained the recognition of the lower and middle social classes in particular as he has succeeded in portraying the lower social class in almost all of his films and TV series.
• The first advertisement is that of the political authority visit to 57357 CCHE on 11th April, 2017 including Mohamed Ramadan as a conscript.

3.2 Systemic Functional Analysis of the verbal feedback on 57357 CCHE charity ads

A. Ideational Analysis

Table 1 represents the frequency of occurrence of each type of processes across the three ads under investigation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process</th>
<th>1st ad frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>2nd ad frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>3rd ad frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Material</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>66.66%</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>50.00%</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>50.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relational</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.66%</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>43.75%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>43.75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Existential</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.66%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.25%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioral</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in table 1, the high frequent process across the three ads is the material process with a percentage 66.6%, 50% and 50% respectively. As shown in Table 2, the verbs used in first and second ads by political authorities indicate actions of help, planning, support and construction. The use of such verbs shows actions of affirmation which suit the identity of the Egyptian Armed Forces as an organization which targets positive interaction and is willing to serve the community.

As for the selection of the verbs used by social authority in the third ad shows his identity as being polite, considerate and thankful. The verb “thank” is used four times to indicate the appreciation of the speaker towards 57357 CCHE for giving the chance for the Egyptians to express their good deeds by helping and donating. The social authority power of identity in this ad is clear by using his famous expression “with our trust in God... الله...ثقة في الله”, by which he wants to identify himself as a famous figure in the society whose feedback and appreciation shall give creditability to 57357 CCHE.
The second process of highest frequency is the relational process in the second ad. The relational process usually has two participants and its function is to show the link between entities (Sharififar & Rahimi, 2015). As shown in Table 3, the mode established in the relational process is mostly attributive by which the political authority defines himself as commando not just an ordinary soldier to convey his willingness to sacrifice himself for others. The speaker also identifies the goal of the political authority as being a source of relief and joy to the patients. Meanwhile, the political authority uses an intensive attributive by qualifying the Egyptian Armed Forces and the 57357 CCHE as the most effective in relation to organization and management. The power of identity of the political authority is reflected clearly in the selection of expressions of patriotism and in the support the speaker gives which gives creditability to 57357 CCHE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Carrier</th>
<th>Process</th>
<th>Attribute /value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>أنا آنا</td>
<td>am (أكون)</td>
<td>Commando Mohamed Ramadan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I آنا</td>
<td>am not مش</td>
<td>Soldier Mohamed Ramadan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>آنا آنا آنا</td>
<td>am (أكون)</td>
<td>Happy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Every institution</td>
<td>Is (تكون)</td>
<td>as disciplined and as organized and as dedicated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>كل مؤسسة نا</td>
<td>Will be ح نا</td>
<td>In a different place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>نا نا نا نا نا نا نا نا</td>
<td>Is (إن)</td>
<td>to put a smile</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Relational process in 2nd ad

B. Interpersonal Analysis – personal pronouns system analysis

Referring to table 4, the use of a variety of personal pronouns across the three ads aids to intensify power of identity of political and social authority.
Table 4: Frequency of personal pronouns across three ads

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal pronoun</th>
<th>1st ad</th>
<th>2nd ad</th>
<th>3rd ad</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I (نا)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We (نحن)</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our (ن)</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Us (نا)</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They (هم)</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the first ad, the use of the personal pronoun “we” five times by the political authority indicates that the speaker wants to stress his identity as belonging to the Armed Forces. The use of “we” refers to the armed forces as an authority that witnesses and evaluates the efforts done by both 57357 hospital and by the Egyptians. The political authority uses personal pronoun “I” when he invites all Egyptians to donate money. The political authority finds it more suitable to encourage donation on a personal level not on an official level; this shows his identity as an officer who respects and abides by the rules of the Armed Forces.

In the second ad, political authority (Mohamed Ramadan) uses personal pronoun “I” five times. He even starts his feedback by “I am Commando Mohamed Ramadan…” this indicates that Ramadan wants to find a way to overcome the power of political authority he is representing by using a pronoun which shows his real identity as a social authority. The use of the personal pronoun “we” occurred three times, in each time it referred to the Egyptians. Thus, the use of “we” in this context indicates how Mohamed Ramadan insists on relating himself to social authority not the political authority. The use of the pronoun “our” in the second ad was to refer to the society not the armed forces, which stands as another indication of how Ramadan has selected personal pronouns to attach himself to Egyptian society and detach himself from the armed forces.

In the third advertisement the use of personal pronoun “I” five times and “we” four times indicates the identity of the social authority Mohamed Ramadan as a celebrity. The use of the personal pronoun “I” shows the power of identity of the celebrity Mohamed Ramadan as he starts his feedback by showing his appreciation and giving his personal evaluation of the effort done in 57357 hospital as a powerful social authority. The use of “we” gives an additional clarification to the power of social authority of Ramadan as he is talking as one of the Egyptians. Ramadan identifies himself as a social figure by relating himself to the Egyptians who are hopeful for better health to all cancer patients in 57357 CCHE.

C. Textual Analysis

Comparing the outlines of the feedbacks by political and social figures in the three ads

The outline of the feedback by political authority in the first advertisement is as follows:

a. Announcing the visit of the Armed Forces top Officers to CCH 57357
b. Mentioning the high quality and efficiency of CCH 57357 in treating Cancer among children
c. Showing appreciation towards the management and performance of CCH 57357
d. Announcing the future plans of CCH 57357 of increasing its capacity to treat more patients
e. Inviting Egyptians on personal basis to
It is clear from the outline that the ideas are logically developed and coherent which reflects the identity of the political authority as being a man who cautiously selects his words to reflect a respectful image of the organization he represents, that is the Egyptian Armed Forces.

The outline of the feedback given by Mohamed Ramadan as a political authority in the second advertisement is developed as follows:

1. The political figure introduces himself as a commando “Mohamed Ramadan” not an ordinary soldier
2. praises commandoes Forces for making soldiers acquire heroic traits
3. Noting that this is not his first visit to 57357 CCHE, he has visited it and donated before
4. Draws attention to the success and efficiency of 57357 CCHE and how this resembles the efficiency of The Armed Forces
5. States that the goal of the Armed Forces is to make patients happy.
6. States that the goal could be achieved when all the nation with its different forces and organizations cooperate and work together.
7. Prays to God to succeed: using an expression he uses frequently in his films and series.

From the above outline, it is clear that the development of the ideas is not logically sequenced. The speaker wants to speak his mind as a social authority yet being a conscript makes him return to the context where political authority should be speaking. This shows that Mohamed Ramadan is trying to show his identity as a social authority yet the power of identity of the political authority forces him to speak as a conscript showing the identity of the political authority. Thus, the line of thoughts is distracted and not well-organized which results in incoherent speech.

The outline of the verbal feedback given by the social authority Mohamed Ramadan in the third ad.

1. Thanking 57357 CCHE for giving him the chance to visit it and help children
2. Thanking 57357 CCHE for showing that there are good things in life, and that Egyptians are kind people.
3. Thanking the children who are cancer patients for taking the medication regularly and on time and for fighting cancer
4. Praying to God for recovery

The above outline shows a very brief friendly talk which is full of positive feelings towards 57357 CCHE. Although the speech is casual and seems unplanned, the ideas are somehow relative and logically sequenced as he is presenting his own self as a social authority. This indicates that Mohamed Ramadan as a social authority is spontaneous and considerate which are key elements to power of his identity.

4. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

A systemic Functional analysis has been carried out to identify power of identity shown by political and social authority in 57357 CCHE charity three ads.

4.1 Interpretation of findings

Having analyzed the verbal feedback given by social and political authority in CCH57357 ads, it could be concluded that each of the authorities derived his power of identity from the authority he embodies. The political authority (Brigadier General of Staff Hythem El Tayaa) power of identity is derived from being a top officer in the Military Commandoes Forces who gives acknowledgement and support to the charity project 57357 CCHE. The social authority (Mohamed Ramadan) power of identity is derived from being a popular figure in the Egyptian society, loved and favored as a celebrity by the widest sector of the Egyptian society; the lower working social class.

The textual analysis of the verbal feedback of Mohamed Ramadan as a political authority compared to his feedback as a social authority in the third ad shows that Ramadan's speech was more logically
sequenced and coherent when he was representing social authority in the third ad. Yet, in the second ad, his speech was not logically sequenced and ideas were not well related as he was framed in the context of the political authority.

It was also clear, based on the analysis of data, that both political and social authorities displayed power of identity by linguistic choices they made. For the political authority, its power of identity was mostly shown by relying on the material process using verbs that show readiness to support, help and contribute to community service, which typically reflect the identity of political authority. In case of social authority in the third advertisement, the material process was the most frequently used. Material process reflected Ramadan’s personal appreciation and support to CCHE and stressed his identity as social authority by selecting verbs that show personal appreciation and support to CCHE, like a common social individual who belongs to the Egyptian community.

4.2 Limitation and Recommendation
Advertising discourse analysis is multidimensional in which the text, the discursive practice and social practice should be considered along with the non-verbal signs to be able to understand the intended message (Kress & Leeuwen, 2006). A limitation in this study is the focus on specific part of the ads, and not giving attention to the social semiotic structures present throughout the ads which may unfold new dimensions to give a comprehensive and deep understanding of how social and political authority could use their power of identity to persuade audience to take an action and donate.

It is recommended that the future research might carry out a critical discourse analysis and social semiotic analysis to the ads where social and political authorities are endorsed in one ad to show the dominance of power of each authority.

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The Impact of Content Familiarity on Reading Comprehension among Male and Female Students
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ARTICLE INFO
Received: September 14, 2019
Accepted: October 16, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.12

KEYWORDS
Content familiarity, Gender, Schemata theory, reading comprehension

1. INTRODUCTION
It’s a fact that we have more proficient readers than others. For the majority of EFL and ESL students of English language, the process of reading comprehension does not only depend on the reading itself to acquire the meaning but it also depends at some other factors involved in getting the correct understanding. Reading skill is considered one of the most sensitive cases in academic life. Many studies and research papers tried and still trying to look for the elements that make the process of reading comprehension different from a reader to another like, gender, interest and prior knowledge. In this study we are trying to test the relationship between two important elements in reading comprehension culture; familiarity and gender and their influence on the process of reading comprehension. Regarding the first factor, it can be said that cultural familiarity or prior knowledge can be a major factor that influences reading comprehension Performance. The role of culture in reading comprehension is determined as cultural schema and can be explained as the part played by the culture to get the best comprehension of the text. Obviously, there is a positive relation between the text and its background in the aspect of understanding. There are assumptions that when the reader possesses that kind of background knowledge, he/ she becomes able more to comprehend and understand the text. Regarding the other factor, gender, many studies were conducted and much research was done to investigate how both males and females deal with the text. In short, we can say that those studies reached two different or even opposite conclusions. Some suggested that males do better than females in terms of reading comprehension and understanding while others suggested the opposite. Our study aims to find out if there are any differences between males and females and whether the familiarity of the contents plays a role in the process of comprehension or not?

1.2 Statement of the problem
Before we look at the concept of cultural familiarity, it is better to define the term ‘culture’ first. According to Zieghan (2001), the simplest definition of culture embodies the shared beliefs, values, and practices of a given group of people. Individually, these may vary slightly within a culture, but overall the group’s worldview would be the same. She goes on to say that there are some key differences between cultures. One is that society might value the individual more than the whole or vice versa.

Cultural familiarity may refer to a person’s familiarity with a variety of different cultural aspects (Freimuth, 2008). Existing research shows various examples of this. For instance, Brantmeier (2003) did her study on the familiarity of the topics in passages from short stories. Lazar (1993) gives numerous examples of cultural aspects in texts. In her list, she
included objects or products that are unique to a society.

Many studies showed that the familiarity of the content makes it easy to comprehend the meaning in the text. That means as much you have background knowledge, as much you score in reading comprehension. The problem being investigated here is the element of familiarity interacted with other variables like gender or interest. In fact, that can be very beneficial for educators who design and implement reading courses to consider these related factors.

1.3 Research Questions
In this study, the researchers are trying to examine the relationship between familiarity and performance on reading comprehension. The study seeks to answer the following questions:

1. What is the relationship between text familiarity and better reading comprehension performance of second language reading?
2. Are there any gender differences?
3. How the two sexes are affected by the content familiarity in the aspect of comprehension performance?

1.4 Significance of the study
This study can propose some considerations of text-selection for teaching in the ESL and EFL classrooms such as the use of culturally familiar texts that have themes and subject-matter fitting the students’ gender, general age, group and interests so that a more meaningful and effective interaction with the texts would take place. With known themes in the text, the students would be able to show more comprehension and will be more related to the text and closer to what is in the writer’s mind. The findings of this study unearthed the students' perceptions and actual responses towards texts. Cultural familiarity with aspects in the text such as with the character, subject matter or language use did play a role in facilitating students’ comprehension and enhancing transaction with the text (Zailin & Yusoff, 2004). This study can enrich and emphasize the role of motivation in learning by attracting the enjoyment factors to the learning process, especially in reading through studying text from the background of the student.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW
2.1 Schema theory
It's proved by theories and studies that very well readers build their comprehension of the text by referring to their background knowledge making a kind of connection or a link between the meaning and the text itself. By knowing the background of the text, the reader will be more familiar with what the writer is looking for or wants to say. This issue can be described by the schema theory to show the effect of content familiarity and the differences between males and females. In Schema Theory, we may find a good explanation for the effect of the culture or the background. Cultural schema with its role in comprehending the content of the text refers to that part played by the culture to give full or a sufficient understanding of the text. For example, Pulido (2004) did a study on university students: high intermediate L2 learners of Spanish. She focused on incidental vocabulary acquisition as well as the cultural familiarity of a text and found a positive co-relation between the two. Schema theory is needed to give general information and common concepts that help to understand the elements that affect the text understanding such as interests. According to the schema theory, all knowledge is arranged into sets and information is stored in these sets or units of knowledge. Therefore, the concept of schema can be used to refer to that collection or system which leads readers possessing it to the process knowledge understanding.

2.2 Content familiarity
One of the popular studies that focused on the issues of content familiarity and gender differences is under the titled “Gender Differences in Reading Comprehension Performance in Relation to Content Familiarity of Gender-Neutral Texts” by Al-Shumaimeri (2005) from which we are going adopt the style as well as the tools for our study. Her study results included that there are important and clear differences between females and males in the comprehension of foreign language using reading skill and their comprehension performances affected by familiar and unfamiliar text form. The relationship between gender and the familiarity of the content shows a great ability in effecting the performance of the readers fully comprehension for a neutral text. Al-Shumaimeri (2005) explains that in his study, males did better in dealing with neutral familiar and unfamiliar texts. In their study (1988), Hyde and Linn assumed that the reason or the rationale behind that gap and difference between male and female comprehension goes back to the nature of the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) test which included a heavy content of reading materials. Many studies
were conducted to investigate the differences between males and females. For example, Dolittle and Welch (1989) reached a conclusion that different passages give different responses and also showed that females did better in humanities texts while the male participants did better in science text. Many studies indicate that the background knowledge of the readers affects the comprehension of any reading text. Alderson (2000) brought that concept of knowledge or schemata activation and that the reader’s knowledge should be activates during the reading activity leading him/her to perform better. He claimed that the product and the outcome of the reading comprehension might differ from a person to another depending on the amount of their knowledge and experience. This might be because in different cultures you may find the word with the same spelling but with different meaning or expectation, which means that one word can refer to different things for different people. For example, the word wedding may different things for two persons from different cultures.

When the text is familiar, that reflects a positive influence on the performance of reading and comprehending. That happens by exploring the target culture with objective questions. This can be of a great help for the students to build their background knowledge and improve their reading skill.

3. METHODOLOGY
3.1 Participants
The subjects of our study were 32 Saudi undergraduate English language students. They were male and female participants divided equally into four groups; two females and two males. They were from the department of English languages in the college of proprietary Year program, Northern Border University, Saudi Arabia. Since they were Saudi students, they, for sure, have strong relation to their culture which is considered as a very important thing here to be measured. The subjects of this study had been selected randomly from two different classes. Both male and female subjects were basically students in the same year of study and doing the same courses. All students must pass a proficiency test as an admission requirement according to the regulations of the ministry of higher education in Saudi Arabia and according to their scores in this proficiency test, they accepted in the college programs which means that all students are considered to be at the same proficiency level.

3.2 Research Design
By using the same texts for males and females, this study will try to examine the different in comprehending text by the two sexes males and females according the familiarity of the content. To do this we formed, a 2 x 2 design for the subjects, two sides for one for the male and another one for females and two types of text familiarity one is familiar and another one is unfamiliar). The scores that we got from multiple-choice questions are the dependent variable, this way considered the most common way in testing reading comprehension.

3.3 Material data collection instruments
3.3.1 Two reading passages
In this research, two passages were used. They were adopted from the internet (websites related to the different cultures and background of Britain and Saudi Arabia with no sign that they are related in any way or have any relationship with males or females. We were tried to make sure that they are not gender bias. Also, the two passages can show a high degree of familiarity and unfamiliarity, and also show a descriptive top-level.

One of these passages contained 340 words, and it is titled as London Icons: The Red Telephone Box (Luxford, 2018). It is assumed to be the unfamiliar text in our study because it talks about the iconic red telephone box redundant the most enduring symbols of London and the United Kingdom today which its unpopular and unknown to Saudi Arabian students and public. ARABIC COFFEE (GAHWA ARABI) in Saudi Arabia by (DJAMIL, 2016) is the title of the other text of this study talking about that popular tradition of serving this special type of coffee in Saudi Arabia. In contrast with the first text, it is considered as familiar to students as a part of their daily life. For the unfamiliar passage, we presumed that Saudi students would not have much or even zero knowledge about it because it represents a special case in a very far area. Also, it is considered unpopular since the red boxes do not exist anymore and became a part of the British memories only.

3.3.2 Multiple-Choice Questions
Every passage has a multiple choice question test consisting of ten questions. The students were required to answer the questions after they had read the passages. Clear and simple instructions were given to the students about the nature of the test. In fact, the test time was restricted by 25 minutes to be finished. Also, extra ten minutes were divided equally for the pre and post-tests. Finally, we expressed our thanks for the students appreciating their volunteering and participation.
3.3.3 Pre- and Post-Test Questionnaires
To achieve a kind of credibility regarding familiarity since it is one of the core issues in the study and to measure the familiarity of both texts to the students, two short questionnaires were designed including short Yes/No questions. As can be seen in the tables below, the Pre-test questions were aiming at measuring the student’s familiarity of the two topics by asking them whether they have heard, read or watched the story. As a kind of reinforcement for the questionnaires, there was an extra questionnaire (the Post-Test) for both texts urging the students to compare the encountered information with their own knowledge.

**Table 1: Pre and Post tests for the familiar passage (Gahwa Arabi)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire Items</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Not sure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Have you heard the name Gahwa Arabi?</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>100.0 %</td>
<td>0.0 %</td>
<td>0.0 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>100.0 %</td>
<td>0.0 %</td>
<td>0.0 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Have you heard the story of the Gahwa Arabi?</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>72.5 %</td>
<td>15.5 %</td>
<td>12.5 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>81.5 %</td>
<td>5.25 %</td>
<td>13.25 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Have you read any report about the Gahwa Arabi?</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>71.25 %</td>
<td>9.25 %</td>
<td>19.5 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>83.25 %</td>
<td>8.25 %</td>
<td>9.5 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Have you watched any documentary about the Gahwa Arabi?</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>95.5 %</td>
<td>3.5 %</td>
<td>1.0 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>98.25 %</td>
<td>0.0 %</td>
<td>2.75 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Post test

| Complete new knowledge | Male | Female | 0.0 % | 0.0 % |
| Mostly new knowledge | Male | Female | 0.0 % | 0.0 % |
| Have new and have old | Male | 12.5 % | 8.0 % |
| Mostly old knowledge | Male | 25.5 % | 18.75 % |
| Complete old knowledge | Male | 72.0 % | 73.25 % |

**Table 2: Pre and Post Tests for the unfamiliar passage (Red Box).**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire Items</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Not sure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Have you heard the name Red Box?</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>15.0 %</td>
<td>72.5 %</td>
<td>12.5 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>0.0 %</td>
<td>100.0 %</td>
<td>0.0 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Have you heard the story of the Red Box?</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>31.25 %</td>
<td>31.25 %</td>
<td>37.5 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>6.25 %</td>
<td>56.25 %</td>
<td>37.5 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Have you read any report about the Red Box?</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>31.25 %</td>
<td>62.5 %</td>
<td>6.25 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>12.5 %</td>
<td>68.75 %</td>
<td>18.75 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Have you watched any documentary about the Red Box?</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>31.25 %</td>
<td>25.0 %</td>
<td>43.75 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>25.0 %</td>
<td>62.5 %</td>
<td>12.5 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Post test

| Complete new knowledge | Male | Female | 40.25 % | 37.5 % |
Mostly new knowledge 32.75 % 40.75 %
Have new and have old 12.5 % 12.0 %
Mostly old knowledge 10.0 % 8.75 %
Complete old knowledge 4.5 % 1.75 %

3.4 Procedures
The data collection was conducted on Saudi Bachelor degree students at Northern Border university. There were two groups for each gender. The first group was of 16 males who formed two groups in a random way. The other group of female students which was also of 16 was split up in the same way forming another two groups. The four groups performed comprehension tests. On the sake of this study purpose, two groups; one male and one female, performed the test on the familiar topic ARABIC COFFEE (GAHWA ARABI) and the other two groups did that on an unfamiliar topic (London Icons: The Red Telephone Box). The participants were given 35 minutes to finish the tasks including the pre and the post-tests which were given 5 minutes for each.

3.5 Data Collection and Analysis
The data collected was based on the students’ performance based on their comprehension of the test questions. After having the data, we moved to the next step which is the analysis looking for the best possible techniques through which we can get a clear picture and manage to provide answers to the research questions. In order to achieve that goal, the famous two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used as the first step to provide us with some results and get us closer to understand the nature of the influence of our independent variables on the process of reading comprehension and understanding. For the second step which is considered as a complement for this study seeking to achieve the rest of the aims and answer the questions as clear as possible, we are using t-tests to be applied on each of the independent variables.

4. RESULTS
Gender and content familiarity were the two independent variables investigated in this study in order to see their influence as well as their importance to the readers in terms of achieving that goal of understanding and comprehension. The final scores of both male and female participants were put under observation and analysis they can provide us with the necessary information we need. As mentioned above, certain ways of analysis were used to investigate the main concerns of this study represented by the research questions. The first analysis through the two-way ANOVA testing systems was used to answer the first question that is considered as the core issue related to that influencing rule of both content familiarity and gender difference on the dependent variable (reading comprehension). (Table 3) explains that relation and influence in the language of numbers through the two-way ANOVA test.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3: Two-Way ANOVA results for the effects of the IVs</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>MEAN SQ.</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>SIG.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Familiarity</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>28.125</td>
<td>5.243</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>6.31</td>
<td>12.500</td>
<td>11.798</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>12.500</td>
<td>11.798</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>10.125</td>
<td>4.247</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender x Familiarity</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10.125</td>
<td>4.247</td>
<td>.049*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>2.384</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results showed remarkable differences in terms of text familiarity and its relation with the comprehension performance scores. That can be easily noticed from the means score which is noticeably different and higher for the familiar text with 6.31 than the unfamiliar one with 4.43. In other words, the participants performed better when the text was familiar. By having a close look, we can say that Table 3 reveals that the numbers are not even close in the case of male and female students’ total
comprehension performance regardless the familiarity of the content. It can be seen clearly that males obtained 4.75 while females got 6 which shows that female participants performed better than male students.

That tells us that gender differences exist and that is a strong influencing factor in the process of comprehension. Moreover, it is noticeable that there is no remarkable interaction between the two independent variables and such thing does not affect the reading comprehension scores.

Table 4, which was designed for further analysis and to give us a closer look using t-tests testing system, measures independent samples to confirms that the issue of gender difference is an influencing factor in the process of reading.

Table 4: T-tests results for independent samples of Gender for each type of text

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TYPE OF TEXT</th>
<th>GENDER</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>MEAN</th>
<th>STD. DEVIATION</th>
<th>TVALUE</th>
<th>SIG. (2 TAILED)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Familiar text</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6.250</td>
<td>1.48805</td>
<td>0.213</td>
<td>.835</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6.375</td>
<td>.74402</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfamiliar text</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.250</td>
<td>2.12132</td>
<td>2.582</td>
<td>.022*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5.625</td>
<td>1.50594</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table shows significant differences between male and female participants in terms of text familiarity with the familiar text which can be clearly notices at the alpha level of .05 (p = .835). In the unfamiliar text (London Icons: The Red Telephone Box), the case is quite similar. The number is different, but still there is a variation in terms of gender with the unfamiliar. The overall result shows that female students outperformed the male participants in this comprehension test, as it can be seen from the mean scores achieved.

![Figure 5: The responses of both male and female students toward the familiar and unfamiliar texts.](image)

4.1 Limitation of the study
No English proficiency test was conducted for the student, and that might affect the accuracy of testing. That might explain the wide differences between males and females in reacting to the two texts. The level of proficiency can interfere strongly in
answering the MCQs, which may lead to create a variety in comprehending the two texts and finally some answers appeared to be better than others.

5. CONCLUSION
The main concern of this work was to understand the nature or the influence both gender and familiarity, the independent variables in this study, have on the process of reading and on the way students interact with the text to achieve comprehension. To achieve that goal, two types of tests were conducted in an attempt to answer the three questions of this research. As has been mentioned above and after using two popular ways of analysis, the results showed that there were differences between the participants from both genders assuming that the issue of gender difference is really important to be taken into consideration. Moreover, the results confirmed those of previous studies that content familiarity plays the role of facilitating comprehension performance regardless gender difference. Since this research, like other research papers in the field of education, aims at the development of the educational system, it strongly recommends that gender differences should be taken into consideration by teachers and educators of all levels. This is important in order to fill this gender gap and to maintain equal opportunities for both genders.

REFERENCES
Language Attitudes: An Overview
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ARTICLE INFO
Received: September 12, 2019
Accepted: October 11, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.13

ABSTRACT
It was not until 1960 with Lambert, Hodgson, Gardner and Fillebaum that linguists started being scientifically interested in people’s views about a language or a dialect and its associations, which were given the name of language attitudes. The present paper addresses this issue by defining language attitudes and why it is important to study how people feel about a linguistic variety and its associations. Reference is made to the several ways of measuring attitudes proposed at times, along with the criticism that has led linguists to support different movements. The main driving force behind this disagreement is based on the question whether attitudes towards a linguistic code lead people to use or abandon it. This overview constitutes an effort to bring the most important matters around language attitudes together and give an impetus to linguists to engage with this field.

KEYWORDS
language attitudes, measurement, behaviourist movement, mentalist movement, language use, language behaviour, onset, development, shift, change

1. INTRODUCTION
‘Attitude’ is an abstract notion of social psychology that has raised doubts over research on it in the field of linguistics and other fields. Such problematic considerations on the issue of attitudes lie in the difficulty of their identification and, consequently, their measurement. Despite all the disagreement on what attitude is and how it can be captured by experimenters, some conclusions have received support. Oppenheim (1992) admits that “most researchers seem to agree that an attitude is a state of readiness, a tendency to respond in a certain manner confronted with certain stimuli” (p. 174). Similarly, Garrett, Coupland and Williams (2006) argue that: “We take it as axiomatic, then, that an attitude is an evaluative orientation to a social object of some sort, but that, being a ‘disposition’, an attitude is at least potentially an evaluative stance that is sufficiently stable to allow it to be identified and in some sense measured” (p. 3). Then, as for language attitudes, Baker (1992) claims that they constitute views about “language groups, a language itself, its features, uses, cultural associations [and] learning a language” (p. 17).

Throughout the years, the issue of language attitudes has been the topic of many researchers who are concerned with the social psychology of language, since it may affect the behaviour of a speaker, but also their identity. If we accept that language is an ‘intimate part’ (McGroarty, 1996) or a ‘symbol’ (Kerswill, 1994) of social identity, then, negative attitudes towards someone’s language may make them feel hatred towards it and want to hide or change it. Besides, as Pütz (1995) claims, detesting a language leads to detest all its associations—identity, culture, speakers, etc. Thus, language attitudes can determine the future of that
variety which may be “restoration, preservation, decay or death” (Baker, 1992, p. 9). If people are in favour of a language, they will protect it and pass it from one generation to another. But, if they do not like it, they will let it die.

2. APPROACHING LANGUAGE ATTITUDES
Based on the agreement that an attitude can be measured and, at the same time, being challenged by the difficulty in doing so, researchers from different disciplines have already approached the issue in numerous ways. Each of these has received credit and criticism as well, and they must be studied analytically by a researcher, before making any decisions. Scientists have approached the issue of attitudes in several ways and, from time to time, various distinctions have been made between the different measures. In 1964, Cook and Selitiz referred to five kinds of them: a) ‘measures in which inferences are drawn from self-reports of beliefs, feelings, behaviors, etc.’, b) ‘measures in which inferences are drawn from observation of overt behavior’, c) ‘measures in which inferences are drawn from the individual’s reaction to or interpretation of partially structured stimuli’, d) ‘measures in which inferences are drawn from performance of ‘objective’ tasks’, and e) ‘measures in which inferences are drawn from physiological reactions to the attitudinal object or representations of it’. But, through time, the distinction of approaches to language attitudes that prevailed is the one proposed by Ryan, Giles and Hewstone (1988). According to it, approaches to language attitudes fall into three groups: direct measures, indirect measures and societal treatment. All of them have already been used by linguists all over the world, despite their strengths and weaknesses.

2.1 Indirect measures
These are the ones have been mostly employed and criticised. Dawes and Smith (1985) distinguished between three types of indirectly measuring attitudes: a) participants’ observation without being aware of it, b) observation of aspects of uncontrolled human behaviour, and c) questioning participants in a deceptive way that does not reveal the true purpose of the study. However, the most widely used method in measuring language attitudes—the matched-guise technique—was introduced in 1960 by Lambert, Hodgson, Gardner and Fillenbaum in an effort to examine attitudes of the community of Montreal towards English and French.

“The matched-guise technique is the use of recorded voices of people speaking first in one dialect or language and then in another; that is, in two ‘guises’. [...] The recordings are played to listeners who do not know that the two samples of speech are from the same person and who judge the two guises of the same speaker as though they were judging two separate speakers.” (Gaies & Beebe, 1991, p. 157)

Generally, judgments are based on a semantic-differential scale of bipolar adjectives (e.g. friendly/unfriendly, educated/ineducated etc). Adjectives are sometimes collected by conducting a ‘pool study’ where you choose adjectives from the ones used by previous studies, or a pilot study where participants are asked to give positive or negative qualities regarding a linguistic variety. Paltridge and Giles (1984) came to the conclusion that evaluation traits can come under the categories of ‘superiority’, ‘attractiveness’ or ‘dynamism’ of the linguistic variety(ies) under investigation. On the other hand, Zahn and Hopper (1985) referred to
evaluation in terms of ‘speaker status’, ‘speaker solidarity’ (or social attractiveness) and ‘speaker integrity’.

An adapted version of the matched-guise technique that has been used to measure children’s attitudes was proposed by Rosenthal (1974)—the ‘Magic Boxes’—where two disguised ‘talking’ boxes represented people using different varieties. Schneiderman (1976) preferred a puppet-show version of the technique, where two guised puppets were used as stimuli to assess children’s attitudes.

The main reason why a researcher should choose an indirect approach to language attitudes is that since the participants are not aware of the true purpose, they are free—from social stereotypes or inhibitions—to express their true, inner feelings. Prejudices and effects of stereotyping are assessed without destroying their natural form by describing it to the subjects (Ladegaard, 1998). Moreover, a matched-guise experiment takes place in pre-arranged settings, consequently, its results can be comparable with other similar studies. On the other hand, evaluations of set-up events based on given attributes cannot stand as representative of attitudes towards real-life events. Besides, the repetition of the same message may lead the participants to infer the true purpose of the study, or the pre-prepared speeches may not sound authentic, especially if they are presented as monologues (Kramer, 1964). Additionally, the evaluation items may be perceived differently by the judges, but also, there is an ethical consideration behind ‘fooling’ the participants over the exact target of the experiment. This last limitation can be balanced through debriefing after the data collection process is completed.

2.2 Direct measures
Direct measures are those that ask people what they believe of a linguistic variety in a straightforward way. Studying the existing literature, one notices that questionnaires, interviews and polls of direct questions have been a common tool for measuring languages attitudes. Except for open-ended, multiple-choice and two-way questions, direct measures make use of two rating scales: Thurstone and Likert. The former one requires from the participants to divide a number of statements collected from a pool study or a pilot study, according to their favourability. In the latter, people are asked to rate the statements, pointing out the degree of their agreement with them (Garrett et al., 2006).

What is also worth-mentioning is that folklinguistics (or perceptual dialectology), with Dennis Preston as the leading figure, has proposed another kind of direct measurement of language attitudes. Unlike other direct measures, folklinguistics emphasises on the presence of context. The context is equally important in other discourse-analytic approaches discussed below. It studies attitudes as represented in language use, variation and articulation of perceived difference between varieties and their geographical distribution, through the use of maps, imitation talk and discourse analysis (Preston, 1993; 1999; Miłobóg & Garrett, 2011; Kraut, 2014). Preston (1999), on investigating attitudes towards U.S. regional varieties, asked people to draw maps, illustrating the different dialect regions of the
United States and to evaluate their degree of ‘correctness’, ‘pleasantness’ and ‘difference’ in relation to their regional variety. Garrett (2009) conducted a study on Chinese and Japanese people’s attitudes towards Englishes, asking participants to write down the names of countries where English is a native language and give words that characterise each of these spoken varieties (e.g. fun, intelligent, irritating and snobbish).

Studying closely direct approaches to language attitudes, the advantages of obtrusiveness (the experimenters receive direct answers on the issue, rather than making inferences that may not represent reality), anonymity, uniformity of responses and time flexibility come to the surface. At the same time, with direct evaluations the experimenter runs the risk of getting accounts that do not match people’s reality, especially when referring to the behavioural component which is better grasped in actual language use. Asking direct questions, “respondents have an idea of which answers are socially desirable. Not wishing to appear deviant, they hide their true feelings and bend their answers to conform to a model of how they ought to answer” (Henerson et al., 1987, p. 135). Also, the questions are hypothetical, therefore the answers are hypothetical, too. Additionally, in oral surveys, the language of the experimenter or the phenomenon of the Observer’s Paradox could be biasing factors in the respondents’ answers (Knops & van Hout, 1988; Garrett et al., 2006).

2.3 Societal treatment
Societal treatment entails content analysis of how people treat a linguistic variety along with its associations within society. This can be achieved through observation, ethnographic methods and analysis of public documents concerning language policy, advertisements, literary texts, public signs etc. (Garrett et al., 2006). Although such a kind of approach is found to be quite rare in traditional research of language attitudes, it has started gaining support by new researchers due to its engagement with discourse-analytic methods.

“Discourse analysts do what people in their everyday experience of language do instinctively and largely unconsciously: notice patternings of language in use and the circumstances (participants, situations, purposes, outcomes) with which these are typically associated” (Trappes-Lomax, 2004, p. 133). The importance of context in attitude research has been pointed out very early. Rokeach (1968) claims: “The splitting off of attitude-toward-situation from attitude-toward-object has severely retarded the growth of attitude theory. It has resulted in unsophisticated attempts to predict behavior accurately on the basis of a single attitude-toward-object, ignoring the equally relevant attitude-toward-situation” (p. 119). However, such approaches have not been widely used. This movement (Potter & Wetherell, 1987; Gee, 1992; etc.) has shifted from traditional approaches that offer “a view of language as a direct reflection of what goes on in a person’s mind to a means of constructing the social world, or versions of it, in the course of everyday interactions” (Hyrkstedt & Kalaja, 1998, p. 347).

The main benefit of the societal treatment approach lies in that it may offer a more complete picture of the status of the linguistic variety within a community. Moreover, language observations in
real situations give more accurate results, since the data are gathered naturally and not via set-up settings. At the same time, in some cases, the researcher saves time and space. However, problems concerning reliability and validity of the societal treatment prevent linguists from making use of it. The fact that it occurs naturally enables neither the replication of the process nor the exclusion of external variables that could cause troubles to the whole experimental process. Also, discourse analysis is applied qualitatively, giving general information on favourability/unfavourability of a linguistic code (Hyrkstedt & Kalaja, 1998; Garrett 2010).

3. LANGUAGE ATTITUDES AND LINGUISTIC BEHAVIOUR
The issue of attitudes has given rise to two main movements: the mentalist and the behaviourist. According to the mentalist approach, the attitude includes three components: the cognitive, the affective and the behavioural (Edwards 1982). The cognitive component refers to beliefs or practical functions that are further embraced by an entity, the affective component concerns feelings, and the behavioural component is the part that drives an individual’s actions towards a certain direction. On the contrary, behaviourists claim that attitude can be grasped only by observing human behaviour (Fasold 1984). From this model and similar ones proposed (Krathwohl et al., 1964; Kerlinger, 1986), two issues arise. On the one hand, if the attitude has different components, these components are ‘distinguishable’ (Breckler 1984). On the other hand, while the cognitive and the affective components have received universal acceptance, the behavioural has brought forth the question on whether attitudes—which are first and foremost feelings, views and beliefs—lead humans to behave accordingly.

While some researchers find that attitudes work as predictors of behaviour and an individual’s attitude towards an object matches the way he/she acts towards it, some others disagree. They claim that sometimes people do not act according to their feelings, due to several reasons. They point out that “there is no theoretical reason to expect congruence between words and deeds, and, in fact, every reason to expect discrepancies” (Albrecht & Carpenter, 1976, p. 1). Baker (1992) believes that “attitudes OFTEN manage to summarise, explain and predict behaviour. Knowing someone’s attitudes to alcohol, for example, MAY sum up likely behaviour in a range of contexts over time” (p. 11). This happens due to the fact that people ‘disguise’ their true attitudes intentionally, or attitudes are misleading in depicting a speaker’s language use. Garrett (2010) adds that in order to achieve a certain reaction from the interlocutor, people ‘fashion’ their language “to be seen as friendly, as intelligent, as being a member of a particular community” (p. 21-22).

What is even more interesting about the attitude-behaviour relationship is the fact that it is not one-directional. Mummendey (1983) poses the following question: “Predicting behavior from attitudes, or attitudes from behavior?” (p. 143). According to Mummendey’s review, there are a number of studies that tried to investigate people’s behaviour in an effort to unfold their attitudes, but very few managed to do it in the end.
3.1 Attitudes and behaviour are related

Faris (1928) says that “an attitude is a tendency to act” (p. 277) and Allport (1967) claims that “an attitude characteristically provokes behavior that is acquisitive or avertive” (p. 8). Moreover, Bain (1930) argues:

“Certainly, ‘attitude’ is not more vague and ill-defined than ‘trait’ [...]. While it must be confessed that most writers use such terms as attitude, trait, opinion, wish, interest, disposition, desire, bias, preference, prejudice, will, sentiment, motive, objective, goal, idea, ideal, emotion, and even instinct and reflex, loosely, indefinitely, and often interchangeably, yet it must also be admitted that there is a core of common meaning in all such usages. These, and other similar terms, refer to acquired and conditioned action-patterns that motivate human social behavior.” (p. 356)

As Corey alleges, attitudes—as opinions solely—“are of limited practical value unless they presage behavior” (1937, p. 271). Evidence for the existence of a relationship between attitude and behaviour has been provided by DeFleur and Westie (1958). On dealing with the attitude-behaviour relationship, the researchers distinguished between three dimensions: ‘verbal’, ‘autonomic-physiological’ and ‘overt’. DeFleur and Westie’s work constitutes an effort to develop an instrument to measure “the salience of a person’s attitudinal orientations” (p. 667); i.e. a person’s readiness to turn their verbal expression of attitude into action. Another study that provided evidence for the proportional relationship between attitudes and behaviour was conducted by Jahn (1999). In examining the Croatian community of Istria (northern Adriatic), it was observed that people’s negativity in introducing Croatian as the standard language led to the use of non-standard varieties. Additionally, investigating adolescents’ attitudes, Ladegaard (2000) found that people who use the vernacular are those with a positive attitude towards it. Furthermore, Shameem (2004) studied attitudes towards and use of different linguistic varieties spoken in multilingual Fiji (English, Fijian and Hindi). “Language attitudes shape language behaviour” (p. 154) was the researcher’s conclusion. Also, Garcia (2005) made research on parents’ language attitudes and behaviour living in Paraguay towards Spanish and Guaraní (indigenous variety). The interviews revealed that both varieties are highly estimated and used.

Agreement between attitudes and use was also found in even more recent studies: Loredo Gutiérrez et al. (2007), Mettewie & Janssens (2007), Safont Jordà (2007), Themistocleous (2007), Anderbeck (2010), Chakrani & Huang (2012).

3.2 Attitudes and behaviour are unrelated

LaPiere (1934), in his discussion on attitudes and behaviour, argues that “by derivation social attitudes are seldom more than a verbal response to a symbolic situation” (p. 230). In this manner, he was the first to restrict attitude constituents into feelings, excluding actions. Going a step further, he stated that, in measuring attitudes, people may even report that they behave in a way which, being investigated in actual life, may be non-existent. LaPiere (1934) conducted an experiment by visiting a number of restaurants in the U.S., accompanied by a Chinese couple. Whereas only one of them denied access to the couple, when they were sent a letter
being asked whether they would allow Chinese people entering their restaurant, 90% gave a negative response. Years later, Kutner, Wilkins and Yarrow (1952) conducted a similar testing, avoiding previous pitfalls. The same procedure was followed and the same results were obtained. A few years later, Wicker (1969), taking both views into consideration, came to conclude that “it is considerably more likely that attitudes will be unrelated or only slightly related to overt behavior than that attitudes will be closely related to actions” (p. 65).

Jaspaert and Kroon’s work (1988) is one of the studies that observed a mismatch between language attitudes and language use. Correlation analysis of the collected data showed that “attitude explains 18% of the variance in the dependent variable” (p. 160). In addition, Choi (2003) confirmed that Paraguayan adolescents hold positive attitudes towards the non-standard variety, but they do not use it.

In another research, dealing with the relationship between language attitudes and language use, Kuncha and Bathula (2004) examined the issue of language shift within the Telugu (an Indian variety) immigrant community in New Zealand. Generally, two important conclusions were brought to surface: a) 95% of Telugu mothers and children hold favourable attitudes towards their mother tongue, but, b) Telugu is used 85%, at home and undergoes a decline from mother to the first child and then to the second. On the contrary, English is used 100%. Further studies supporting attitude-behaviour mismatch include Irish people’s attitudes and use of English and Irish, where although favourable feelings are held towards Irish, it is not part of people’s language use (Ó Laoire, 2007). “This seemingly strong belief, however, may constitute more of a passive stance rather than a proactive attitude. […] Irish is not considered important when it comes to carrying out the everyday activities” (p. 181).

Trudgill (1972) claimed that the mismatch between how people view a variety and its use has to do with overt and covert prestige. ‘Overt prestige’ is the value attributed to a variant “that people are highly aware of and which is associated more with the speech of higher-status speakers”, being evaluated as better. On the other hand, ‘covert prestige’ refers to a variant to which people give credit without being aware of that, by using it. This often relates to non-standard varieties (Meyerhoff, 2009, p. 37-38).

3.3 Attitudes and behaviour are negatively related

Except for studies that provided evidence for a match or a mismatch between language attitudes and behaviour, there are cases that brought to the surface a more interesting nature of this relationship. To exemplify, Dede (2004) observed that while the assessment of the affective and the behavioural components showed negative attitudes towards the dialect, the cognitive component showed positive stances. These findings strengthen Breckler’s view (1984) that each component is distinguishable from the rest. Even more, Baker (1992) alleges that “the cognitive and affective components of attitude may not always be in harmony” (p. 12). Thus, apart from the possibly existent mismatch between attitude and behaviour
that has received immense attention, there seems to be a mismatch between cognition and affect that brings a dichotomy within the attitude.

3.4 Factors influencing the attitude-behaviour relationship

Within this ‘blurry’ situation, some researchers ended up supporting the relationship between attitude and behaviour, but drawing attention to other influential factors. Ajzen and Fishbein (1977) stated that attitude may be a crucial factor that determines a person’s behaviour (although it is not the only one). Byrne and Kelley (1981) added emotional, informational and imaginative responses, as well as expectancies. Attitudes are important, but they do not always govern people’s actions. In this way, an attitude is considered as “evaluation of the entity in question” (Ajzen & Fishbein 1977, p. 889), rather than a disposition to act in a certain way as alleged by the opposing movement.

But, for researchers to be consistent in claiming that attitude and behaviour are related, they must make sure that attitude measurement corresponds to behaviour measurement in terms of action, target, context and time to the greatest extent possible. This view was expressed by Schuman and Johnson (1976) who claimed that “the most generally accepted hypothesis for improving A-B [attitude-behaviour] consistency is that attitudinal and behavioral variables should be measured at the same level of specificity” (p. 170-171). Support to this comes from studies where participants reported positive stances towards a linguistic variety and use of it, but its use is restricted to certain functions associated with it, rather than in all contexts of communication (Shameem, 2004; Gardner-Chloros et al., 2005).

Further, in approaching the issue of attitude-behaviour, scientists supported the interference of other variables in this relationship and proposed several models in approaching the issue. DeFleur and Westie (1958) brought forward the ‘contingent consistency’ approach. According to this view, constraints imposed by society and the feeling of being under the pressure of the watchful eye of social norms affect a person’s expressed attitudes and actual behaviour, and consequently the relationship between the two. After all, attitudes are learned through ‘human socialisation’ (Garrett et al., 2006), therefore they are always under its control.

Later, Fishbein (1963) introduced the concept of ‘behaviour intentions’. According to Fishbein’s model, behaviour can be predicted if behavioural intentions are tested too. Behavioural intention involves the attitude towards acting out certain behaviour, norms that are associated with that specific behaviour and the individual’s willingness to conform to those imposed beliefs. Albrecht and Carpenter (1976) tried to test the effectiveness of the two models, by measuring attitudes, behavioural intentions, normative beliefs and behaviour, making comparisons. Their experiment indicated that both approaches are useful in drawing interrelations between attitude and behaviour.

Mummendey (1983) refers to four kinds of models: ‘simple relation models’ (behaviour serves as expression of attitude towards an object and the situation), ‘interaction models and models of contingent consistency’ (DeFleur and Westie’s model), ‘the Fishbein model’ and ‘structural
models’ (use path analysis in predicting behaviour). Additionally, in 1981, Jaccard suggested the ‘behavioral alternative model’, according to which an individual has access to behavioural alternatives and in each case he/she “will choose to perform that [...] toward which the most positive attitude is held” (p. 303). Finally, Fazio (1990), with his MODE model, argued that Motivation and Opportunity are Determinants in people’s attitudes leading to overt behaviour.

Linguists investigating language attitudes and language use share the same concerns as the ones already expressed about what people believe of a linguistic variety and whether they make use of it. Since attitude-behaviour relationship constitutes a problem for psychology, why should not this be the case with language attitudes and linguistic behaviour relationship for linguistics? Several studies conducted so far managed first and foremost to bring disagreement among linguists. Whereas in some contexts empirical evidence revealed that favourability towards a code leads people to take supportive actions to it—and unfavourability to its avoidance—in some other cases, the results showed that language attitudes and linguistic behaviour do not match. McGroarty (1996), as support to her view on the interconnection between language attitudes and language use, declares that instances of mismatch between the two appear due to modifications of speech, as a result of social constraints. Modifications of language use refer to ‘accommodation theory’ (Giles & Clair, 1979). Accommodation can be convergent, which takes place when an individual holds positive attitudes towards a linguistic variety, or divergent when unfavourable attitudes are held.

Studying the results of all the aforementioned research and much more conducted on the doubtful relationship between attitude and behaviour, “we must conclude that there is no single answer to the question of whether attitudes are related to behavior” (Schuman & Johnson, 1976, p. 170). If inconsistency between expressed attitudes and overt actions is not a matter of unreliable methodology, then the truth is found in one—or both—of the following conclusions. Either “there is a tendency toward such consistency […] a probabilistic relation between holding certain beliefs and attitudes and manifesting certain behaviours” (Insko & Schopler, 1971, p. 27), or language attitudes better work as “predictors of future behavior”, since there will be no current context bias (Baker, 1992, p. 16).

4. LANGUAGE ATTITUDES DURING CHILDHOOD
From a sociolinguistic perspective, “a child must first realize that different languages exist, [and] that the words he uses constitute only one of many different ways of speaking. The second thing he learns is the social implications of speaking a particular language” (Aboud, 1976, p. 15). The ability to differentiate between languages or language varieties signifies that the child has possessed language awareness. Although initial studies on children’s language awareness concluded that children acquire this ability not earlier than at the age of five, later studies have shown that children distinguish between different
languages even from the age of three. Garrett, Coupland and Williams (2006) allege that language attitudes, like all other kinds of attitude, are learned through human socialisation and if they are acquired early in someone’s life, they are more likely to last longer.

4.1 Onset of language attitudes
Despite being an interesting topic for study, the onset of language attitudes does not seem to have attracted the interest of many linguists. One of the difficulties most likely preventing researchers from being engaged with such an issue is that different age groups need to be studied to find what one looks for. And even more difficult is the fact that children need to be approached in different ways. On the other hand, for years, it was thought that people become sensitive to social aspects of a language (or a dialect) not earlier than at the age of nineteen (Labov, 1966). However, worldwide research conducted later on the issue of children’s language attitudes provided evidence that even pre-school children do express attitudes towards linguistic codes (Rosenthal, 1974; Schneiderman, 1976; Mercer, 1977; Cremona & Bates, 1977; Day, 1980).

To begin with, Rosenthal (1974) aimed at finding out when American monolingual children start discriminating between Standard English (SE) and Black English (BE), and expressing preference for the two codes. For this study, children from three to five years old were involved in three tasks. The overall result of this study was that, even at this age, people form attitudes towards linguistic varieties. Rosenthal (1974) found out that children attributed higher socio-economic status to the standard variety. However, in expressing their preference, black children preferred the BE speaker and white children preferred the SE speaker. A further assumption made in the study is that children’s language attitudes are influenced by adults (parents, teachers and television) who “condition young children to regard SE as superior and BE as inferior” (p. 52).

Like Rosenthal (1974), Mercer (1977) aimed at examining children’s ability to discriminate between their mother tongue and a foreign language (English/French), between varieties of their language (SE/English with a French accent) and between two foreign languages (French/Greek). Again, the subjects ranged from three to five years old and they were monolingual speakers of English. The results revealed that by the age of three to four, children can differentiate between their mother tongue and a foreign language and, a year later, they can recognise different varieties of the same language. By contrast, discrimination between two foreign languages appears after the age of six.


4.2 Development of language attitudes
Rosenthal’s study (1974) has been an important piece of work since it constituted the starting point of later researchers. Schneiderman (1976) adopted a puppet-show version of the ‘Magic Boxes’ technique, where two guised puppets were used as stimuli to assess bilingual Welland French children’s ethnic and language attitudes towards
English and French, at the age of three to twelve. What was found out is that “female subjects appear quite stable, preferring the French puppet at all age levels. Boys in nursery school are pro-English [...] Males begin to favour the French puppet from the grade 1 level on. [...] At the grade 2 level and beyond there is little difference in the degree of French preference exhibited by males and females” (p. 35).

Another piece of research that engaged with the development of children’s language attitudes was carried out by Cremona and Bates (1977). The researchers examined southern Italian children’s attitudes towards their dialect and Standard Italian. The difference with the previous studies lies in the participants’ age which ranged from six to ten years old. Children start forming attitudes towards their languages very early and, by the age of eight, they “reject their local dialect at close to 100% level”, which they describe as ‘bad’ and ‘abnormal’ (p. 230). Their language production rejects dialect even earlier, although some features never stop being used. Another observation is that boys use dialect more, although they still dislike this code. A similar conclusion was drawn by van Bezooijen (1994), in his study on Dutch children’s attitudes at the age of seven to ten. At this age, the standard variety is preferred over regional varieties.

Another more recent study on children’s (and parents’) attitudes was conducted by Shah and Anwar (2015) in Pakistan. Investigating sixth- to eighth-graders’ attitudes towards Punjabi (local variety which is the mother tongue), Urdu (the national variety) and English (the international language), it was observed that children hold negative attitudes towards the non-standard variety since they regard it as the language of lower-class and uneducated villagers. Instead, these children favour the standard variety as it signifies a high social and educational status and it stands as a symbol of national identity. Similarly, English is perceived as the most superior variety. What is important to add is that parents share these views and they believe that if their children use the local variety, they will not be able to master Urdu and English properly.

5. SHIFT AND CHANGE OF LANGUAGE ATTITUDES

“Attitudes change over time—rarely are they static”, Baker (1992) argues. The reasons for that vary from social or psychological to political. The latter justifies why language attitudes sometimes ‘should’ change; for example, “where a language is fighting for survival, encouraging positive attitudes becomes crucial” (p. 97). Or, as in the case of Namibia, the South African administration did not want the indigenous languages to develop, thus, it cultivated negative feelings towards them (De V. Cluver, 2000).

As for the social and psychological reasons for language attitudes change, Baker (1992) provides four possible driving forces behind language change which correspond to possible functions that attitudes may serve. The first one is when someone gets some kind of reward; the second one is the feeling for the psychological security a language makes you feel; the third one relates to personal values and the extent to which someone associates
language with identity; and the last one is the change of attitude in order to learn more about a language or its culture. Apart from personal motives, people may change their language attitudes due to social reinforcement when supporting a certain code, modelling of attitudes by parents, peers, teachers and media, or for the sake of harmony between perception of a code and its use in practice.

Further on, Baker (1992) comes to discuss in more detail the two most important factors of language attitudes’ change: age and personal environment. What is for sure is that attitudes are different at different points of someone’s life. Making reference to Celtic languages, Baker claims that teenage speakers have less favourable feelings towards the non-standard variety, whereas around forties they tend to go back to ‘past values’. Nonetheless, the shift does not come suddenly, but it evolves “slowly and gradually” (p. 106).

Then, it is interesting to study how people of the immediate environment can influence or cause such a change at these different periods. These people are family (parents and siblings), peers and teachers, but also, institutions and mass media. Among all these, the most crucial effect comes from ‘home language’. This concerns mainly children whose attitudes “tend to match, or be similar, to their parents” (Baker, 1992, p. 109). Parents pass attitudes to their children according to their experiences. “Thus parents who believe that they may have been stigmatized because of their own language are particularly eager to have their children acquire a standard language” (McGroarty, 1996, p. 19). The next most important influence comes from peers. This is more obvious at teenage period, since youth culture, as a current trend of the era we live, affects language issues. Additionally, school can play a crucial role in language attitudes’ change at that age, via the language used in the curriculum and by the teachers, as well as by the mass media. At a later point in someone’s life, influence may come from the work field or business transactions, and the status a variety appears to have within a community (Baker, 1992).

Linn and Piché (1986) used the matched-guise technique, where two recorded speeches in SE and BE were played to black and white adolescent and pre-adolescent students who evaluated them on a semantic differential scale. What the experimenters found is that while some years ago BE was underestimated, black and white people respect BE now and blacks are proud of their language. Contrarily, Bangeni and Kapp (2007) investigated the language attitudes of black university students during the first two years of their studies. The semi-structured interviews indicated that South Africans’ attitudes towards English shift during their studies in an English university environment. “Home discourses make way for the more dominant discourses of the institution which are perceived as being socially advantageous” (p. 266). Also, “English signifies social mobility” (p. 266), “education, culture and modernisation” (p. 254); primary values of people at this age.

6. CONCLUSION
The present paper offers an overview of the important aspects concerning language attitudes through the examination of various studies, theories and views. The purpose is to highlight what needs to be taken into account by language experts
researching this field. From this overview, one can realise that language attitudes towards all linguistic codes around the world are very significant and worth investigating since they determine a variety’s future. Different disciplines have proposed a number of ways in approaching this area. Linguists dealing with the issue of language attitudes have already shed light through their work on when people start forming attitudes, how these develop through an individual’s life and the factors that influence them. Therefore, the ultimate aim of this overview is to invite sociolinguists to engage with the field further in order to come up with stronger conclusions on language attitudes.

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Investigation of Interpreting Education at the Undergraduate Level in Turkey from the Angle of Interpreting Competences
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ARTICLE INFO
Received: September 24, 2019
Accepted: October 27, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.14

KEYWORDS
Interpreting, interpreter training, interpreting curriculum, interpreting competences, interpreting competence models, curriculum analysis

1.INTRODUCTION
Interpreting has been a requirement for the communication between different languages and cultures since the antiquity, and will continue to be a requirement in the future, as well. Interpreting, which has gained importance especially with the Nuremberg tribunals, has become a profession, for which professional training is offered worldwide. There are several translation and interpreting departments offering degree programs in different languages. The curricula of these departments differ from each other which were designed for the students with different language proficiencies and language backgrounds. All of them cannot be expected to offer the same curriculum; however, they are expected to comply with international standards for the required quality profile and competences. For achieving this compatibility, both academics and associations and academic alliances such as EMT², AIIC³ and CIUTI⁴

The effect of globalization is apparent in both interpreting profession and the market, as in all other professions. Thus, the fields of expertise and the requested languages are diversified, creating a demand for new knowledge and skills in the interpreting service. Knowledge and skills required in interpreting process become evident when the areas of interpreting are examined. In order to be comprehensible in these areas, arising with the phenomenon of globalization, professional interpreters, who have interpreting competence, are needed. Hence this study aims to analyze the extent to which the interpreting competences are given in the curricula of translation and interpreting departments in the light of current developments. Document analysis method was employed in the study as the data collection method to conduct an interpreting competency-oriented analysis of interpreting lessons offered in the translation and interpreting departments in Turkey. Interpreting courses in four state and two foundation universities offering bachelor degrees in translation and interpreting were selected as sample and then analyzed. The contents and objectives of the interpreting courses presented in these departments were employed as the corpus and analyzed with the content analysis method. Content analysis method was administrated as the data analysis method, in which themes and codes were structured based on the interpreting competence matrix and the learning objectives presented by Kautz (2002). The interpreting competence matrix was based on the interpreting competence models presented by Kutz (2010), Pöchhacker (2000) and Albl-Mikasa (2012). First of all, each university was taken into consideration one by one and competence-focused evaluation was conducted; the results were presented in graphs in terms of hours of courses. Afterwards, the analysis was detailed and the departments were compared with each other. The analysis revealed that interpreting competences were presented to the trainee interpreters at different degrees. In addition, it was uncovered that fewer lessons aiming to make the students gain emotional competence were presented in the analyzed departments, compared to other competences.
set various standards and competence models. Competence models in the literature presented by Höning (1991), PACTE (1997; 2003) and Göpferich (2008) attempt to shed light on the translation competences. However, it can be stated that translation competence, having a general structure, is not sufficient for explaining interpreting competences. Interpreting and translation have different processes. In addition, considering the settings in which interpreting is conducted, it can be inferred that interpreting is not only different from translation in terms of its instant nature, but also in regard to the settings as well as the roles that interpreters are involved in. Despite not presenting integrated competence models, researchers such as Kalina (1998) and Kautz (2010) identified the skills interpreters should have while describing interpreting process, and superficially mentioned as the required competences. However, an integrated approach to the interpreting competences have yet to come.

The main purpose of academic translation and interpreting education is to develop the competences required to translate and interpret. Thus, the objectives of education are vital in education planning. Course objectives, learning outcomes and learning targets are determined in curricula, especially after the Bologna Process. In this way, the competence the lesson aims to develop comes to light. Therefore, the specificity of competences is significant for education planning. The competences put forward in the translation studies are argued to cover both translation and interpreting. However, the academic studies conducted in translation and interpreting highlight the differences between these activities (See: Kalina, 1998; Pöchhacker, 2000). An integrated interpreting competence model can be noted to be insufficient considering the different settings in which interpreting is done. From this perspective, interpreting competences in the literature can be said to be updated by analyzing the interpreting settings. The opinions of the market representatives should also be taken into consideration for a realistic interpreting education. Thus it will be possible to structure a more efficient education by preparing curriculum considering the current needs of the market. In this regard, the current research investigates the current state of interpreting education in Turkey in terms of the interpreting competences.

The present study is structured as follows: The first section presents the interpreting competence models which were put forward in the literature. The second section presents the methodology of the study and gives information about the data collection and analysis methods. The third section lays out the findings of the content analysis. In the last section, the results of the analysis, discussions and suggestions are presented.

2. INTERPRETING COMPETENCE MODELS

Three interpreting competence models, which addresses the interpreting activity independently from translation, have been discussed in the literature. The first of these models is the interpreting competence model by Kutz (2002; 2010). This model has been developed by Leipzig School and has created the infrastructure of interpreting education in Germany during 1990s. The interpreting competence of Pöchhacker (2000) is a less detailed but more systemic model. The last model was put forward by Albl-Mikasa (2012) who based the model on the results of the interviews conducted with interpreters. This model can be stated to be the most comprehensive one among others, considering its experience-based nature.

2.1. INTERPRETING COMPETENCE MODEL OF KUTZ (2002)

The Leipzig School interpreting competence model of Kutz (2002) was discussed with different interpreting scholars and created the infrastructure of interpreting education in Germany starting from the beginning of 1990s. Kutz mentions the action competence by exemplifying interpreting education through driving education. Kutz highlights that what should be developed in the students is the harmonization and automation of knowledge, qualification and skills consisting of action competence and background knowledge. Kutz individually analyzes simultaneous and consecutive interpreting and mentions the common as well as different skills required for these interpreting types. The strategies and techniques used in these two types are different. He mentions the diversification between these two types based on communication, setting and function. Thus, he highlights the importance of settings and different factors by mentioning the different settings interpreting can take place. Considering the processes of simultaneous and consecutive interpreting, Kutz poses the sub competences in the interpreting competence model as follows:

- **Mother language competence** is the skill of comprehending what has been expressed in one’s mother language and forming sentences with the correct sentence structures.
- **Communication competence** denotes one’s ability to communicate appropriately in
Interpreter understands speakers by adapting to their social status and position and uses appropriate expressions.

- **Foreign language competence** refers to the proficiency in the working languages of an interpreter.
- **Emotional competence** refers to the ability of an interpreter to predict and understand the emotions of other people; in other words, the empathy. The emotional competence also includes the emotional management of the interpreter when she/he works under stress or faces negative criticism. Kutz argues that this competence is especially required when different cultures are met and interpreting is done. The emotional competence is also important for an interpreter to achieve successful communication in sensitive settings and subjects such as hospitals, asylum seekers/refugees, etc.
- **Logic competence** includes the intelligence used in the professional field. This competence forms with the knowledge and experience. It is defined as the problem solving skill when faced with unexpected problems during interpreting process.
- **Translation competence** is the ability of creating a function oriented translation by establishing a link between source and target texts. In fact, only translation is meant in this competence. It is also mentioned that this competence contributes to the development of interpreting competence.
- **Intercultural competence (culture competence)** is among the indispensable element for the researchers such as Pöchhacker (2000). According to this view, communication is firstly shaped in line with cultural factors such as different frames of mind or viewpoints. The interpreter should know how to look at the communication from the viewpoint of listeners in order to prevent possible misunderstandings.
- **Field competence** covers all the knowledge in certain fields. The meaning of a text in a certain field is only possible with the knowledge of the field. In addition, terminology information, which is important for the interpreting process, is included in the field knowledge (Kutz, 2010, p. 203).

### 2.2. INTERPRETING COMPETENCE MODEL OF PÖCHHACKER (2010)

Pöchhacker (2010) highlights the connection between the sub-competences in his interpreting competence model. The author expresses that linguistic and cultural skills are necessary for interpreting but not sufficient for accurate and reliable rendering (Pöchhacker, 2000, p. 44; 2003, p. 2). Apart from the cultural background and subject knowledge, knowledge of interpreting techniques is among the essential skills for interpreting. This competence model can be applied to various types of interpreting from conference interpreting to community interpreting. Processes before and after the interpreting are taken into account in this model, structured on the basis of linguistic and cultural competences.

Pöchhacker maintains that interpreters should behave considering the professional ethics during the communication before and after interpreting process (2000, p. 44). From this perspective, it can be inferred that professional behavior before, during and after the process is highly important for Pöchhacker. “Sachkompetenz” (field competence) was added to the 2000 model in 2003. The model is presented below in Figure 1:

**Figure 1: The Cylinder Model of Interpreting Competence**


The model has a cylinder shape and the relationship between the competences is reflected starting from the bottom to the top. The basic foundation of the model consists of linguistic competence and cultural competence. These competences shape translational competence which covers special techniques and behavior consciousness during interaction / communication moment. Field knowledge competence, consisting of institution knowledge, process and subject knowledge, is located in the area between the linguistic competence, cultural competence and the translation/transfer competence.
Translation competence, constituting the interpreting method, shapes the interpreting competence while the role and ethics, described as the professional behavior, form the interpreter competence (Pöchhacker, 2000, p. 5). The interpreter, having a deep command of both cultures and languages, is sometimes required to assume the role of an accompanying person, the role of a guide, the role of an advisor or the role of mediator. Apart from these roles, the interpreter is expected to adhere to professional standards. The professional ethics, prepared in this regard, is crucial. Interpreter has various responsibilities such as behaving in conformity with the professional ethics, not using the information gained during the interpreting for her/his own interests or for the pecuniary advantage, impartiality and protecting the professional secrets. Pöchhacker’s model was not designed for one specific interpreting type or setting. This model can be applied to different interpreting settings. Thus, it can be adapted to both conference and healthcare settings.

2.3. INTERPRETING COMPETENCE MODEL OF ALBL–MIKASA (2012) Albl-Mikasa put forward a competence model focusing on the process and the experience. Albl-Mikasa conducted interviews with professional interpreters while structuring this interpreting competence model. The interviewees in the study were 10 professional freelance conference interpreters working in Germany. Albl-Mikasa obtained information about the development of the interpreting competence of these interpreters via the answer they gave to the interview form consisting of 32 questions. By employing this method, Albl-Mikasa aimed to reach realistic and experience-based information related to the sub-competences by analyzing the competences from the experienced interpreters’ viewpoints. The researcher tried to determine how the interpreters refer to the concepts, found in the literature as the theoretical information. Albl-Mikasa created a competence model in order to analyze the data she obtained.

**Figure 2: Process- And Experienced-Based Model of Interpreter Competence**

Source: Albl-Mikasa, (2012, p. 63)

**Pre-process skills** cover the basic information the interpreters acquire in their professional life. These skills significantly affect the interpreting process. **Peri-process skills** constitute the second stage of the model, covering the individual skills. Peri-process skills are related to the in-process skills. **In-process skills** contain the basic interpreting process, and they are related to the comprehension, transfer and production skills. In-process skills are further analyzed under three headings.

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5 One of these interpreters works for EU, two of them work both for EU and in the market, and seven of them work only in the market. Two of the interpreters had over 30 years of experience, other two of them had over 20 years of experience. Six of the remaining interpreters had nearly 15 years of experience. Besides, eight of the interpreters were members of AIIC.
Para-process skills are mostly related to the individual characteristics of the interpreter. They also affect other processes. These skills constitute an important part of the interpreting, and they consist of process knowledge, customer relations and professional standards.

3. METHOD
Document analysis method was employed for the data collection method and the obtained data were analyzed with the content analysis method. A total of six translation and interpreting departments were selected as the sample for the analysis. Four state and two foundation universities offering bachelor degrees in translation and interpreting were selected with the help of national statistics on the success ratings of students enrolling to the universities. The presence of interpreting laboratory, success ratings of students and the language of instruction were the criteria for selecting the universities in the sample. Interpreting laboratory is important for introducing the students to the booths and providing them with a realistic learning environment. The departments with different language of instruction were chosen for the analysis corpus. Lastly, the success rating of students enrolling to the departments were chosen as the criteria for obtaining a general profile of interpreting education in Turkey. The departments accepting students with high, medium and low success ratings were determined. Among these departments, two departments, which have interpreting laboratory and different language of instruction, have been chosen to represent the success rating group. Then the learning outcomes and objectives of the interpreting lessons offered in these departments were collected with the document analysis method. This corpus was then analyzed with the content analysis method which was based on the interpreting competences.

Table 1: Translation and Interpreting Departments Based on the Success Rating of the Students Enrolled

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Success rating</th>
<th>Name of University</th>
<th>Type of University</th>
<th>Name of Department</th>
<th>Language of Instruction</th>
<th>Interpreting Laboratory</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HIGH</td>
<td>The Izmir University of Economics</td>
<td>Foundation</td>
<td>Translation and Interpreting</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hacettepe University</td>
<td>State</td>
<td>Translation and Interpreting</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MODERATE</td>
<td>Ege University</td>
<td>State</td>
<td>Translation and Interpreting</td>
<td>German</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Beykent University</td>
<td>Foundation</td>
<td>Translation and Interpreting</td>
<td>Russian</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOW</td>
<td>Mersin University</td>
<td>State</td>
<td>Translation and Interpreting</td>
<td>French</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kirikkale University</td>
<td>State</td>
<td>Translation and Interpreting</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Various criteria were applied in order to select the interpreting lessons. Firstly, it should be noted that different departments offer similar courses under different names; the objectives and the content of the courses were checked and then added to the corpus. Secondly, it was observed that some courses contribute both to translation and interpreting competence. However, as the exclusion of these courses would undermine the validity of the analysis, these courses were also added to the corpus. For instance, legal field knowledge course (offered under different names) contribute both to the legal translation course, which is a translation course, and to the courtroom interpreting, which is an interpreting course. The exclusion of this course will lead to the idea that the field competence is given to the learners less than it is actually offered in the curriculum. In order to prevent this situation, some of the courses contributing to the translation competence are included in the corpus. The themes and codes for the content analysis were determined after conducting literature review. Kutz
(2010), Pöchhacker (2000) and Albl-Mikasa (2012) are three studies presenting a competence model for interpreting. In addition, learning objectives for interpreting education put forward by Kautz (2000) were also taken into consideration in determination of the themes and codes. The themes corresponding to the interpreting competences were determined as follows: Linguistic competence, cultural competence, world knowledge, field competence, emotional competence, professional/ethical and market knowledge, and lastly transfer competence. The keywords used in the curriculum analysis, in other words, the codes are displayed below in Table 2:

Table 2: Themes and Codes used in the Content Analysis of the Interpreting Courses in the Curricula

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the Competence (Theme)</th>
<th>Keywords (Codes)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Linguistic Competence</td>
<td>Hearing, speaking, pronunciation, rhetoric, reproduction, summarization, avoiding misuse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Competence</td>
<td>Traditions, customs, rituals, speaking rituals, courtesy rules, daily life of the target culture. Political, economic, sociological and cultural structure of the target culture.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World Knowledge</td>
<td>Following current news, general culture competence, news.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field Knowledge</td>
<td>Subject knowledge, domain knowledge, terminology, research, basic concepts, expertise, field, application, information, institution, structure.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpreting Method Knowledge</td>
<td>Hearing, analyzing, understanding, analysis, production, method, technique, summarization, summary interpreting, note-taking, memory exercises, strategy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional/Ethical and Market Knowledge</td>
<td>Professional and ethical knowledge, teamwork, customer relations, remuneration, market, quality, specialization, professionalism, reliability, objectivity, working conditions, internship, profession.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Competency</td>
<td>Concentration, emotion management, empathy, strength.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Expert opinion and approval were taken in order to ensure the correctness of these themes and codes. Afterwards, a matrix was prepared on Microsoft Excel by pairing these themes and codes with the content and objectives of interpreting lectures. The obtained data were presented below section.

4. FINDINGS
In this section, the extent to which the interpreting competences are given in the curricula of the translation and interpreting departments is analyzed. The departments are compared with each other on the basis of competences their curricula offer. Thus a general view of interpreting education in Turkey is presented.

4.1. IZMIR UNIVERSITY OF ECONOMICS DEPARTMENT OF TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETING (ENGLISH)⁶
Department of Translation and Interpreting (English) in Izmir University of Economics started to offer degree program in 2004-2005 academic year. The interpreting laboratory in the department is stated to be high-technology. ⁷

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⁶ https://dti.ieu.edu.tr/tr/cur.is, date accessed: 20.02.2019
⁷ SmartClass Robotel+ language laboratory has been used by this department for the first time in Turkey (Çeviri Laboratuvarımız. The compulsory and elective courses contributing to the interpreting competence in this department are analyzed and classified in accordance with the themes and codes presented above in Table 2.

Linguistic Competence Courses at Izmir University of Economics, Department of Translation and Interpreting
Majority of the courses in the first semester contributing to the linguistic competence are compulsory. “English Academic Skills” course is presented in the first semester. This course aims to develop listening and speaking skills which are essential for interpreting. A second foreign language is offered to the students in the department until the fourth semester. French, German, Italian, Russian, Spanish, Japanese, Portuguese or Greek languages are offered and students can reach to B1 level in these languages. Aside from foreign language courses, the courses aiming to develop Turkish are also available in the curriculum. “Turkish Language” course aims to develop the students’ skills of expressing themselves in both spoken and written language. This course also aims to develop the students in various subject such as presentation skills,
body language and intonation. “English Basic Speaking Skills” course aims to develop speaking skills such as speaking fluently on various topics, participating in daily and official discussions and expressing one’s own ideas. “Professional Communication for Interpreters” aims to contribute to the fluent and effective expression in both Turkish and English. As a course contributing to the interpreting field, it is stated in the course content of this course that students do interpreting practices in some weeks. Lastly, “Discourse Analysis” course aims to teach students the methods and application of discourse analysis.

Cultural Competence Courses at İzmir University of Economics, Department of Translation and Interpreting

One elective and one compulsory course contribute to the cultural competence in the curriculum. “Comparative Language and Cultural Studies” course aims to raise the awareness of students on the importance and role of culture, Turkish and British culture, the effect of culture on language, and various subjects. Besides, in “Cultural Aspects of Translation and Interpretation”, written and spoken texts with cultural elements are presented to the students. The aim of the course is to teach students to develop strategies and methods of text analysis and translation.

Interpreting Method Knowledge Courses at İzmir University of Economics, Department of Translation and Interpreting

Courses contributing to the interpreting method knowledge are presented both compulsory and elective. Compulsory courses in the curriculum can be said to be the introductory courses to interpreting. “Sight Interpreting” course forms the basis for other interpreting types. For the development of effective listening and text analysis skills, students practice with techniques such as paraphrasing, chunking, expanding and condensing. “Introduction to Interpreting” course involves practices for effective listening, catching the main idea, inferring and summarizing, note-taking and memory exercises. “Interpreting Studies” course provides introductory information for the basic interpreting types. “Consecutive Interpreting” course aims to develop the strategies, note taking, active listening, transfer and body language skills. The skills acquired in this course are aimed to be applied in the advanced level. At the same time, the practice for improving the body language and intonation is made during the course. “Simultaneous Interpreting” course involves information on the equipment used in conference interpreting, the role of interpreter in the communication, customer relations and note-taking. Also, the techniques and strategies that can be used for possible problems encountered in the simultaneous interpreting are presented via the interpreting practices in Turkish and English.

Field Knowledge Courses at İzmir University of Economics, Department of Translation and Interpreting

Two elective field courses are offered in the curriculum to present students different skills and knowledge. One of these courses is “Community Interpreting”. Role, preparation before interpreting process, professional ethics, cultural differences, note-taking techniques and terminology studies are presented in this course. Besides, setting knowledge and interpreting techniques required in these settings are presented to students. “Terminology Studies for Conference Interpreting” is an elective course in the curriculum. This course aims to teach students how to access the terminology resources, use online terminology resources, research and prepare for the conference. Beyond these courses, the department offers “Simultaneous Interpreting Practice in Conference Settings”. The aim of this course is to prepare the students for interpreting in conference settings. The students interpret simultaneously both in the laboratory and in the real conference settings (in blind booth).

World Knowledge Courses at İzmir University of Economics, Department of Translation and Interpreting

All courses in the curriculum contributing to the world knowledge are compulsory. “Principles of Atatürk and History of Revolution” course presents information about the recent past of Turkey. At the end of the course, the students are expected to interpret the developments in the world with a broad perspective and discuss the global events. Apart from these, the students are required to take one course from each of the following fields: Natural and Life Sciences, Mathematics and Computer Science, Social Awareness and Ethics, Innovation and Entrepreneurship, Art and Communication, Economic Sciences.

8 The voice of the students does not reach the listeners.
9 General education courses involve a large scale of courses from different disciplines (Genel Eğitim Dersleri. https://dti.ieu.edu.tr/tr/pool, date accessed: 20.02.2019)
Professional/Ethical and Market Knowledge Courses at İzmir University of Economics, Department of Translation and Interpreting

“Elective Topics in Translation and Interpreting” course offers information about both translation and interpreting profession. The students are provided with information about the translation and interpreting market, professional rights and associations.

Graph 1: The Intensity (hour-based) of Elective Courses at İzmir University of Economics, Department of Translation and Interpreting Contributing to Interpreting Sub-competences

[Graph showing elective course hours with categories and total hours.

Graph 2: The Intensity (hour-based) of Compulsory Courses at İzmir University of Economics, Department of Translation and Interpreting Contributing to Interpreting Sub-competences

[Graph showing compulsory course hours with categories and total hours.

A total of 96 hours of courses presented either as compulsory or elective contribute to the interpreting competence. Majority of these courses are in the compulsory category.

Graph 2 shows that 65 hours of compulsory courses are offered to the students so as to develop their interpreting competence. According to the graphs 1 and 2, İzmir University of Economics Department of Translation and Interpreting (English) presents courses that mostly improve linguistic competence. In addition, 22 hours of compulsory courses aiming to develop world knowledge are taught in the department. The ratio of courses developing world knowledge is higher than other competences. In conjunction with these, the courses aiming to contribute to the development of professional, ethical and market knowledge as well as interpreting methods in the trainee interpreters are offered in the curriculum at a lower ratio. No compulsory courses contributing to the emotional competence and field competence is presented in the curriculum.

Total of 101 hours of elective courses contributing to the interpreting competence are calculated. The courses aiming to contribute to the linguistic competence and interpreting methods have a higher ratio in the curriculum. A total of 28 hours of courses contribute to these competences. Furthermore, 24 hours of courses contribute to the field competence.
Apart from these, a lower ratio of elective courses in the curriculum contributes to cultural competence, world knowledge as well as professional, ethical and market knowledge.

4.2. HACETTEPE UNIVERSITY DEPARTMENT OF TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETING (ENGLISH)

Hacettepe University Department of Translation and Interpreting (English) has been training the translators and interpreters since 1982-83 academic year. In the official website of the department, it is stated that a more professional training in both translation and interpreting has been given especially since 2009\(^{10}\). An aptitude test is administered to the students aiming to take interpreting education at this department. At the same time, the department has an interpreting laboratory. A lecturer working as an interpreter gives the related courses (Doğan, 2009, p. iii).

The compulsory and elective courses adhered to the interpreting competence in this department are analyzed and classified in accordance with the themes and codes presented in Table 2.

**Linguistic Competence Courses at Hacettepe University, Department of Translation and Interpreting**

Many elective and compulsory courses contributing to the linguistic competence are presented in the curriculum starting from the first semester. Listening and speaking courses, creating the basis for interpreting, are both compulsory and given at high ratio. This, in turn, forms the basis of listening and speaking infrastructure necessary for the transfer competence in interpreting. Students analyze the root, structure and meaning of words in Lexicology course, which contributes to the foreign language skills in the interpreting practices in the upcoming semesters. “Turkish Language” courses involve linguistics and grammar subjects in order to develop the written and oral expression skills of students. In addition to first language, French and German as a second foreign language are taught as elective courses for eight semesters. Together with a “Turkish” course focusing on grammar, “Turkish for Translators” course also aims to improve Turkish language usage of students. “Listening Comprehension and Oral Expression” course focuses on listening, comprehension and expression skills of students. Students practice with various exercises in order to develop these skills. “Compulsory English” courses include techniques for improving English speaking skills. In this way, at the end of the course, students are able to gain skills such as discussion, forming a claim, presenting information and effective presentation.

**Cultural Competence Courses at Hacettepe University, Department of Translation and Interpreting**

Nearly all of the courses contributing to cultural competence are compulsory. The aim of “Language and Culture” course is to point out the connections between language and culture through the scientific perspective of linguistics and sociology. The aim of “Contemporary Turkish Society” course is to provide information about the structure of Turkish society. “British and American Culture History” course aims to gain students a critical perspective towards these cultures. Furthermore, history and politics of these cultures are analyzed in this course. “Intercultural Communication” course focuses on the basic subject and concepts about the language and culture. The students will be able to overcome cultural differences with the intercultural competence they gain in this course. “Contemporary British and American Society” presents various topics about the political and social structure of British and American societies.

**Interpreting Method Courses at Hacettepe University, Department of Translation and Interpreting**

Nearly all of the courses adhered to transfer competence in the curriculum are elective. The courses present techniques and knowledge on three types of interpreting. “Memory Techniques” course form the basis for interpreting and focuses on the techniques supporting memory. “Note-taking Techniques”\(^{11}\) course aims to develop students’ skills in comprehending the message, focusing on the main message, taking notes with abbreviations and symbols. In “Sight Translation” course, students practice translating written texts verbally in meetings or conference settings. In “Consecutive Interpreting” course, comprehension, transfer and production practices are presented with note-taking techniques. In “Simultaneous Interpreting” course, comprehension, transfer and production are the applied practices.

**Field Competence Courses at Hacettepe University, Department of Translation and Interpreting**

The department offers various elective courses oriented to develop field competence of the students. “Research Techniques” course aims to improve the

\(^{10}\) [http://www.mtb.hacettepe.edu.tr/tarihce.php](http://www.mtb.hacettepe.edu.tr/tarihce.php), date accessed: 01.04.2019

\(^{11}\) In “Advanced Note-Taking” course, the mentioned practices are continued.
students’ ability to research in both translation and interpreting. The course content includes thinking on a given topic, summarization and reading reports, among others. Albl-Mikasa (2012) mentions the importance of the computer-aided terminology studies before and after the interpreting process. Within the scope of the present study, terminology studies course is evaluated and categorized under the field competence. Elective courses on medicine, law, technical subjects and economics, regarded as the basic subjects in the interpreting, are presented to students. Taking the course, the students are expected to learn the structure, institutions, basic concepts and applications in the fields. Thus, the students have the opportunity to interpret in the specialization areas with the field and method knowledge they have learned. In the department, “Conference Interpreting” courses are presented for two semesters. “Sport Interpreting” and “Court Interpreting” are also offered to students as the interpreting field specialization courses. In “Sport Interpreting” course, the subjects and concepts in the sport field are taught and the students practice interpreting in this field.

**World Knowledge Courses at Hacettepe University, Department of Translation and Interpreting**

The majority of the courses contributing to the world knowledge is presented as compulsory in the curriculum. “History of Civilization” course aims to expand the perspective of students towards the developments in the world by providing students with history knowledge and current developments. “Current Discussions” course aims to give information on current topics and aims to equip students a critical perspective. Apart from this, “Current Affairs” course aims to present students with information about different topics such as political developments in the world, cultural and social developments. Thus, the students gain a critical perspective. “Principles of Atatürk and History of Revolution” course presents information about the fall of the Ottoman Empire, the foundation of Republic of Turkey, as well as the political and social systems in Turkey. Lastly, “Popular Culture” course presents the events and topics influencing the world history.

**Professional, Ethical and Market Knowledge Courses at Hacettepe University, Department of Translation and Interpreting**

One compulsory and two elective courses adhered to the professional, ethical and market knowledge of students are presented in this department. “Introduction to Interpreting” is a compulsory course; however, no information is given on this course in the related website. “Translation and Interpreting as a Profession” is an elective course presenting information about profession such as working conditions, enumeration, market and professional ethics. No information was found in the website for “Interpreting Internship” course.

**Graph 3:** The Intensity (hour-based) of Elective Courses at Hacettepe University, Department of Translation and Interpreting Contributing to Interpreting Sub-competences

**Graph 4:** The Intensity (hour-based) of Compulsory Courses at Hacettepe University, Department of Translation and Interpreting Contributing to Interpreting Sub-competences

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12 The content and the lecturer of the Court Interpreting course are not specified in the website. Thus, this course is excluded from the analysis. However, it is included in the interpretation part of the study, as this course was stated to have been added to the curriculum to enrich the interpreting field in the website.
A total of 42 hours of courses presented either as compulsory or elective contribute to the interpreting competence. According to the graphs 3 and 4, Hacettepe University Department of Translation and Interpreting (English) presents courses that improve mostly the linguistic competence. The courses contributing to the cultural competence and world knowledge are presented at the same ratio of hours. Apart from these, the courses aiming to contribute to the development of professional, ethical and market knowledge as well as interpreting methods in the trainee interpreters are offered in the curriculum at a lower ratio. No compulsory courses adhered to the emotional competence and field competence is presented in the curriculum.

121 hours of elective courses contributing to the interpreting competence are calculated. The courses aiming to contribute to the linguistic competence and interpreting methods have a higher ratio in the curriculum. 52 hours of courses totally contribute to these competences. A total of 28 hours of the courses contribute to the interpreting methods. 24 hours of courses aim to develop field competence. Apart from these, a lower ratio of elective courses in the curriculum contributes to cultural competence, world knowledge as well as professional, ethical and market knowledge. None of the elective courses contributes to the emotional competence.

**4.3. EGE UNIVERSITY DEPARTMENT OF TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETING (GERMAN)**

Ege University Department of Translation and Interpreting (German) has been training translators and interpreters since 1982-83 academic year. The department has an interpreting laboratory for the interpreting courses.

The compulsory and elective courses contributing to the interpreting competence in this department are analyzed and classified in accordance with the themes and codes presented in Table 2.

**Linguistic Competence Courses in Ege University Department of Translation and Interpreting**

Starting from the first semester, the majority of the courses whose target is to improve linguistic competence of the students are compulsory in the curriculum. “Verbal Communication I/II” courses are presented to students in the first and second semesters in order to develop their German speaking and listening skills. Speaking, pronunciation and word studies are exercised by students on the current course. “Turkish Language” and “Turkish for Translators and Interpreters” courses aim to develop the written and spoken expression skills of the students, who are native speakers of Turkish. “Sight Translation” course focuses on German speaking skills of students. The course aims to develop students’ abilities of speaking and listening skills by speaking to audience, body language and discussion techniques. English is the compulsory second language. The course aims to develop students’ English grammar and their expression abilities in both written and spoken English. Italian, French and Greek are offered to students as a third foreign language. The courses in the department contribute both to the native language and foreign languages.

**Cultural Competence Courses at Ege University, Department of Translation and Interpreting**

All of the courses contributing to the cultural competence of the students are in the compulsory category. “Country Studies” course aims to present students with information about the economy, politics, culture, education, religion and social characteristics. On the other hand, “Translation and Culture” course focuses on the intercultural communication in the transfer process.

**Interpreting Methods Courses at Ege University, Department of Translation and Interpreting**

Nearly all the courses in the curriculum representing the interpreting method are in the elective category. These courses mainly focus on the practice of interpreting techniques. “Basic Skills in Interpreting” course provides information about the historical development of interpreting. The students also practice consecutive interpreting. In addition, the students act role-playing scenarios for different interpreting settings. The students also practice their note-taking skills by taking notes with symbols and abbreviations. The theoretical knowledge is put into practice and the students have the chance of practice in “Consecutive Interpreting” course. Students consecutively interpret short speeches as well as research terminology. In “Simultaneous Interpreting” course, students are primarily introduced to the profession by giving theoretical information on the conference interpreting. The course aims to inform students about the role of interpreters, the use of

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equipment and booth manners, teamwork, research methods before the interpreting process and customer relations. The course also aims to present students simultaneous interpreting techniques and various strategies to cope with possible problems. Apart from these, within the scope of this course the students attend to conferences in order to experience these environments.

Field Competence Courses at Ege University, Department of Translation and Interpreting
The curriculum involves compulsory courses for developing the field competence. “European Union and International Organizations” course contributes to the field competence of students. “Terminological Knowledge” course is another field competence course. The course is offered in German, English and Turkish languages. The terms and the application areas of these in various specialization areas such as law, medicine, commerce, literature and philosophy are presented to the students.

World Knowledge Courses at Ege University, Department of Translation and Interpreting
Majority of the courses contributing to the world knowledge of students are displayed as elective. “Principles of Atatürk and History of Revolution I/II” courses present history knowledge and current developments. The students will be able to interpret the current developments in the world wide perspective. “General Sociology” course aims to introduce students to this discipline and make them gain a sociological point of view. “Introduction to Economics” aims to introduce students to this field and enable students to analyze the effects of economy. Thus, the students are expected to interpret the culture and society with the perspective they have gained in the course. “Mythology and Literature”, “Modern Sociological Approaches” and “Cultural Geography” courses aim to present basic information and concepts in these disciplines.

Graph 5: The Intensity (hour-based) of Elective Courses at Ege University Department of Translation and Interpreting Contributing to Interpreting Sub-competences

Graph 6: The Intensity (hour-based) of Compulsory Courses at Ege University, Department of Translation and Interpreting Contributing to Interpreting Sub-competences

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15 Although not mentioned clearly, it can be inferred that the department has a booth for interpreting.
78 hours of courses presented either as compulsory or elective make contribution to the interpreting competence. Majority of these courses are in the compulsory category.

According to the graph 6, a total of 44 hours of courses adhered to the interpreting competence are compulsory. According to the graphs 5 and 6, Ege University Department of Translation and Interpreting (German) presents courses that mostly improve the linguistic competence. 6 hours of compulsory courses contributing to the cultural competence, field competence and world knowledge are presented in the curriculum. 4 hours of elective courses contributes to the world knowledge. Not a single compulsory course to focus on the emotional competence, interpreting methods or professional, ethical and market knowledge is presented in the curriculum.

A total of 34 hours of elective courses contributing to the interpreting competence are calculated. 18 hours of courses contribute to the interpreting methods. Apart from interpreting methods, 10 hours of courses contribute to the world knowledge. 6 hours of elective courses contribute to the linguistic competence. No elective courses contributing to the emotional competence, field competence, cultural competence, or professional, ethical and market knowledge is presented in the curriculum.

4.4. BEYKENT UNIVERSITY DEPARTMENT OF TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETING (RUSSIAN)

Beykent University Department of Translation and Interpreting (Russian) has been training translators and interpreters since 1997. Beykent University has two translation departments: Department of Translation and Interpreting (English) and Department of Translation and Interpreting (Russian). The department has an interpreting laboratory.

The compulsory and elective courses adhered to the interpreting competence in this department are analyzed and classified in accordance with the themes and codes presented in Table 2.

**Linguistic Competence Courses at Beykent University, Department of Translation and Interpreting**

There are various compulsory courses in the curriculum making contribution to the linguistic competence of students starting from the first semester. The languages of instruction of the courses contributing to the linguistic competence are English and Russian. English is offered as the second foreign language. English is given as a compulsory course until the fourth semester, and students are expected to gain B2 level competence in English. “Oral Communication Skills” course aims to develop Russian speaking skills of students. The students participate in the group discussions and give presentations. In addition, “Presentation Skills” course given in Russian present information to students about presentation techniques and public speaking practices. Another course contributing to the linguistic competence is the “Language Use for Translators”. Instructed in Russian, this course aims to gain students the ability to use language effectively during translation.

**Cultural Competence Courses at Beykent University, Department of Translation and Interpreting**

The curriculum offers two courses contributing to the cultural competence. These courses provide students information about Russian language and culture, as well as the traditions, population structure, history, geography, economic structure, social and political structure of Russia. The subject and concept information learned in these courses will help intercultural communication during interpreting practices by letting students analyze the given context better.

**Interpreting Methods Courses at Beykent University, Department of Translation and Interpreting**

The department offers courses introducing three basic types of interpreting. “Sight Interpreting” and “Consecutive Interpreting” are compulsory courses. “Simultaneous Interpreting”, on the other hand, is offered as an elective course. In “Sight Interpreting” course, students are expected to improve their interpreting skills by analyzing texts from different areas of expertise. In “Consecutive Interpreting”, field and terminology exercises, listening exercises, note-taking and memory exercises are carried out by students. “Simultaneous Interpreting” course aims to provide students with simultaneous strategies as well as terminology and presentation skills. “Simultaneous Interpreting” course is given in booths.

**Field Competence Courses at Beykent University, Department of Translation and Interpreting**

Both elective and compulsory courses are offered to students in order to develop their field competence. Law and economic courses are also offered in the department. These two subjects are considered
among the fundamental subjects in interpreting. Moreover, “Labor and Social Security Law” course presents field knowledge for the court interpreting. Thus, the students are expected to gain information on law and economics with these courses. “Community Interpreting” is a compulsory course in the curriculum. In this course, students are expected to practice interpreting in different areas such as law, business, health and education. Apart from the field knowledge, the students are expected to study the terminology of these areas, as well. “Research Tools and Technology in Translation and Interpreting” is a compulsory course in the curriculum. This course makes contribution both to translation and interpreting. The students learn electronic corpora, search engines and computer assisted terminology management within the scope of this course. The course provides information on accessing information with technological methods.

World Knowledge Courses at Beykent University, Department of Translation and Interpreting
The courses about the world knowledge in the curriculum are presented as both compulsory and elective. The aim of these courses is to make students gain historical background information and enable them to establish links between past and present conditions. “Principles of Atatürk and History of Revolution” as well as the “Formation of Modern Turkey” courses present information about the historical developments in Turkey. In addition to the courses with historical content, there are other courses in the curriculum giving information about various topics such as democratic system and non-governmental organizations. The curriculum also includes courses about quality systems and standards, which aims to present fundamental information about the quality management.

Professional, Ethical and Market Knowledge Competence Courses at Beykent University, Department of Translation and Interpreting
“Professional Orientation and Introduction to Translation” is a compulsory course in the first semester. This course aims to introduce students the translation and interpreting profession. Although the course does not focus on interpreting, it can be inferred from course content that the course also presents information about interpreting.

Graph 7: The Intensity (hour-based) of Elective Courses at Beykent University, Department of Translation and Interpreting Contributing to Interpreting Sub-competences

![Bar graph showing elective course hours]

- Linguistic...
- Cultural...
- Interpreting...
- Field...
- World...
- Professional/...
- Technical...
- Emotional...

$\sum = 8$
Graph 8: The Intensity (hour-based) of Compulsory Courses at Beykent University Department of Translation and Interpreting Contributing to Interpreting Sub-competences

53 hours of courses presented either as compulsory or elective contribute to the interpreting competence. The majority of these courses are in the compulsory category. According to the graph 8, a total of 45 hours of courses contributing to the interpreting competence are compulsory. According to the graphs 7 and 8, Beykent University Department of Translation and Interpreting (Russian) presents courses that improve mostly the linguistic competence. 6 hours of compulsory courses contributing to the cultural competence, field competence and world knowledge are presented in the curriculum. 4 hours of courses contribute to the interpreting methods. 2 hours of courses contribute to the professional, ethics and market knowledge. No compulsory courses contributing to the emotional competence is presented in the curriculum.

A total of 8 hours of elective courses contributing to the interpreting competence are available. 4 hours of elective courses contribute to the world knowledge. 2 hours of elective courses contributing to the interpreting competence and competence are calculated. No elective courses contributing to the emotional competence, field competence, cultural competence, or professional, ethical and market knowledge is presented in the curriculum.

4.5. MERSIN UNIVERSITY DEPARTMENT OF TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETING (FRENCH)

Mersin University Department of Translation and Interpreting (French) started training translators and interpreters in 2000-2001 academic year. The department has an interpreting laboratory for the interpreting courses. The compulsory and elective courses contributing to the interpreting competence in this department are analyzed and classified in accordance with the themes and codes presented in Table 2.

Linguistic Competence Courses at Mersin University, Department of Translation and Interpreting

All of the courses adhered to the linguistic competence of students, starting from the first semester, are in compulsory courses category. English is the second foreign language offered to students starting from the first semester. The focus of English courses is grammar. “Oral and Written Expression I/II” courses, instructed in French, aim to develop students’ speaking skills on various topics such as current issues, different areas of expertise and country information of French. “Turkish Language” and “Oral and Written Expression (Turkish)” courses aim to teach students how to use Turkish better by analyzing different types of expressions. “Oral and Written Expression (English) I/II” present students with information about text analysis and correct expression.

Cultural Competence Courses at Mersin University, Department of Translation and Interpreting

Two courses making contribution to the cultural competence in the curriculum are compulsory. These course aim to present the historical, economic, political, geographic, social and cultural aspects of
French. Thus the students become better communicators between French and Turkish societies with their intense background knowledge of France and French society.

Interpreting Methods Courses at Mersin University, Department of Translation and Interpreting

All of the courses contributing to the interpreting methods are presented as elective. The interpreting education starts with sight interpreting practices. “Sight Interpreting” course focuses on interpreting methods by means of different types of text. “Listening and Note-Taking” course presents techniques for effective listening and note-taking. “Applied Interpreting Types I/II” courses give information about the application of interpreting types. In addition, memory and note-taking exercises as well as techniques for improving diction are also presented. In “Consecutive Interpreting” course, listening, note-taking and production skills are improved. In addition, information about different settings of interpreting such as meetings and conferences is presented. “Applied Interpreting III” course aims to focus on the differences between consecutive and simultaneous interpreting. This course also equips the students with the equipment use skills in interpreting booth. Preparation steps before the conference interpreting as well as the practice in interpreting booth are also among the course content. In “Simultaneous Interpreting” courses, these skills are practiced with authentic conference texts. “Sight Interpreting, I/II” courses aim to improve students’ ability to present an interpreted summary of texts from different fields.

Field Competence Courses at Mersin University, Department of Translation and Interpreting

Elective and compulsory courses are offered to students so as to develop their field competence. “Tourism Information” and “Tourism Terms” courses present students the setting and terminology knowledge about tourism. In “Field Specialization Knowledge” course, students are presented with various texts from different subject such as commerce, economics, law and EU. “Guide Interpreting” courses, taught in the last two semesters of the education, give professional information about the guide interpreting. Students also practice interpreting in these courses.

World Knowledge Courses at Mersin University, Department of Translation and Interpreting

The majority of the courses about the world knowledge in the curriculum are compulsory. These courses present basic information about the Republic of Turkey, history and current developments. They aim to enable students with a broader perspective for understanding present conditions. In “History of Culture and History of Ideas” course, the ideas transferred from the past to the present are presented and discussed. “Media and Communication” course gives information about the mass media. The interpreting activities in media are also examined. Another elective course is “Mythology”, which presents information about mythologies of different cultures.

Professional, Ethical and Market Knowledge Courses at Mersin University, Department of Translation and Interpreting

“Introduction to Interpreting” course provides the students professional, ethical and market knowledge. This compulsory course aims to give the students basic information about interpreting. Different areas of interpreting and working conditions of interpreters are also presented within the syllabus of the course.
Graph 9: The Intensity (hour-based) of Elective Courses at Mersin University, Department of Translation and Interpreting Contributing to Interpreting Sub-competences

Graph 10: The Intensity (hour-based) of Compulsory Courses at Mersin University, Department of Translation and Interpreting Contributing to Interpreting Subcompetences

A total of 78 hours of courses presented either as compulsory or elective contribute to the interpreting competence. Majority of these courses are in the compulsory category. According to the graph, a total of 44 hours of courses contributing to the interpreting competence are compulsory. According to the graphs 9 and 10, Mersin University Department of Translation and Interpreting (French) offers the courses that mostly improve the linguistic competence. Beyond these courses, world knowledge courses are presented at a higher ratio. Four hours of courses contributing to the cultural competence and field competence are presented. Three hours of courses contribute to the professional, ethics and market knowledge. No compulsory courses contributing to the emotional competence and interpreting method is available in the curriculum.

In total, 38 hours of elective courses making contribution to the interpreting competence are calculated. Interpreting methods are given with 24 hours of courses. Eight hours of elective courses contribute to the field competence. Two hours of elective courses contribute to the world knowledge. No elective courses contributing to the emotional competence, field competence, cultural competence, or professional, ethical and market knowledge is presented in the curriculum.
4.6. KIRIKKALE UNIVERSITY DEPARTMENT OF TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETING (ENGLISH)\(^1\)

Kirikkale University Department of Translation and Interpreting (English) started training translators and interpreters in 1982-83 academic year. The department does not have an interpreting laboratory. The compulsory and elective courses contributing to the interpreting competence in this department are analyzed and classified in accordance with the themes and codes presented in Table 2.

Linguistic Competence Courses at Kirikkale University, Department of Translation and Interpreting

Various compulsory and elective courses contributing to the linguistic competence of students are presented in the curriculum starting from the first semester. The department presents “English Speaking I and II”, “English Oral Expression”, “Communication Skills I and II” courses in order to develop listening and speaking skills, which are essential for interpreting. These courses provide students with various skills and strategies such as communication skills in official settings and daily life, presentation, summarization strategies. German and French are the second foreign languages which are offered to students starting from the first semester. Thus the students are expected to gain B1 level proficiency in a second foreign language. Apart from foreign language courses, the curriculum presents the courses aiming to develop Turkish language skills of students. Grammar as well as the presentations and discussions are analyzed within the scope of this course. Hence the students are able to use their native language effectively and accurately. “Discourse Analysis” course aims to enable students to analyze written and spoken texts with the techniques presented in the course.

Interpreting Methods Courses at Kirikkale University, Department of Translation and Interpreting

Most of the courses contributing to the interpreting methods are presented as compulsory. “Note-Taking” course is the first interpreting course in the curriculum. This is a preparatory course for interpreting. The students take notes from written and spoken texts and reproduce meaningful interpretations. In “Introduction to Interpreting” course, students practice consecutive and simultaneous interpreting with various strategies. Memory exercises, note-taking strategies, expansion and shadowing exercises are made by students. In “Sight Interpreting” course, students analyze the texts from various aspects. The course aims to develop students’ ability to interpret written texts and express them orally. “Consecutive Interpreting” course is a follow-up of Introduction to Interpreting course. Techniques for note-taking, memory strengthening as well as interpreting consecutively and simultaneously are presented within the scope of this course. The students use authentic conference texts and speeches and they study terminology of these texts.

Field Competence Courses at Kirikkale University, Department of Translation and Interpreting

Three different courses contribute to the field competence of students. Various topics such as law, medicine, science and technology are analyzed in these courses. Along with the field knowledge, texts and terminology studies in these areas are conducted. “Community Interpreting” course is presented as an elective course. Practices in court interpreting and interpreting in health care settings are made within the scope of this course. In addition, ethics and professionalism issues are discussed. “Terminology” course is offered as a compulsory course in the curriculum. The aim of this course is to give basic information about terminology, as well as informing students about the computer-assisted terminology categorization.

World Knowledge Courses at Kirikkale University, Department of Translation and Interpreting

All the courses to improve the world knowledge in the curriculum are compulsory. “History of Humanity I and II” courses present information about the basic concepts and issues about the human history till the 1980s, when the globalization has started. “Principles of Atatürk and History of Revolution” course provides the students with information about the developments starting from the fall of Ottoman Empire until the end of Cold War.

A total of 52 hours of courses presented either as compulsory or elective contribute to the interpreting competence. Majority of these courses are in the compulsory category.

According to the graph 12, 28 hours of courses making contribution to the interpreting competence are compulsory. According to the graphs 11 and 12, Kirikkale University Department of Translation and Interpreting (English) presents courses that improve mostly the linguistic competence. 12 hours of courses contributes to linguistic competence. Eight hours of compulsory courses contributes to the world knowledge. Six hours of courses contribute to the interpreting methods. A course with two hours in the curriculum contribute to the field competence. No compulsory courses contributing to the emotional competence, cultural competence and professional, ethics and market knowledge is available in the curriculum.

In total, 24 hours of elective courses contributing to the interpreting competence are calculated. A total of 14 hours of elective courses contributing to the linguistic competence is calculated. Eight hours of courses are about the field competence. Two hours of courses contribute to the interpreting methods. No elective courses contributing to the emotional competence, field competence, cultural competence, or professional, ethical and market knowledge is presented in the curriculum.
CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

This study has conducted an analysis on the interpreting courses presented by translation and interpreting departments in Turkey in order to assess the course hours contributing to the interpreting sub-competences. Within this context, interpreting courses in the four state and two foundation universities offering bachelor degrees in translation and interpreting have been selected as sample and analyzed. To conduct a content analysis, the courses were analyzed and categorized according to the themes and codes based on the interpreting competence models in the literature. The course content and learning outcomes of interpreting courses were analyzed according to these themes and codes; and the ratio of interpreting sub-competences were calculated. The obtained results were displayed in tables and graphs using descriptive statistics. The obtained results show that the course hours differ depending on the interpreting sub-competences.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interpreting Subcompetences</th>
<th>Hacettepe University (English)</th>
<th>İzmir University of Economics (English)</th>
<th>Kirikkale University (English)</th>
<th>Ege University (German)</th>
<th>Mersin University (French)</th>
<th>Beykent University (Russian)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linguistic Competence</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Competence</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpreting Method Knowledge</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field Competence</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World Knowledge</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional/Ethical and Market Knowledge</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Competence</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When the Table 3 is analyzed, the lack of courses contributing to the emotional competence stands out. No stand-alone course develops the emotional competence. Furthermore, the lack of courses presenting professional, ethical and market knowledge in some departments also draws attention. As a result, it can be stated that there are significant differences between the hours of courses contributing to different interpreting sub-competences.

Some suggestions for interpreting education can be put forward within the scope of this study. The obtained data in this study support the proposal of Çoban (2018), which is about the development of emotional intelligence. The lack of courses aimed at developing the emotional competence in all departments in this study points out a gap that must be addressed. Emotional intelligence of interpreters plays an important role in interpreting process, according to the interpreting competence models. For this reason, the curricula of translation and interpreting departments should include the courses that aim at developing students' emotional intelligence. The course content can be created in cooperation with experienced interpreters from the sector. Hence these interpreters can explain how they have improved their emotional competence. Moreover, interpreting opportunities / programs can be planned with the cooperation between academia and sector. Topics such as teamwork, stress management, emotion management should be presented to students with either as separate course or within the scope of other courses in order to enable them for a smoother transition to professional life.

This study has employed document analysis as the main data collection method. The analysis was conducted with the material taken from the websites.
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Fen - Edebiyat Fakültesi, Fransızca Mütərcim – Tercümanlık.
An Investigation of the Effect of the Environmental and Cognitive Factors on Translation Process
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ARTICLE INFO
ABSTRACT
Received: September 14, 2019
Accepted: October 10, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.15
KEYWORDS
Translation quality, Media, Music, Sport

This study intended to investigate the effect of music and sport on the mind of translators and accordingly the quality of translation. To this purpose, a questionnaire was given to 25 students of translation at Jahrom University. The subjects were asked about their daily routines of music and sports. In addition, in order to evaluate the subjects’ translation competency, a translation task was given to them. The extent to which the subjects were involved in music and sports was operationalized based on the criteria advised by two experts in music and sports. Then two-way ANOVA was conducted to find whether sports and music had any impact on the translation quality. The results of the analyses showed that music and sports did not have any impact on translation quality.

1. INTRODUCTION
Music and sport have significant roles in different aspects of life such as culture, civilization, art and mind. Having significant effect on brain and mind, it is expected to have influence on translators and translation process, as well. Therefore, such activities as relaxation, yoga, meditation together with such therapies as art, music, or dance can be argued to have desirable effects in these areas.

2. IMPACT OF MUSIC AND SPORT ON TRANSLATION
Aristotle recognized music as one of the branches of mathematics (cited in Karageorghis, Jones, & Low, 2006). So, the features of music interact with the productive and musical talent and affect one’s performance. Sport, as a fundamental activity in people’s life, has both positive physical and mental effect as well. Studies have shown that mild level of music and regular physical activities such as training or specific kinds of sport are turning points for creativity (Karageorghis, Jones, & Stuart, 2008; McFerran, Garrido, & Saarikallio, 2016; Steinberg, Sykes, Moss, Lowery, LeBoutillier, & Dewey, 1997).

In other words, when trying to process things we go to more creative ways. So, it can be assumed that music and sport have great impact on human mind when doing things that require creativity and processing, like translating. Regarding the effect of music or sport on translation, Karimnia and Lari (2012) carried out a study to investigate the effect of background classical music of Mozart on the students’ English-into-Persian translation quality. The findings of the study demonstrated that background music had no effect on the students’ translation quality. Unfortunately, studies on the effect of music or sport on translation quality are scarce. This study is the first of its kind to examine the effect of the two factors of music and sport on translation quality.

3. OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS
This study intended to survey whether doing exercise or playing sports help translators to present a good and acceptable translation. In addition, the researchers attempted to investigate whether listening to a particular form and style of music or being proficient in music could help translators to improve the quality of their translations. Therefore, this study aimed to answer the following question:

1. Does music have impact on translator’s translation quality?
2. Do playing sport and regular exercises lead to translations with higher qualities?
4. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
There are five scientifically proven effects of music on human body (Overy, & Molnar-Szakacs, 2009). These effects include getting the quality sleep your body needs, easing chronic pains naturally, improving mood, lowering stress and boosting brainpower. Sport and exercise have benefits on body and mind as well, such as reducing stress, improving self-confidence, sharpen memory, etc. (Scully, Kremer, Meade, Graham, & Dudgeon, 1998). So by these two factors and their effects on human’s mind, it can be concluded that they are necessary for each person in this world. According to Nord (1991) different external factors in translators’ workplace can influence the quality of their translations. As a result, this study aims at exploring whether music and sports as two external factors, have any impact on the quality of a translator’s translation.

5. METHOD
The current study employed a mixed-methods approach. 25 senior and junior students of translation studies at Jahrom University, Iran, were selected and asked to translate a text. The subjects included 17 female and 8 male students of 21 to 24 years old. A translation assessment rubric, designed by the researchers, as well as a questionnaire, was used to evaluate the translations. Questions were asked about the subjects’ involvement in music and sport. Thanks to special networks, the questionnaires were distributed and gathered via Gmail and applications such as Telegram and Instagram. Additional questions such as the subjects’ affections, and the influence of music and sport on their lives were asked in the questionnaire. Interviews were also conducted with four experts in the fields of music, sport and translation.

6. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
The researchers interviewed four experts in the field of music, sport and translation to find out probable make connections between the three factors. According to the interviews, the three experts believe that music, sport and translation have connections with each other. No difference being a musician or the listener, music affects the health of the brain and also the physiology of the human body. By listening to music both hemispheres of brain are involved like the time you study or exercise. As a result, by listening to music, both parts of the brain begin to work, and the amount of blood flow in the brain increases and much of the neurons starts to work. Also, with the release of the hormone dopamine, which is considered to be a hormone of tranquility and euphoria, the mind and body become relaxed and joyful. Translator before doing his translation job should have relaxation and peace of mind in order to be able to translate carefully. Even after a while that the translator may feel tired he can take a break by having different physical activities or listening to music and then again continue his translation job with more energy. (P. Naksheh, Personal interview, April 6, 2018). Consequently, with respect to the interviews, music and sport have positive effect on translator and translation process. According to Masaru and Imoto’s theory of molecular dance of H2O molecule, praying good and bad words have positive and negative influence on the shape of the water molecules, respectively. Seventy percent of the planet is made up with water, 60 percent of human weight is created with water, seventy percent of humans come from water, and 90 percent of human lungs is formed with water. So these testimonials indicate that using music and exercise properly leads to the formation of the desired molecules of water in our body, and this optimal formation causes our brain to be creative, active and precise. Thus, the proper observance of these two items leads to favorable results in many mental activities, like translation (Sadeghi, Personal interview, April 7, 2018). The statistical analysis of the data, however, didn’t support a significant correlation between sport, music and translation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1 Total translation score</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dependent Variable: translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sport * music</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. R Squared = .989 (Adjusted R Squared = .981)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As Table 1 illustrates, the sig. value is more than 0.05, meaning that music and sport do not have enough impact on total translation score. With respect to the effect of music and sport on translated text style, Table 2 shows that music and sport do not have enough impact on translated text style.

Table 2 Translated text style

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
<td>222.946*</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>20.268</td>
<td>134.055</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.991</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport</td>
<td>.572</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.191</td>
<td>1.261</td>
<td>.326</td>
<td>.213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music</td>
<td>.288</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.096</td>
<td>.635</td>
<td>.604</td>
<td>.120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sport * music</td>
<td>.267</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.067</td>
<td>.442</td>
<td>.777</td>
<td>.112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>2.117</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>.151</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>225.062</td>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. R Squared = .991 (Adjusted R Squared = .983)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Furthermore, as the sig. values in Table 3 demonstrate, music and sport do not have enough impact on grasp of information, either.

Table 3 Grasp of information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
<td>248.438*</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>22.585</td>
<td>67.455</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.981</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport</td>
<td>.457</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.152</td>
<td>.455</td>
<td>.718</td>
<td>.089</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music</td>
<td>1.678</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.559</td>
<td>1.671</td>
<td>.219</td>
<td>.264</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sport * music</td>
<td>.498</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.124</td>
<td>.372</td>
<td>.825</td>
<td>.096</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>4.688</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>.335</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>253.125</td>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. R Squared = .981 (Adjusted R Squared = .967)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regarding the significant values in Tables 4 and 5, music and sport do not impact appropriate use of grammar and literary words.

Table 4 Appropriate use of grammar

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
<td>212.125*</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>19.284</td>
<td>67.494</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.981</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport</td>
<td>.970</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.323</td>
<td>1.131</td>
<td>.370</td>
<td>.195</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music</td>
<td>1.613</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.538</td>
<td>1.882</td>
<td>.179</td>
<td>.287</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sport * music</td>
<td>1.064</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.266</td>
<td>.931</td>
<td>.474</td>
<td>.210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>4.000</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>.286</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>216.125</td>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. R Squared = .981 (Adjusted R Squared = .967)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5 Appropriate use of literary words

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sport</td>
<td>192.794</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>17.527</td>
<td>105.254</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.988</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music</td>
<td>1.222</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.407</td>
<td>2.447</td>
<td>.107</td>
<td>.344</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport * Music</td>
<td>1.023</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.256</td>
<td>1.535</td>
<td>.246</td>
<td>.305</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>2.331</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>.167</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>195.125</td>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the above tables show, in all of the five analyses the sig. value was greater than 0.05 indicating that sport and music do not have significant impact on the quality of translation. The results can have a number of causes. One might be the low number of participants. In other words, the analyses of the data, might yield different conclusions in case of larger data. One of the reasons for the ineffectiveness of the sport on translation process can be its non-dynamism, i.e. there is no regular and permanent arrangement in people’s lives. This being non-dynamism of sport can have a continuous effect on the mind. However, according to the interviews with people specializing in music, sport and translation, these two factors have positive effects on the translator and the translation process which indicates future study to eliminate the defects of this research.

6. CONCLUSION

After collecting the data and information from different sources, no significant difference was observed between the quality of translations done by those engaged in sports and music and those did not. However, the results of the interviews suggested otherwise. Interviews with people specializing in translation, music and sport show that these two factors i.e. music and sport, have a positive impact on the translator and the translation process. It can be argued that, based on the interviews, music and sport can influence the function of the brain and accordingly the translators’ brain and how they translate. Statistical analyses of the data through SPSS didn’t confirm a relationship between music and sport and the translator and translation process. But the results require a more complete study due to a series of limitations. On the other hand, by conducting interviews with people specializing in translation, music and sport, we concluded that these two factors i.e. music and sport, have a positive impact on the translators and the translation process.

The most fundamental issue that the researchers were dealing with was the lack of expert individual which the researchers could grasp the proper and related data about the subjects of the study simultaneously. This problem made the authors to spend a lot of time to find acceptable answers for their questions in order to inform others about the advantages or even disadvantages of music and sport on the translators and the process of translation. This is a wise decision to select a subject for the study that is going to be surveyed which has expert individuals to help researchers or try to use other ways for collecting data so that not being face with this kind of limitations that the authors faced in this study.

ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Marzieh Souzandehfar is an Assistant Professor of TEFL at Jahrom University, Jahrom, Fars, Iran. She received her PhD and MA in TEFL from Shiraz University. She teaches undergraduate English translation courses at Jahrom University. Her research interests include Multiliteracies, CDA, Testing, and Teaching Second Language Speaking. She has published more than 10 articles in scholarly journals and has presented papers at national conferences.

Javad Mohammadi has received his BA in Translation Studies from Jahrom University, Fars, Iran. He has had the experience of translating for different websites and companies. He has also taught English both in language institutes and as a freelancer for six years.

Zahra Shahamatmanesh has received her BA in Translation Studies from Jahrom University, Fars, Iran. She has been a translator and English language teacher for four years.
REFERENCES


APPENDICES
A. Translation sample

Belief

The young man climbed up to the highest diving board and as he turned his back to the pool on the edge of the board and extended his arms out, he saw his shadow on the wall. The shadow of his body was in the shape of a cross.

Instead of diving, he knelt down and asked God to come into his life. As the young man stood, a maintenance man walked in and turned the lights on. The pool had been drained for repairs.

B. Questions

Music and sport questions (Experts)
1. Introduce yourself
2. Does music impact on the men's physical and mental health in the field of psychology?
3. How can music affect the mind of an individual?
4. Is the mind affected by listening music and doing some sports or not?

Music and sport questions (Translators)
1. How many hours do you consider for listening or playing music during a day?
2. How many hours do you consider for doing exercises or being professional in a specific field of sport?

A young man who had been raised as an atheist was training to be an Olympic diver. The only religious influence in his life came from his outspoken Christian friend. The young diver never really paid much attention to his friend's sermons, but he heard them often.

One night the diver went to the indoor pool at the college he attended. The lights were all off, but as the pool had big skylights and the moon was bright, there was plenty of light to practice by.
Difficulties to Acquire Albanian as a Second Language by Pre-schooler Age Children of Turkish Nationality in Prizren, Kosovo

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ARTICLE INFO

Received: September 09, 2019
Accepted: October 12, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.16

KEYWORDS

preschooler children, second language acquisition, albanian, turkish, borrowings

ABSTRACT

The acquisition of a second language is one of the central topics in applied linguistics. In Kosovo there are some cities consisting of mixed population, where Albanian, Turks, Bosnians and Serbs cohabit. Since Albanian is dominant population, children of different ethnic backgrounds are following schools in Albanian language, despite the fact that there are schools in their own native languages. Over a period of 30 days, we observed 10 children and extracted the necessary statistics pertaining to our topic. We have observed that the main problems in acquiring Albanian language for children of Turkish ethnic background are the strong influence of Turkish on grammatical features, since Turkish has different grammar system in comparison with indo-european languages, where Albanian language belongs. Also, the huge number of borrowings from Turkish into Albanian influences the use of such borrowings by Turkish children, while paying efforts to acquire Albanian language.

1. INTRODUCTION

Language acquisition and especially second language acquisition is one of the main topics in Psycholinguistics since it has to deal with the process of competence development among children. The term language acquisition marks the process of acquiring language by children, both as a mother tongue and as a second language or both at the same time, as is the case with bilingual children. In some larger and older cities in Kosovo, there are many cases of bilingual children, but there are also cases where non-Albanian children use to learn and acquire Albanian as a second language, for different reasons, mainly because Albanian became of higher prestige and creates some advantages in employment, socialization and so on.

Bearing in mind all the circumstances, including the family, social environment and the age of the children undergoing this process, it becomes a difficult and complicated process to acquire Albanian as a second language, especially for children of Turkish ethnic background, whose first acquired language was Turkish.

A developmental theory describes changes over time in one or more areas of behaviour or psychological activity such as thinking, language, social behaviour or perception. (Miller, 2009, p.8). There are different ideas about how children learn to speak and understand language. Researchers continue to study how this amazing process happens so quickly in the early years of life.

Chomsky based his theory on the concept of innate ability to acquire language. According to him, language acquisition is biologically and genetically pre-programmed and does not depend on the child's intellectual abilities or environmental stimuli. He concluded that children would acquire their first or second language successfully even if no special attention was paid to teaching them or monitoring their progress. (Chomsky, 1965, p.200-201).

The nativists, therefore, think that language is an entirely human, innate, biological attribute. According to Darin, children are born with a "language maturity", an "instinctive tendency" for language.

Skinner attempted to develop the classical behaviourist model of language learning in his famous book Verbal Behaviour (Skinner, 1957, p.50). Also, according to Skinner, language is formed through operant conditioning or amplification. When the parent or primary caregiver responds to the baby's stutter with a smile or vocals, the children continue to stutter even more.
Whereas, the behaviourist approach focuses entirely on the impact of the child's learning environment (without recognizing their biological or genetic ability or predisposition to learning language skills) and the nativist approach focuses on innate, genetic skills for language learning (without recognizing the impact of environmental or cultural factors), the constructionist approach combines both of these theoretical elements. However, there are different views on language teaching in this context. Some constructionist theorists acknowledge that the ability to develop grammatical knowledge stems from the way the human mind analyzes and organizes information and is not necessarily innate. What unites constructionists is the view that children are actively involved in building their knowledge according to the influences that the environment exerts on them (Chomsky, 2002, p.48).

Piaget, as a biologically oriented constructionist, maintained that children develop skills according to a predetermined framework. Piaget believed that language is a representational system, which does not develop beyond egocentric speaking until the child enters the stage of concrete operations, around the age of seven. (Singer, D. G., & Revenson, T. A, 1996, p. 58-60).

The grammar of children says that we should approach it on the basis of its parameters rather than reflecting the norms of adult grammar.

Of course, this grammar is not fully compatible with that of adults, but it succeeds in making meaningful, albeit sometimes difficult, communication. For example, parents are better able to understand their children's grammar than other children of the same age and psychic development, having deciphered their children's grammatical patterns due to their frequent, consequently consistent use. (Paçarizi, 2012, p.74).

Compared to a child learning his or her first language, a teenager or an adult learning a second language: 1. has less time to learn, 2. has access to explanatory language and is therefore able to understand theoretical explanations, 3. already has a first language that provides a path through which the second is learned. (Paçarizi, 2012, p.84-85).

There are no negative effects for children who are bilingual. Their development follows the same pattern as that of monolingual children. (Godz, 1994). Children follow the same pattern in second language use based on their mother tongue. (Pérez & Torres - Guzman, 1996, p.96).

Even young children who learn a second language bring all the knowledge about language learning they have acquired through the development of their first language. For these children, then, acquiring a second language is not a process of discovering that language, but of discovering what that language is. (Tabors, 1997, p. 12).

From our research we have found that in the city of Prizren there are many children who speak another language at home and begin or continue their education in Albanian. This has posed a problem when learning a second language from them.

2. METHODOLOGY

We conducted the research in two kindergartens and one primary school in Prizren. Most of the students, after having a primary language of Turkish in their homes, made almost the same mistakes, using some Turkish words, and had trouble defining genders, since the Turkish language is not constructed with grammatical markers, but with agglutination. The children included in the research belong to the ages of 5 and 6 years. The sample includes three educational institutions and 10 children, as presented in Table 1. Study data were collected and analysed qualitatively and quantitatively in order to present them as accurately as possible.

Table 1. Descriptive characteristics of participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational institutions</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kindergarten I</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary school</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kindergarten II</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The reason for choosing between the ages of 5 and 6 is that the critical age of first Language acquisition is age 6, the age when the child completes his or her basic architecture of first Language acquisition.
3. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

3.1. Cognitive theory

Psychologists and psycholinguists considered second language acquisition as a complex cognitive ability. Some of the skills involved in the language acquisition process are incorporated by grammar rules, choosing the right vocabulary and following the pragmatic principles that govern the use of a specific language. (Mc Laughlin, 1987, p. 134). According to Posner & Sydner, these skills become automatic with practice. (Posner & Sydner, 1975, p.57).

During this automated process, the learner organizes and restructures the newly acquired information. Through this process of restructuring, the learner links new information to old information and attains a degree of second language proficiency (Mc Laughlin, 1987-1990). From the cognitivists point of view, language acquisition is dependent both on the content and on the development of prior cognitive abilities and language is seen as a function of "general non-linguistic abilities". (Berman, 1987, p. 4).

3.2. Multidimensional model

In the multidimensional model, the pupil's stage of target language acquisition is determined by two dimensions: the pupil's developmental stage and the pupil's socio-psychological orientation. The multidimensional model has explanatory and predictive power, not only identifying stages of language development but also explaining why students go through these developmental stages. (Ellis, 1994, p.384).

3.3. Theory of Acculturation

According to Schuman (1978), "Second language acquisition is only a process of acculturation, and the degree to which a learner reaches the target language", Schuman (1978). From this perspective, second language is influenced by the degree of psychological as well as social distance between learner and culture for the target language. Social distance refers to a student who as a member of a social group is in contact with another social group who speak a different language. Psychological distance depends on various affective factors related to the student as an individual, such as: language shock, culture shock, cultural stress, etc. Schuman's theory received limited empirical support.

3.4. Nativist theory

From a nativist perspective, input plays a minimal role in the development of a child's language skills. According to them it is discussed that 1). input for the child is an inadequate database to foster structure language decline, 2). children need relatively little exposure to input to promote language structure, and 3). children need to be equipped with innate linguistic knowledge so they can build the language. (Mueller Gathercole, V. C., & Hoff, E, 2007).

Chomsky on the other hand based his theory on the concept of innate ability to learn language. According to him, language learning is biologically and genetically pre-programmed, and does not depend on the child's intellectual abilities or environmental stimuli. He concluded that children would learn their first or second language successfully even if special care was not taken to teach them or monitor their progress. (Chomsky, 1965, p. 200-201). But according to him, all children have "installed," the language acquisition device (later known as Universal Grammar), with which they import and apply their mental and generalization processes while listening to speech. (Pinker, 1995, pp. 108-109)

For example, they use regular grammatical structures to create the plural of irregular words, e.g. figs, figs, instead of figs, horses - horses, and even boy - boys. This temporary grammatical error, which is not about imitating wrong grammatical forms, was termed by nativists as superhuman.

3.5. Behaviouristic theory

Behaviorism is the mainstream of learning through behavior, imitation, and practice of habits. If we were to randomly ask people in a park about how children learn language, the chances of most of them responding "imitating" are very high. Of course, imitation plays a very important role. Children learn the language they hear in the environment where they grow up and not another language whatsoever. (Skinner, B. F. 1957).

Skinner attempted to develop the classical behaviorist model of language learning in his famous book Verbal Behavior. (Skinner, B. F. 1957). Its purpose was to provide a way to predict and control verbal behavior by observing and manipulating the physical environment of the speaker. According to Skinner, a child adopts verbal behavior when relatively unmodeled, selectively reinforced vocalizations gradually take forms, which produce appropriate consequences in a given verbal community. (Skinner, 1957, p. 31)
He maintained that linguistic development is completely bi-binary - a concept of operant development in the verbal laboratory. According to him, language is learned only through imitation, conditioning and reinforcement provided by parents and extensive contact with the environment.

Skinner claimed that a child learns the language through positive reinforcement. His explanation of speech development was that parents tend to reward their infants' vocalizations by paying close attention. This increases the frequency of their recurrence. He also maintained that the child would not progress to vocalizations if the parents did not develop the child's language behavior. After rewarding vocalizations, parents can get used to their children's vocalizations and pay less attention to them. Sometimes, children accidentally produce more familiar sounds such as 'Babbaba' and parents may react cheerfully thinking that the child is saying the word, 'dad'. Parental feedback reinforces the sounds the child has just made. Some other sounds that are less like a single word can be ignored by parents.

4. LEARNING TWO LANGUAGES SIMULTANEOUSLY

Barry McLaughlin (1984, 1995) has made a distinction between children learning a second language simultaneously or sequentially. When a child learns two languages simultaneously, the way of development is similar to monolingual children who acquire the language. However, there is some disagreement in the literature as to whether bilingualism results in a slower rate of development, comparing it with children learning only one language. When children learn two languages simultaneously it is rare for the two languages to be evenly balanced. The linguistic development of children who learn a second language after three years, or more, follows a different progress and is very sensitive based on the characteristics of the children. At this point the basics of first language are learned, children know the structure of a language, but they need to learn the specific features, grammar, vocabulary and syntax of a new language. According to Tabors and Snow (1994), second language learning has four developmental sequences: Home Language Use, Nonverbal Periods, Telegraphic Formulas and Speech, Productive Language.

Bilingual children build different models that are different from monolingual children. Like any developmental sequence the stages are flexible rather than mutually exclusive. This may include vocabulary, early literacy, and interpersonal communication. If they speak another language at home and learn English at preschool, the child may know some words in one language but not another. For example, a child may learn some words in English, but other words he knows in his own language. However, the total number of words a child knows in both languages is comparable to the number and range of words children know using only one language.

4.1. Code switching

It is important for educators to know what code switching (switching from one language to another) and code mixing (entering words from one language to another) are both normal aspects of learning a language, second language. This does not mean that the child is confused or cannot share both languages. The main reason that children mix two languages in communication is because they do not have enough vocabulary in one or both languages to express themselves fully. Research has shown that proficient bilinguals mix languages in order to create special accents and to have cultural identities. Changing the code or mixing the codes is a normal and natural part of getting a second language so parents and teachers do not have to worry.

The goal is to increase communication, rather than to apply rigid rules that can be used at a given time or under certain circumstances.

5. LEARNING ALBANIAN AS A SECOND LANGUAGE BY CHILDREN OF 5-6 YEARS OLD WHOSE MOTHER TONGUE IS TURKISH

We have conducted research with 10 children who speak Turkish at home and in kindergarten or first grade of Elementary school have continued their education in Albanian language. The research was conducted in two kindergartens and one elementary school. The children have been asked several questions about the plural of names, colors, seasons and we have been asked to tell a tale. The research brings out a few variables, but the main difficulties of the children while using Albanian, emerges when telling the tale.

First, we asked children to name some object in pictures given to them. First set consisted of some objects whose signifiers have irregular plural in Albanian, as shown in the Table 2. below:
Table 2. The use of plural nouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question 1. What do you see in the picture?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plural in Albanian</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Identification number of respondents</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As we can see, in the cases when plural is irregular (zog, lepur, dorë, kalë, princ), respondents weren't able to form plural in appropriate way. Instead, they formed plural following the simplest rules of plural in Albanian, with "a" ending. Since, the word "zog" (bird) forms plural by palatalization of "g" to "gj", only two of them did it, but still they added ending "a" as to regular nouns. None of them used formed properly the plural of the noun "lepur- lepuj" (rabbit-rabbits), none of them used properly the plural for the noun "dorë-duar" (hand-hands), none of them used properly plural for the word "kalë-kuaj" (horse-horses). It sees that irregular plural is one of the most difficult forms to be acquired by children learning Albanian as a second language. We must stress the acquisition of irregular plural is one of the most difficult issue to be acquired by children acquiring Albanian as a first language.

Second question had to do with naming colours given to them. At this point they had no problems or difficulties. The reason for that is most probably because they used either standardized versions or dialectal versions that are, in fact, borrowings from Turkish sari/e verdhed (yellow), jeshil/e gjelbër (green), portokal/portokall (orange), mavi/ e kaltër (blue). Respondents alternated their responses between Albanian (dialectal as well) and Turkish. Only two of them used standard Albanian word for blue (e kaltër), four of them used "e gjelbër" for green and one of them used English word "yellow".
Question 2. What colours do you see?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Given colours</th>
<th>E <em>verdhë</em> (yellow)</th>
<th>E <em>gjelbër</em> (green)</th>
<th>Portokalli (orange)</th>
<th>E <em>kaltër</em> (blue)</th>
<th>Age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Colours in Turkish</td>
<td>Sari</td>
<td>yeshil</td>
<td></td>
<td>Mavi</td>
<td>5-6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>E sarit</td>
<td>E jeshilt</td>
<td>Portokall</td>
<td>E mavit</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Sari</td>
<td>Gjelbërt</td>
<td>Portokall</td>
<td>Mavit</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Sari</td>
<td>Gjelbërt</td>
<td>Portokall</td>
<td>Mavi</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>E <em>verdhë</em></td>
<td>E <em>gjelbër</em></td>
<td>E portokall</td>
<td>E <em>kaltër</em></td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Verdha</td>
<td>Jeshilta</td>
<td>Portokalli</td>
<td>Mavita</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Verdha</td>
<td>Gjelbërtta</td>
<td>Portokal</td>
<td>Mavi</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Verdha</td>
<td>Jeshil</td>
<td>Portokall</td>
<td>Mavit</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Verdha</td>
<td>Jeshilta</td>
<td>Portokalli</td>
<td>Mavita</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Sarit</td>
<td>Yellow</td>
<td>Portokal</td>
<td>Kaltërt</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Sarija</td>
<td>Gjelbërtta</td>
<td>Portokall</td>
<td>Kaltërt</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Naming colors

While asked to name seasons, all of them used proper words in Abanian, except one of them who named the picture of summer by other concept, naming it “deniz”, which is Turkish word for “sea”.

Question 4: What do you see?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figures in pictures</th>
<th>Aeroplan (Airplane)</th>
<th>Anije (ship)</th>
<th>Veturë (car)</th>
<th>Lapsi (pencil)</th>
<th>Age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Identification numbers of respondents</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Tajaret</td>
<td>Anija</td>
<td>Kerri</td>
<td>Lapsi</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Ajroplana</td>
<td>Anija</td>
<td>Kerri i vogël</td>
<td>Lapsi</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Ajroplanat</td>
<td>Dy anija</td>
<td>Ni kerr</td>
<td>Ni laps</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Ajroplana</td>
<td>Anija</td>
<td>Araba</td>
<td>Kalem</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Helikopteri</td>
<td>Kajiki</td>
<td>Araba</td>
<td>Lapsi mavi</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Tajare</td>
<td>Anija</td>
<td>Araba</td>
<td>Kalem</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Ajroplan</td>
<td>Anije</td>
<td>Kerr</td>
<td>Lapsi</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3 out of 10 respondents used Turkish word "Tajaret" to name the airplane, 2 of them named it "helicopter", 5 of them used proper word in Albanian, while one among 5 of them formed plurar with the word "a lot of" (ajroplana shumë/ a lot of airplanes), as seen in Table 4.

Being asked to name "ship", 6 of them used proper word in Albanian (anije), 3 of them used Turkish word "Gemiya" and one used the word "kajiki"?

As for the "car", 6 out of 10 used dialectal word of Albanian "kerr" and 4 of them used the Turkish word "araba" (car)

For the object calles "pencil", 7 out of 10 used Albanian word "laps", while 3 others called it "kalem", using Turkish word. (see Table 4.)

In other hand, totally different situation is when they were asked to tell a fairy tale, heard from parents or granparents:

**Child 1** - He told the tale "Pinocchio". While telling the tale, his accent was influenced by the Turkish language, but we also had some mixed words which we will present below:

- **E ka rrit hunda**, instead of "I është rritur hunda" - inappropriate use of grammatical features and the use of non-standard forms of Albanian (e ka rritë).

- **Yalan folke Pinokio**, instead of "Pinokio gënjente" - Albanian word for lie.

- **E ka shku te baba**, instead of "Ka shkuar te babai" - inappropriate use of grammatical features and the use of non-standard forms of Albanian.

- **E ka fol me babën krejt yalan e ka fol**, instead of "E ka gënjyer babain" - inappropriate use of grammatical features and the use of Turkish words.

- **E ka hup**, instead of "Ka humbur" - inappropriate use of grammatical features and the use of non-standard forms of Albanian.

**Child 2** - He has told us the tale called "Burbuqja" by him, and this child also has words in Turkish and in Bosnian, because Bosnian is spoken atn his home as well.

- **E ka dhimt barki** - inappropriate use of grammatical features.

- **E ka shku te mjeku** - inappropriate use of grammatical features

- **S'ka gjet insan mrenda** - the use of Turkish word "insan" for man ("njeri" in Albanian)

- **S'e ka gjet annen** - the use of Turkish word "anne" ("mother" or "nënë" in Albanian) with the Albanian inflectional suffix "n" for accusative

- **Ka shku te domaa (aaa te shpija)** - the use of Bosniac word "doma" (home) and the self-correction into "shpija" (dialectal form of standard Albanian "shtëpia")

- **Bitti** - the use of Turkish word "bitti" (The end) instead of Albanian word "fund"

**Child 3** - told the story "Snow White" ("Borëbardha" in Albanian), where the accent was influenced by the Turkish language, but also used some mixed words presented below:

- **Na ish niher e ni zaman vajza me emrin Borbardha** - The use of Turkish word "zaman" (time) instead of Albanian word "kohë.

- **Iki pi shpije** - the use of dialectal forms of the words.

- **Rrugës mal e pa ni shpi vogël** - avoiding articles of Albanian, since Turkish doesn't have ones. (shpi vogël/shtëpi të vogël).

- **Basamakat e vogla** - the use of Turkish word "Basamak" (stairs) with Albanian endings for plural Basamak-at.

- **hongri molla Borbardha** - diverse syntactic order, instead of regular order in Albanian - "Borëbardha hëngri mollët".

- **edhe shoh syt** - inappropriate use of irregular verb "shoh" (pashë/saw for aorist), which influenced diverse order of words as well.

- **princ pathi edhe u kry masalli** - avoiding articles of Albanian (princi pathi/princi e pathi) and the use of Turkish word "masal" instead of përralla (tale).
Child 4 manifests the same mistakes as previous respondents, that means that the nature of mistakes is similar to previous ones.

Child 5 told us the story "Snow White" and she used Turkish language words more than other children.

U kon çka u kon - dialectical use for "Ishte ç'na ishte një herë" (The formula "Unce upon a time")

Pamuk prenesi edhe 7 cuce t'vogla - the use Turkish words "pamuk prenesi" (Borëbardha/Snow White)

Pamuk prensefit i vin te evi vet - The whole sentence is built up by Turkish words which has influenced the structure as well (Borëbardha ka shkuar te gjyshja e saj/ Snow White went to her Grandmother)

Tani i ze uyuki shpi pamuk prensefit - Again the whole sentence is built up by Turkish words which has influenced the structure as well (Pastaj, Borëbardhën e zuri gjumi në shtëpi / Than Snow white felt asleep at the house)

Tani prap qohet cucet edhe shkojn te dagi - Again the whole sentence is built up by Turkish words which has influenced the structure as well (Pastaj, sërish ngrihen shkurtabiqët dhe shkojnë mal / Than, again, midgets go to the forest). Turkish words "cucet" (with Albanian ending "et" for plural) and "dag'" which means "mountain" or "forest"

Edhe shohin pamuk prenesin te toka, ama vjen princa edhe e qon prej uyukit pamuk prenesin - Again the whole sentence is built up by Turkish words which has influenced the structure as well (Dhe, e shohin Borëbardhën të shtrirë në tokë, por vjen princë dhe e zgjon nga gjumi princeshën / And, they see Snow white laying in the ground, but the Prince came and woke the Princess up)

Se ajo e han allmën e s'mundet mu qu pi uyukit, u kry masalli - Again the whole sentence is built up by Turkish words which has influenced the structure as well (Sepse ajo e ha mollëhe nuk mund të zgjohet nga gjumi. Përfundoi përralla / Because she ate the apple and couldn't wake up. So, the tale ended)

Child 6 told us the tale of "Red Riding Hood" in this way.

U kon Kirmizi Basli qika - Respondent used turkish word to name the main character of the tale "Kirmizli basli kiz". Since in Turkish gender is annotated not by any endings but by meaningful words, respondent used the Albanian word "qika" or "çika" as a grammatical feature to annotate the feminine gender of Turkish word.

Edhe ka dasht me shku te gjyshja po se ka lon nana e vajza e ka shku - innapropriate use of short pronoun "e" of Albanian (e ka shku instead of ka shku(ar)).

Subject uses a lot of Turkish words and also the speech is influenced by Turkish structure of grammar. Turkish words used instead of Albanian ones are: ekmek (bread / bukë in Albanian) by adding endings for accusative (Edhe ka shku te gjyshja mi qu ekmekin); dagi (montain, forest / mal, pyll in Albanian) where subject again gives to the Turkish word grammatical features of Albanian, as ending "t", annotating dativ.

Child 7 - The tale this child told was "Snow White", in which he used some Turkish words, but not to a great extent. She is able even to tell the traditional Albanian formula at the end of the tale " prralla n’shkall dukati n’ball."

Child 8 and 9 where similar in telling their tales. They often used Turkish words and did the same mistakes in using plural of Albanian, avoiding articles and by adding unnecessary short pronouns.

Child number 10, told the tale "The Beauty and the Beast" using a lot of words in Turkish.

Guzel qika shum u kon edhe ka dasht ni bish ajo qika - "guzel" is Turkish word for "beautiful" (e bukur). The use of so many Turkish words influencebend also the words order. Turkish wrds used are: yaratiki (beast), mum (candle), macalar (cats) , qupeka (dogs), evlada (sons and daughters), mesut (happy):

6. CONCLUSION

The impact of the second language on children aged 5 - 6 seems to be very strong and the process itself very is difficult. These difficulties are especially reflected in their speech. The purpose of the paper was to put light on the process of learning of their second language, that is, the Albanian language, by children whose first acquired Language is Turkish.

In children aged 5 - 6 years we have noticed an accent, cadence and other phonetic elements of the local Turkish language of Prizren. The circumstances of children can sometimes be disturbing, as they end up not knowing any language properly or correctly. Many linguists have dealt with the issue of learning a second language and the difficulties that a second language can cause to children.
The main problems relate to the grammatical differences between Turkish and Albanian, but they learn quickly, as there is a significant difference between children aged 5 and those aged 6 years.

Based on the results we have obtained, we have found that children have difficulty identifying some animals eg dog - puppy, cat - macalar, rabbit - tavern, giraffe - zyrafa, bird - cat. Then in some other things like: boat - kayik i- gemiya, car - arab, pencil - rock. However, they have encountered less difficulty determining colors or even determining seasons. Except for some cases that have used yazer, cold, yellow, purple - blue, since Turkish forms are also used in Albanian, in informal situations.

We have also asked these children to tell us from a tale heard by their mother or father, grandmother or grandfather, children have encountered many difficulties such as:
- Gender determination: for feminine (e bukur), for masculine (e bukur);
- Inserting unnecessary articles (eg: e ka shku, e ka lutë, e ka folë);
- Use of different words in Turkish such as: basamakat - shkallët (stairs), guzel - e bukur (beautiful), simdi - tash (now), bitti - fund, përfundoi (the end, ended), masalli - përralla (fairy tale), ekmeki - buka (bread), dagi - mal (mountain), mesut - i lumnur (happy)
- Misuse of the plural such as: macalar - macet (cats)
- Use of Albanian grammatical ending to mark the cases, especially accusative and dative.

However, despite above mentioned problems it is important relatively high level of acquisition of Albanian by these children whose solely language of their communication only a year ago was Turkish and their contact with Albanian was very rare and occasional. But, still, the main problems emerged were of a grammar nature and some identitary words preserved at their lexicon from Turkish as their first and native language.

Moreover, we have observed that one of the obstacles in their way towards acquisition of Albanian Language was teachers using dialectal words and forms and also borrowings from Turkish still present mainly in informal situations.

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REFERENCES
Critical Reading Ability: A Study of the Role of Proficiency, Gender and Topic Knowledge
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ARTICLE INFO
Received: September 24, 2019
Accepted: October 27, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.1

ABSTRACT
The aim of the present study was to examine the relationship between learner factors and critical reading ability. The participants of the study were fifty Iranian EFL learners. They answered to a questionnaire on critical thinking ability and took a critical reading test. Their scores were compared and contrasted with regard to the three variables under investigation, namely, proficiency level, gender, and topic knowledge. The results of the study revealed that while proficiency level has a positive effect on the enhancement of critical reading ability of the learners, gender and topic knowledge do not have a significant contribution to the development of this skill. The findings suggested important implications for EFL teachers and materials developers.

KEYWORDS
Critical Reading Ability, Gender, Proficiency, Topic Knowledge

1. INTRODUCTION
The role of reading ability has always been considered vital in the process of learning a second/foreign language. It is a complex cognitive activity which is very influential in gaining information in this modern era. The necessity of reading is obvious but teachers need to train the learners how to become active readers. However, most of the attention in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) reading classes has been devoted to propositional content of texts rather than to the ideological assumptions behind the texts. The present study is an attempt to investigate the critical reading ability of EFL learners.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW
2.1. Critical Thinking and Critical Reading
Paul (1988) defined critical thinking as "the ability to reach second conclusions based on observations and information" (p. 50). To put in another words, students learn how to ask and answer questions such as evaluation, synthesis, and analysis. According to Brookfield (1987), it is the duty of educational systems to make any attempts to "awaken, prompt, nurture and encourage the process of thinking critically and reflectively" (p.11). In similar vein, teachers can set a series of tasks, activities and the feedbacks for students to grow critical reading abilities in them. The importance of enhancing higher order thinking skills in foreign language classroom have been emphasized by educators (e.g., Chamot, 1995; Tarvin & Al-Arish, 1991) and empirical evidence can be supported by the effectiveness of teaching critical thinking skills in education with the foreign language (e.g., Chapple & Curtis, 2000; Davidson, 1998).

According to Mahyuddin et al (2004), the language learners with critical thinking ability are able to think ritually and creatively to obtain the aims of education, able to solve problems and make decisions, able to use their thinking skills; able to treat thinking skill as constant learning. Critical reading is a more active way of reading. It is a deeper and more complex engagement with a text. Critical reading is a process of analyzing, interpreting, and sometimes, evaluating the larger meanings of a text and how those meanings are created by the text. When we read critically, we use our critical thinking skills to question both the text and our own reading of it. Robert Kaplan believes that “text, whether written or oral, is a multidimensional structure,” and any text is layered consisting of many layers (1990, p.202) The basics of a text consist of syntax and lexicon; its grammar, morphology, phonology, and semantics. However, "The understanding... of grammar and
lexicon does not constitute the understanding...of text." “Rhetoric intent...,” says Kaplan, “coherence and the world view that author and receptor bring to the text are essential.” (1990, p.202)

Wallace (1992) accepts that critical reading is one of many strategies available to the readers; however, it may become very efficient when learners encounter texts that contain ideological assumptions and whose interpretation depends largely on a sociocultural context. Lots of texts people read in everyday life are of this nature, the examples of which are: news reports, magazine articles, advertisements, political speeches, even some novels and short stories.

A number of explanations have been counted by Correia (2006) why reading comprehension exercises should not be used as the only kind of reading activity in the classroom. First of all, reading comprehension exercises involves passive reading in which students just have to locate the information in the text to answer to a question. Next, such tasks do not motivate students to read between the lines or question the reality and truth of the information. Next, these tasks generally refer only to parts of the text, not to the whole text. Finally, such tasks especially for young learners are neither challenging nor fun.

Since EFL learners always are confronted with new culture and foreign beliefs and thought, they transfer these ideas to their own society. They have to know the meaning embedded in text or discourses around them. Koupaee Dar (2010) believes that language does not have a superficial nature, but it is a complex process and entices language users to go beyond surface level of text and leads them into a deep level of meaning and communication to challenge their mind. According to Boston (2002), many teachers already deal with critical reading in their classrooms. When students are asked to give their opinions about a text, to compare the text situation with their own situation a critical reading task is performed.

2.2. Teaching Critical Reading in ESL/EFL Context
During the past two decades critical reading has found its way to second language studies. Wallace (1992) has been among the first to bring to attention a serious gap inherently present in most EFL classes. She contends that “EFL students are often marginalized as readers; their goals in interacting with written texts are perceived to be primarily those of language learners” (p. 62). She argues that this is partly due to the prevalent practices in EFL reading classes. The fundamental focus of many educational systems is on propositional content at the expense of losing sight of the ideological assumptions that underlie texts.

Ordinary reading classes, according to her, are deficient in three principal ways: 1) an attempt to relate reading activity and texts to the broader social context, 2) the use of more provocative texts; a methodology for text interpretation that helps unfold both the propositional content and the ideological assumptions behind the text (Wallace, 1992, p. 62). The argument adequately demonstrates that reading between the lines or challenging the ideological assumptions of texts cannot be effectively achieved without teachers’ scaffolding of activities and skills which would enable students to approach texts more critically.

Wallace (1992) herself accepted that many readers are not in a position to attain critical awareness of texts by themselves. More recently, believing that a sound critical approach to language study is almost absent in EFL programs, Cots (2006) recommended a complementary model for implementing critical reading techniques in EFL classes. He found that that his model is in harmony with “a view of education which prioritizes the development of the learners’ capacities to analyse and judge the world carefully” (p. 336). Certainly, teachers most often choose for practicing reading skills texts that present functional survival or general interest material of a safe nature and the main reading tasks are analyzing linguistic structure or new vocabulary items. During interaction with such texts readers take up a rather submissive position. Critical reading approach is trying to change this situation by offering students clues how to become more assertive and more confident readers.

In Cots's (2006) study, critical reading techniques were used in a foreign language class. Students needed to develop simultaneously three types of competence: user, analyst, and teacher. They also should do three types of activities designed based on Fairclough analytical framework. In his study Cots (2006) wanted to demonstrate that choices of the teachers or materials developers in text selection could be critically analyzed. Teachers and learners could do such an analysis together in the classroom. Cots’ (2006) goal in his study was to present critical reading as a complementary model for analyzing language use and for designing language learning activities.

In Correia’s (2006) study, the students’ feedback revealed that in spite of their fluency in L1 and L2, they tended to accept printed material without questioning the honesty or bias of the text. Students also said that they considered themselves critical readers in their first language. However, when reading EFL texts, they felt they needed help to come up with reading between the lines. Correia (2006) believes although developing critical reading skills can be time-
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Consuming and difficult for EFL students but as working with texts in EFL reading classes in this way should help EFL readers feel they have options in the way they choose to read the text and to help them feel in a more equal relationship with the writer.

In the other study by IÇMEZ (2009) critical reading practices were adapted to traditional EFL reading lessons to increase students’ motivations. Critical reading assessment procedures, which involve asking the students to decide on the texts for analysis and encouraging them to express their positions related to the texts analyzed, result in an increase in students’ motivations. According to the results of his study, relating the learning experience to the students’ own realities, which affects text selection, student involvement and classroom communication develops critical reading ability of the learners.

In a study conducted by Zingraf (2003), methods of critical reading were used by non-native speakers of English to analyze texts. In this study, university students started increasing their critical language awareness and a change in their attitude toward texts extracted from the British press. The skills and strategies that the students practiced during their reading course involved, among others, critical reaction to texts that could serve as those presenting writers’ ideological views and manipulating readers by the use of certain textual features.

In order to get a sense of how critical reading works the students first exercised critical reading of advertisements where the power of language heavily influences readers’ perception of the text and the world. In addition, they chose longer magazine articles of topics that were interesting for them. Broadly speaking, it was texts from the press that were analysed most often during their critical reading classes.

Huckin (1994) devised and implemented a critical reading model. Before taking up critical reading strategies for text analysis the students were asked to read the text as typical readers. Having this typical reader in mind, they practiced a second, more critical reading with the use of factors suggested by Huckin (1997). They mostly worked in groups, each of which had a few factors to analyze and to present the outcome of their analysis to the whole class. That part was usually followed by a discussion on what role social context plays in text interpretation and readers’ personal understanding of the text and its writer’s ideology. The students realized that texts can have more than one meaning. Moreover, they became more interested in the circumstances of text production as well as in its political, social and cultural background. They also noticed that the language and presentation of facts differed with regard to in which newspaper the texts were published. Most of the students implemented a fairly detailed and careful analysis of the texts. At the end of the academic term, the students were asked to comment on the idea of introducing the critical reading project as a part of developing their foreign language reading skills. Out of thirteen students, eleven found the activity very interesting, and stated that the project contributed to improving their reading skills. The findings of this study revealed that students can be equipped with the necessary critical tools in order not to be manipulated with texts loaded with bias.

Zingraf (2003) believes the view of texts as “vehicles for linguistic structure” is the way texts are presented to foreign language learners. Zingraf (2003) states owing to unawareness of the ideological load of certain expressions or words in authentic second language texts, and as a result of unawareness of their manipulative effect on the readers’ beliefs, EFL university learners do not question anything of the foreign language.

With the purpose of enticing learners to approach the text critically and detect the ideological assumption of text, teachers can support learners with some skills and scaffolding of activity. Moreover, an EFL teacher can employ critical discourse analysis techniques and asks students to analyze discourse and find the hidden meaning and explore the association between discourse, ideology, and power. Because of this activity, instructor can motivate learners toward a lifelong ability in critical thinking (Luke, 2003).

Few studies have been conducted to examine the way learner factors enhance critical reading ability of the learners in Iranian EFL context. Thus, the present study attempts to concentrate on critical reading ability of these learners and investigate some learner factors which contribute to the development of this skill.

3. METHOD

3.1 Research Questions

The research questions addressed in the present study are:

1- What is the relationship between general language proficiency of the learners and critical reading skill?  
2- What is the relationship between gender of the language learners and critical reading skill?  
3- What is the relationship between topic knowledge and critical reading skill?
3.2 Participants and Setting
Fifty sophomore students majoring in English translation took part in this research, twenty seven female and twenty three male. Their ages were between 18-24. The participants had already passed the courses on reading political texts and reading newspapers. Therefore, they were assumed to be familiar with the characteristic of the political texts. They were classified according to three variables, namely, their English language proficiency, gender, and topic knowledge.

3.3. Instruments and Procedure
3.3.1 Oxford Placement Test (OPT)
At the beginning of the research, a total number of the participants were required to take OPT to make sure that they were homogeneous with respect to their proficiency in language skills as a whole. The questions of the test were taken from ‘Oxford University Press and University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate’ by Fischer (2001). The OPT was administered to categorize participants into the higher and lower levels of English proficiency. OPT consists of 60 multiple-choice items. The allotted time to the participants to answer the questions was 30 minutes. According to the results of the test shown in Table 1, all the participants were assigned into two different levels of proficiency.

Table 1. The tank of English language proficiency knowledge

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intermediate (30-39)</th>
<th>Lower</th>
<th>Upper Intermediate (40-47)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

3.3.2 Questionnaire
In addition to the mentioned test, a questionnaire was designed by the researchers in order to examine the knowledge of the participants about critical reading as well (Appendix 1). This questionnaire consists of 24 items. Cronbach’s alpha statistics was used to estimate the reliability of the questionnaire and the reliability coefficient was %78, it shows that there is a high consistency between the items. In order to increase the validity of this instrument, three experienced experts in the realm of Media, Political sciences and Critical Reading considered the content of the items and selected 24 items from among the 35 items of the first draft. The items were attitudinal questions used to find out what the participants think, covering attitudes, opinions, beliefs, interests and values. The participants were required to choose one of the choices and mark in the answer sheet. Those students who answered to fifty percent or more were classified as those that have high topic knowledge, and those students who answered to less than fifty percent were classified as those who have low topical knowledge.

3.3.3 Critical Reading Comprehension Test (CRCT)
Although the participants were able to read by themselves, they were again under examination to see if they were able to make a bridge between passive reading and active reading and if they were able to read between the lines or not. In this phase, all the participants took part in a CRCT that was developed by the researchers (Appendix 2). In order to meet the research goal, the researchers focused on the analysed parts in the descriptive phase then selected some of them and designed about fifty open-ended questions. After consulting with two experts in the field of reading to increase the validity of the items, modifications were made and the final version of the test was made of 13 parts and 23 questions.

The participants' answers to the critical reading comprehension test were scored by two raters in order to apply inter-rater reliability. The statistical measure of interrater reliability is Cohen’s Kappa which ranges generally from 0 to 1.0 where large numbers mean better reliability, values near or less than zero suggest that agreement is attributable to chance alone. In the present study, the results of the inter-rater analysis were \( Kappa = 0.676 \) with \( p < 0.001 \). As it is indicated, the value shows a high degree of correlation in the test results between the two raters. As a rule of thumb values of Kappa in the range of 0.61 – 0/80 are considered moderate. So, it can be concluded that the scoring process was reliable.

4. RESULTS
The study concentrated on the relationship between critical reading ability of Iranian EFL learners and their proficiency level, gender and topical knowledge. The following results were obtained.

4.1. The Relationship between the Language Proficiency and Critical Reading
To ensure the homogeneity of the participants, all the participants of this study took part in the Oxford University's Quick placement test and were classified according their scores to two groups, higher intermediate level and lower intermediate level. In order to find the answer of the first research question, twenty male participants were selected and divided into two groups. It merits mentioning that all of them answered to fifty percent or more of the questions of the questionnaire. Table 2 shows the frequency of the first group.
Table 2. The frequency of the participants for the first research question

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Language proficiency knowledge</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group 1 (Male)</td>
<td>High level</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 2 (Male)</td>
<td>Low level</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to analyze the performance of the participants on the critical reading test, an independent t-test was used. Inferential statistics including means and standard deviation of the both groups participating in the test administrated for the second research question are given in the Table 3.

Table 3. Group Statistics for the first research question

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group 1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2/76</td>
<td>%87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 2</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2/59</td>
<td>%55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A comparison was made between the means of the two groups to see whether or not the level of language proficiency knowledge results in higher scores in critical reading test. The level of significance chosen is %000. According to the obtained results in Table 4 and Figure 1, it can be concluded that there is a meaningful difference between proficiency knowledge and critical reading, so the directional hypothesis is accepted and thus it can be an indication that language proficiency plays a significant role in improving the critical reading ability of the learners.

Table 4. Independent Sample Test for the first research question

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig.(2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1/498</td>
<td>%000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2. The Relationship between Gender and Critical Reading

In order to find the answer of the second research question, all the participants who were classified as the learners with high level of topical knowledge and high level of proficiency knowledge were selected, and then they were divided into two groups, male and female. Table 5 shows the frequency of the participants in the subgroups.

Table 5. The frequency of the participants for the second research question

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Topical knowledge</th>
<th>Language proficiency</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>High level</td>
<td>High level</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>High level</td>
<td>High level</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to analyze the performance of the participants on the critical reading test, an independent t-test was used. Inferential statistics including means and standard deviation of the both groups are given in Table 6.

Table 6. Group statistics for the second research questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group 1 (Male)</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2/47</td>
<td>%76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 2 (Female)</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2/52</td>
<td>%34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A comparison was made between the means of the two groups to see whether or not gender affects the scores in critical reading test. The level of significance chosen is %105. According to obtained results that is shown in Table 7 and Figure 2, it can be concluded that there is not a meaningful difference between gender and critical reading.

Table 7. Independent Sample Test for the second research question

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.(2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-%765</td>
<td>%105</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3. The Relationship Between the Topic Knowledge and Critical Reading

In order to find answer to the third research question, those participants who were female and had the same level of language proficiency knowledge were selected and divided into two groups. The frequency of the participants of the subgroups for this comparison is shown in Table 8.

Table 8. The frequency of the participants for the third research question

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Language proficiency</th>
<th>Topic knowledge</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group1 (Female)</td>
<td>High level</td>
<td>High level</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group2 (Female)</td>
<td>Low level</td>
<td>High level</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to analyze the performance of the participants on the critical reading test, an independent t-test was used. Inferential statistics including means and standard deviation of the both subgroups are given in Table 9.

Table 9. Group statistics for the third research question

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>.48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A comparison was made between the means of the two groups to see whether or not topic knowledge results in higher scores in critical reading test. The level of significance chosen is .198. According to obtained results portrayed in Table 10 and Figure 3 it can be concluded that there is not a meaningful difference between the performance of the participants with different topic knowledge level and critical reading.

Table 10. Independent Sample Test for the third research question

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig.(2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-2.48</td>
<td>.033</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Discussion, Conclusions and Implications

In general, the overall purpose of the study was to examine whether learner factors could play any role for enhancing critical reading ability. The participants were selected and classified into three groups according to the variables of language proficiency knowledge, gender and topical knowledge. The results obtained from the study manifests that those participants who had high level of proficiency knowledge analysed the texts better than those participants who had low level of language proficiency knowledge. It can be concluded that the improvement of the linguistic competence is paramount for those learners who want to grasp the intended meanings and hidden ideologies of a text. The findings related to the participants' gender show that the difference between the performance of the males and females is not meaningful, and the level of critical reading is the same in two groups. Moreover, it was found that a higher level of topic knowledge does not lead to a significantly better performance in the critical reading test.

The above results show that more proficient learners have a greater ability in reading the text critically and that other variable such as gender and topical knowledge do not have a significant contribution to critical reading skill. In other words, the development of language competence enhances the critical thinking abilities of the learners, too. This means that students can be equipped with the knowledge of questioning and evaluating the ideas residing in the texts while expanding their general proficiency knowledge. Language learning activities can be devised for ESL/EFL learners in order to help them to attain critical awareness. As Correia (2006) puts it, the
learners should learn not to accept the printed materials without questioning the honesty or bias of the text. Therefore, as Zingraf (2003) indicates, learners should be equipped with the necessary critical tools in order not to be manipulated with texts loaded with bias. In other words, the need for involving a critical approach to language learning programs that is consistent with a view of education which prioritizes the development of the learners’ capacities to examine and judge the world carefully and, if necessary, to change it seem.

According to Brown (2004), teachers are at the helm of giving students' favorable time to learn regarding consequential issues of moral and social to analyse different aspects of an issue. Furthermore, textbook designers who are active in the domain of English for Specific Purposes, need to consider language use as one of the crucial social practices influenced by power and ideology and to be aware about certain discourse categories of these genres and consequently design the ideologically motivated materials that can be used to encourage the learners to look at the world critically and do not accept everything at first glance. Moreover, the enhancement of this ability makes readers perceive to judgmental prejudiced discourse and prompts them to act against injustice and incommensurate distribution of power.

Further research can be conducted to elaborate on the role of variables other than the ones investigated in the present study.

ABOUT THE AUTHORS
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Fatemeh Mokhtari received her MA in TEFL from Yazd University. Her areas of interest are teaching language skills, critical discourse analysis, and discourse analysis.

REFERENCES


Appendix 1
Critical Reading Comprehension Questionnaire

Instruction: Please read the questions and mark your answers.

1. When you read any subject, are you confident that the writer's opinion is right and do you speculate about it in no way?
   a) Agree  b) Disagree  c) Not Decided
2. When you read any subject, is your mind involved in it and do you not accept it promptly?
   a) Agree  b) Disagree  c) Not Decided
3. When you read any subject, do you ask yourself about its accuracy?
   a) Agree  b) Disagree  c) Not Decided
4. When you read any subject do you ask yourself, are you in favor of or against it and do you like it or not?
   a) Agree  b) Disagree  c) Not Decided
5. Do you believe that you understand a subject with reading it once and there is no need to read it once more?
   a) Agree  b) Disagree  c) Not Decided
6. Do you believe that there is a necessity for educational system to improve our reading skills?
   a) Agree  b) Disagree  c) Not Decided
7. In your opinion, is it possible to take advantage of language to make social and political power?
   a) Agree  b) Disagree  c) Not Decided
8. Considering and Studying the new issues is interesting and amazing in your life?
   a) Agree  b) Disagree  c) Not Decided
9. Do facts depend on your ideas always?
   a) Agree  b) Disagree  c) Not Decided
10. Is it true that you cannot realize the whole truth about a variety of subjects?
    a) Agree  b) Disagree  c) Not Decided
11. Are some of the questions that more valuable and useful because you are forced to use your thought rather than your memory?
    a) Agree  b) Disagree  c) Not Decided
12. After reading any subject, regardless of your ideas do you accept any claim that the writer has stated?
    a) Agree  b) Disagree  c) Not Decided
13. Is it important for you to know the people's ideas about different subjects?
    a) Agree  b) Disagree  c) Not Decided
14. Most of the time, do you appraise and assess other people's opinions?
    a) Agree  b) Disagree  c) Not Decided
15. Do you try to support your opinions and ideas by reasoning and providing justification?
    a) Agree  b) Disagree  c) Not Decided
16. Do you try to increase the level of your knowledge about challenging issues or subjects?
    a) Agree  b) Disagree  c) Not Decided
17. In your opinion, is it enjoyable and exciting to read other people's opinions across the world?
    a) Agree  b) Disagree  c) Not Decided
18. Do you pursue more about facts which confirm your opinions rather than disagree with them?
    a) Agree  b) Disagree  c) Not Decided
19. Do you enjoy trying to find out about the mechanism of phenomena?
    a) Agree  b) Disagree  c) Not Decided
20. In your opinion, asking other people about the solutions is the best way to deal with the problems and difficulties?
    a) Agree  b) Disagree  c) Not Decided
21. In your opinion, isn't it true to ask some of the questions?
    a) Agree  b) Disagree  c) Not Decided
22. Is the reality what is showed, displayed and demonstrated?
    a) Agree  b) Disagree  c) Not Decided
23. Do you speculate about what you read?
    a) Agree  b) Disagree  c) Not Decided
24. Do you think about the writer, publication company and place of what you are read?
    a) Agree  b) Disagree  c) Not Decided

Appendix 2
Critical Reading Comprehension Test

Instruction: Please read the following extracts of the news on Syria crisis and answer the questions in your own words.

Part 1
The judicious policy of the Islamic Republic of Iran in fact, ensures peace and security in the region.

1. Is the writer is in favor or against the policy of Iran?

Part 2
Syria and its nation are on the Resistance Axis against the Zionist Regime.


Part 3
Iran has always been the most influential country in the Middle East since the beginning, as regional rivals and analysts admit.

3. What do you think about the publication place of above excerpted news?
4. What does the writer convey about Iran?

Part 4
Over the past two years, what began as a series of protests against the regime of Bashar al-Assad has turned into a brutal civil war.
5- Does the writer confirm Bashar al-Assad as an accepted president?
6- What are the supporting points that create the argument?
Part5
Settlement of the Syrian crisis needs Iran's constructive role.
7- What is the writer's perspective about the role of the other countries other than Iran?
8- What is his appraisal of the role of Iran?
Part6
We do not forget what Syria did for us during the Imposed War of Iraq against Iran. Thus, the Syrian nation sees itself beside the Syrian nation in time of hardship today.
9- Does the writer consider the current situation in Syria as a disaster?
10- Does the nation of Iran is in line with the policies of the government about the Syria crisis?
Part7
In that time, America has worked with allies to provide support, to help the moderate opposition, and to shape a political settlement.
11- Whose perspective does the author admit about America?
12- Does America want to prolong the Crisis of Syria?
Part8
As we know Syria is one of the first places that remained a commercial crossroads, and contributed to a rich cultural mix of ethnicities, customs, and creeds, but the story of modern Syria has been a grim one.
13- Is there a difference between Old Syria and Modern Syria? How can you support your argument?
14- Is the writer worried about the Syria Crisis?
Part9
Assad was succeeded by his son, Bashar, raising hopes for the possibility of greater political openness-hopes that the new leader chose not to fulfill.
15- What is the tone of the text? Is something alarming? Happy? Factual?
16- Does the writer represent Bashar al Assad as a president who ascertains the wishes of people?
Part10
The two brother countries, Iran and Syria, in addition to shared religious and cultural backgrounds, have deep roots in history, culture, and human civilization.
17- Who is the likely reader of the above news?
18- What emphasis is placed on people in the text?
Part11
When the sparks of Arab Spring began to ignite, a twenty Syrian has been wounded or killed; a Syrian in five is a refugee and a Syrian in two has been displaced; therefore there is a need to move simultaneously toward a political solution to the civil war that paves the way for a new government with new leadership.
19- Does the writer of the text concern a specific group?
20- Why does he want to show his concern?
21- Does the writer imply that Bashar al Assad can make a promising future for the Syria?
Part12
The foreign movements on the Syrian crisis are divided into two different groups: peace-seekers, including Iran and Russia, and warmongers, including the West, Turkey, Zionists and some regressive Arab countries.
22- Why does the writer emphasize on the positive characteristic of countries like Iran?
Part13
The Syrian nation has an increasingly strong will to confront the US and Zionists' conspiracy in the region...the government, army, and nation of Syria are united and have proved their steadfastness so far.
23- Does the writer confirm the legitimacy of Syrian government?
1. INTRODUCTION

Sport is an important part of the people's culture and self-consciousness, part of a particular country's social, economic and political life. The sport trend is at the center of attention of experts in different fields, including linguists, who are particularly attracted to the language of sport, their vocabulary.

Since the end of the 20th century, one of the main priorities has become a healthy lifestyle that has contributed to the start of widespread sports excitement for different social sectors of the population, the sport has become widely available to anyone who wants to take care of their health.

Sport participation has increased significantly thanks to the media in recent decades, there have been major changes in the area of sport jargon owing to the emergence of new competitions and the need to develop correct language schemes. It culminated in the lexical
buffer being replenished with unique words and foreign language borrowings in the area of physical education and athletics.

The importance of sports in the life of a young student is invaluable and goes much further than the basic answer that “it keeps kids off the streets.” It does in fact keep kids off the streets, but it also instills lessons that are essential in the life of a student athlete. Sports play a pivotal role in the makeup of a young athlete, especially in the middle school to high school years where student athletes are much more mature and mentally developed [10].

Despite sport's outward elegance, affordability, and entertainment, all of its styles have complicated vocabulary that takes some mastery and proper usage efforts.

The relevance of the work is determined by insufficient knowledge of sports vocabulary. Sports terms go far beyond concepts related only to a given industry of scientific and applied knowledge. They occupy an increasing place in the system of modern knowledge about a person and are associated with the concept of “healthy lifestyle”. Possession of sports vocabulary and terminology is one of the conditions for the development of communicative competence of a native speaker. In this regard, the topic of this study seems relevant to us.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Sports terminology is a poorly studied layer of vocabulary of the Uzbek language. The largest number of research papers is devoted to sports terminology. But scientific work in a comparative aspect of the sports terminology of the English and Uzbek languages has not been studied clearly. The beginning of the research dates back to the 1960s and is associated with the appearance of articles by N.D. Andreev and V.L. Zambrzycki “Named word formation in sports terminology” [1] and F. G. Shalgin “Development of sports terminology in the Soviet era” [16]. The few works devoted to sports terminology published over the next forty years, for the most part, are small articles that, in the best case, contain a statement of one or another related problem. The subject of research in them was word formation in athletics terminology: “Word formation in sports terminology (based on track and field athletics)” [20], “Functioning of sports terms in colloquial speech” [4], “Functions of nominal combinations of a sports character in newspaper and journalistic speech” [2], “About some features of the text of sports radio commentary.” [5] In addition, two monographs were published: “Active processes in Uzbek sports and game vocabulary” [19], “Some features of the functioning of game sports terms in units of different levels in language and speech” [18]. At the end of the twentieth century, candidate dissertations appeared, which examined the lexical and phraseological explication of the concept of football in sports discourse [6], a comprehensive description of the term Football [13], the structural and semantic description of Uzbek sports vocabulary [7], Russian sports terminology (based on basketball terminology) [11], etc.

Some aspects of the borrowing problem were reflected in the articles “Some characteristic features of borrowing in sports terminology” [3], “Foreign language borrowings in Uzbek: (based on the terminology of sports games)” [9], “Linguistic and methodical interpretation of productive methods of term formation in the English language of sports” [17]; “The latest borrowing. The terminology of sport” [15], as well as in candidate and doctoral dissertations by M. S. Selivanova [14], E. V. Marinova [8], and others.

3. METHODOLOGY

In the article of research, analysis techniques, definition, generalization, systematization, and numerical approach have been used. We often use comparative analysis of sport terms in English and Uzbek language and it’s translation difficulties, use by general population and try to show examples for each terms or lexems in our research. First step we collected materials with some mistakes in using sport terminology from different texts and newspapers. In the second step we analyse all the materials comparing them according uzbek and enlish language linguistic rules.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In the process of its development, the terminology of the sports sector was also replenished by borrowing foreign terms. Most of the borrowings are attracted in nature, that is, due to the adjacency of sciences, a common subject or research methods, the term is borrowed without changing the meaning. In the analyzed journalistic texts, we identified the following borrowed terms:

1. from English:
- basketball ("Lakers rivals quite often used personal custody, closing their ring from well-aimed shots of basketball players of the California team"),
- bodybuilding ("Bodybuilding", or rather, "bodybuilding", is translated as "body building"),
- boxing ("Referee made boxers"),
- bowling ("The youngest participants in the competitions are 8-year-olds, and the oldest champion won a gold medal in bowling at the age of 82"),
- bullet ("But we were sure of the success of the shootout series from the very beginning"),
- water polo ("The defeat of the favorite on the field, more suitable for the water polo than for other ball games, from his former coach, with the removal and canceled goal - there were more than enough remarkable events at Metallurg"),
- volleyball, cross ("Now we have been working for three days, and on the fourth unloading - we run cross, swim, play volleyball"),
- game ("He was able to record in his asset only four games, losing with a score of 1: 6, 1: 6, 2: 6"),
- git ("For many years, Muscovite Konstantin Khrabtsov was a champion in git, tried his hand (and not unsuccessfully) in other roles: team pursuit and sprint"),
- goal, penalty ("In previous years, among the players it was also considered bad form to exult violently after a goal scored from the penalty spot"),
- goalkeeper ("- I certainly wanted to score Manuel Noyer from the penalty box," Chalkhanoglu quotes the official Bayern official website. "I managed to do it against the best goalkeeper in the world, which makes me very happy"),
- gregari ("You don’t look that in the overall standings I’m weaving in the tail. I’m gregari, it’s my job to help children, leaders"),
- darts ("Russian Anastasia Dobromyslova lost to the Englishwoman Fallon Sherrock (1: 2) in the semifinals of the World Darts Championship"),
- Derby ("In the history of the Euroleague, this was already the seventh Russian derby"),
- disqualification ("And then the team was let down by one of the leading defenders of the team Selyanin, who was disqualified for a fight before the end of the season"),
- doping ("Any revision of the results - in the name of justice or in the fight against doping - is an extremely painful event"),
- draft ("Recruitment, or" draft, "as the Americans say, takes place after the end of the NBA championship"),
- drop goal ("Already in the first minute the midfielder of Khadug's hosts scored a drop goal with a long shot - 3: 0"),
- insider ("Izmailov and Arshavin came out in the role of insiders to help the only forward Kerzhakov"),
- karting ("He got injured 19 years ago while practicing karting"),
- clinch ("Even an American often, especially in clinches, punched weak blows to the body, since you can’t especially put strong ones in such a semi-connected position, but it certainly was Klitschko like an elephant shot"),
- Corner ("After the filing of the Corner, the Rostov legioneer, like Hagen, scored a head"),
- court ("Swede Robin Soderling admitted that he wants to return to the court, which he left due to mononucleosis in July 2011"),
- crawl ("Well, with the crawl, where our girls have long been unable to boast decent" seconds? "),
- match ("But, having given a lot of strength in this match, having endured the heaviest press of Dynamo attacks at the end of the game." Wings "then lost at home to Yaroslavl Torpedo" - 3: 6, and" Spartak "- 3: 5"),
- matchball ("In that meeting, Meekhi was a stone's throw from defeat, but survived, having managed to play the matchball"),
- mixed ("The mixed competition is approaching its climax"),
- mini-bandy ("Syzrans won silver at the mini-bandy tournament"),
- knockout, ring ("Since that time, Tyson has not been defeated: out of 37 fights in the professional ring, he has not lost a single one, having won 33 knockout victories"),
- overtime ("For five and a few seconds before the end, Ponkrashov sold one of the two free kicks and in a retaliatory attack Lakovich could pass the game into overtime in the aisle"),
- offside ("After a minute, Odemwingie on the offside line tamed the casting parachute and cut it over Gabulov"),
- **puncher** ("Given that Rogers is a pronounced puncher, and Emelianenko is a first-class sambo fighter, it seems logical that the Russian from the first seconds of the fight will try to transfer the opponent to the ground, while the American will rely on his knockout blow"),
- **pass** ("Then the defender Chebaturkin joined the attack and, having received a pass from Pokotilo on the fifth", forced Gavrilenka to capitulate"),
- **pace car** ("Two laps before the finish, the organizers decide to release a pace car due to difficult conditions on the track"),

- **peleton** ("On the first lap of the race, when the peleton was still following the safety car, the hood of BMW Dmitry opened, completely blocking the pilot's view"),
- **pit stop** ("But on Sunday the race was not so successful for him - the tires failed, which is why he

- **start** ("The organizers promise that about 10 thousand people will go to the start of the competition, and the prize pool of the competition will be 1.8 million rubles"),
- **steeple-chaz** ("The steeple-chase, or jump with obstacles - this is one of the most spectacular types of equestrian competitions, requiring the horse incredible strength, agility and endurance"),
- **tie-break** ("And at the beginning of the tie-break Meskhi played great - 5: 2"),
- **time** ("The advantage of the guests was especially evident at the beginning of the second half, when the finally bewildered defense of the home team allowed Streimel and Vitechek to get one hundred percent assists"),
- **tennis** ("Kickboxing ("I don't need a receipt or any other piece of paper, but I want to be sure that the funds I send go to the development of tennis, and not kickboxing, if it is at least thrice redone"),
- **traverse** (mountaineering) ("Without losing heart, the head detachment of the team, consisting of 11 people, had already gathered on July 19 on the green lawn above the glacier, the base camp site, ready to begin the further stage of work - the abandonment of intermediate bases along the route traverse"),
- **track** ("The regulars of the track will remember the USSR pre-Olympic championship for a long time when the fate of the only ticket to Seoul was decided"),
- **training** ("Classical fitness mainly works out individual muscle groups, and functional training deals with the whole body"),
- **false start** ("Uzbek short-trackener Tatyana Borodulina was disqualified for double false start in the quarterfinal race at a distance of 500 meters in the framework of the Olympic Games in Sochi"),
- **finish** ("The closer to the finish, the more often, finding out the relationship of unyielding rivals, referees resort to using 11-meter free kicks"),
- **foul** ("For example, in meetings with Efes Pilsen (Turkey) and SKA (Alma-Ata), the referees removed from the court for 5 fouls all five players of the starting fives of rivals of Panionios"),
- **forward** ("Their choice fell on the forward of the University of Syracuse Derrick Coleman"),
- **freestyle** ("The triathletes, freestylers, ski jumpers who suffered from snowlessness, were lucky: the snow falls and falls without stopping"),
- **midfielder / midfielder** ("Well, what can you do if the place of the central midfielder is occupied, and it's time for him to play and play"),
- **hockey** ("99 teams for skiing, speed skating, hockey, ski jumping, skiing and short track from 200 university sports clubs gathered here"),
- **hook, jab, round** ("Layout" of the battle in the rounds shows with the help of a computer the number of non-delivered, missed and parried hits - hooks, jabs, departures, slopes and points awarded for them"),
- **center forward** ("During the match, for example, he spent about 10 minutes in the second period on the bench, center forward Fedorov, who played clearly below his capabilities"),
- **short track** ("99 teams for skiing, speed skating, hockey, ski jumping, skiing and short track from 200 university sports clubs gathered here")

2. from french:
- **billiards** ("Kurgan VIPs played billiards"),
- **car** ("Yes, and the car itself was not very confident in the turns of the Olympic Park"),
- **scorer** ("At the 67th minute, Bulatov was shot..."
down in the penalty area, and the victim himself realized a penalty, wrote down the ninth goal on his face-howling score”),
- **shuttlecock** (“Victory from somewhere above will not fall down - there is only you, shuttlecock, playground and rival”),
- **Grand Prix** (“The winner of the grand prix of competitions in show jumping (barbell height - 160 cm) and the cup winner of the St. Petersburg International Commodity and Raw Materials Exchange was the Estonian athlete Gunnar Klettenberg at the Belgian warm-blooded Bingo”),
- **peloton** (“One of the first serious blockages at the current Giro d'Italia was provoked by a fan who drove into the peloton by bicycle 10 km before the finish of the second stage, reports Cyclingnews”),
- **prize** (“For example, Junior Sergeant Igor Isaev last year was third in the USSR championship and prize-winner of the Moscow dressage championship”),
- **springboard** (“The triathletes, freestylers, ski jumpers who have suffered from snowlowness, were lucky; the snow falls and falls without stopping”),
- **champion** (“At first, the fans of not only Kiev, but the whole country were terrified by the defeat of our club from a frankly weak team from Poland in the preliminary stage of the European Cup”).

3. from German:
- **rapier** (“He really couldn’t take power - in the heat of struggle in close combat (according to fencing” core-a-core " - body to body) he could turn his hand out, knock out someone else's rapier, even cut the opponent’s blade”),
- **tournament** (“We have another, purely sporting idea: apply to the International Ice Hockey Federation with a request to establish a traditional mini-bandy tournament in memory of Valentin Atamanychev for veterans of national teams and hold it in Sverdlovsk”),
- **puck** (“At first, the Devils had the full advantage in the meeting. Their first throw in the second minute was successful when Claude Lemieux scored his 9th puck in the playoffs”) 
- **barbell** (“Therefore, I pulled the barbell and “plowed”on skis for several
- **penalty area** (“The pressure of the hosts continued to increase, and in the 17th minute Cilin saw that the central defenders of the guests for a second were left unattended on the line of the Bulatov penalty”).

4. from Spanish:
- **sword** (“Natalya Zhuravleva representing Samara passed the exams on two types of weapons at once, on the foil and on the sword”).

5. from Italian:
- **trampoline** (“Representatives of the Krasnodar Territory Irina Kundius and Dmitry Ushakov became winners of the Uzbek Trampoline Championship in individual competitions”),
- **regatta** (“On the day of launch, as well as the day before, during the local races in which the Dutch crew of Team Brunel won, the regatta fleet met with an almost complete absence of a breeze”).

6. Japanese:
- **Aikido, Kyokushin / Kyokushin** (the gala program of the competition consists of fights in eight types of martial arts - hand-to-hand combat, ITF Taekwondo, Thai boxing, Taekwondo GTF, Sambo, Kyokushin, self-defense and Aikido combat),
- **dan, kimono** (“Especially distinguished wrestlers received black kimonos. There were no black belt categories - dan, the Sene school did not provide for”),
- **ju-jitsu, karate, kendo.** (“The competitions were held from October 18 to October 26 in 135 disciplines in 15 sports (aikido, boxing, ju-jitsu, judo, karate, kendo, kickboxing, savat, sambo, wrestling, sumo , Thai boxing, taekwondo, wushu, fencing). About 1,400 athletes from 97 countries took part in them, "the press service recalls),
- **tatami** (“The new tatami, which will host the fights of the judo world championship in Chelyabinsk in August, will undergo the first test in July at the international tournament of the World Series of Grand Slam in Tyumen, the president of the united judo and sambo federation of the Tyumen region said at a press conference in Tyumen Sergey Kushkov ”).

7. From Chinese:
- **kung fu** (“Kung fu is perhaps the most attractive and mysterious among other martialarts”),
- **Wushu** (“Two-time world champion in Wushu Dmitry Tiunov spoke about his success”).

8. from Korean:
- **Taekwondo** (“The gala program of the competition consists of fights in eight types of martial arts - hand-to-hand combat, ITF taekwondo, Thai boxing, GTF taekwondo, Sambo, Kyokushin, self-defense and aikido
5. CONCLUSION

In the final research article, we analyzed the sports vocabulary of the Uzbek language, used in texts of newspapers and internet sources. Sports journalism is a variety of messages on relevant topics in specialized and non-specialized mass media, covering contemporary topics and affecting the attitude of society to problems in the field of sports. Due to the growing interest of society in sports, it accurately reflects the dynamics of replenishment of sports vocabulary, reflects a system of concepts that are significant for the organization and implementation of sports activities.

Sports vocabulary in Uzbek from the point of view of the sphere of use refers to special vocabulary. It includes the entire set of lexical units used in the field of physical culture and sports.

The development of sports vocabulary begins in the 18th century and includes four stages. In the late XIX - early XX centuries. Sport went international and in Uzbek there appeared terms of new sports with established rules and equipment brought by English and American specialists, and from the end of the 20th century. The desire of sports to internationalize and the active emergence and development of both individual disciplines and sports in general is noted.

In the process of observing texts on sports subjects, we identified: sports terms, term combinations, terms from various fields of knowledge (used as sports), neologisms, professionalisms and professional jargon, tracing papers and metaphors. The core of sports vocabulary are terms. In the work, we distinguished the following types of terms: general sports (competition) - 2 units, basic (position) - 3 units, highly specialized (springboard, gates) - 6 units, and highly specialized (omnium) - 3 units.

Another of the results of our study of sports vocabulary was the classification of selected units in accordance with the source language. Classification is the division of selected units into groups according to the language from which the word is borrowed. There are eight such groups in our work. Based on our research, we found that in the texts of a journalistic style of sports subjects borrowings from the English language (time) prevail - 65 units, less often there are units borrowed from Japanese (tatami) - 8 units, French (car, springboard) - 9 units and German languages (puck, tournament) - 5 units. Smaller borrowing groups are represented by units that call sports, sports techniques, names of actions, equipment, maintenance personnel, etc., who came to Uzbek from Korean (Taekwondo) - 1 unit, Chinese (Wushu) - 2 units, Spanish (Sambo) - 1 unit, Italian (trampoline) - 2 unit. The appearance in the Uzbek language of sports borrowings is associated, first of all, with the advent of a new sport and the terminology that accompanies it. The appearance of cripples and half-cribs is caused by the same reasons.

Metaphorical term combinations also contribute to the replenishment of sports vocabulary: viscous defense, intricate ball play (6 units revealed). In journalism, this layer of vocabulary is used for more vivid and figurative transmission of information, emotions, impressions, characterized by accuracy, the impossibility of a two-pronged interpretation and regular reproducibility.

Sport, like any other science, includes concepts and terms from various branches of knowledge. After analyzing journalistic texts of sports subjects, we identified 10 groups - “sources” of replenishment of sports vocabulary from related fields of science and knowledge. The largest number of attracted terms was revealed by us in sailing (feed, rhea) - 39 units (lexical units drawn from the marine industry), in equestrian sports (playpen, dressage) - 22 units (terms borrowed from horse breeding), motor racing uses the terms from technology (motor, spar) - 14 units and physics (speed, balance) - 6 units, terms from military and weaponry (strategy, defense) - 12 units and general scientific terms (organization) - 10 units. In addition, the use of medical terms (hematoma) - 5 units, the terms of psychology (concentration of attention) - 4 units, jurisprudence (judge) - 6 units, circus art (somersault) - 2 units were revealed.

Due to the internationalization and active development of sports in the world, sports vocabulary has been continuously replenished with neologisms in recent decades. Based on the materials analyzed, we consider neologisms in terms of their use in specific sports: skiing - 14 units (slopestyle, freeride), snowboarding - 2
units (jibbing). American football - 14 units (quarterback, linebacker), baseball - 9 units (inning, strike), basketball - 4 units (dribbling, lay-up), bobsled - 2 units (bob).

In texts professionalism (train, bench) and professional jargon (rocking, snot) are also found. In total, in the process of research, we identified 13 units related to professionalism and professional jargon. They are used by the authors as a substitute for terms to give the written imagery, capacity, appropriate stylistic coloring and establish contact with the reader. Neologisms, professionalisms, and professional jargon can over time become a category of terms. Another layer of sports vocabulary that operates in journalistic texts is tracing paper (home match, short program) - we have identified 11 units and half-shakes (semi-finals) - 2 units.

The metaphor has firmly entered the journalistic arsenal of active means of influencing the reader, and sports journalists actively use them in their work (soak the score, beat on a handkerchief). Most often in sports journalism metaphors on a military subject meet. Such popularity is due to the fact that sport originally served as preparation for war. As a result of the analysis, we identified 27 such units. Of these, 18 units are represented by metaphors on military subjects.

Thus, the sports vocabulary of the Uzbek language consists of sports terms, terms from various branches of knowledge, term combinations, neologisms, professionalisms and professional jargon, cripples and metaphors.

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The Implementation of Know Want Learn Method to improve Students’ Reading Skill
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ABSTRACT
This study aims to determine the student's improvement in reading skill in Indonesian language teaching and learning activity after the implementation of the KWL (Know, Want, and Learn) method. This study used classroom action research that was implemented in two cycles with two meetings each cycle. The results of the study showed that; 1) reading comprehension skill of students is increased by applying the KWL method. Formative I showed an average of 60 with 40% classical completeness and Formative II showed an average of 81 with 85% classical completeness or an increase in classical completeness of 45% and achieving success criteria research; 2) student learning activity is increased by applying the KWL method. In Cycle I, writing activity is 38%, reading activity is 31%, discussion activity is 21%, asking activity is 5%, and the activity which is not relevant to teaching and learning activity is 5% while in Cycle II the writing activity is 31%, reading activity is 36%, discussion activity is 21%, asking activity is 9%, and activity which is not relevant to teaching and learning activities is 3%.

1. INTRODUCTION
Reading is an activity that aims to understand the content of reading through word for word recognition or sentence by sentence activities. Reading is an activity in responding written symbols using the right understanding. It means that reading respond to all writers' expressions in order comprehending the reading material well. Reading is an act carried out based on the cooperation of several skills, namely observing, understanding, and thinking. Sudiana (2007: 6) says that reading is a very complex activity that involves physical and mental factors. Reading activities include pre-reading activity, reading activity, and post-reading activity Rahim, 2008). Learning to read in elementary schools is carried out in two forms of activities that go through those three stages of activity. Reading activities are divided into two forms, namely silent reading (reading comprehension) and reading aloud. Both activities aim to improve reading skills with meaningful activities. Reading aloud activity at the beginner level aims to recognize language symbol. This activity is also carried out to recognize words and sentences. Furthermore, reading aloud activity aims to understand and find the main ideas of a reading material (Iskandarwassid, 2008). According to Djojosuroto (2006: 69), reading which is intended to understand the meaning or message of the writer through the text is called reading comprehension. Accuracy in understanding communication messages is very important so that an understanding of the communication message can be achieved. One form of writing is a form of description. Based on the description, reading can be referred to as a process of understanding the ideas of the writer contained in the reading passage and then connecting them with the previous readers' experiences / schemes critically, then dynamic scientific interactions are developed creatively. Therefore, equipping students with the skills and reading skills required reading comprehension or further reading. The content comprehension begins with obtaining student's ability at; (a) submit or answer questions according to the content of the reading; (b) express the main ideas; (c) retelling in their own words (summarizing the reading); (d) express story ideas / messages and the nature of the perpetrator; (f) determine the interesting part of the story. The data in the student's reading comprehension assessment scores an average reading comprehension ability after a daily test of only 60 is still below the KKM value of 75 of the ideal score of 100. Student's reading comprehension condition need to be corrected immediately. The solution that will be taken to overcome the existing problems is the provision of alternative implementation of reading activity with different models, techniques,
approaches. In addition, the approach taken must also be able to describe the level of comprehension of students, both in understanding the content aimed at the ability of students to re-express the contents of the reading both orally and in writing. To overcome the negative impact on the inability to read and understand the contents of the reading well, a technique or learning model is needed that is oriented towards reading comprehension activities. One alternative problem solving used in improving reading comprehension skills is to use the KWL method.

The KWL method is the acronym of Know-Want to know-Learned. This method was developed by Ogle to help teacher turn on the background of students' knowledge and interest in a topic. The KWL method involves three basic steps that guide students in understanding a discourse. KWL is created on the basis that reading will succeed if it begins with ownership of the schema on the content of the reading. The three steps in KWL contain various activities that are useful in improving students' reading comprehension skill including brainstorming, determining the category and organization of ideas, compiling question in a specific manner, and checking the things students want to know / learn from a reading. (Abidin, 2012: 87).

The KWL method stands for K (know) What is known (before reading), W (want) What you want to know (before reading), L (learned) What you know (after reading). The theory is a critical reading technique in which the reader remembers what has been known or determines what he wants to know to do the reading (the material that has been chosen) knows what has been obtained from the reading that was just done.

2. METHODOLOGY
A. Design and Type of Research
The research design used includes four-stage cycle, according to Aqib (2006: 21) in one cycle consisting of four steps, namely planning, action, observation and reflection.

B. Technique of Data Analysis
Test data result was analyzed using minimal completeness criteria (KKM) to obtain the percentage of students completed the minimum standard. The percentage of students completes compared to the indicators of research success.

C. Success Indicator
The success of this study was achieved if the individual student scores reached KKM reading skill set by the school by namely 75 and in classical term ≥ 85% of student reached the KKM.

3. FINDINGS
1. Cycle I
A. Planning Stage
At this stage, the researcher prepared learning devices consisting of 2 lesson plans, 2 worksheets, and formative test questions and supporting learning tools. In addition, an observation sheet for processing the KWL method was prepared, and an observation sheet for student activities.

B. Stage of Activity and Implementation
The implementation of the KWL method involves the following stages: K (know), what is known (before reading), W (want), what you want to know (before reading), L (learned), what you know (after reading). In this case, the researcher acted as a teacher. The teaching and learning process refers to the lesson plan that has been prepared. Observation of learning activities carried out simultaneously with the implementation of teaching and learning. The implementation of action in Cycle I required 2 (two) meetings, each meeting is required 3 x 35 minutes with the following learning steps:

C. Observation Stage
At the end of the teaching and learning process, students are given a formative test I with the aim of knowing the level of student's reading skill in the teaching and learning process that has been carried out. At the time of teaching and learning conducted, the observations of student learning activities with the results as in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Aktivitas</th>
<th>Proporsi</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Asking</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Irrelevant Activities</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Referring to table 1, in Cycle I the average of writing activity was 38%. Reading activity got the percentage of 31%. Discussion activities received the percentage of 21%. Asking activities got the percentage of 5% and activities that are not relevant to KBM got the percentage of 5%. In Cycle I, the teaching and learning activities with the KWL method in general have been well implemented, although the role of the teacher is still dominant enough to provide explanations and direction, because the model is still new thing for students.
Next stage is the recapitulation of the results of the reading comprehension skill test in Formative I as shown in the following table.

**Table 2. Result Distribution of Formative I**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Completeness</th>
<th>Average</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Referring to table 2, the lowest Formative I value is 0 and the highest is 100 with a minimum completeness criterion of 70, so 8 out of 20 students get grades reaching KKM or classical completeness is 40%. By referring to the minimum classical completeness of 85%, this value is below the success criteria so that it can be said that KBM Cycle I failed to provide complete learning in the classroom. The class average value is 60 also under KKM. So the completeness of students' reading comprehension skill has not been achieved.

**D. Reflection Phase and Corrective Action I**

From the implementation of teaching and learning activities were obtained information from the result of observations as follows:

- The stages in KWL method such as the Know and Learned stages have not been run well so the learning path is not in accordance with the planned learning scheme.
- The quality of question and answer or student opinion is not maximal, this is because certain students who have been passive in learning are rather difficult to follow the learning path where students still have difficulty in remembering the contents of the text so that difficult to reach the level of understanding.
- The teacher is not maximal in motivating students and in delivering learning objectives.
- The teacher is not maximal in managing time and organizing group.
- Taking action to overcome the difficulties of students in learning cannot be directly carried out by the teacher until the reflection done with the research supervisor.

The implementation of teaching and learning activities in Cycle I is still lack, so there needs to be corrective action to be taken in the next cycle.

- It needs to formulate learning pathway in accordance with the KWL method especially in the Know and Learn phase, which is the appropriate question to encourage students to think.
- Helping students adapt to the learning path, where each student's opinion is rewarded with "good" praise or asking other students to applaud.
- The teacher analyzes the possibilities of student difficulties in Cycle II and immediately plans action that can be taken directly in learning.
- Teachers need to be more skilled in motivating students and more clearly in delivering learning objective. Where students are invited to be directly involved in every activity that will be carried out.
- Teachers need to allocating time well by adding information that they feel is necessary and giving notes.
- Teachers must be more skilled and eager to motivate students so students can be more enthusiastic.

1. **Cycle II**

   **A. Planning Stage**

   At this stage, the researcher prepares learning devices consisting of lesson plans for 3rd and 4th meetings, worksheets for 3rd and 4th meetings, theuest questions for reading comprehension skill as formative II and supporting teaching tools. In addition, an observation sheet for the management of the KWL method and an observation sheet for student activities was also prepared.

   **B. Activity and Implementation Stages**

   The implementation of teaching and learning activities for Cycle II will be held on October 19, 2017 and October 26, 2017 in fourth grade with a total of 20 students. The implementation of the KWL method involves the following stages: K (know), what is known (before reading), W (want), what you want to know (before reading), L (learned), what you know (after reading). In this case, the researcher acts as a teacher. The teaching and learning process refers to the lesson plan by paying attention to the revision in Cycle I, so errors or shortcomings in Cycle I do not recur in Cycle II. Observation is carried out together with the implementation of teaching and learning. The implementation of the action in Cycle II required 2 (two) meetings, each meeting required 3 x 35 minutes.
The Implementation of Know Want Learn Method to improve Students’ Reading Skill

C. Observation Stage
At the end of the teaching and learning process, students are given a formative test II with the aim of knowing the level of success of students in the teaching and learning process that has been carried out. The instrument used was a formative test II. The observation carried out during the teaching and learning activities with results as in the following table:

Table 3. Students’ Learning Activities in Cycle II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Aktivity</th>
<th>Proportion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Asking</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Irrelevant Activity</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Referring to table 3, in Cycle II, writing activity received 31% percentage. Reading activity had 36% percentage. Discussion activity received 21% percentage. Asking activity got 9% percentage and activities that were not relevant to KBM got 3% percentage. Overall, the student's learning activities were increased and leading to improvement.

The next is the recapitulation of the results of student's reading comprehension skill test through Formative II as shown in the following table.

Table 4. Result Distribution of Formative II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Completeness</th>
<th>Average</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>85%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Referring to table 4, the lowest formative II value is 40 and the highest is 100 with completeness criteria is 70, then 17 out of 20 students got grade reaching KKM or classical completeness is 85%. By referring to the minimum classical completeness of 85%, this value is on the success criteria so it can be said that the KBM Cycle I succeeded in providing mastery learning in the classroom. The class average value is 81 also above the KKM. Therefore, cycle II succeeded in giving student's complete reading skill.

D. Reflection II Stage
The result of observation obtained in implementing the KWL method in learning have succeeded and included in the good category. The data showed that student activity in Cycle II is better than Cycle I, an irrelevant decrease appeared in Cycle II. Activities that are not relevant to KBM in Cycle II are shrinking. Therefore, there is an increase in the quality of student learning activities. The data on student learning activities in each cycle are presented in figure 1.

Figure 1. Graph of student activities in Cycle I and Cycle II

During the observation of student activity in Cycle II and the assessment of reading comprehension skill after the application of the KWL method in Cycle II, there has been an increase compared to Cycle I. Student learning outcomes have shown improvement and classically can be said to be complete. Overall, all aspects of learning outcomes have increased from Cycle I to Cycle II. The data on improving student learning outcomes for each cycle were presented in Figure 2.

Figure 2. Graph of Student’s Reading Comprehension Skill
4. DISCUSSION
Referring to figure 1, in Cycle I the average writing activity was 38%. Reading activity got 31% percentage. Discussion activity received 21% percentage. Asking activity got 5% percentage and irrelevant activities with KBM got 5% percentage. In Cycle II, writing activity received 31% percentage. Reading activity has 36% percentage. Discussion activity received 21% percentage. Asking activity got 9% percentage and irrelevant activities with KBM got 3% percentage.

Referring to Figure 2, it can be seen that the average value after the application of the KWL method has increased. Based on the results of the tests in Cycle I, the average value of reading skills achieved by students was 60 with classical completeness of 40%, for the average value of learning outcomes and the percentage of classical completeness achieved has not reached the established success indicators but once there were some students obtained values above the minimum completeness criteria. It was only in Cycle II that the average yield was 81 with the 85% percentile percentage. Both the values of both average and classical completeness have reached the criteria or Cycle II and successfully increased students' reading skill to classical completeness.

These values indicate that student activity in Cycle II is better than in Cycle I. This conclusion is reinforced by the finding of irrelevant activities in Cycle II just 3%.

In Cycle I student learning completeness has not been achieved because during the observation of student activities in Cycle I, there are still some disadvantages, namely:

- The stages in the KWL method such as the Know and Learned stages have not run well so that the learning path was not in accordance with the planned learning scheme.
- The quality of question and answer or student opinion was not maximal, this was because certain students who have been passive in learning were rather difficult to follow the learning path where students still have difficulty remembering the content of the text so difficult to reach the level of understanding.
- The teacher was not maximal in motivating students and in delivering learning objectives.
- The teacher was not maximal in managing time and organizing group.

Taking action to overcome the difficulties of students in learning cannot be directly carried out by the teacher until reflection stage done with the research supervisor.

The implementation of teaching and learning activities in Cycle I still lack, so there need to be corrective action to be taken in the next cycle.

- Learning scenario needed to be formulated in accordance with the KWL method especially in the Know and Learned phase, which was the appropriate question to encourage students to think.
- Helping students adapt to the learning path, where each student's opinion was rewarded with "good" praise or asking other students to applaud.
- The teacher analyzed the possibilities of student difficulties in Cycle II and immediately planned actions that can be taken directly in learning and teaching activities.
- The teacher needed to be more skilled in motivating students and more clearly in delivering learning objectives. Where students are invited to be directly involved in every activity that will be carried out.
- The teacher needed to distribute time well by adding information that they thought was necessary and giving notes.
- The teacher should be more skilled and eager to motivate students so students could be more enthusiastic.

So during the observation of student activities in Cycle II, the assessment of reading comprehension skill during the implementation of the KWL method in Cycle II, there was nothing that should be improved, students who make noise in Cycle II can be handled by the teacher well, student learning outcomes have shown improvement and all students were said to be complete. Overall, all aspects of learning outcomes have increased from Cycle I to Cycle II. Because the implementation process in Cycle II has been able to achieve the result of the expected learning and has been able to answer the formulation of the problem in this study, the next cycle is not held.

The results of this study are in line with the findings of the research conducted by Harsono (2012) which showed that mastery of student's intensive reading taught with the KWL strategy is obtained from student's intensive reading ability tests. From the explanation above, it was seen that the KWL strategy was able to improve students' intensive reading skill.
The main steps that must be taken by the teacher in implementing the KWL strategy in an effort to improve intensive reading skills, the teacher must pay attention to learning steps, namely (1) initial activities, the teacher clearly explains the application of KWL strategy in intensive reading activity before students are asked to read discourse. After that, the teacher gives apperception and topics that will be discussed in the core activities. (2) core activities, the teacher provides opportunities for students to think about the topic about things that students have learned before. Then, the teacher assigns students to make questions about what students want to know about the topic, the teacher's task is only to guide the learning process so that the learning process takes place well and finally the teacher shares discourse related to the topic, students are assigned to answer the questions they have made. (3) the final activity is the teacher asks the students to conclude the content of the reading. Therefore, the teacher can identify students who read intensively and students who did not read intensively.

Learning by using the KWL method has advantages compared to conventional learning. Implementing KWL method in learning activity can stimulate students to be active in the teaching and learning process. KWL method learning can improve student's ability in reading comprehension and also improve student's learning activities through aiming reading activities. So as to make students more motivated to learn because students are invited to be directly involved.

5. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

5.1 Conclusion
From the data got from reading skill and learning activities by applying the KWL method can be concluded as follows:

1. Students’ reading comprehension skill improved by applying the Formative I KWL method. It showed by an average of 60 with 40% calcicial completeness and Formative II showed an average of 81 with 85% classical completeness or an increase in classical completeness by 45% and achieved the research success criteria.
2. Student learning activities increased by applying the KWL method in Cycle I. The writing activity was 38%, reading activity was 31%, discussion activity was 21%, asking the teacher activity was 5%, and those that were not relevant to teaching and learning 5% while in Cycle II the writing activity was 31%, reading activity was 36 %, discussion activity was 21%, asking the teacher activity was 9%, and irrelevant activity was 3%.

5.2 Suggestion
After conducting the research by applying the KWL method to improve student's learning skill and reading comprehension activities, the following suggestion were given:

1. The teacher can choose alternative learning by applying the KWL method in reading learning, whether reading the discourse or other reading.
2. In order to make learning be fun for students, especially in reading material, teachers should be more creative and innovative in designing learning scenario.
3. The researcher hopes that the study of reading comprehension learning can use model, method, technique, and media that have never been used before.

REFERENCES
The Student Team Achievement Division Cooperative Learning for Students: Application of Mandarin Language

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ARTICLE INFO

ABSTRACT

Received: September 02, 2019
Accepted: October 15, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.20

KEYWORDS

Comprehension, Student Team Achievement Division

This study aims to know the development of comprehension on students' learning and students' learning activities on the application of Mandarin language after applying the cooperative learning model of the Student Team Achievement Division toward students. This research was a classroom action research in two cycles. The data was processed by being described as a percentage using the minimum completeness criteria (KKM) reference. The results of the study show: 1) students' understanding increases by applying the cooperative learning model of the student team achievement division in Formative I and Formative II showing an average of 68 and 82, from the data it shows the complete compliance of KKM by the classical completeness of 46% and 86% or the classical completeness achieved at Cycle II with an increase in the classical completeness by 40%; 2) the student learning activities are increased by applying the cooperative learning model of student team achievement division in Cycle I, including writing and reading 37%, working on 33% LKS, asking fellow friends 17%, asking teachers 7%, and the non-activity teaching learning 6%. Meanwhile, the Cycle II includes writing and reading 36%, working on LKS 36%, asking the teacher 4%, and which is not relevant to those that are not relevant to teaching and learning activities 3%.

1. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays the nation's welfare is not only based on natural resources and physical capital, but also on intellectual capital, capital and trust (credibility). Thus, to grow the nature of independent culture becomes an agreement. The development of the Chinese Language curriculum responds positively to various developments in information, knowledge, technology and decentralization assistance. It improves the relevance of the Chinese language learning program with local conditions and needs. The survival skills, social mastery, economic, cultural and moral principles foster a strong generation and are able to communicate in Mandarin.

However, this learning goal has not been achieved properly, including in students. In learning Mandarin, some students cannot master the material thoroughly. The classical completeness has not been achieved, so it is also related to the weak application of understanding Mandarin in the daily lives of the students. Currently, the emphasis in learning Mandarin Language still depends on the lecture method, question and answer, and discussion. The lecture method is still an option in the delivery of material because in reality applying learning oriented to student activities (student-centered) is still difficult, so students tend to be bored, and less eager to learn. This is due to the limited availability of tools and learning resources and the limited ability of teachers to vary learning models. As a result, the quality of learning is decreased, and causes the worse student learning outcomes. In learning Mandarin, some students cannot master the material thoroughly. Previous daily test data found results with an average score of only 62 from KKM of 75, meanwhile the number of students who completed their study was only 72%. The classical completeness has not yet been achieved, resulting in the weak application of understanding Mandarin in the daily lives of students.

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which are reflected in their behavior. The question and answer method is less effective because only certain students are active and willing to answer the questions given, so that there is a gap between the students. Besides, the method of discussion does not present the whole topics. Only the problematic matter can be discussed. A deep discussion requires a lot of time, it is difficult to determine the extent or depth of a discussion. Usually, not all students dare to express their opinions, so the time will be wasted because they wait for students to express their opinions. The discussion may be dominated by students who are brave and accustomed to speaking. Shy and quiet students will not use the opportunity to speak, and allow the arising of hostility between groups or consider their own group to be smarter and more versatile than other groups or consider other groups as rivals, inferior, trivial, or more stupid.

The efforts to improve learning process have been carried out by researchers as Mandarin teachers by applying several variations of learning models. In fact, the implementation of student's activity-oriented learning is not easy. The ability of researchers and the availability of teaching materials are still limited. To give variation and improve the application of learning models, the relevant model to learning Mandarin will be applied, namely cooperative learning models. Slavin (2008: 4) says that a cooperative learning refers to a variety of teaching methods where students work in small groups to help each other in learning subject matter. In cooperative classrooms, students are expected to help each other, discuss and argue with each other, to sharpen the knowledge they have mastered at the time, and close the gaps in their comprehension. So, the difference of discussion is the interdependence between students to understand the subject matter rather than just exchanging information or maintaining their opinions.

Ibrahim (2006: 6), in more detail, states that most learning that uses cooperative learning models have the following characteristics (1) Students learn in groups cooperatively to complete their learning material. (2) Groups are formed from students who have high, medium and low abilities. (3) If it is possible, group members come from different races, cultures, ethnicities and sexes. (4) The awards are more oriented to groups than individuals. So that the heterogeneity of students in groups is a must.

In order the group relations give a positive influence, they must seek an atmosphere of mutual ownership, mutual acceptance, mutual assistance and mutual care for one another. Lie (2008: 31) argues that there are five elements of cooperative learning that must be applied namely positive interdependence, individual responsibility, face to face, communication between members, and group process evaluation.

One of the simplest variants of cooperative learning models is the cooperative learning model of Student Team Achievement Division (STAD). The STAD cooperative learning type is applied to classify different abilities so as to enable an interaction between the teacher and students and between students and students actively so that students who are smart will be expected to help students who are less intelligent because in STAD students must have individual and group responsibilities so that will improve the quality of learning and improve learning outcomes. The individual responsibility arises as a result of self-assessment is a group assessment and the contrary. In this model, students have two forms of learning responsibilities. These are learning for themselves and helping fellow group members to learn (Rusman, 2011: 203). This model also trains the students in developing aspects of social skills instead of the cognitive skills (Isjoni, 2010: 72). Meanwhile, the role of the teacher also becomes more active and more focused as a facilitator, mediator, motivator and evaluator (Isjoni, 2010: 62).

2. METHODOLOGY

A. Type and Design of Research
According to Lewin in Aqib (2007: 21), he stated one cycle consists of four steps, these are planning (planning), action (acting), observation (observing) and reflection (reflecting).

B. Technique of Data Analysis
Test results data were analyzed using minimum completeness criteria (KKM) to obtain the percentage of students completed. The percentage of students completes compared to the indicators of research success.

C. Success Indicator
The success of this research is achieved if the individual student scores reach the Mandarin Language KKM set by the school at 75 and in classical terms ≥ 85% of students reach the KKM.
3. RESULTS
The research data obtained in the form of the observational data by observing the management of the complete teaching model and observing the activities of students and teachers at the end of learning, and test data on student learning outcomes in each cycle. The data sheet observations were taken from two observations, namely the formative data to determine the effect of the application of a complete teaching model in improving student mastery learning and student activity observation data.

Learning outcomes test data to determine the increase in student learning achievement was taken after the teaching and learning process was applied by applying the cooperative teaching model of the student team achievement division. Before the KMB Cycle I, it was carried out the results of the test as a Pre-cycle test. Referring to the attachment of Pre-cycle test data shows the lowest value of students is 25, while the highest value is 50. The average of 35, while the KKM is 75, no student gets a complete score or the classical completeness of 0%. Thus, the ability of students in the Pre-cycle test is very low.

1. Cycle I
   a. Planning Stage
   At this stage, the researcher prepares learning devices consisting of RPP 1 and 2, formative questions 1 and supporting teaching tools. In addition, students’ activity observation sheets were also prepared. All devices were obtained from discussions between researchers and peer teachers.

   b. Observation Stage I
   - Student Learning Activity Data
   At the observation stage, the researcher makes observations during the activity with the help of two teachers to observe student activities during the learning process by using the observation sheet of student activities. From the results of observations of student activities, the activity data obtained are presented in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Proportion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Writing and reading</td>
<td>37%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Doing LKS tasks</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Asking to Friends</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Asking to teacher</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Irrelevant</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

   - Student Learning Data
   At the end of the teaching and learning process, the students are given a formative test I to determine the level of success of students in the teaching and learning process. The research data in Cycle I are presented in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Values</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Completeness</th>
<th>Average</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>90</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

   According to Table 2 above, it can be explained that by applying the STAD type cooperative learning model, the average student achievement score is 68, with the lowest value 50 and the highest 90. The KKM is set at 75 so learning completeness is 46% or only 17 students from 37 students have finished studying. These results indicate that in Cycle I classically students have not yet finished learning,
because students who get a value of $\geq 75$ are only 46\% smaller than the percentage of completeness desired that is equal to 85\%. So, Cycle I still fails to improve the activities and completeness of student understanding.

c. Reflection Stage I

In Cycle I, the student learning completeness has not been achieved because during the observation of student activities in Cycle I, there are some disadvantages, namely:

1. Student cooperation in groups is still not optimal, there are still many students who are passive. They do look like working, but actually only a small percentage of them work, others only depend on their friends. This is caused by the low sense of responsibility's student for the assignment given. It is seen from the dominant writing and reading activities (38\%) supported by research documentation that shows students write and read a lot.

2. Some students in the group are still confused in responding to the new learning path so the discussion is not focused and there is no cooperative atmosphere.

3. Some students do irrelevant activities to teaching and learning activities.

2. Cycle II

a. Planning Stage

Cycle II is planned together with Cycle I only refers to reflection Cycle I, then corrective actions are taken. In Cycle II, a questionnaire for student responses was also prepared in addition to the same level in Cycle I planning. All devices were also arranged in discussions between researchers and research supervisors. The solution to the actions planned for the implementation of Cycle II from the results of the reflection above include:

1. The teacher gives a warning so that each student expresses his opinion during group work. For students who do not express their opinions during group work, the value will be reduced.

2. The stage of discussion is modified by exchanging ideas between one group and another group. This is intended to enrich ideas (often the emergence of ideas) in groups.

3. To help students come up with ideas and focus in discussions, the teacher sets up a media focus that students can observe during the discussion.

b. Observation stage

The data on student learning activities

At the observation stage, the researcher makes observations during the activity with the help of two teachers to observe student activities during the learning process by using the observation sheet of student activities. From the results of observations of student activities, the activity data obtained are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. The Student Cycle Learning Activity Score II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Proportion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Writing and reading</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Doing LKSTasks</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Asking to friends</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Asking to teachers</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Irrelevant</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Students Learning Result Data

The Improvement of student learning activities also has an impact on student comprehension. At the end of the second cycle, a learning outcome test was given as Formative II with a total of 10 items. The Formative Data II is presented in table 4.
According to table 4, the average test score is 82 and from 37 students who have completed 32 students and five students have not achieved mastery learning. Then classically the learning completeness that has been achieved is 86% (including the complete category). The results of this second cycle showed an increase in appreciation of students from Cycle I. The increase in appreciation of students in Cycle II was influenced by an increase in the quality of learning in implementing cooperative learning models of the student team achievement division, so students became more familiar with learning like this, so students were easier in understanding the material that has been given. In Cycle II, the classical completeness has increased and has been achieved, so this study only reached Cycle II.

c. Reflection Stage II
Some things noted in the reflection of Cycle II learning are follows:

i. Students start acting in discussions by showing the results of observation of learning activities that are slightly better than in Cycle I. The increase in student activity is presented in Figure 1.

Note:
1. Writing and reading
2. Doing LKS Tasks
3. Asking Friends
4. Asking Teachers
5. Irrelevant

Figure 1. The Student Activity Chart, Cycle I and Cycle II

i. The completeness of student learning outcomes increased from 58% or failed to 86% or in a successful logic. The overall improvement in student learning outcomes is presented in Figure 2.
ii. Students are used to express their opinions seen from research documentation and student learning activities where discussion activities increase and reach dominant, meaning the provision of tutorials by friends in groups is quite helpful in triggering students' ability to express their opinions.

On the cycle II, the teacher has implemented a cooperative learning model with the type of student team achievement division well and seen from the activities of the students and the learning outcomes of students implementing the teaching and learning process has gone well. So no revision is needed too much, but what needs to be considered for the next action is to maximize and maintain what already exists, so that the implementation of the teaching and learning process then the implementation of the cooperative learning model of the student team achievement division can improve the learning process so that the learning objectives can be achieved.

4. DISCUSSION

According to Figure 1, the improving quality of learning activities is indicated by changes in Cycle I activities to Cycle II. The average writing and reading activity changes from the proportion of 37% to 36%. The working activities in the discussion rose from 33% to 36%. The activity of asking friends rose from 17% to 21%. The activity of asking teachers fell from 7% to 4%. And the irrelevant activities to KBM fall from 6% to 3%. These values indicate that the activity of students in Cycle II is better than in Cycle I, even though there are no changes in individual activities such as writing and reading occur in Cycle II, but work activities experience a slight increase.

The dependence of students on teachers decreases with the decline in the activity of asking questions to the teacher offset by the increase in positive dependence among students with the increased activity of asking fellow students. The conclusion is reinforced by the finding that the irrelevant KBM in Cycle II shrank slightly from Cycle I.

According to Figure 2, it can be seen that the average value before the application of the cooperative learning model of the student team achievement division is in the form of a pretest value of 35 with learning completeness achieved 0%, meanwhile after the application of cooperative learning models of student team achievement division, the grades of students has increased. Based on the results of the tests in Cycle I, the average value of learning outcomes achieved by students is 68 with a percentage of 46%, for the average value of learning outcomes and the percentage of classical completeness achieved has not reached the established success indicators because there are still many students under minimum completeness criteria. After Cycle II was done, the student learning outcomes according to Formative II were an average of 82 with classical completeness and reached 86%, because the above average value of KKM is 75 and classical completeness has reached 85%. Then Cycle II actions can be said to successfully improve student learning outcomes up to the specified completeness criteria. In Cycle I, the student learning completeness has not been achieved because during the observation of student activities in Cycle I, there are still some disadvantages, namely: The student cooperation in groups is still not optimal, there are still many students who are passive. They do look like working,
but actually only a small percentage of them work, others only depend on their friends. This is because students lack the sense of responsibility for the assignment given. It can be seen from the dominant writing and reading activities of 38% supported by research documentation that shows students write and read a lot. Some students in the group are still confused in responding to the new learning path so the discussion is not focused and there is no cooperative atmosphere. Some students do irrelevant activities to teaching and learning activities.

Therefore, the solution on the implementation of Cycle II from the results of the reflection above includes: The teacher gives a warning so that each student expresses his opinion during group work. For students who do not express their opinions during group work, the value will be reduced. The discussion stage is modified by exchanging ideas between one group and another group. This is intended to enrich ideas (often the emergence of ideas) in groups. To help students bring up ideas and focus in discussions, the teacher installs in-focus media that students can observe during the discussion.

So that, during the observation of the activities of the Cycle II students, the assessment of the learning outcomes test (cognitive domain), and observations on the implementation of the cooperative learning model of the Cycle II student team achievement division, there were no visible improvements, students who made noise in Cycle II the teacher can handle it well, student learning outcomes have shown improvement and all students are said to be complete. In a whole, all aspects of learning outcomes have increased from Cycle I to Cycle II, because the implementation process in Cycle II has been able to achieve the results of the expected learning and has been able to answer the formulation of the problem in this study, the next cycle is not held. Learning using cooperative model learning of the student team achievement division type has advantages compared to conventional learning. In cooperative model learning of the student team achievement division type can stimulate students to be active in the teaching and learning process. The cooperative learning model of the student team achievement division can improve student learning activities, train the application of Christian values in the interaction of fellow students, and stimulate students' ability to think. So, as to make students more motivated to learn because students are invited to be directly involved. As a mediator, the teacher takes three roles, namely functioning as a facilitator, model and trainer. As a facilitator, the teacher creates a rich environment and creativity, to help students build their knowledge. In order to carry out this role, there are three things that must be done. First, regulate the physical environment, including the arrangement of the layout of furniture in the room as well as the supply of various resources and equipment that can help students' teaching and learning process. Second, provide a social environment that supports student learning processes, such as heterogeneous grouping of students and inviting students to develop social structures that encourage the emergence of appropriate behaviors for graduating between students, thirdly, the teacher gives the task of provoking interaction between students and the surrounding physical and social environment. In this case, the teacher must be able to motivate the child. The impact is that the interaction between students is very good and is able to attune to good behavior in dealing with group friends.

5. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

5.1 Conclusion

The conclusions from the application of the cooperative learning model of the student team achievement division during the teaching and learning activities are as follows:

1. Students' comprehension increases by applying the cooperative learning model of the student team achievement division in Formative I and Formative II showing an average of 68 and 82, from these data, it shows complete compliance with KKM with classical completeness of 46% and 86% or classical completeness achieved at Cycle II. An increase in classical completeness is 40%.

2. Student learning activities increase by applying cooperative learning model of the student team achievement division in Cycle I include writing, reading 37%, working on 33% LKS, asking fellow friends 17%, asking the teacher 7%, and which is not relevant to the activity teaching learning 6%. Meanwhile Cycle II includes writing and reading 36%, working on LKS 36%, asking fellow friends 21%, asking the teacher 4%, and which is not relevant to those that are not relevant to teaching and learning activities 3%.
5.2 Suggestion
The results of the analysis and recording at the time of the teaching and learning activities that applied the cooperative learning model of student team achievement division in the school were really useful in accordance with the research objectives. Seeing the conditions of learning outcomes and recording of learning activities and student responses when teachers learn can be suggested as follows:

1. Teachers in this learning should have more learning strategies than just providing information.
2. During group work the rules need to be informed to students in accordance with group goals, so that group goals can be achieved and can be seen in individualized learning outcomes tests.
3. Students are given the opportunity to find and apply their ideas, and the teacher should be a facilitator.

REFERENCES


Rokeya Sakhawat Hossain’s “Sultana’s Dream”: A Psychoanalytic Interpretation

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ARTICLE INFO

Received: September 09, 2019  
Accepted: October 12, 2019  
Published: November 30, 2019  
Volume: 2  
Issue: 6  
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.21

KEYWORDS

Desire, Dream, Empowerment, Patriarchy, Reality, Unconscious

ABSTRACT

“Sultana’s Dream” by Rokeya Sakhawat Hossain describes a long journey of dream where Rokeya’s motives behind the dream are revealed. The unconscious mind reserves repressed feelings, emotions, desires, thoughts, and memories that get satisfaction in dream and make the dream meaningful. This paper tries to discover Rokeya’s inner desires that take shelter in her unconscious mind and find fulfillment in her dream. Interpreting her dream, this paper also tries to explore the hidden messages she wanted to give in the text. This study further analyzes the border between her dream and reality. We hope this paper will contribute to the existing body of research work on Rokeya.

1. INTRODUCTION

“Sultana’s Dream” is a 1905 feminist utopian story written by Begum Rokeya Sakhawat Hossain where the dream of Sultana reflects the repressed desires of Rokeya herself, as she disguises under the name of Sultana in the text. The story starts with a sequence of dream where Sultana enjoys liberation from the maxims of patriarchy in a utopian Ladyland - the land ruled by honesty, love, peace, truth, purity, knowledge and science. In this imaginative land, women live in a complacent state resisting masculine supremacy that always prevents feminine agenda to be audible and distant. However, Sultana cannot remain in that ideal land forever as she awakes from her blissful dream. Hence, her unconscious desires get fulfillment only in her dream. Critics have examined “Sultana’s Dream” from multiple perspectives but none of them has explored the dream from Freudian perspective. Applying Freudian psychoanalytic interpretation, this paper focuses on how the repressed or unsatisfied wishes of Rokeya are partially satisfied in the dream. This paper also shows that the reality is completely reverse from her dream world and she consciously or subconsciously accepts this very fact.

2. DISCUSSION

Sigmund Freud believes that a dream is an escape-hatch or safety-valve through which repressed desires, fears, or memories seek an outlet into the conscious mind. When some wish, fear, memory, or desire is difficult to face, we try to cope up with it by repressing it, eliminating it from the conscious mind. However, this does not make it go away rather it remains alive in the unconscious, like radioactive matter buried beneath the ocean. “All of Freud’s work depends upon the notion of unconscious, which is the part of the mind beyond consciousness which nevertheless has a strong influence upon our actions” (Barry, 2002, pp. 96-100). Rivkin and Ryan (1998) observe that “the human mind contains a dimension that is only partially accessible to consciousness and then only through indirect means such as dreams” (p. 119). According to Freud, the mind can be divided into three parts: the conscious, the preconscious and the unconscious. The conscious mind includes everything that we are aware of. The preconscious mind includes our memories that are not always part of consciousness but can be retrieved easily at any time and brought into our awareness. The unconscious mind is a reservoir of feelings, thoughts, urges, and memories that are outside of our conscious awareness. Dreams are the workings of this unconscious mind. Freud assigns the mental processes to three psychic zones: the id, the ego, and the super ego. According to Freud (2005) “...to adopt a popular mode of speaking, we might say that the ego stands for reason and good sense while the id stands for the untamed passions” (p. 501). Peter Gay (1989) notes that “[D]reams are a product of dreamers own mind” (p. 143). To Freud, dreams contain two parts: manifest content and latent content. Manifest content describes
what a person remembers from a dream. **Latent content** refers to the true meaning of the **manifest content**. So, the underlying motives of the **unconscious** can be discovered by interpreting dreams. Dreams reflect not only the motives preserved in the **unconscious** but also the thoughts and concerns of our waking life. “The interpretation of dream does not itself indicate that these are fantasies and not recollections of actual events; it only provides us with content of the thought and leaves it to us to decide what it is worth as reality” (Freud, 1999, p. 220). The ultimate goal of dream interpretation is not to understand the dream but to understand the dreamer. “**Dream-displacement** and **dream-condensation** are the two foremen in the charge of the dream-work” (Freud, 1999, p. 235).

In “**Sultana’s Dream**”, Rokeya Sakhawat Hossain advocates emancipation of women from their deplorable and inferior status by forming a feminine utopia in the dream of the very character Sultana who always internalizes patriarchal restriction and confinement and thus behaves accordingly in real world. However, in the dream she discovers a new world where her crushed desires are free to be satisfied. In this text, the readers are directed in the realm of dream to discover the value of equal contribution of women in every sphere of their lives.

**2.1 Manifest Content of the Dream**

“**Sultana’s Dream**” describes a long journey in the dream world where the traditional roles of male and female are reversed. In her dream, Sultana walks with Sister Sara towards a garden like land in “a fine morning”, though it is “starry night” in reality (Hossain, 2014, p. 403). This land is called the “**Ladyland**” where the women have access to public spaces without being subjected to male surveillance and the men are restrained to “**Mardana**” (an opposite word to zenana) (p. 410). Here, there is no sign of patriarchal domination as a Queen rules the land. “. . . ladies rule over the country and control all social matters, while gentlemen are kept in the Mardanas to mind babies, to cook and to do all sorts of domestic work” (p. 411). The women are supreme here and by using “brain power”, women prove themselves worthier than the men do (p. 406). They are not only expert in laboratory work but also in household activities like “knitting and needle work” (p. 406). Early marriage is banned here and no woman is permitted to marry before she is twenty-one.

There are two universities for women in **Ladyland**: one of them invented a “water balloon” which is linked by numeral pipes (p. 407). Through this balloon, they can drive above the cloudland and draw as much water as they want from the atmosphere. Another university discovered an instrument to gather sun heat to create solar heat for cooking and to keep the rooms warm in the cold weather. There is “no sign of coal or fire” (p. 407). They plow their land through electricity to supply the required power for their work. Earlier when the women in **Ladyland** were busy in different scientific researches, the men laughed at their invention by calling the whole thing as “a sentimental nightmare” (p. 408). The term “sentimental nightmare” was used to mock on their work, as the men could not imagine women outside the household and not even their scientific discoveries. Though the men laugh at their achievements, they finally acknowledge their deeds as the country is saved from the enemy only through the scientific invention of women. Now other countries do not dare to invade this land in the fear of its women capabilities. The **Ladyland** is free from flood, thunderstorm, mud or even a single mosquito bite. The “artificial fountain” (p. 411) is another invention to keep the environment cool in hot weather. The paths of this land are covered with “green grass”, “moss and flowers” (p. 404). The kitchen seems to be a garden. “Hydrogen balls” are used to overcome the force of gravity and “air-car” is used as vehicle here (p. 412). Here “Love and Truth” are key concepts of religion and the relationships are sacred (p. 412). Sultana’s visit in this **Feminist Utopian** land is the **manifest content** of the dream. The term **Feminist Utopia** points to a world where men and women are not stuck in traditional customs of inequality. The main concern of **Feminist Utopia** is to establish a world where women can enjoy all access to the private and public sphere in order to become self-reliant. In this dream land, girls through education and intellectual faculties achieve excellence in both individual and private space.

**2.2 Latent Content of the Dream**

The dream represents Rokeya Sakhawat Hossain’s desire to reform the society where a woman would not be treated as a secondary being. The images of her dream present an escape from the sad reality into the place where she wishes to be. The image of **Ladyland** symbolizes her desire to expel all forms of discrimination against women from the society and to make women educated. She believes that women possess the same quality as that of men and they have the power to prove their capability in both household chores and in ruling the country, if they are given proper opportunities. This is reflected in the “piece of
embroidery work” done by Sister Sara and her capability of finishing laboratory work in two hours (p. 406).

Again, Rokeya’s dreaming of the Ladyland ruled by a Queen implies her desire of women-empowerment. Dreaming about walking with Sister Sara in a garden-like land provides the writer with a link to her past days at Darjeeling, where she used to walk with Sister Sara in the botanical gardens. The time, “a fine morning” (p. 403) in the dream, suggests new beginning, new hope, new opportunities, and freedom from darkness. It reflects Rokeya’s wish to reform the society and provide women with new opportunities to prove themselves. She wants the women to be free from patriarchal shackles and to attain individual identity. The image of ‘kitchen’ (p. 406) reminds the reader of the time when women were considered as a part of hearth because they had to consume a certain portion of time in the kitchen. Rokeya’s unconscious mind wants to change this situation and that is why, in the dream the kitchen belongs to the men and they perform the domestic works. On the contrary, the social activities are conducted by the women.

Rokeya radically resists women’s restriction to “Zenana” (p. 404) and their seclusion from the outside world. Her dream reflects this protest when Sister Sara says, “[M]en, who do or at least are capable of doing no end of mischief, are let loose and the innocent women, shut up in the zenana! How can you trust those untrained men out of doors?” (p. 405). Thus, Sister Sara becomes the mouthpiece of Rokeya’s inner self as she (Sara) expresses her hidden desires.

In Rokeya’s time, the women were confined in domestic world, but she wanted women to be free from this confinement. In the dream when Sultana looks at Sister Sara’s bathroom, to her utter surprise she discovers, “[S]he could enjoy a shower bath whenever she liked, by simply removing the roof (which was like the lid of a box)” (pp. 411-412). The ‘box’ symbolically suggests the imprisoned condition of women, but being able to remove the lid or the roof of bathroom signifies Rokeya’s desire of freedom from this captivity.

Early marriage had created a strong influence on Rokeya’s mind while her sister was forced to marry at the age of fifteen. It gets reflected in her dream, “[A]nd early marriage also was stopped. No woman was to be allowed to marry before she was twenty-one” (p. 407). It suggests her concern for women education as she knows that early marriage hinders women education.

Though Begum Rokeya was born in a highly educated family, she could not get the scope of formal education. At the age of eighteen, when she got married, she found an opportunity to flourish herself through proper education. Her husband encouraged her to learn Bengali and English language. The female students in the universities of the Ladyland mirror her repressed desire for getting institutional education. It also suggests her hope to educate all women of Indian subcontinent. Because she realizes that education is the key tool for women empowerment. Education paves the way for women to perform socially, politically, psychologically and even technically. The images of the dream like “water balloon” (p. 411), “solar heat” (p. 406), “artificial fountains”, “air car”, and “hydrogen balls” (pp. 411-12) reflect Rokeya’s optimistic mind. They also suggest her desire for ensuring women of the knowledge of advanced science and technology so that they can contribute to the society with their “brain power” (p. 408).

Rokeya’s dream land is like a garden where the paths are covered with grasses and flowers. It suggests her love and concern for natural environment. She desires not only for a scientifically developed country but also for a country which is environmentally sound. Sister Sara utters in her dream, “Your Calcutta could become a nicer garden than this if only your countrymen wanted to make it so” (p. 404). It also symbolizes that Calcutta would be a better place if the men treat the women equally and allow them with proper education. The religion in the dream land reflects Rokeya’s humanist ideals as it is based on love, truth, mercifulness, and purity. A distant cousin is considered as sacred as a brother in her dream land. It suggests her desire for such a religion which would not lock up women in the domestic space and would not make discrimination between male and female.

2.3 Border between Dream and Reality
Rokeya gets a sudden jerk from her dream and is thrown into the world of reality: “After visiting the above places of interest we got again into the air-car, but as soon as it began moving, I somehow slipped down and the fall startled me out of my dream. And on opening my eyes, I found myself in my own bedroom still lounging in the easy-chair!” (p. 413). Rokeya realizes that her dream is totally opposite to the harsh reality. The reality is, though she dreams of reforming the society, the outcome is not gratifying as women are still marginalized in the society. Though a number of feminist movements take place over the period of time to impart women proper right, they are still victimized by the prevailing social customs. To achieve
sustainable growth of a nation, women empowerment plays a vital role; but it is as if Rokeya’s dream of women empowerment and equal rights for male and female were possible only in a dream, not in reality. Women’s spiritual freedom may come only when they would be free from patriarchal oppression and capable of establishing individual identity. But patriarchy always victimizes women to suppress them. Still women’s position is inferior to the men and they are treated as secondary beings. Though a new era has been created in the field of science and technology all over the world, women’s contribution to the development of a nation is concealed every day by the patriarchal power. The orthodox society still thinks women should be confined to household activities. Some forms of violence against women like rape, killing, sexual harassment, violence in the workplace, and domestic violence have become regular incidents. Early marriage is still happening.

The millennium development goal includes universal education and gender equality. But it is shocking that the goal has not been achieved fully. Though religion emphasizes the equal treatment between male and female, the dominating society is still oppressing women by keeping them physically, psychologically, and socially inferior to men. Education can uphold women’s dignity, but the goal of educating women has not been achieved yet. It remains only a dream as Rokeya’s “Sultana’s Dream”.

Like “Sultana’s Dream”, Herland is also a feminist utopian novel where Charlotte Perkins Gilman creates a society ruled by women without any aid of men. Both Rokeya and Gilman are compelled to move on the imaginary world—full of happiness and tranquility, due to the extreme misery and melancholy that triumph in the real world.

5. CONCLUSION
To sum up, this study has tried to discover the latent thoughts behind Sultana’s dream- the thoughts repressed or unsatisfied in the real life take shelter in the unconscious part of mind and become partially satisfied in dream. Interpreting the dream, this study has attempted to analyze the inner messages of “Sultana’s Dream”, the radical feminist agendas of Rokeya Sakhawat Hossain. Through the dream Rokeya has set up the paths for women development as well as for global prosperity, but the world has yet to achieve them. Hence, implementation of her notion is the demand of time. This study can help the future researchers to analyze other works using Freudian psychoanalysis. This paper can also raise many possibilities for the readers to look into other literary works from a new perspective.

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An Analysis of the Translation of Cultural Humor in the Novel “Huo Zhe”

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ARTICLE INFO

Abstract: Verbal humor is often found in literary works, but not all the translations of verbal humor in the TL (target language) can adequately convey the sense of humor that contained in the SL (source language). Different cultures and languages cause difficulties in the translation, and usually different types of verbal humor do not always match the same translation strategies and methods. In the process of translating verbal humor, what is essential is successfully conveying the exact information and the same or similar effect of humorous. Thus, functional equivalence theory is needed in the process of translating verbal humor to achieve the formal equivalence and dynamic equivalence on verbal humor. This article uses a Chinese novel which has been translated into Indonesian, “Hidup” as a research subject. It found that in this novel contained three types of verbal humor: universal humor, linguistics humor, and cultural humor. Among them, the translation of cultural humor is the most difficult to achieve functional equivalence. Thus, this article studied the translation methods for cultural humor. The findings revealed that it was not always successful because the translation methods mismatch with the types of verbal humor. Therefore, this article proposes some suggestions for translation methods for unsuccessful cases in cultural humor.

KEYWORDS
Verbal humor; Cultural humor; Translation methods; compensation method; Novel.

1.INTRODUCTION
Humor is an ability to find, express, or appreciate something funny (Yuniarti, 2014, p. 225). There is humor everywhere in our lives. Humor can cross tribes, cultures, genders, class barriers, and plays an indispensable role in different cultures and languages. Humor has a close relationship with religious beliefs, ideology, social concepts, political systems, and cultural customs. Usually, humor is relied on the language and culture, whereas culture and language have ethnic differences, so we believe that humor has differences in ethnicity and culture.

Based on the relationship between humor and language, humor can be divided into verbal humor and non-verbal humor (Ping, 2007, p. 28). Verbal humor also includes several types, such as universal humor, cultural humor, and linguistic humor (Ping, 2007, p. 29; Li, 2014, p. 96). Whether in comic, sitcom, audiovisual, or novel, the translation of verbal humor is very important because it will affect the reaction of the target reader. If the target reader cannot feel the sense of humor, the translation could be said that it is unsuccessful. The function of verbal humor is getting the laugh of the reader in order to achieve equivalence on the effects of humor. While the translation of verbal humor is not simply because the translation does not only involve the transformation between the two languages, what is more important is the cultural differences between the two countries. Some translations of cultural humor in the novel can not together convey the same information with different cultures and achieve the equivalent of meaning with different humorous powers. Usually translators tend to emphasize the ST (source text) but rarely pay attention to cultural factors that are recognized by the target reader, the form of local language expression, the situation factors needed in the TL so that the translation methods on verbal humor are complicated to maintain the equivalence of information, the power of humor and the effect of humor. According to Nida, equivalence includes formal equivalence and dynamic
equivalence, where formal equivalence focuses on information, not only focusing on the form of information but also focusing on the content of information. Thus, the information in the TL should correspond with different factors in the SL information (Nida, as cited in Munday, 2016, p. 68). Meanwhile, dynamic equivalence is referred to as “the principle of equivalence effect”, it means that the relationship between target reader and the information to be received should correspond with the relationship between the source reader and the information to be received (Nida, as cited in Munday, 2016, p. 68).

2. LITERATURE REVIEW
The results of research on the translation of verbal humor in English are already quite a lot both in films or novels because of the status of British and American cultural dominance along with dominant English throughout the world in long history (Biao, 2012, pp. 229-230; Xia, 2015, pp. 52-54; Li, 2014, pp. 96-98; Herman, 2013, pp. 36-37; Qiong & Ling, 2014, pp. 137-141; Ju, 2017, pp. 61-67; Wei & Nian, 2018, pp. 157-161; Lutviana, Tursini & Subiyanto, 2016, pp. 448-454; Attardo, 2017; Zolczer, 2016, pp. 76-92; Okyayuz, 2016, pp. 204-224; Yulisri, 2017, pp. 105-116). Where the results of research on verbal humor are mainly divided into four types: (1) discussed the translation of verbal humor from the perspective of GTVH (General Theory of Verbal Humor) or relevance theory (Ling & Jian, 2012, pp. 108-112; Li, 2014, pp. 96-98; Qiong & Ling, 2014, pp. 137-141; Run, 2018, pp. 82-88); (2) discussed the translation of verbal humor for subtitling or dubbing in films, series, or sitcoms (Li, 2014, pp. 96-98; Rui & Wei, 2015, pp. 59-63; Ju, 2017, pp. 61-67; Wei & Nian, 2018, pp. 157-161; Okyayuz, 2016, pp. 204-224; Zolczer, 2016, pp. 76-92); (3) discussed translation strategies of verbal humor such as domestication and foreignization (Qiong & Ling, 2014, pp. 137-141; Hua, 2014, pp. 98-101; Rui & Wei, 2015, pp. 59-63; Ju, 2017, pp. 61-67; Wei & Nian, 2018, pp. 157-161; Yulisri, 2017, pp. 105-116); and (4) discussed the translatability and untranslatability of verbal humor and the reader’s acceptability or reader response to the translation of verbal humor (Lutviana, Tursini & Subiyanto, 2016, pp. 448-454; Ju, 2017, pp. 61-67; Yulisri, 2017, pp. 105-116).

Based on the literature review above, it can be seen that the results of research on the translation of verbal humor in English are sufficiently successful and so that in most of the countries can translate the language into English or vice versa because of both linguistic humor and cultural humor already researched. However, regardless of the number and quality of research results on the translation of verbal humor, translation studies are rarely found in Mandarin and Indonesian. In addition, the results of the translation either translate Chinese literary works into Indonesian or translate Indonesian literary works into Mandarin is very limited, for example Chinese literary works like “San Guo Yan Yi”, “Huo Zhe”, “A Q Cheng Zuan”, “Kuang Ren Ri Ji” and others are translated into Indonesian, and Indonesian literary works like “Bumi Manusia”, “Lelaki Harimau”, “Laskar Pelangi” and others were translated into Mandarin. Nevertheless, the numbers are still tiny, and the translation is not always perfect.

Therefore, in this article, the author uses the theory of functional equivalence as a theoretical basis to discuss the translation of cultural humor in the novel “Hidup”. By reading and analyzing the cultural humor in the novel “Hidup” with Chinese and Indonesian versions, the writer wants to try to answer the following questions: How about the translation methods for cultural humor in the novel “Hidup”. Thus, the results of this study not only add to the linguistic treasure, primarily related to the translation of the language of humor but will also be a reference in the translation of cultural humor scripts in literary works between Mandarin and Indonesian.

3. METHODOLOGY
This research uses qualitative research. In this article, the research subject or data source is the original novel “Huo Zhe” (To Live) in Mandarin and the translated novel “Hidup” (To Live) in Indonesian. The focus of this research is a lingual unit that contains cultural humor. The original author of the novel “Huo Zhe” is Yú Huá, one of the most famous and successful writers in China. Novel “Huo Zhe” (3rd edition) used in this research was published in November 2018 by Writer Press. The name of Indonesia is “Hidup”, it was published on February 7, 2015, by Gramedia Pustaka Utama. The Indonesian translator is Agustinus Wibowo. It is the only translation in Indonesia for this novel so far. The novel “Huo Zhe” is called “a novel full of black humor in the Chinese style”. Verbal humor is used in many places in this novel. Therefore, the writer takes the data source from this novel. Below is the cover of the original novel and the translated novel.
In the process of collecting data, the authors read and marked verbal humor in the novel, so the techniques used in data collection are reading and note-taking techniques. Moreover, the instruments used in this study are human instruments and verbal humor criteria, namely whether verbal humor has the characteristics and forms of cultural humor expression and whether verbal humor violates the maxim of cooperation in order to produce humorous effects and make the target audience smile or laugh. During the process of analyzing data will analyze, including verbal humor and verbal humor's translation methods.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results

Types of verbal humor contained in the novel “Hidup”:
(1) Universal humor;
(2) Linguistic humor;
(3) Cultural humor.

The translation methods used in the process of translating the verbal humor in the novel “Hidup”:
(1) Literal translation method;
(2) Free translation method;
(3) Replacement method.

Suggestions for translation methods for unsuccessful cases in cultural humor:
(1) Replacement method;
(2) Literal translation with a detailed explanation;
(3) Free translation method;
(4) Literal translation method.

Discussion

A. Humor and Verbal Humor

a. Definition of Humor

The word “humor” comes from in Latin language. An ancient Greek doctor thought that in the human body, there were four bodily fluids. In history, the notion of humor underwent several changes. The meaning understood by humans now includes two aspects: (1) refers to the phenomenon of humor, mainly formed from language behavior and non-human language behavior; (2) refers to the ability to understand, appreciate and create humor (Hua, 1996, p. 4).

b. Definition of Verbal Humor

Verbal humor is the application of language, referring to humor expressed through language. Verbal humor is humor that is expressed in language, including humor seen from language and humor created by language (Bergson, 1991, as cited in Li, 2014, p. 96). In the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, “humor” is defined as “the ability or tendency to think that things are funny, or funny things you say that shows you have this ability.” Based on specific contexts, verbal humor takes language as a medium, uses humorous writing style to criticize and expose ambiguous and unreasonable phenomena in real life by insinuating, mocking, exaggerating and pun (a word or phrase with double meaning ) in order to express their own opinions, inspire others to think, and produce meaningful artistic effects (Hua, 1996, p. 10). In short, in verbal humor, the writer or speaker does not express his thoughts directly but instead uses a metaphor to clarify the facts or reasons. However, not all of these methods can produce a humorous effect, especially after switching the translation, verbal humor in the SL often cannot produce the humor effect in the TL.
Table 1 Examples of cultural humor in the novel

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Chinese</th>
<th>Indonesia</th>
<th>English as reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Huang di zhaow wo zuo ny xu, lu yuan tiao tiao wo bu qu. (p.5)</td>
<td>Kaisar cari aku jadi menantu, mesti jalan jauh, aku tak mau. (p.9)</td>
<td>The emperor invited me to be a son-in-law, and the road is far away, I will not go.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Ni cai shi guo min dang, wo jian guo guo min dang, jiu xiang ni zhe me ma ren. (p.97)</td>
<td>“Kamu itu yang Nasionalis,” aku berseru, “Aku pernah lihat Nasionalis, persis kamu ini makin orang”. (p.116)</td>
<td>You are the Nationalist Party. I have seen the Nationalist Party, just like you are so awkward.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Dang wo wang zhe dao chu dou chong man lv se de tu di shi, wo jiu hui jin yi bu ming bai zhuang jia wei he zhang de ru ci wang sheng. (p.3-4)</td>
<td>Ketika memandang tanah hijau menghampar di sekeliling, aku semakin sadar kenapa tanaman di sini tumbuh begitu subur dan segar. (p.7)</td>
<td>When I look at the green land everywhere, I will further understand why the crop grows so strong.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
C. The Translation Methods of Cultural Humor in the Novel “Huo Zhe”

a. Kaisar cari aku jadi menantu, mesti jalan jauh, aku tak mau. (p.9)

In this sentence, the language that produces the effect of humor is “jalan jauh, aku tak mau” (the road is far away, I will not go) even though “Kaisar cari aku jadi menantu” (the emperor invited me to be a son-in-law). We can find out that it was mocking because surely the Emperor would not look for him as his son-in-law, but he said the reason it did not go was that he thought the road was too far away, so he did not want to go.

In this translation, the translation method on verbal humor is literal translation because this translation follows the sentence form and grammatical structure in the SL. It turns out that this translation adequately conveyed the message in the SL, but actually it cannot fully achieve the effect of humor because in Indonesian culture there is no “Huang Di” (Emperor), so the target readers do not yet know the Emperor’s honor in Chinese culture, and they cannot yet understand that it is a noble if can be Emperor’s son-in-law so they would not find it funny. Thus, this translation achieved formal equivalence but failed to achieve dynamic equivalence.


In this sentence, the language which should produce the effect of humor is "aku pernah lihat Nasionalis, persis kamu ini maki-maki orang." (I have seen the Nationalist Party, just like you are so awkward) Here this teacher metaphorically became Nationalist because the teacher was abusing people. Nationalists are, in fact, Guomindang, a kind of party in China that used to scold people like that often, but the party has now turned into an ordinary party. This is a kind of cultural humor because in Indonesian culture, it does not have a party, so the target reader feels confused and will ask why teachers who curse people can be like nationalists, actually nationalists are not bad people or like to curse people. Therefore, this translation did not produce the effect of humor.

In this translation, the translation method on verbal humor is free translation because the Guomindang Party is translated as nationalist as in Indonesia. However, it turns out that this translation is inaccurate and did not adequately convey the message in the SL. Thus, this translation did not reach formal equivalence and dynamic equivalence.

c. Ketika memandang tanah hijau menghampar di sekeliling, aku semakin sadar kenapa tanaman di sini tumbuh subur dan segar. (p.7)

In this sentence, the language that should produce the effect of humor is “ketika memandang tanah hijau sadar kenapa tanaman di sini tumbuh begitu subur dan segar” (When I look at the green land everywhere, I will further understand why the crop grows so strong) because this shows that everywhere there is an affair. This includes cultural humor because, in Chinese culture, the color green is usually meant to be an affair, but in Indonesia it is not like that.

In this translation, the translation method on verbal humor is literal translation because this translation fully follows the form and structure in the SL, so this translation adequately conveyed the message in the SL. However, this translation did not produce a humorous effect because there is a culture shock so that target readers in Indonesia cannot understand the true meaning. Thus, this translation has reached formal equivalence but has not reached dynamic equivalence.

d. Aku lihat diriku menang lagi, aku bilang, “Long Er, kamu cuci tangan saja sana.” (p.23)

In this sentence, the language which should produce the effect of humor is “Long Er, kamu cuci tangan saja sana” (“Long Er, go wash your hands”) because here Fugui let Long Er wash his hands to mock his lousy
luck after touching a woman’s buttocks. This is a kind of cultural humor because, according to the Chinese, luck will be taken to another place if that person touches a woman’s buttocks. However, in Indonesian culture, there is no such story, so this translation cannot produce the effect of humor.

In this translation, the translation method on verbal humor is literal translation because the translator translates the SL directly without changing vocabulary, so this translation already conveyed information in the SL. Nevertheless, the culture shock makes this sentence fail to achieve the same humor function as the SL. Thus, this translation has reached formal equivalence but has not reached dynamic equivalence.

e.  
   "Aku berulang-ulang berseru, “Komandan Kompi, Komandan Kompi, Komandan Kompi...”. Semua kata yang lain...tetap menangis. Satu Tentara Pembebasan di sampingnya berkata padaku, “Dia Komandan Resimen”. (p.75)

In this sentence, the language that produces the effect of humor is Fugui exclaims “Komandan Kompi” (company commander) but someone else tells him that actually it is “Komandan Resimen” (regimental commander). It is a kind of cultural humor because this kind of position in China and Indonesia is not the same. However, both the SL and the TL all indicate that Lian Zhang or Komandan Kompi was far lower than Tuan Zhang or Komandan Resimen. Therefore, this translation reaches the effect of humor.

In this translation, the translation method on verbal humor is a replacement translation because in both cultures do not have precisely the same position, the translator translates the above position with a similar position in Indonesia, and the language is also smoother and more comfortable to understand by target readers in Indonesia. Thus, this translation has reached formal equivalence and dynamic equivalence.

In short, the translation methods used to translate cultural humor are literal translation, free translation, and replacement, where not all of them reached equivalence.

D. Suggestion for The Translation which do not Fully Reach Equivalence

Based on the analysis above, it can be seen that verbal humor in the example sentence did not all have reached the formal equivalence or dynamic equivalence. However, it turns out here can change some translation methods on other cultural humor to achieve functional equivalence. Therefore, for translations that did not fully achieve equivalence, the authors propose to change several translation methods that are more suitable to cultural humor so that can achieve equivalence.

a.  
   "Kaisar cari aku jadi menantu, mesti jalan jauh, aku tak mau. (p.9)

This translation achieved formal equivalence but failed to achieve dynamic equivalence because the translation method used was a literal translation, where “Huang Di” in Chinese culture was directly translated into “Kaisar”. This translation achieved formal equivalence because, in Indonesian, the meaning of “Huang Di” should be “Kaisar”, but it failed to achieve dynamic equivalence because the target audience did not yet fully know the Emperor’s position in China.

However, in Indonesia, some people have a position like the Emperor in China, namely the “Raja” (King). Therefore, in this translation, it is more appropriate to use a replacement method because this method will look for substitution of cultural substitute that contains different cultures, and this replacement is also found in the TL so that the target reader can find out the true meaning. In this way, it may not be able to fully achieved formal equivalence because “Kaisar” is replaced by “Raja”, but the practical function can succeed. For verbal humor, if the function is not achieved, then the language is not included verbal humor. Therefore, this replacement method will make this translation achieve dynamic equivalence because it produces the effect of humor and pragmatic functions.

b.  

This translation did not reach formal and dynamic equivalence because the translation method used was the free translation. In this translation, the Guomindang Party is translated nationalist and did not produce a humorous effect. The Guomindang Party is different from the nationalists, and it is so different that this translation failed to achieve equivalence.

In a context like this, it is more appropriate to use the literal translation method with detailed explanation, where the Guomindang Party is directly translated as the Guomindang Party, meanwhile, the translator can add an explanation to the footnotes to explain a little about the party’s knowledge so that the target reader can find out cultural differences and produce the humor effect that was supposed to be brought about.

c.  
   "Ketika memandang tanah hijau menghampar di sekeliling, aku semakin sadar kenapa tanaman di sini tumbuh begitu subur dan segar. (p.7)

This translation has reached formal equivalence but
has not reached functional equivalence because the translation method used is a literal translation. In this way, although it can achieve formal equivalence, it failed to achieve dynamic equivalence due to cultural differences between the two countries so that it cannot produce the effect of humor.

Therefore, it is more suitable to use the free translation method, which is to pay attention to the habit of expression, the ability to accept and understand the reader in the Indonesia so that the target reader can understand the humor of that kind of culture.

d. *Aku lihat diriku menang lagi, aku bilang, “Long Er, kamu cuci tangan saja sana.”* (p.23)

This translation has reached formal equivalence but has not reached dynamic equivalence because the translation method used is a literal translation. In China, there is a culture that did not exist in Indonesia like this example so that if translated directly with literal translation cannot achieve dynamic equivalence because it will not produce the effect of humor.

As such, it is more suitable to use free translation methods or literal translation with detailed explanations, where the translator can use the habit of expression that is acceptable to the target reader who also has in Indonesian culture to convey the same information, or the translator can also translate literally but the explanation added at the bottom of the page, which is an explanation to explain the habit in China. Both can achieve dynamic equivalence, and literal translation with explanation can also achieve formal equivalence, but the free translation may fail to achieve formal equivalence.

**5. CONCLUSION**

In this article, the authors analyze the translation methods for cultural humor in the novel “Huo Zhe”. At the meantime, the authors propose several suggestions to help translations that do not achieve equivalence can achieve dynamic equivalence.

This article takes 5 places containing cultural humor in the novel “Hidup” to find out the translation methods that are most suitable for translating cultural humor. However, cultural humor in the novel “Hidup” is still a lot, and there are also some universal humor and linguistic humor, but due to the limited time and energy of the author, the object of research in this article did not contain all types of verbal humor in the novel.

The translation of verbal humor is a topic worthy of research because verbal humor will convey a funny message, but the translation may not necessarily convey the same information and response to the target reader because some verbal humor has language and cultural characteristics that are difficult to translate correctly. Therefore, the authors hope that the results can be useful for researchers who would like to study the translation of cultural humor. The authors also hope that this study would be useful for Mandarin-Indonesian translators to better translate cultural humor in novels, comics, or dubbing and subtitles in films, series, or sitcoms.

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A Cross-Linguistic Study of Some Space Prepositions in English and Their Counterparts in Armenian
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ARTICLE INFO
ABSTRACT

Received: September 18, 2019
Accepted: October 10, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.23

The article offers a cross-linguistic study of the English space prepositions in, on and at and their counterparts in Armenian. The choice of these prepositions for analysis is predetermined, firstly, by the fact that they are often used arbitrarily in English, when the priority of one over another in a particular prepositional phrase appears rather obscure and not motivated. Secondly, English space prepositions are rendered into Armenian by means of both postpositions and case inflections, with the latter functioning as morphological synonyms to the former. The analysis is carried out in the framework of cognitive semantics as well as the theory of oppositions which help distinguish all the subtle differences in the usage of these linguistic units triggered in most cases by extralinguistic factors. The study reveals that the oppositions made up with the space prepositions in, on and at in English outnumber those in Armenian and that their functional scope in English is rather extensive and diversified in comparison with those in Armenian.

KEYWORDS
Space prepositions, cognitive semantics, theory of oppositions, comparative analysis, postpositions, case inflections, contextual opposites

1. INTRODUCTION
1.1. On Cognitive Linguistics

Over the past few decades an increasing interest has been observed in cognitive studies, especially in the field of comparative linguistics. The transition from structural linguistics and transformational grammar to cognitive linguistics led to better understanding the relationship between linguistic facts and human cognition. As L. Janda puts it, “cognitive linguistics views linguistic cognition as indistinguishable from general cognition and thus seeks explanation of linguistic phenomena in terms of general cognitive strategies” [1, 131]. R. Langacker notes that cognitive linguistics “presupposes an elaborate conceptual substrate, including such matters as background knowledge and apprehension of the physical, social and linguistic context”. However, the linguist warns that it is impossible to reflect all the countless ways of conceiving and portraying the situation in question [2, 4]. In contrast to transformationalists, for cognitive linguists the central object of language study is meaning. "Linguistic structures serve the function of expressing meanings”, says R. Langacker, claiming that “all constructs validly posited for grammatical description must in some way be meaningful” [2, 5].

Naturally, these views are in direct opposition to the principles of Chomsky’s Transformational Grammar, in which the basic object of interest is syntax. In this view, the structures of language are not motivated by meaning, but instead are governed by principles essentially independent of meaning [3]. Nevertheless, Chomsky finds that the two fields address language aspects that are complementary to each other. He also believes that cognitive linguistics needs to accept some foundation from the theory of generative grammar [4, 5]. We would welcome this optimistic tone, adding that any aspect of language taken separately cannot be self-sufficient and in order to be presented in full blood and flesh it should be viewed in conjunction with other aspects of language.
1.2. Means of Expressing Space Relations in English and Armenian

The object of our study is space prepositions in English and their counterparts in Armenian. We have chosen these prepositions because they present a major difficulty for foreign learners of English, particularly Armenian learners. Firstly, the prepositions at, in and on are often used in English arbitrarily when the choice of one over another in a particular phrase seems rather obscure and vague. Secondly, English space prepositions are rendered into Armenian by means of both prepositions and postpositions (both types are indicated by the same term kaper meaning connectives) as well as by case inflections. As far as these particular prepositions in and on are concerned, they are expressed by postpositions in Armenian: mej- in, vra-on or the case inflections (Locative and Dative respectively); as for the preposition at, it has no direct equivalence in Armenian expressing the meanings of both postpositions and inflections.

The fact that case relations may be expressed by different linguistic means as it is observed in our case is not an extraordinary phenomenon. Many linguists (including Fillmore) mention that various forms of expressing case relations are mere surface realizations of the deep cases: prepositions, postpositions and case inflections may present the realization of the same deep cases [5, 418]. J. Lyons says that it is impossible to examine the category only from the morphological point of view (6, 320). Though prepositions/postpositions and their synonymous case inflections are characterized by common semantic content there is a certain difference between them. According to the Armenian linguist V. Arakelian, prepositional phrases express space relations in a more explicit, vivid way than the respective inflective forms [7]. As M. Asatian puts it, prepositions/postpositions fill in the function that inflections fail to do [8].

1.3. The Theory of Oppositions as the Theoretical Ground for Analysis Space Prepositions

It should be mentioned that space prepositions have been the object of many researches, but they were in most cases examined on the semantic and syntactic level [9; 10; 11, 49-50; 12, 88; 13, 14, 226-227]. We have undertaken to examine these prepositions from the cognitive point of view by considering extralinguistic factors like the various physical characteristics of the space object that the use of the given preposition is related to. This kind of analysis may help foreign learners of English better understand all possible semantic and pragmatic differences of prepositional phrases and use them in appropriate speech patterns. We will apply the theory of oppositions because in this way it will be possible to see more explicitly all the differences that the members of the opposition can reveal.

The term opposition is widely used in linguistics due to F. de Saussure and N. Trubetsky, who used the term in a wider sense. “In linguistics everything is reduced to differentiation”, claimed F. de Saussure. “All the linguistic mechanism turns round the similarities and differences, and the latter only are the counterparts of the first one” (15,118-125).

Trubetsky’s linguistic theory is constructed completely on the notion of oppositions, which are introduced through concepts distinction and similarity. According to Trubetsky contrast (opposition) not only presupposes features that distinguish members of oppositions, but also features that are common for both members of the opposition. Common features serve as the basis of contrast, while different features express the immediate function in question (16, 75). As for a lexical opposition, it is viewed “as a semantically relevant relationship of partial difference between two partially similar words” [17]. The object of our study is prepositional phrases containing in, on and at which exhibit different forms of usage determined by the perception of space objects and their characteristics by the speaker/observer.

2. The English Opposition in/on and Its Armenian Counterpart

The study of the prepositions in, on and at on the basis of the theory of oppositions (in/on, in/at) can proceed in two directions: paradigmatic and syntagmatic. On the paradigmatic level the prepositions in and on are members of the opposition: inside – on the surface, which is a partial realization of a wider contrary opposition inside- outside. On the syntagmatic level this opposition is realized on the basis of the observer’s perception of the correlated space objects and their characteristics, i.e. contextual information. We can say that in this sense the members of opposition become contextual opposites, in contrast to paradigmatic opposites which are not defined by context. Now what information is important for the description of space objects so as to provide the appropriate choice of prepositions in, on and at in a particular context.

We would first characterize the prepositions at, on and in from the point of their physical characteristics, i.e. dimensions: height, width, length. Based on this characteristic, at is usually identified with one-dimensional objects, i.e. expressing a specific point in space, on- two dimensional and in as three- dimensional objects. Considering the prepositions in these terms helps us explain certain facts, which cannot be explained otherwise. For instance, in the opposition in the grass/ on the grass the first member presupposes that the grass is high, which gives the impression of extended space; while the second member of the opposition presupposes short grass, which is perceived as surface on which something can be put or done, i.e. two-dimensional object.
Let’s discuss contextual oppositions on the basis of the most-widely used space prepositions in and on in detail. This type of oppositions can be distinguished by the following parameters:

a) size of the space object
b) form of the space object
c) mode of location within the space object
   specificity of action within the object

2.1. Size of the Space Object

Here belong the following space oppositions: Eng.: in the island// on the island, in the peninsula // on the peninsula, in the grass// on the grass, in the boat //on the boat.

Arm.: kghzum//kghzu vra// khoti mej// khoti vra, etc.

When the space preposition is correlated with a large object, the preposition in – mej is used as the space object is viewed as a three-dimensional space within the borders of which the action takes place. The preposition on –vra is used when the object is smaller and is seen as a surface, i.e. a two-dimensional space:

On my island in the Paumotus there is never at night the complete stillness that there was here. (Maugham)

The purser of the Oahu told me that he hadn’t met a nicer girl in the islands. (Maugham)

We sat in the grass of a quiet roadside, looking west where the mountains rose in a blue haze. (Cramer)

The same difference may be noticed: niharel er ayn banic heto, bazkatori vra, got thinner after he was unable to sit in the airplane armchair.

Yes bakhtavor em u hesht em khosum, yayn vra kyanqy chi teghavorvum ayn skuteghum, vor tetev brnats qez em matutsum. (AHBB)

If you are going to make yourself at home, why don’t you sit in an armchair? (Maugham)

He replaced the morsel of food in his plate and read the paragraph attentively (Joyce)

He put, now and then, a little bit on my plate, and guided it to my mouth. (Joyce)

2.2. Form of the Space Object

This type includes such oppositions as Eng.: in the plate// on the plate, in the tray// on the tray, in the pan// on the pan, in the chair //on the chair; Arm: bazkatorum/bazkatori vra, skuteghum/skuteghi vra, etc. In these cases the preposition on-vra is used when the space object has a flat shape, while the preposition in-mej is used when the object is associated with depth. Or: if a chair or an arm-chair has sides on which you can rest your arms and elbows, it is perceived as a three-dimensional space, consequently, in –mej is used.

Nra demudem ankoghu mej parkac er Seyrany. (Shirvanzade)

Across him was Seyran, lying up in bed. stood on the bed.

Likewise, the phrase in the picture- nkarum is used to describe what is depicted in the painting, to characterize and evaluate the contents of the picture. The phrase on the picture- nkar vra is associated with the external, mechanical location of objects on the picture.

There is a fly on the picture. There was a passion of the unseen which Philip felt in the pictures of El

2.3. Mode of Location within the Space Object

The oppositions of this type include such phrases as Eng.: in the tree// on the tree, in the moon// on the moon, in the sun// on the sun, in the picture// on the picture, in bed// on bed, in the mountains// on the mountain, in the window// on the window. Arm.: ankoghu mej/ankoghu vra, acherum/acherin, lernerum/lerner vra, nkarum/nkari vra.

In case of on- vra the emphasis is on the external part of the space object; in- mej is used when the location of the object is within the borders of the space object. For example, in bed means under the blanket; on (the) bed is used to mean on the blanket, on the surface of the bed. The same opposition is observed in Armenian.

Nra demudem ankoghu mej parkac er Seyrany. (Shirvanzade)

Across him was Seyran, lying up in bed. stood on the bed.

In all of them was the passion of the unseen which Philip felt in the pictures of El
When the space object is perceived as an enclosed area within borders of which an action is taking place, the preposition/postposition in- mej is used. However, when we want to emphasize that the name of place is connected with a certain kind of activity, on-vra is applied, for instance, in the field but on the field of battle, when the place is associated with fighting.

I could see our two big moving-vans of cars stuck in the field. (Hemingway)

...tesnum e mi dashtum mets nakhir e aratsum. (Tumanyan)
...he sees a big herd grazing in the field. (AHBB)

It is better to negotiate than to settle political disputes on the field of battle. (LLA)
Na chi karogh bac dashti vra handipel mez. (Muracan)
He cannot meet us on the open field.

When a means of transportation is indicated, the preposition in-vra is used if the meaning of the place is actualized, without mentioning the fact of the traveling, or motion. Otherwise, the preposition/postposition on-vra is applied.

It was very hot in the train. (Hemingway)

Aha te inch e katarum navi mej potoriki zhamanak. (AHBB)
Here is what happening in the ship during the storm.

...glkavor poghocum yerevac shahap ishhkhany. (S. Zoryan)
... there appeared Great Ishkhan in the main street.

On the train going into the town Jack didn’t talk. (Hemingway)
Navi vra teghadrecing kerosinayin sharzhich. (AHBB)
We have placed the kerocene motor on the ship.

Ays poghocii vra er mets Ishkhhanatuny yerku masi bazhanvac. (S. Zoryan)
Here on this street was Ishkhan’s big house divided into two parts.

3. Opposition in-at
This type of opposition is not found in the Armenian language data and it is not surprising. Differences in the lexical expression of entities of objective reality in various languages can be accounted for by the fact that each language sees and describes them differently. As C. Kramsch puts it, speakers of different languages do not cut up reality or categorize experience in the same manner, and it does not depend on structural equivalences but on common conceptual systems (18, 13). As we see, peoples’ thoughts and perceptions are not determined by the words and structures of their languages, as it is suggested by the Sapir-Whorf’s hypothesis called linguistic determination [19, 26]. Objects of the physical world are reflected in human consciousness, passing through the prism of their perceptions and sensations, a property that E. Benvenist called “a human factor in language [20], which later was paraphrased as anthropological principle [21, 50]. This is
compatible with the tenets of cognitive linguistics, which is based on the assumption that in interpreting and analyzing linguistic facts, a due attention should be paid to extralinguistic factors, including the presence of the speaker /observer. The fact that Armenian has no counterpart of the English preposition at shows that in the characterization of space objects only two parameters are valid here: two- dimensionality and three- dimensionality; one-dimensionality that in English is represented by the preposition at due to its specific abstract character proves to be of no validity in describing space objects in Armenian. The meanings of the English preposition at are rendered into Armenian basically by means of the postposition mej (in) and (rarely) vra (on).

Now let’s discuss occurrences of prepositions in and at with the names of streets.

In English the phrases with the preposition in indicate the place or area as three-dimensional space, whereas the phrases with the preposition at imply additional characteristics: the place of work, meeting, visit, temporary residence, etc.: in the theatre// at the theatre, in the restaurant //at the restaurant, in the hotel// at the hotel, in the library// at the library, in school // at school, etc.

It’s inadvisable to comment on what goes on in this house. (Fitzgerald)

… he left a note for Baby Warren who was just back from Sardinia and staying at the house. (Fitzgerald)

But it was pleasant in the gym. There was good air and light…. (Hemingway)

The professor at the boxing gymnasium wore moustaches and was very precise and jerky… (Hemingway)

… made up at Turin and reached Milan about half past ten at night and lay in the station until time to leave. (Hemingway)

I told him I would be at the station a little before midnight. (Hemingway)

There is a bar in the theatre. (OCD)

We were at the theatre last night. (OCD)

Let’s consider cases with the names of cities and towns. The preposition in is used when the name of the city is perceived as a place for habitation, with streets and houses and other advantages of city life; at may be used as a point in space, a geographical point on a map.

…he made up his mind…that he would live the rest of his life in Alexandria. (Maugham)

One morning the tramp docked at Alexandria. (Maugham)

The name of the city may be associated with the names of various types of establishments, offices, educational institutions, museums, memorials, etc.

Pay respects to thousands who have given their lives in the name of US freedom at the National military cemetery in Arlington. (10)

Five state funerals have been held at Arlington. (10)

We suppose that in some cases differences in the use of opposite prepositions may be accounted for by the structure of the prepositional phrase. We observed the following regularity: in is preferable, when the prepositional phrase is more complex, lengthy, containing some information of descriptive character.

I am staying in a strange couple’s house under completely false pretences. (Kinsella)

Last Christmas at Mum’s house I crept into the kitchen… (Kinsella)

I’m dining in a little grabby restaurant suited to our joint means. (Maugham)

Watson asked him to dinner at a restaurant. (Maugham)

We’re staying in a two- star hotel in the centre of the city. (OCD)

We met at the hotel. (OCD)

Another observation is connected with concrete names of space objects: hotel, restaurants, office, church, etc. in which cases at is normally found.

… the wedding ceremony that took place at the Memorial Church of Harvard University. (Ahern)

I told Tiare the story of a man I had known at St. Thomas hospital. (Maugham)

If you’re a lawyer at Carter Spink, you don’t sit around. (Kinsella)

The most powerful factor leading to neutralization is

4. Neutralization of Opposities

The concept of neutralization was initially applied on the phonological level, later it extended to the other aspects of language, including lexicology. In case of neutralization one member of the opposition becomes fully identified with its counterpart. In other words, neutralization is the reduction of the opposition to one of its members [22]. In this sense neutralization may be identified with variability which leads to creation of variants of words, phrases and structure [23].
extralinguistic context – the situation of immediate perception of correlated objects. As we know, objects of objective reality are not marked in the sense of space measurement, therefore one and the same object can be described from different angles and perspectives. Moreover, if we take into account the subjective factor in estimating and perceiving entities of objective reality, we would understand why the characteristics of space objects becomes so vague, uncertain, indistinct and even blurred. As a result, the use of prepositions/postpositions with nouns expressing these objects gains an unsteady, inconsistent character. This fluctuation of forms is considered to be a natural phenomenon. As M. Swan notes, the ability to deploy different styles appropriately is part of linguistic competence and “if two competing forms are widespread among speakers of a standard language, all that one can reasonably say is that the two forms are widespread [24, 67-68].

The process of neutralization is characteristic of the two correlated languages, with the English prepositional phrases more affected by it.

In English neutralization is more persistent with the opposition in/at, in Armenian it is normally characteristic of the opposition mej/vra in/on). In English neutralization affects such parallel phrases as in the library/at the library, in the hotel//at the hotel, in the restaurant//at the restaurant, in the hospital//at the hospital, in the university//at the university, in the school//at school, in the theatre//at the theatre, etc

In Armenian neutralization is found in the opposition mej/vra (i.e. in/on) and its synonymous case inflections um/in.

We come across some cases when the same author in the same book (and even in the same page) uses two correlated parallel phrases without any visible pragmatic differences in meaning. Below are examples to illustrate this.

But I seriously have to be back in the office by one. (Kinsella)
You always wanted the paper in the hospital. (Hemingway)
I found a man in the station and asked him if he knew what hotels were open. (Hemingway)

In Armenian neutralization is found in the opposition mej/vra (i.e. in/on) and its synonymous case inflections um/in.

Akh, en kanach cari lanjin... Ov e qyen tyghen... (Tumanyan)
Ah, who is the boy sleeping on the green sidehill.

It should be mentioned that even the dictionaries register this phenomenon, giving parallel uses of prepositions with a slash:

We stayed at/in a hotel. [Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary, 2005]
He works at/in a shoe factory [Oxford Collocations Dictionary for students of English, 2005]

The problem of neutralization of prepositional phrases cannot be confined to the results of our study. Naturally, there are some issues that require further investigation; for example, how variants of prepositional opposites are distributed between British and American English. Even superficial observation allows us to assume that phrases with at are more characteristic of British English, whereas in is more common in American English. This is registered in the dictionaries: Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary, 2005 (OALD) and Longman Language Activator, Second Edition, 2003 (LLA).

OALD

They’re in church. They’re at church.
AmE BrE

(=attending a church service)

(LLA)

He is in school.
He is at school.
AmE BrE

(=attending school)

5. CONCLUSION

The comparative study shows that the English space prepositions in, on and at are rendered into Armenian by means of both postpositions and case inflections, with the latter functioning as morphological synonyms to the former. The cognitive analysis carried out in the framework of the theory of oppositions proved effective in revealing all the subtleties of semantic-pragmatic meanings of the members of oppositions in/on and in/at and their Armenian counterparts. The choice of a particular preposition is predetermined by the extralinguistic information concerning the characteristics of the space object that the preposition/postposition is related to: size, form of the space object, mode of location, specificity of action within the space object, as well as syntactic and other factors. The cross-linguistic analysis reveals that the space oppositions with in, on and at in English outnumber those in Armenian and that their functional scope in English is rather extensive
and diversified in comparison with those in Armenian. As far as neutralization is concerned, it affects more the English opposition \textit{in/at}, which finds no counterpart in Armenian. Neutralization in Armenian prepositional oppositions affects predominantly \textit{mej-vra (in-on)} and their synonymous case inflections.

Dictionaries

AHBB - Ardi hayereni bacatran bararan - Modern Armenian Dictionary

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Fiction in Armenian


The Evaluation of English Language Syllabus for Developing Faculties of Languages and Translation: Evidence from the Sudan

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ARTICLE INFO

ABSTRACT

This paper aims to investigate the evaluation that helps in developing English language syllabus at the faculties of languages and translation at different Arab countries universities. The researchers have adopted the quantitative method as well as the questionnaire as a tool for collecting data relevant to the study. It attempts to bring to the light, the importance of the evaluation in the process of education. The sample of this study comprises of (60) teachers. The marks obtained from the questionnaire were compared. Accordingly, the results have revealed that English language syllabus the evaluation plays great role in developing faculties of languages and translation. The result has shown that the evaluation has great significance in the process of the development. Therefore, there is urgent need for English language syllabus the evaluation in the process of education.

KEYWORDS

EFL, ESAP, ESP and ELT

1. INTRODUCTION

In the first place, the researchers attempt to define the basic concepts related to the evaluation of the English language syllabus in the faculties of languages and translation in the field of EFL. The whole of this chapter will be approached with that view expressed by Peter. W. Cookson (1992) states that any programmed planned could not be considered successful without a clear idea of the meaning of success or failure.

To examine Cookson statement, the researcher investigated the studies administered abroad and in faculties of languages and translation in order to present the previous studies in the field to show the latest status of language the evaluation.

Based on the vision of higher education and faculties of languages and translation to set out the vision and mission of education as follows:

The faculties of languages and translation at different Arab countries universities are working to upgrade the academic educational knowledge and its application to serve the community and the world and shaping the world of education and learning. And then they work on the development of education at all the levels both in pre-university educational and higher education in order to achieve comprehensive community based human development and sustainable the faculties of languages and translation at different Arab countries universities communities to communicate with the Arab World and foreign. The vision based on the education of accelerated career development of cognitive and technical to realize graduate teachers’ carrier, cued into facilitating of education to director of the education process, planned inspiring creativity, team work and self-education.

Teacher- quality and excellence based on the success of the faculties of languages and translation and achieve their mandate. The role of faculties of languages and translation has a much bigger in cultural community than just the preparation of the teachers. Education and national security play a pivotal role in providing the evidence.

2. AIMS AND SCOPE OF THE STUDY

This study aims to investigate the importance of English language syllabus the evaluation in the process of education. The scope of this study is limited to English language teachers at different Arab countries universities. There are (60) English language teachers at different Sudanese universities.
3. LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 Principles from Theory to Guide Reading Materials Development

Materials have to be responsive to the parameters interacting in reading and language learning: cognitive, linguistic, psychological, social, affective, etc. The reader and the specific language learner are central to their learning and have to participate in that learning. Materials should account for learners’ needs and promote learners’ responsibility and their capacity for learning how to learn.

3.2 Reading Materials Development

Once the approach, or principles, is elicited, the next step will be making decisions about Materials’ selection. First, however, a definition of materials as used in this paper will be provided.

3.3 Defining Terms

The definition of materials for language teaching differs from one researcher to another. For some, materials refer to “any systematic description of the techniques and exercises to be used in classroom teaching” (Brown, 1995: 139). Such definition is wide as it includes lesson plans as well as books, packets of audiovisual aids, games, or any other types of activities that go on in the language classroom. A similar definition, but more limited, refers to “materials” as “units and lessons within those units to carry out the goals and objectives of the course” (Graves, 2000: 149). In turn, techniques, activities and exercises used in a language classroom are not clear-cut. It is widely affirmed that the lines between techniques, activities, exercises and the form in which they are presented are often blurred (Brown, 1995; Graves, 2000; & Jordan, 1997). In the case of a reading comprehension course, the text used and the related exercises play an important role in implementing the objectives of the course. Therefore, “reading materials” here refer to any written text, virtual or paper based, and the activities or exercises which could help in the teaching and learning of reading comprehension in an ESAP (English for Specific Academic Purposes) course.

3.4 Text Selection

At this stage, and in agreement with the principles mentioned above, decisions concerning the text selection will have to be made and criteria to be determined.

3.5 Learning Needs

The first factor to take into account, however, is the learning and learners’ needs. As noted above, learners are at the center and their interests guide choices. Nevertheless, learners’ interests may be disparate and at times in mismatch with the learning goals or approach (e.g. a learner may prefer to focus on formal grammar rules, whereas the course relies on a communicative approach), with those of other learners or with the institution’s goals.

In that case, the various needs should be elicited, and choices made accordingly. Most of the time, compromises have to be reached, with the interests of the whole group in the foreground. Discussion and negotiation can be valuable. (See Abdallaoui & Haddouchi, 2002, for more details about ESI students’ needs analysis).

The second stage will be defining criteria for selecting texts. These are of two types: textual features and content. The boundaries between the two types are fine as it is the case, for instance, of “authenticity”, “density”, but this dichotomy is utilized for study purposes.

3.6 Textual Features

They include instructional appropriateness, authenticity, organization, density, and cohesion. Instructional appropriateness refers here to the linguistic level of the text which should be neither exceedingly difficult nor desperately easy. The text structure, genre of the text should be varied and yet representative of those students have to handle in their specific field of study. For example, for information science students, it would be more appropriate to choose an expository text, having problem-solution, or a comparative structure rather than fiction, though the latter can be introduced in small doses in special circumstances, or for extensive reading.

Authenticity refers to the fact that texts (as defined above), have not been specially written for language classes. They focus on meaning, are relevant to learners’ needs, and serve some genuine communicative purpose. Learners deal with these texts as readers first and as language learners next. Authentic texts can prove challenging and valuable for adult tertiary students as a “controlled” transition from the classroom language to real language in a real environment. Sometimes, however, these texts are complex. Prepared texts may be used and be supplemented with authentic texts on the same topic. Reading across texts can eventually activate and develop the learner’s schemata, facilitate understanding and focus on meaning (Abdallaoui, 2001).
(cohesion (the way information is tied together from sentence to sentence, paragraph to paragraph) are other textual features which contribute to determining the readability level of a text. Singer and Donlan (1989) determine the readability level of a text by estimating its “friendliness” against a long inventory of “what makes it reader friendly.” It should be well organized, consistent, and coherent. It should have examples that activate and make contact with students’ prior knowledge and experience, have an appropriate level of conceptual density, and define terms as they appear... (Singer & Donlan, 1989: 144)

Nevertheless, lack of organization, cohesion, density, etc. if they occur could be exploited through the guidance of the instructor. The learner will have the opportunity to discover more about authentic discourse, think about and grasp the workings of the system.

3.7 Content of the Text

The factors related to content are instructional appropriateness, value, conceptual level, novelty and variety. Instructional appropriateness is used here in terms of topic ethical dimension of the content, and responsiveness to the learner’s culture and expectations. For example, giving to Moroccan adult students decontextualized excerpts from speeches of George W. Bush would be highly controversial. The instructor may have the good intention of presenting a sample of the American way of thinking, but many issues can arise. First, there are concerns about the instructor’s political knowledge and ability to handle such a topic in a tertiary level classroom, in an international and a Moroccan context particularly sensitive. Second, students may perceive such a text as propaganda for a certain ideology; others may experience it as an intrusion on their privacy if they are reluctant to expose their political view.

Last, presenting such topics needs providing alternative views or opportunities for students to reflect and make choices the cultural content of the text has also to be scrutinized. In fact, one of the principles drawn from the theory reviewed above is that learning a language and reading involve bridging gaps between two schematic worlds, which of course includes cultural schemata. Cultural knowledge has been found to affect reading comprehension more than the level of semantic and syntactic complexity, and second or foreign language learners are necessarily culture learners (Abdallaoui, 2001). Yet, teaching culture within a language class in a foreign context is not without hurdles. In the case of ESAP (English for Specific Academic Purposes) students, awareness-raising of foreign cultural dimensions in academic discourse is necessary, but the materials and activities employed should be relevant and should consider the learner’s cultural identity and beliefs, otherwise resentment and subsequent failure will take place.

Value refers to the quality of the content in terms of relevance, intellectual challenge and enrichment. For example, damping on tertiary level Information Science students’ texts on “horoscope” or “sleeping positions” could be irrelevant or insulting to some, trivial and time-wasting to others. Some students may may have fun, participate at the moment, but apart from the vocabulary they may encounter, no genuine intellectual purpose or challenge are engaged. What matters is not simply “seducing” students into learning but really motivating them?

Too often judgements about materials are based on considerations of interest and enjoyment. These are important factors in achieving learner engagement but it is possible for learners to enjoy using materials without learning very much from them and it is also possible to learn a lot from materials which are not particularly interesting or enjoyable to use (Tomlinson, 1998: 263).

In addition, and as argued above, selecting texts for the sheer manipulation of the linguistic items they contain is widely contested by reading instruction specialists. A text also has value when its source is known. For both deontological and practical purposes, all texts should be referenced in an ESAP (English for Specific Academic Purposes) course. Information about the author of the text, the wider social, ideological, or scientific context provides the reader with a framework which could activate existing schemata, facilitate understanding and prevent false attributions. Take the previous example of the excerpts attributed to George W. Bush. If the text is not referenced, its content can be false, yet students may be led to believe the opposite because of the “sanctity” of the classroom. Actually, with the advent of the internet, and the facility of text dissemination, it is imperative to raise students’ awareness of such contextual aspects of the text.

The conceptual level of a text refers to the complexity of the introduced concepts. Unfortunately, there are no scales to measure the conceptual difficulty of a text except the instructor’s common sense and knowledge of the students’ level. Nevertheless, in an ESAP (English for Specific Academic Purposes) situation, texts could be provided by the specific disciplines’ instructors or by the students themselves, which ensures a familiarity with the concepts, and subsequently leads to an increased involvement and performance. When the students have acquired a sufficient control over their
reading, more texts of varied schemata than the familiar ones can be introduced.

Complexity, grading and sequencing of the text are dealt with in terms of degree of familiarity with the text, not difficulty of the language or length of the text. Language instructors, however, have to be knowledgeable about the content they present, otherwise they may lose credibility.

Novelty and variety of the materials are essential in engaging students in learning and in meeting varied learning needs. Moreover, novelty and variety permit a certain level of authenticity to occur. In the real world, texts are read for the novelty of their contents, be it information, an argument, a report or a complaint. In a real context, texts are also varied, in terms of topics, discourse, and genres. Classrooms should try to provide representative samples of the target situation in which the foreign language may be used.

In some situations, where English is a foreign not a second language, the ESP classroom may be almost the only source of English. Materials then play a crucial role in exposing learners to the language, which implies that the materials need to present real language, as is used, and the full range that learners require. (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998: 171).

3.8 Activities and Exercises Selection

Once the text is selected, the next stage will be eliciting activities and exercises which encourage students’ active processing and analysis of the text. Here as well criteria have to be considered. The determined reading and language learning perspectives are the guiding lines. First activities and exercises should meet the learner’s needs. Second, they should promote learners’ active engagement, awareness, autonomy and critical reading.

Last, textual aspects (organization, cohesion, genres, hedging, grammatical cues, etc.) are to be considered in terms of their role in building meaning. The activities and exercises will have to consider the learners’ purposes for reading and types of reading. In fact, activities should provide the learner with an opportunity to reproduce real world interaction with the text. In the real world, the learner may need to read in English in a specific context (e.g. library or home in front of a computer) for a certain purpose (e.g. obtaining information, understanding a notion or a theory, verifying the reliability of a statement, etc.).

In reading instruction, the different purposes for reading of the learner should be specified. Exercises and activities should be devised accordingly and should help the learner succeed in his/her enterprise. For example, if the purpose of reading a given text is to obtain information, using scanning as an activity would be adequate. If on the other hand, the purpose of reading is to understand a theory, note-taking, using background knowledge, summarizing, or diagram/table construction would be more appropriate.

Closely linked to the above, the second criterion is related to the nature of the activities and exercises. They should permit learners to actively engage in the process of reading rather than simply test the outcome of that reading. For example, exercises will consist of leading the learner to contextualize the text (i.e. find about the author, the social/ historical, academic context, check the degree of certitude of content by verifying references, quotations, etc.), discover the hidden message of the author, or express personal reaction to the text, etc. Critical thinking procedures would be valuable. In fact tertiary level learners can profit from activities and exercises for raising awareness about the nature of arguments in academic discourse, the difference between factual information and opinion, controversies, common fallacies (like hasty generalizations, false cause, fallacies of evidence, false analogies, etc.), consistency, regency, relevance, etc. (For more details about Critical thinking, see Inch & Warnick, 2002). Third, activities and exercises should help readers use strategies to learn how to cope, monitor their reading and be autonomous. Strategies can be taught through awareness-raising of their appropriateness in certain contexts and for specific purposes, or through modelling, etc. Strategies are numerous and can vary from predicting, scanning, skimming, guessing word’s meaning to finding the main idea, summarizing, making grammatical analysis or consulting external documents. (For further details about EFL reading strategies see Abdallaoui, 2001).

Last, activities and exercises should consider distinctive structures and linguistic features of the text and raise learner’s awareness of the role of these features in conveying meaning. The features concerned, whether vocabulary, cohesive cues (e.g. reference within a text, tense agreement, etc.) or overall text organization should be contextualized and their meanings explicated. If tenses are dealt with, for instance, their role in meaning making should be stressed. Similarly, when dealing with adverbials (e.g. possibly, perhaps, ultimately, etc.), or modal auxiliaries (may, might, should, etc.), emphasis should be put on their role in the interpretations we make of the text. In a way, students will be involved in analyzing discourse. Ideas from research on hedging could be pertinent.
4. METHODOLOGY
The researcher has drawn the sample for this study exclusively from teachers of English languages from various universities who responded to a questionnaire. A sample of (60) teachers was randomly selected for the questionnaire.

4.1 Tools of the Study
The researchers have used questionnaire as a tool to collect the information of this paper.

The researchers have used the descriptive analytical and quantitative methods as well as a questionnaire as a tool to collect of relevant data and information in pursuing this paper. The population of this study is drawn exclusively from English language teachers at different Arab countries universities.

5. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
The researchers have used the questionnaire as a tool in the collection of data relevant to this study. The researcher has designed a questionnaire to investigate the hypothesis “The evaluation helps in developing English language syllabus at the Faculties of Languages and Translation.” The tables below are going to illustrate what has been stated earlier.

5.1 Teachers' Questionnaire
This item tries to elicit information from the teachers concerning their views about the role of the evaluation that helps in developing English language syllabus at the faculties of languages and translation to provide qualified cadres.

Table (1) The evaluation helps in developing English language syllabus content in process of education.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>80.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4.1) above shows that the vast majority of the respondents (100%) strongly agree and agree that the evaluation helps in developing English language syllabus content in process of education. Only 00% do not agree to that. This indicates that the evaluation helps in developing English language syllabus content in the process of education.
Table (2) the evaluation assists in designing English language syllabus content in process of education.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>45.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4.2) above shows that the vast majority of the respondents (95%) Strongly agree and agree that the evaluation can assist in designing English language syllabus content in process of education. Only 00% do not agree to that. This indicates that the evaluation assists in designing English language syllabus content in process of education.

Table (3) The evaluation helps in identifying the defects in English language syllabus content.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>35.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>55.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table (4.3) above shows that the vast majority of the respondents (90%) strongly agree and agree that the evaluation helps in identifying the defects in English language syllabus content. Only 0% do not agree to that. This indicates that the evaluation helps in identifying the defects in English language syllabus content.

The evaluation helps in sequencing the English language syllabus content in process of education.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>55.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table (4.4) above shows that the vast majority of the respondents (95%) strongly agree and agree that the evaluation helps in sequencing the English language syllabus content in the process of education. Only 0.0% do not agree to that. This indicates that the evaluation helps in sequencing the English language syllabus content in the process of education.

Table (5) the evaluation of English language syllabus helps in identifying the best level of students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>55.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table (4.5) above shows that the vast majority of the respondents (85%) strongly agree and agree that the evaluation of English language syllabus helps in identifying the best level of students. Only 5% do not agree to that. This indicates that the evaluation of English language syllabus helps in identifying the best level of students.

Table (6) the evaluation of English language syllabus helps in improving student understanding and ideas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>24</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>55.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig (6)

Table (4.6) above shows that the vast majority of the respondents (95%) strongly agree and agree that the evaluation of English language syllabus helps in improving student understanding and ideas. Only 0% do not agree to that. This indicates that the evaluation of English language syllabus helps in improving student understanding and ideas.
The Evaluation of English Language Syllabus for Developing Faculties of Languages and Translation: Evidence from the Sudan

Table (7) the evaluation of English language syllabus helps promoting student's performance in their activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>35.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4.7) above shows that the vast majority of the respondents (85%) Strongly agree and agree that the evaluation of English language syllabus helps promoting student's performance in their activities. Only 00% do not agree to that. This indicates that the evaluation of English language syllabus helps promoting student's performance in their activities.

Table (8) the evaluation of English language syllabus helps in achieving English language objectives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>45.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>35.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table (4.8) above shows that the vast majority of the respondents (80%) Strongly agree and agree that the evaluation of English language syllabus helps in achieving English language objectives. Only 5% do not agree to that. This indicates that the evaluation of English language syllabus helps in achieving English language objectives.

Table (9) the evaluation of English language syllabus helps gives adequate explanation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>21</td>
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<td>Agree</td>
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<td>50.0</td>
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<tr>
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<td>3</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4.9) above shows that the vast majority of the respondents (85%) Strongly agree and agree that the evaluation of English language syllabus helps gives adequate explanation. Only 10% do not agree.
to that. This indicates that the evaluation of English language syllabus helps give adequate explanation.

**Table (10)** the evaluation of English language syllabus helps show some innovation and creativity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>45.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4.10) shows that the vast majority of the respondents (70%) strongly agree and agree that the evaluation of English language syllabus helps show some innovation and creativity. Only 0% do not agree to that. This indicates that the evaluation of English language syllabus helps show some innovation and creativity.

The data collected was analyzed in relation to the study hypothesis. The data was collected by questionnaire which had been given to teachers who do not know why these took place.

Also analyzing the data collected from the questionnaire which had been given to teachers exclusively drawn from English language teachers at different Arab countries universities. The population is English language teachers at different Arab countries universities. A sample of (60) teachers was randomly selected for the questionnaire.

The researchers have used the questionnaire as a tool to collect the data relevant to this study. The researchers have designed questionnaire to identify the evaluation of English language syllabus which helps in developing the colleges of education to provide the qualified cadres.

The marks obtained from the questionnaire for all participants were analyzed and compared statistically.
by using frequencies and percentages. The analysis showed that 88% of teachers agree and strongly agree, whereas 2% strongly disagree and disagree regarding the evaluation of the syllabus. Accordingly, this justifies that there is a statistical difference in terms of teachers' point of views that the evaluation of English language syllabus helps in developing faculties of languages and translation to provide the intended qualified cadres.

6. CONCLUSION
After the comparing and calculation of the sub-hypotheses; we have found that the total number of the tenth sub-hypotheses percentage (100%+95%+90%+95%+85%+95%+85%+80%+85%+70%) equal (88%) which represents negative respond justifies that the evaluation of English language syllabus helps in developing faculties of languages and translation to provide the intended qualified cadres.

REFERENCES


“Antecedent and Postcedent”: A Syntactic Study of the “ABC’s Principles” of the Binding Theory in the EFL Students’ Written Discourses

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¹²³Politeknik Negeri Padang, Indonesia

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ARTICLE INFO

Received: September 17, 2019
Accepted: October 19, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.25

KEYWORDS

antecedent; postcedent; syntactic study; ABS’s principles; binding theory; written discourses

ABSTRACT

This study, whose major objectives were to diagnose the syntactic and unresolved antecedent-postcedent rubric between Antecedent and Postcedent along with their pro-forms in the EFL students’ Written Discourses, entailed a qualitative case study research design. The research placed the author as the key instrument in achieving the aims while the 32 ED students, which were purposively selected, were the research participants. The 1967 Corder’s clinical elicitation, observation, and transcript analysis were the techniques of collecting the data whereas the coding procedures of Error Analysis were drawn on analysing the data. The research findings specifically disclosed that, firstly, the students were capable of syntactically establishing the relationships between the N, NP, and AdjC as Antecedents and the N, NP, and PrepP as Postcedents along with their pro-forms. Accordingly, both provided meanings to their syntactic categories correctly. Secondly, they, however, violated the other syntactic relationships between the Adj, Adv, VP, EC, ES, DW, DWC, SCN/PCN as the Antecedents, and C1 it-extraposition and C2 as Postcedents and their pro-forms. The violations sourced from the students’ ignorance and naivety of repeating the unchanged words, phrases, clauses, sentences along with their insensitivity towards the co-text and context. In conclusion, the breakdowns of syntactically establishing the other eight Antecedents and two Postcedents were capable of syntactically establishing the relationships between the N, NP, and AdjC as Antecedent whereas “she” Postcedent of “the” Antecedent and Postcedent have the immense roles in painting one’s written discourses. The most striking roles are both provide substantial meaning to the pro-forms/syntactic categories of Nouns (N), Noun Phrases (NP), Adjective (Adj), Adjective Phrase (AdjP), Adverb (Adv), Adverb Phrase (AdvP), Preposition (Prep), Prepositional Phrase (PrepP), Verb (V), Verb Phrase (VP), Entire Sentence (ES), Adjective Clause (AdjC), Clause (C), it-extraposition, Clause (C), Discontinuous Word (DE), Discontinuous Word Combination (DWC), Singular/Plural Countable Noun (SCN/PCN) etc. The garnish itself serves as a modifier of recognising the entities of an object/person which/who is performing and acting upon something or which has existed previously or subsequently as in “the few who have finished delivering “their” speech may leave the class early.” Within this sentence, few serves as plural indefinite as Antecedent whereas “their” signifies the reference of possessive adjective of limiting pronoun. Similarly, the N., NP., Adj., Adv., Prep., C1, C2, etc coming after the personal pronouns are essentially called the Postcedent as in “after “she” read the short story, Agnes began writing down her executive summary” (Thewlis, 2000). This sentence designated that Agnes worked as the Postcedent of “she.” The fact

1. INTRODUCTION

Why are “Antecedent and Postcedent”: A Syntactic Study of “Binding Theory (BT)” of the ABC’s Principles in the EFL Written Discourses?” The idea of proposing such a title strongly rested on four leading causes. Firstly, syntactically, the Antecedent and Postcedent have the immense roles in painting one’s written discourses. The most striking roles are both provide substantial meaning to the pro-forms/syntactic categories of Nouns (N), Noun Phrases (NP), Adjective (Adj), Adjective Phrase (AdjP), Adverb (Adv), Adverb Phrase (AdvP), Preposition (Prep), Prepositional Phrase (PrepP), Verb (V), Verb Phrase (VP), Entire Sentence (ES), Adjective Clause (AdjC), Clause (C), it-extraposition, Clause (C), Discontinuous Word (DE), Discontinuous Word Combination (DWC), Singular/Plural Countable Noun (SCN/PCN) etc. The garnish itself serves as a modifier of recognising the entities of an object/person which/who is performing and acting upon something or which has existed previously or subsequently as in “the few who have finished delivering “their” speech may leave the class early.” Within this sentence, few serves as plural indefinite as Antecedent whereas “their” signifies the reference of possessive adjective of limiting pronoun. Similarly, the N., NP., Adj., Adv., Prep., C1, C2, etc coming after the personal pronouns are essentially called the Postcedent as in “after “she” read the short story, Agnes began writing down her executive summary” (Thewlis, 2000). This sentence designated that Agnes worked as the Postcedent of “she.” The fact
is that critical roles of Antecedent and Postcedent are, however, often overlooked within the produced compound, complex and or compound and complex sentences and the written discourses impinging on repeating the same pronouns or expressions. Ironically, most written discourses which are produced are almost at the levels of simple sentences so that their contextual (situational, cultural and interpersonal background contexts) and co-textual (the context of the text itself) roles are increasingly invisible, blurred, and disappeared (Cutting, 2002 p.8). The invisibilities can trigger the repetition of the same anaphora, Antecedent, and Postcedent surrounding the produced discourses and fire a gun of misinterpretation between a writer and a reader (as a text’s analyst).

Secondly, from the standpoints of the text analysis and pragmatic studies of “reference,” “co-text” consigns and hangs over the linguistic materials such as particular words, phrases, clauses, sentences, messages and other clues surrounding the discourses. Under the umbrella of the grammatical cohesions of exophoric, and endophoric references of anaphora and cataphora, substitution and ellipsis, the co-text (co-textual context) has the same basic work principles and goals as the Antecedent and Postcedent do, namely, describing the object or person who/which is performing a certain task/job. The principles assist a reader or a listener in determining and establishing the meanings of the utterances through the understanding of the linguistic materials. The co-text itself strongly highlights the roles of the endophora in referring to the intratextual expressions within the same discourses. A diminutive different from the Antecedent and Postcedent in grammatical or in syntactic studies, anaphora, which links back to something that went before in the preceding text and cataphora which links forward to a referent in the text that follows, purely refer to the pro-forms/syntactic categories of the N and NP whereas the Antecedent and Postcedent, which are defined as expressions of words, phrase, clauses and sentences, provide meanings to their pro-forms of not only N and NP but also Adj., AdjP., Adv., AdvP., Prep., PrepP., V., VP., ES., AjdC., C1, C2, DE., DWC., SCN/PCN etc. This explicates that the roles of the Antecedent and Postcedent within the discourses are broader than anaphora and cataphora. Anaphoric and cataphoric references, antecedent, and postcedent work side by side of describing the object/person carrying out a certain job.

Thirdly, another closely relating portion of the Antecedent and or Postcedent is exophoric reference. Exophora, as non-verbal expressions, critically points to the information inside the context or outside the co-text being led by the understanding of the situation, condition, atmosphere, genre, and the world of knowledge in sending and delivering its messages. The exophora exists in the linguistic, situational, cultural, and interpersonal contexts which is linguistically characterised by the deictic markers (indexicals). The deictics themselves closely link to anaphora, Antecedent and Postcedent serving as providing the contextual information in relation to the speakers, the addressee, time, and place. Essentially, the indexicals are clustered into five domains, that is, Personal Deixis (I, you, we = N as anaphora); Spatial Deixis (there, here, this, that indicating Prep.p as Antecedent and or Postcedent); Temporal Deixis (now, today, yesterday, tomorrow); Social Deixis (showing participant roles and social status, i.e. John, The King and Queen, The poor, the Servant/Slave as Antecedent); and Discourse Deixis indicating the text deixis in encoding the utterances within the written discourses, i.e., by considering the elements of textuality such as substitution, ellipsis, reference of anaphora. These criteria serve as locating the utterances within the sequences of sentences or discourse (Renkema, 2004 p. 106-108; Cutting, 2002 p.10; Lyon, 1997 p. 377; Yule, 1996 p.9; Renkema, 1993 p.38; Levinson, 1983; Fillmore, 1997). Shortly, this, theoretically, signifies that the Reference, Antecedent, Postcedent, and Indexicals are highly critical of co-textually and contextually providing the decisive information about the speaker, the addressee, time, place, etc which ultimately impact on avoiding repetition, and, more importantly, shunning the writer and the reader (speaker and listener) from misinterpreting the discourses produced.

Lastly, the mention of the expected object/person co-textually and even contextually is essentially not only restricted to the classic principles of the endophoric references of the anaphora and cataphora referring back/forward to the N/NP exclusively. Such restricted mentions are narrower than Antecedent and Postcedent which are able to provide the clarity of information about the object/person (N/NP) and the other syntactic categories within the produced discourses. A linguist ever strictly explicates that the pronouns are the “dummy words” or expletive or pleonastic pronoun for endophora (anaphora and cataphora) which are merely exploited to meet the syntactic requisite without presenting an explicit meaning of the written discourses (Tesnière, 1969 p.86f; Crystal, 1999 p.20; Verhaar, 1995 p. 354; Renkema, 1993 p. 38; Cutting, 2002 p.10; Renkema, 2004 p.106-108; Radford, 2004 p.322). This study, under these four circumstances, aimed at diagnosing the EFL students’ capability or incapability of establishing the syntactic relationships between Antecedent and Postcedent and their syntactic categories in their English written discourses. The proposed single research question was, “Given the
existing syntactic theory, what were the more sensitive particular critical issues being violated by the students when establishing the relationships between the Antecedent and Postcedent and their syntactic categories-based the “ABC’s Principles of Binding Theory” into their English written discourses?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

ANTECEDENT AND POSTCEDENT: REVIEWS OF A SYNTACTIC STUDY OF ABC’s PRINCIPLES OF BINDING THEORY

Historically, “Syntax,” is carved up into two different Greek terms, namely, “syn” signifying “together,” and the “taxis” means “an ordering.” The lexis, which etymologically comes from the Ancient Greek, means “coordination.” It coordinates and governs the sentence structures in a given language like English. Linguistically, this kind of simple definition concretely contributes to establishing and setting the principles, rules, and processes of governing or putting the different categories of words together to construct the structures of the sentences or the textual units consisting of one or more words grammatically tied. The establishment and the set of such syntactic principles assist a writer produces communicative written discourses. The syntactic studies, therefore, encompass the “word order typology of the constituent order of a clause of a subject (V), predicate/verb (P/V) direct/indirect object (O); order of modifiers in a noun phrase (NP) such as demonstrative pronouns, possessive adjectives, numbers, adjuncts and adjectives; and order of adverbials” (Chomsky, 2002, p.75ff). The “Binding Theory,” on the other hand, deals with the connection between pronouns and the expressions usually known as co-referential. Both are the first concepts built on the principles and parameters’ model of language and underlying the tenets of developing the minimalist program.

Binding Domains

In general English linguistics, the three crucial conditions or principles of the established BT domains which are chiefly pertinent to the circulation of the pro-form of pronouns and nouns are, firstly, the condition/principle of Antecedent: anaphora which should be co-referential with the other nominal (their Antecedent) within the same sentences, reflexives pronouns (re-talking about the subject of the sentence) and intensive pronoun or self-intensifier (re-stressing a noun/pronoun by reaching out and holding the area of its Antecedent to keep away from replicating the similar words) ending with self and selves as well as re-mentioning the previous named noun or pronoun, whose nominative forms of “I, you (singular), he, she, it, one, we, you (plural), are “myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, oneself, ourselves, yourselves, and themselves.” Each has its own reflexives and intensive pronoun forms. Though using the same forms, the intensive pronoun or self-intensifier putting emphasis on an account serves as the adverbial/adnominal modifier (for example, he did it himself –> himself is intensive pronoun or self-intensifier signifying that nobody else did it except him alone) whereas reflexives pronouns functions as the argument of a verb as in “we cook ourselves –> ourselves acts as the argument role of the direct object.” The “each other, one another” etc are forms of the reciprocal pronouns as in the “sentence A: Keandra and Koyuki love themselves and the sentence B: Keandra and Koyuki love each other. The differences are the sentence A
“(reflexives pronoun) is exercised when the subject strongly deal with “itself” → themselves while the sentence B (reciprocal pronoun of each other) is utilised when the subjects “Keandra and Koyuki” do the similar action relative to one another or show the same relation in performing the same things (Carnie, 2013; Leonardi, 2012 p. 40; Reuland et al, 2007 p. 260-283). Briefly, the anaphora of reflective and reciprocal pronouns are syntactically bound in their own areas or realms should be configurational or constituent commanded (c-command) and co-indexed with a DP (Determiner Phrase) within their own domain.

Secondly, syntactically, the condition/principle B: personal pronouns or pronominal merely signify the grammatical sense and principally correlates with the pronouns of, first-person as “I and we,” second-person as “you” and third-persons as “he, she, it, and they.” These pronouns receive and require dissimilar singular, and plural forms of pronouns; grammatical gender of its own Antecedent where “she” refers to female, “he” points to male whereas “it” signifies non-living things/objects or living things of unambiguous sexual category/characteristics. Hereinafter, another association of pronoun is a formality (familiarity) or it is closely related to the T-V distinction. This association—formality—is the form or expression of socio-linguistically addressing one’s talk partners or friends, siblings, pets (particularly in the 2nd-persons) for various levels of social stratifications, politeness, courtesy, social distance, age, etc toward the addressees. The last associated pronominal is the “case.” Grammatically, the case consists of nominative or subjective (marking the subject of a verb or predicate of a noun or an adjective), accusative (marking the direct object of transitive verb) and genitive cases (marking a word, modifying a noun, or signifying the attributive association with one noun to the other ones). The reflective such as “myself, herself, ourselves, oneself, etc; possessive adjectives such as my, your, their, etc; and possessive forms of yours, mine, its, theirs, etc are strongly associated with the personal pronouns. Syntactically, the first, second or third persons usually act as the Antecedents so as to keep away from replicating the same Antecedents as in “Marry ran away and her parents and brother could not find her (Marry is the Antecedent of her).” Another case in point is “After they are promoted as the Antecedents of Darrel and Keandra, will be sworn in by the Finance Minister (they are the Antecedents of her brothers, Darrel and Keandra).” In this context, the personal pronouns or pronominal should be, therefore, free in their own domains. They must not be constituent commanded and co-indexed with a DP within their own domain (Gaynesford, 2006).

Thirdly, the R-expression, standing for “Referring expression,” is the last principle C of the Binding Theory. The principle C is normally clustered into three categories, namely, noun phrases, anaphora and pronominal. These three categories of R-expression lay emphasis on names such as Darrel, Aswita, and the definite DP like tiger, Rose, etc. R-expression, therefore, should be unbound, must not be c-commanded and co-referenced (Trask, 1993; Crystal, 2008). However, in his theoretical and empirical explanations of the Government and Binding Theory, Chomsky critically discloses that the R-expression, which does deal with the analyses of anaphoric reference and pronominal, is the analysis of overt NP whereas John Lyons who discloses the referent relations closely relates it to the pragmatic studies. The determiners, pronouns, and proper nouns are critical parts of R-expressions. The R-expressions can refer to, first, the NP of any structures whose indispensable function is to mark for the definiteness of “the” and or the demonstrative adjective of “those” such as “the student” in sentence, “The student leaves for school early in the morning; or “The book in the school bag” in sentence, “The students put the books in the school bag. The second is the NP substitution of pronoun such as it in these sentences “it is very expensive; they in they left for school yesterday, etc. Such pronouns vary and they depend on their contexts or the speakers. Technically, the R-expressions, in fact, relate to the deictic elements. The last is proper noun/name linking the type of R-expression signifies by the definite article for examples, “Ucok, Semarang, the Monas Tower, the Trio Macan, etc.” Individual or specific reference, definite reference and indefinite reference, collective reference and distributive reference are different classes of reference relations (Cann, 1993; Kripke, 1980; Lyon, 1977; Saeed, 1997).

The three domains of Binding Theory of Principle A: Anaphor; Principle B: Pronominal; and Principle C: R-expression serve as to explicate the most potential syntactic affiliation between Antecedent and Postcedent and pronouns or other pro-forms of pronoun, pro-verbs, pro-adjectives, pro-adverbs, pro-prepositions, pro-prepositional phrases, etc by initially applying the basic standard definition or Reinhart’s definition of the c-command or proposed by Tanya Reinhart in 1976 (Sportiche, Koopman, & Stabler, 2014 & 2013 p. 24 & 120; Carnie, 2002 p. 57; Lasnik, 1976 p.1-22). Shortly, the c-command signifies the closest (local) connection between the personal pronouns or other pro-forms and their Antecedents within the sentences/discourses. The c-command is as in the following cases in points. Firstly, sentence A: She said that Rahayu will be coming.
Sentence B: Her brother said that Rahayu will be coming. The “She” does not point to “Rahayu.” In fact, the BT, however, explicated that she c-commands Rahayu whilst the “her” fails to c-command Rahayu in sentence B. The “her” and Rahayu probably co-refer as her brother and this is probably Rahayu’s brother. Unfortunately, the pronominal “her” fail to c-command the R-expression of Rahayu as the sister of DP (her) is the NP governing/dominating the terminal node (brother) and not the terminal node of Rahayu. It can be seen that the pronoun is free in its domain. This is the condition B of Binding Theory.

Secondly, Keandra talked about himself. The anaphora of “himself” is bound by its domain Keandra. The “himself,” therefore, is co-referenced with the Antecedent “Keandra.” The “himself” is c-commanded by the Antecedent “Keandra.” This means that the sister of the DP (Keandra) should dominate the DP (himself). The “himself” is the subject to the condition A of Binding Theory. The sentence, “Keandra talked about himself,” however, violates the principle C because this principle of the R-expression is essentially free, not bound. To obey the condition C, the writer is required to change the R-expression himself to another one such as sexual scandals amongst politician as in “Keandra talked about sexual scandals amongst politician.” Structurally, the R-expression “Keandra” is not c-commanded by any Antecedent DP. Lastly, the sentence 1: “the compliment for Darrel normally gratifies him.” The sentence 2: “the compliment for each member normally gratifies them.” These two sentences show the differences. Although the sentence 1 is correct grammatically, Darrel which represents an R-expression fails to c-command the him. By contrast, the sentence 2 is incorrect grammatically because each member does not link to the “them.” Lastly, the sentence 3 is “Aswita does not buy any bag.” The sentence 4 is “Anyone does not buy a bag.” The licensor of “not” in this sentence (see sentence 3) c-commands the NPI any whereas the licensor anyone in sentence 4 does not c-command the NPT not buy a bag because the NPI anyone does not link to the “not.” The “Any” in not buy any book shows the negative phrasal relationship and dominates NPI “any.”

Antecedent and Postcedent

A series of brief explanations of the relationships between the Binding Theory and the Antecedent as well as Postcedent signify that the syntactic categories can act as the Antecedent to the various pro-forms. The Antecedent, as it is defined, is the linguistic expressions such as words, phrases, clauses or sentences giving the explanation for the second expression along with providing meaning of its own or it is the object or the person which is identical with the one s/he has mentioned, referred back to, pointed to, or talked about but previously existed. The Postcedent (which is interpreted as “after behind”), on the other hand, describes the object or the person after mentioning the pronouns or other pro-forms of Adj, Adv, V and sentence. The different types of Pronouns replace the N and NP with or without the determiner; the Pro-Adj replaces the Adj or the AdjP serving as the Adj such as “so.” The Pro-Adv replaces the Adv/AdvP serving as the Adv such as ‘how, like that.’ The Pro-PrepP replaces the Prep/PrepP acting as the Prep/PrepP such as ‘when, there.’ The Pro-V replaces the V/VP acting as the V/VP such as ‘do/does.’ The Pro-Sentence replaces the entire sentences or clauses or the sub-sentences such as ‘which/who’ (Rödl, 2012 p.22-25). The pro-form is stereotyped by the pronoun whereas the Antecedent or Postcedent is labelled by N/NP. For more details, the followings are the cases in point of both Antecedent as well as Postcedent. The selected words or phrases boldface are pro-forms and the underlined ones are their Antecedent.

a. Darrel explicated he is fond of eating Pecel Lele (Darrel (N) as the A of the personal pronoun of he).
b. My beautiful girl prefers swimming to jogging. She invites her friends to swim every Saturday (NP as the A).
c. Keandra is very happy, and so is Darrel (Adj. as the A).
d. She had landed in the evening when the protesters clash with the police (PrepP as the A).
e. Shanty teaches in the open space. All students flock there (PrepP as the A).
f. The president detailed the scandals very bluntly. The public expected it like that as well (Adv as the A).
g. Gamara presented clearly. but Gabute did not do the same (VP as the A).
h. Gamasi eats chocolates all the time, which all understand about (entire clause as the A).
i. The senators failed to pass the graft bill. This discourages the constituents to vote (ES as the A).
j. Everyone shouted who asked for help. He suffered a lot (DW as the A).
k. The ideas have been examined by Darrel, but Keandra will not do it (DWC as the A).
l. The man, who crossed the street, is my father (adj. clause as the A).
m. If she borrows one, there is a pen in my bag (singular countable noun/Scn as the A).

These instances indicate that the syntactic category can factually act as the Antecedent to a pro-form, whereby the pro-forms themselves are a diverse bunch. Hereinafter, the followings are the illustrative examples of Postcedent.
a. When she has been here, my mother will take Aswita for a walk (N as the Post).
b. In his new car, my buddy always drives the entire day (NP as the Post).
c. I suggested it to her that I will leave for later than planned (clause/C1 as the Post. This is the example of it-extraposition).
d. My sons have been there, at the airport (prepositional phrase as the Post).
e. Darrel has tried to drive afterwards before the car engine was repaired (clause/C2 as the Post).

In practise, the Postcedent is infrequently used and hardly ever compared to the Antecedent. The differences between them are habitually discounted seeing that the Antecedent has grammatically and syntactically represented to refer back to the object/person or to stand for both. This obscurity makes most foreign students and language teachers baffled and befuddled and they, therefore, prefer to use a popular term in re-mentioning to something or someone that is “...refer(s) back to...” The mystification is not the barometer of measuring the debate if referring back to the final destination (purpose) of this study, however.

Generic Antecedent

The Generic Antecedent is a grammatical, syntactic, textual, and or pragmatic reference being isolated in the teaching of English so far but it is still heavily exploited in everyday written/spoken discourses. In essence, the Generic Antecedent represents the general, unknown, and even irrelevant classes of the genders and this usually generalises the unidentified and mysterious objects or persons in everyday interactions. Besides, it is specifically widespread in formal and informal discourses. The generalisation in the Generic Antecedent serves as to hide the object or the one’s identity from view, for examples (Antecedent is in boldface and the referring pronoun/anaphora is in italics and underlines), “the speakers violated their own orders,” or “the farmer who works hard to grow chillies lose continuously.”

The generalisations (only a small part of the examples appearing here, of the lexis of the “speakers” and “farmer”) remain a subject of substantial heated discussions (clash of ideas) because the GA in these sentences are unclear who are the “speakers and farmer” meant here and it, therefore, the Generic Antecedent is often exercised in “generalising something or politically tricking someone and blurring something (Balhorn, 2004 p.79-104; Editors of the American Heritage Dictionaries, 1996).”

The choice of pronoun to re-mention to the generic, generalised singular Antecedent amongst the English speakers/writers has become conflict-ridden such as any teacher, or every nurse (it is difficult to identify its own gender whether he or she) whereas the plural generic Antecedent as teachers or nurses may be pointed to “they” as plural pronoun. The “they” is known as the gender-unspecific whilst she or he is the gender-specific. The followings are the cases in point of the accepted, declined, and unworkable English gender constructions (Wagner, 2004).

a. All people\textsubscript{A} rejected the bills. As result, they\textsubscript{pronoun} were laid off (It is acceptable as all people is plural).
b. All people\textsubscript{A} rejected the bills. As result, he\textsubscript{pronoun} was laid off (it is unacceptable as all people is the expected A of he while he is the singular pronoun which cannot become a plural A).
c. Each one\textsubscript{A} comes late. She\textsubscript{pronoun} is punished, therefore (this is declined as reader/listener
questions whether she is generic or a member of all female?).
d. Each one\textsubscript{\textbf{A}} comes late. They\textsubscript{\textbf{Pronoun}} are punished, therefore (it is unacceptable\textsuperscript{\textbf{A}} as it refers to the modern writing styles).
e. Each one\textsubscript{\textbf{A}} comes late. She or he\textsubscript{\textbf{Pronoun}} is punished, therefore (it is numb\textsuperscript{\textbf{A}} but recommended by Chicago Manual of Style).
f. When a person\textsubscript{\textbf{A}} gets sick, he\textsubscript{\textbf{Pronoun}} may take a rest (this is disputed as is he specific or generic).

The ways-out of opposing the stereotyped role of the gender is, first, to employ the pronoun contradictory to the desired gender such as “a manager must treat “his” employees.” The last is to build the Antecedent plural then entails the use of the plural pronoun which may not be gender-specific as is “managers must treat “their” employees.” The other approaches of going up against the stereotypes are to apply the male pronoun as the gender-neutral pronoun; employ both pronouns together; draw on another pronoun instead; discover a new pronoun; exchange male and female forms; exploit the female pronoun instead; rearticulate the sentence to evade the need for a pronoun; circumvent the pronoun by repeating the noun it substitutes; utilize the plural (Quinion, 2002).

3. METHODOLOGY

This study entailed the case study research design. The authors were placed as the key instruments whereas the number of small group of English Department students (n=32; one classroom) was the selected research participants of the purposive sampling individuals being observed whose written transcripts were qualitatively exploited as the premier sources of the data. The data sourced from the students’ weekly written tasks in one even semester. The 1967 Corder’s clinical elicitation was a technique of obtaining the data where each individual was required to write an English composition. As the multiple ones, not a single approach, observation, the protocols or transcript analysis, and interviews were the techniques of searching and collecting the desired samples of the data. The holistic or coding procedures of Error Analysis (EA) were, on the contrary, exercised in analysing the data. The collected data were then, identified, described, explained and re-examined (evaluated/corrected) to draw a conclusion.

The steps of reassessing the data were to break them into two portions of Antecedent and Postcedent; searching their un-syntactic (ungrammatical) relationships between the pro-forms and their Antecedent and Postcedent and identifying and categorising their specific functions. These stages aided the author to disclose the more sensitive problematic issues being faced by the students in applying the basic ABC’s principles of the Antecedent and Postcedent into their written discourses. The credibility or internal validity, Transferability or external validity, Auditability or Dependability (reliability), Confirmability or naturality and objectivity were steps of testing validity and reliability of the data. These four kinds of (qualitatively) testing the validity and reliability of the data aim at achieving the more trusted and valid estimation of the qualitative outcome for specific constructs (the observed research participants were required to comment on the draft of the case study report (Baskarada, 2014; Yin, 2013; Mills, Durepos, Wiebe, 2010; Baxter & Jack, 2008; Fraenkel, & Wallen, 2009; Sugiyono, 2007; Gomm, Hammersley, & Foster, 2000). This research and its completion lasted for six months or one semester. Politeknik Negeri Padang was the locus of undertaking this study.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of the study were shortly summarized in the following charts based on, firstly, the Antecedent providing meaning to the pro-forms of the N, NP, Adj, PrepP, Adv, VP, ES, DW, DCW, AdjC, SCN/PCN, and secondly, the Postcedent which can give meaning to the pro-forms/syntactic categories of the N, NP, C\textsubscript{1} it-extraposition, PrepP and C\textsubscript{2}. The authors only took one sample sentence of each case in point of the Antecedent and Postcedent, and pro-forms clearly violating the ABC’s Principle of the Binding Theory or disobeying the un-syntactic relationships between the Antecedent and Postcedent and their pro-forms.
Table 1: Antecedent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NA</th>
<th>NPA</th>
<th>AdjA</th>
<th>PrepPA</th>
<th>AdvA</th>
<th>VPA</th>
<th>ECA</th>
<th>ESA</th>
<th>DWA</th>
<th>AdjCA</th>
<th>DWCA</th>
<th>ScnA</th>
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<td>0</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Antecedent

Table 1 indicated that, firstly, the N and NP were successfully bound. Majority of the 32 students in their written discourses of English compositions were capable of grammatically and syntactically binding between the Antecedent and pro-forms of N and NP as in “...the students questioned the results of the general election. As a result, they reject it...”, and “...The heartless spreaders of hoaxes have been arrested. They were interrogated for 7 hours by the authorities...” The ‘students,’ ‘general election’ and ‘the heartless spreaders of hoaxes’ were c-commanded and co-indexed by both ‘they’ and ‘it’ with the DPs within their own governing categories/domains. In the in-depth analyses, the author did not discover any various violations towards the “Antecedent” principle of the BT. This meant that the personal pronouns (anaphora) of “I, she, they, etc”; reflexives pronouns of “yourself, herself, themselves, etc” and reciprocal pronouns of “one another or each other” have been grammatically bound (c-commanded and co-indexed) with the DPs within their own clauses. The students, the heartless spreaders of hoaxes, and the general election are the syntactic categories of pro-forms of the N and NP as Antecedent of ‘they’ and ‘it’ respectively. Each Antecedent provided its meaning to the desired pro-forms of N and NP. Unfortunately, when confirmed whether they consciously placed these syntactic categories serving as the Antecedent to the pro-forms. The answer of the students was that they were unconscious and did not precisely understand that, for example, “the students” were (bound by) the Antecedent of “they.” In the interview sessions, they disclosed that they just understood that students referred back to they or vice verse. The relationship between the students and they were established naturally without being interfered with grammatical/syntactic understanding. The term Antecedent was just recognised when they were involved in this study.

Secondly, the pro-form of “so” which specifically serves as the adjective in this context were hardly found in the students’ written discourses. The reasons for avoiding “so” were due to having or performing multiple functions such as expressing the degree of an adverb, modifying Adj. and Adv., substitution, being used for emphasis, showing exclamations, is a part of FANBOYS conjunctions, and logical consequences (cause and effect), signifying inversion, showing agreements with positive (using so and too) or and negative (using neither and either) statements (elliptical constructions) whose meanings are strongly identical with “also”, etc (Swan, 1997).

The last was the students expressed that they did not think that the “so” could serve as the adjective of an Antecedent. As a result, 29 out of 32 failed to grammatically establish the correct elliptical constructions of so, too, neither, or either and these led them to frequently repeat the same ideas within the clauses as in “Marry and Robby applied for jobs at a private bank and I also applied for jobs at a private bank.” The repetition can be avoided by using the principles of elliptical constructions as in “Marry and Robby applied for jobs at a private bank, and I did too or so did I”. From the negative statement of “Maidul does not march through the capital today and also we do not match through the capital today” can be altered to the correct elliptical negative statement construction of “Maidul does not march through the capital today, and we do not either or neither do we.” These patterns “Subject + auxiliary + too; so + auxiliary+ Subject; subject + auxiliary + not either and neither + auxiliary + subject avoid the writer to not repeat the same ideas within the clauses.

Thirdly, the cases in point found were the students were capable of correctly-syntactically establishing,
first, the prepositional phrase as the A as in “...he has surrendered to the KPK, the anti-graft commission the day before yesterday before the students rally their own supporters for a fight against corruption.” The second was they were able to show grammatical relationship between the pro-form of prepositional phrases and their As as in “…the president had been outside the office. All the ministers herded there.” The third was the correct adjective clauses as A was successfully bound as in “the officer who confiscated the illegal goods at the airport received a promotion.” The last success was the correct construction of entire clause as the A as in “Qodri practises English all the time, which all are surprisingly amazed to see.” Syntactically, the day before yesterday, outside the office, the officer, and outside the office are grammatically bound (co-commended and co-indexed) by the before, there, who, and which respectively. Empirically, “the correct grammaticality of these written discourses were due to two aspects, namely, experience of learning grammar and the last one was happening naturally,” disclosed the students. The grammatical veracity of these written discourses is inversely proportional to students’ recognition designating that they in truth did not understand the basic concepts of A that binds or provides meaning to their pro-forms.

In contrast, the Adj, Adv, VP, ES DW, DWC, AdjC, and SCN were identified to establish the un-syntactic relationship between A and their pro-forms and these, of course, have violated the ABC’s principles of the Binding Theory. The violations of these principles were due to “repeating” the same ideas within a sentence/clause as in “Adjective as Antecedent: Brian was interrupted and (*Rambo was interrupted) √so was Rimbo,” “Adverb as Antecedent: The driver drove it very fast. The passengers, therefore, disliked it being driven (*very fast) √like that,” “VPA: In spite of their order, John does go out in the snowfall and Brian (*does go out in the snowstorm as well) √does the same,” “ECA: Politicians corrupted again. (*The corrupted politicians) √This make people angry.),” “ECA: Politicians criticise the government’s performance every time(∗). (√which) The government has understood it,” “DWA: The poor yell repeatedly who care for giving a spoon of rice. (*I am) (√/he is) starving.” “DWCA: The graft cases had been examined by *them (√Martin). But *she (√Shantyo) rejected to examine the graft cases (√Shantyo rejected to do it),” “AdjCA: *The culprit was a former of governor. She corrupted the state budget (√the culprit who corrupted the state budget was a former of governor),” “SenA: Let’s vote for the honest DPR members (√the ones). There the honest DPR members will help the people fight against the injustice (this sentence is Plural countable noun/PCN as Antecedent).” The results of this analysis confirm that the students failed to play the roles of the Antecedent and Postcedent in providing meaning to some of the syntactic categories/pro-forms in their English discourses. Accordingly, they often repeated the same ideas within the sentence and the discourses, therefore, did not make sense. All the ideas did not fit together well so that the discourses failed to form a united whole.

Similarly, the students were only able to establish the relationship between Postcedents and pro-forms of personal pronoun/anaphora of the N, NP and PrepP. The author failed to find the ungrammaticality of the students’ utterances in their English written discourses as in these cases in point “…because they failed to show performance while serving as a member of the legislative assembly, Aroodo and Zaratina (pseudonym names) were not re-elected in this election...(N as Postcedent); “in their new positions, the Members of the House of Representatives are expected to be able to produce quality laws that are beneficial to their people (N as Postcedents)” and “the
anti-corruption commission is there, at the state budget office.” The other two forms of clause, as Postcedents of it-extrapolation and clause2 as Postcedents failed to build the syntacticity of the statements (whereas some violated ABC’s principles of BT), nonetheless. The absence of the C1 and C2 as Postcedents occurred naturally and second, theoretically, Postcedents have not been clearly detailed or introduced in the English grammar class or other English classes. Similar to Antecedent, the term Postcedent is still strongly mysterious beforehand, said the students in the interview session. Unexpectedly, the Generic Antecedent garnished the English written discourses of the students as illustrated in table 2. The identified Generic Antecedent was a lot of, for examples, drivers, students, Member of House, whose, writer, (without referring back to their pronouns) etc and this indicated that the students were indirectly capable of generalising something, a person or a situation.

Unconsciously, the frequent uses of the Generic Antecedent in those written discourses they produced, hypothetically, stoutly divulge in generalisation which often appears in abstracts, theories or strategic discourses. Historically, in the 1970s, the Generic Antecedent was the forerunner of a tough debate in the English language due to containing a political building block/politicisation (Houghton Mifflin Company, 1996). The debate arose because the writer/speaker did not seem to directly refer back to the target audience talked about. This made people became increasingly bamboozled to guess/identify who and what was said.

In conjunction with the Binding Theory, the students were seen capable of binding the syntacticality of their written discourses. They were successful in applying the Principle Antecedent, Principle B and Principle C into their English written discourses. There were not found such examples of 1. *Jane loves her; 2. *Jane loves herself; 3. *Herself loves Jane; 4. *Jane loves Jane. Theoretically, Principle A, Pronoun/anaphora and reflexive reciprocal pronouns should be bound as sentence 2 though it is rarely heard, but it is grammatically correct. The pronoun should be free within its category and the sentence 1, therefore, violates Principles B. The R/reference-expression, i.e., snake, Jane, has to be free because the R-expression independently points to the world entities as long as it is logic and related to each other. In sentence 4, Jane binds the second (Jane) and disobeying Principle C. Essentially, Binding Theory serves as to explicate the ungrammaticality of one’s written utterances. The repetitions of Antecedent and Postcedent, as found in these written discourses, have not yet been clearly-theoretically confirmed as violating the ABC’s Condition of the Binding Theory. Such repetitions may lead to the “redundancy,” replicating the equivalent ideas/items of information within written/spoken discourses. Such a definition also sticks to pleonasm and tautology (Nordquist, 2019).

5. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATION FOR THE EFL CONTEXT

The implication for language teaching is to hunt for the advantages of these unsyntacticalities of establishing the relationships between Antecedent and Postcedent and their syntactic categories within the students’ written discourses. Essentially, the written discourses are not only built on the pure grammatical rules as happened so far but also extensively constructed and developed throughout the areas of the syntactic rules, discourse analysis and pragmatic studies. As a response to the ungrammaticalities of the students’ written discourses, the students, therefore, are coached to syntactically put the Antecedent and Postcedent together to provide meanings to various platforms of the pro-forms; to pragmatically or contextually building the exophoric and endophoric references, personal, spatial, social and discourse indexicals or discourse markers and, in discourse analysis, to diagnose the anaphoric and cataphoric references beyond the sentences within the discourses. The integration of these four linguistic branches aids the students to present co-textual and contextual information about whom the Antecedent and Postcedent providing meaning to different pro-forms are within the discourses produced.

6. CONCLUSION

The results of this study and discussion, firstly, strongly confirm that, if deeply detailing the word count’s statistics, most students were capable of producing more than 3500 words, 1250 phrases, 945 more sentences/clauses and 10 to 15 paragraph (each paragraph consists of 8 to 10 sentences) but were incapable of grammatically and syntactically producing the Adj, Adv, VP, EC, ES, DW, DWC, SCN as Antecedents and C1 it-extrapolation, C2 as Postcedents in their English written discourses although they were identified to successfully establish the syntactic relationships between the N, NP, AdjC as Antecedents; the N, NP, PrepP as Postcedents and Generic Antecedent and their syntactic categories of different types of personal pronouns (she, me, their, ours, himself, themselves, this those, one/ones, w-h interrogative pronouns and relative pronoun or adjective clause of which, who, that, whose and demonstrative pronoun of ‘there’ indicating adverb of place or far in time. Repetitions were, conversely, the premier sources of the breakdowns of establishing syntactic linking between Antecedent and Postcedent.
and pro-forms. Startlingly, the ABC’s principles were well bound.

Secondly, the success occurs naturally or in the concept of Noam Chomsky refers to the Universal Grammar as the basic postulate of a certain set of grammatical rules of an innate to human (Chomsky, 2007) and coupled with the grammatical knowledge acquired in the Grammar classes where an EFL teacher would rather (simplify to) use the well-liked and fashionable term of “reference” (as in ...refers back to...) in re-explaining to an earlier or subsequent object or person than Antecedent and Postcedent. Besides, some articulated that the reference linking to the semantic relations and strictly sticking to the study of grammatical cohesion, is simpler, more understandable, extremely applicable and acceptable for language teachers to teach and for students to learn than “Antecedent and Postcedent.” On the contrary, the breakdowns of establishing the syntactic relationships between Adj, Adv, VP, EC, ES, DW, DWC, SCN/PCN as Antecedents and C1 it-extraposition, C2 as Postcedents and their syntactic categories sourced from the naïve English instructional programs which hardly seriously take them (A and Post) into account in the English classes. The Antecedent and Postcedent are, if truth be told, taken into account, the students will extensively acquire the well-established cross-linguistic knowledge of not only Grammar but also Syntax, Discourse Analysis and Pragmatics. The ad infinitum use of the term “reference” is, in truth, not on the blink, faulty. Nonetheless, the ignorance of instructing the Antecedent and Postcedent have a titanic impact on the students’ text analysis, syntactic, discourse analysis, and pragmatic knowledge of English comprehensively. Finally, the students only recognized and were capable of disclosing to the grammatical/syntactic relationships between the N, NP, AdjC and PrepP as Antecedent and Postcedent and pronouns within the written discourses. They, at the same time, flop to establish the affiliations between Adj, Adv, VP, EC, ES, DW, DWC, SCN/PCN as Antecedents and C1 it-extraposition, C2 as Postcedents and their syntactic categories.

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Contemporary Translation Theories: Mapping a Growing Field
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ARTICLE INFO
ABSTRACT
Received: September 24, 2019
Accepted: October 27, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.26
KEYWORDS
Translation studies, contemporary theories, functionalist approach, translators as agents

Translation Studies (TS) has always borrowed theories and approaches from other disciplines. While such openness has significantly contributed to the expansion of TS, it can also mean moving boundaries and uncertainty as to the identity of this discipline, and its status within the social sciences and the humanities. As a consequence, a cartography of translation theories becomes a necessary step towards the delineation of some epistemological boundaries for the discipline. This paper, aimed primarily at translation students and trainees, provides thus a simplified cartography of the growing body of theoretical works trying to come to grips with translation phenomena.

1. INTRODUCTION
Translation Studies (TS) has only become a discipline in its own right in the 1970s. It has, however, substantially developed over the past few decades to become a field of knowledge unlike any other. Having been from the very beginning at the interface of disciplines, TS is indeed marked by great crossdisciplinarity, or what João F. Duarte et al. (2006, p. 4) describe as “a principle of flux, of unceasing intersections and realignments” with many disciplines. This means a proliferation of theories and approaches borrowed from other fields of inquiry. While such development testifies to the richness of TS, it can also mean moving boundaries and uncertainty as to the identity of this still relatively young discipline, and its status within the social sciences and the humanities. As a consequence, a cartography of translation theories becomes a necessary step towards the delineation of “some borders or boundaries or limits for the inquiry about translation” (Maria Tymozcko, 2005, p. 1086).

This paper, aimed primarily at translation students and trainees, provides thus a simplified overview of the growing body of theoretical works trying to account for translation phenomena. For the purposes of this essay, I will follow a mainly chronological organization in my mapping of the field. I will therefore divide the history of contemporary translation theories into two major periods: from the beginning of the twentieth century until the 1970s, and from the 1970s, i.e. the emergence of translation studies as an interdisciplinary academic field, onwards. Within each period, I will identify the most influential theories and approaches. For constraints of space, the paper will be limited to the major theories and scholars associated with them. Theoretical reflection on translation and technology, including localization and machine translation, and on translation pedagogy, is also excluded. At the end of the paper, I will make a brief recommendation for professional translators and translation trainers in terms of the most appropriate theoretical approach.

2. Translation Theory: What is it?
While it is generally accepted that translation studies first emerged as a field of study in its own right in the 1970s with Holmes’ seminal article “The Name and Nature of Translation Studies,” translation theory itself was not officially recognized until 1983 when it was given an entry of its own in the Modern Language Association International Bibliography (Edwin Gentzler, 2001, p. 1). According to Anthony Pym’s (2014) definition of translation theory, however, translators have always theorized about translation. He
organizing the field by paradigms, all while pointing out that the order of paradigms roughly coincided with a chronological order. Regardless of the classification, inclusions always mean exclusions as the focus remains on the main approaches/paradigms/perspectives. They also show a development of translation theories that reflects accumulation of knowledge, dominating approaches within a single period, such as linguistic approaches, and longevity of specific paradigms and principles across the periods. Above all, they show that a theory of translation is always shaped by the theorists’ assumptions about language and meaning.

4. Translation Theories: Early 20th Century to the 1970s

Theorizing in this period was considerably shaped by two main disciplines, namely philosophy, particularly the German tradition, and linguistics.

4.1 Philosophical Theories

Reflection on translation in early Twentieth-century was still very much a part of reflection on language and was rooted mainly in German philosophical tradition and hermeneutics. The most seminal work in this period is Walter Benjamin’s “The Task of the Translator” (1923/2000). In this essay, Benjamin transgresses the traditional dichotomy of original vs. translation by conceptualizing translation as a text that does not serve to reproduce the original, but that participates in its “afterlife.” For Benjamin, translation should do more than render a source text message in a target language. Its task is, indeed, to recreate the values that the original has acquired over time and bring out the “pure language,” i.e. the “complementary intentions” of languages despite all their differences. Equally influential in this period is Ezra Pound (2000). Like Benjamin, he believes in the autonomy of the translated text. For him, too, translation transforms, rather than reproduces, the original text. Using archaisms, he conceives of translation as either a critical “accompaniment” to the original, or an “original writing” that abides by the target language standards to rewrite the original. Another philosopher whose work was reminiscent of late twentieth century translation theory underlain by poststructuralism, but that has not engaged scholars as much as Benjamin is Jose Ortega y Gacet (2000). The latter believes that translation is not so much a copy of the original as a “path” towards this original and its culture. Advocating literalism, he argues that translation should not pretend to be a transparent reproduction of
the other by hiding behind “a literary garb.” Instead, it should reveal itself through literalist discursive strategies.

The significance of these works transcends their period as they will go to deeply influence reflection on translation decades later. This is especially true for Benjamin whose seminal essay gave rise to a full body of research on translation and engaged many translation scholars, including Antoine Berman, Henri Meschonnic, Steiner, Haroldo de Campos, Eric Cheyfitz, Venuti and Suzanne-Jill Levine (Sanders, 2003, p. 161).

4.2 Linguistic Theories

Mid-twentieth century witnessed a surge of theories anchored in linguistics. Key figures of this trend include Roman Jakobson, John Catford, Nida, Jiri Levy, and Jean-Paul Vinay and Jean Darbelnet. Jacobson (1959/2000) adopts a scientific approach and delineates the field of translation by distinguishing between three types of translation, namely intralingual translation, i.e. paraphrase and rewording, interlingual translation, i.e. translation proper, and intersemiotic translation, i.e. transmutation. It is, therefore, a conceptualization of translation that goes beyond the traditional understanding of translation, and views all types of communication as translation. Jakobson (p. 114), however, adopts a traditional conception of translation proper that, unlike Benjamin’s or Pound’s, limits the role of translation to “recod[ing] and transmit[t]ing] a message received from another source.” For him, translation is a process “that involves two equivalent messages in two different codes” (p. 114). Perhaps his most significant contribution to the field is his introduction of the semiotic reflection (Snell-Hornby, 2006).

On his part, John Catford (1965) attempts to provide an account for translation based completely on “a theory of language—a general linguistic theory” (p. 1). Indeed, he believes that “the theory of translation is essentially a theory of applied linguistics” (p. 19). Accordingly, he conceives of meaning as “a property of a language” (p. 35), i.e. as language specific, and like Jakobson, defines translation rather simply as “the replacement of textual material in one language by equivalent textual material in another language” (p. 20).

Theorizing about translation from within the bible translation tradition, Nida is rather circumspect in his belief in linguistics’ ability to provide a wholesale account of translation, but equally scientific in his approach as flagged up in the title of his influential book Towards a Science of Translating (1964). Grounding his theory in Chomsky’s generative grammar, he (1964) points out that while any work offering a “descriptive analysis” of translation should have a linguistic thrust, it should not be “narrowly linguistic” since language is only “one part of total human behaviour” (p. 8). Unlike Catford, Nida believes that meaning is not a mere property of language but is made of three elements: the linguistic, the referential and the emotive, the latter concerning “the responses of the participants in the communicative act” (p. 70). This conceptualization of meaning allows him to define translation as a process shaped by three factors, namely “(1) the nature of the message, (2) the purpose or purposes of the author and, by proxy, of the translator, and (3) the type of audience” (p. 156). He then goes on to distinguish between formal equivalence, i.e. translation that is formally equivalent to the source text, and dynamic equivalence, i.e. translation that seeks to elicit a response among its readers equivalent to the response of the source text readers.

5. Translation Theories: The 1970s to the Present Day

Nida’s inclusion of contextual elements such as readers’ response and translator’s purpose in his theory not only anticipated later developments in translation studies, but also conveyed a similar sense of wariness among linguists themselves of abstract approaches to language. This wariness resulted in linguistics taking a pragmatic turn (see, for instance, John Austin, 1962 and John Searle, 1969), which had tremendous implications for translation theorists. In fact, Mary Snell-Hornby (2006, p. 37) credits this turn for the very “development of the discipline of Translation Studies” starting from the 1970s, by favouring “a holistic, interdisciplinary approach to translation, more critical and appreciative investigations of the process and product of translation.” It was thus in the 1970s, and more precisely in 1972, that this discipline took a name, “translation studies,” and shape with Holmes’s essay “The Name and Nature of Translation Studies.”

But while this field of study has grown as a discipline in its own right over the past five decades, and developed a multiplicity of foci, from localization to
5.1 More Linguistic Theories and Approaches

Kirsten Malmkjær (2011) cites Ernst-August Gutt’s 1991 relevance-theory approach to translation as one of the notable works based on linguistics. Expanding on Sperber and Wilson’s (1986) relevance theory of communication, Gutt (1991) conceives translation as a process of inferential communication where the receiver/reader of the text expects the text to be optimally relevant and “yield adequate contextual effects at minimal processing cost” (p. 30). Likewise, Juliane House (1997) inscribes her model of translation quality assessment mainly in systemic functional grammar. The model requires, thus, comparison between source and target texts at the levels of language/text, register and genre.

Approaching translation as a process of negotiation where the translator is a “mediator” between the author of the source text and the receivers of the target text, Basil Hatim and Ian Mason (1990) draw extensively on pragmatics and semiotics to build a model of translation process based on such concepts as text-type, discourse and context. Mona Baker is yet another translation scholar who draws extensively on linguistics in her *In Other Words: A Coursebook on Translation* (1992). Unlike Hatim and Mason, whose starting points of discussion and analysis are macro concepts such as context, Baker builds a bottom-up model of translation that goes from equivalence at word level up to pragmatic equivalence.

5.2 Functionalist Translation Theory

The approaches above all show that the focus of translation theory gradually shifted away from the source text and faithfulness/equivalence to it, to the process and product of translation, and the function of this product in its new context. This shift had already been anticipated by Nida when he recognized the importance of the function and effect of the target text on the target audience. It is, however, no more apparent than in the functionalist approaches to translation. Among the key figures of these approaches are Katharina Reiss, her disciple Hans Vermeer, Justa Holz-Mänttäri and Christiane Nord.

In his *Skopos* theory (1978/2000), Vermeer completely rejects the notion of equivalence. For him, translation is a human action that takes place in a cultural context, and has both an intention and a *skopos*, i.e. a purpose. “Dethroning” the source text, he asserts that translation can only be “good” if it fits its *skopos* and its product is functional to its audience, not when it achieves some kind of equivalence to the source text.

5.3 Polysystem Theory, Descriptive Translation Studies and the Manipulation School

Functionalist translation theory, however, was not the only theory to displace equivalence as a key concept in translation and “dethrone” the original text in the 1970s and 1980s. Drawing on Russian formalism, Itamar Even-Zohar (1978/2000) adopts a polysystem theory in his approach of literary translation. The latter is, for him, a fact of the target polysystem that should be studied in its relation to the other original systems in the target culture rather than to the source text. Drawing attention to the potential cultural role of translation, Even-Zohar maintains that translated literature can occupy a “central position,” as opposed to a “peripheral” one, in the target polysystem and fulfill an “innovative” function when this polysystem is still in the process of being established or when the literary tradition in it is itself minor in relation to other literary traditions, including the source one.

Building on polysystem theory, Gideon Toury (1978/2000) took a descriptive approach to translated literature. He sets out to explain the way such target orientation undermines the concept of equivalence in translation inasmuch as translation always involves shifts and obeys target norms. He seeks, as a consequence, to identify and describe target norms as well as the shifts that result from these norms and that constitute a text acceptable in the target culture. Other 1980s’ translation scholars identified with polysystem theory and adopting a descriptive approach to translation, mainly Andre Lefevere and Theo Hermans, proposed a theory of translation as rewriting and created what came to be known as the manipulation school.

According to Lefevere (1992), for instance, translation—much like many such activities taking place in the polysystem as literary criticism, historiography and anthologization—is a “refraction” of the source text, i.e. a processing of the source text “for a certain audience (children, e.g.), or [adaptation] to a certain poetics or a certain ideology” (p. 72). Parting with the positivistic view of translation as a linear and transparent linguistic transfer, Lefevere (1992) argues, in fact, that translation is a “rewriting”
of the original text that is circumscribed ideologically by the power of patrons and aesthetically by that of critics (p. 205).

5.4 The Ethics of Difference

While the scholars associated with Descriptive Translation Studies were criticized for being apolitical in their approach to translation (see Douglas Robinson, 1997 & Venuti, 1998), they paved the way for what came to be known as the “cultural turn” in translation studies by introducing a paradigmatic shift in the discipline from studying the way translation should be carried out, to studying the translated text in its new cultural context. As a consequence, and under the further influence of Cultural Studies and poststructuralism, translation studies scholars turned increasingly to studying the way translation contributed to cultural identity formation and how it is harnessed for ideological and political purposes. Thus, as of the early 1990s, a substantial body of literature started growing around issues of translation, power differentials and identity. This growing awareness of the ideological power of translation also meant increasing theoretical interest in the ethics of translation.

Key contributions to reflection on the ethics of translation starting from the 1980s are Berman (1984, 1985/1999) and Venuti (1995, 1998). Drawing on Benjamin and Meschonnic, Berman advocates a literalist translation that seeks to release the “pure language” existing in all languages (1984, p. 24). Berman’s ethics is, in Pym’s (2002) words, based on “the defence of otherness and the critique of ethnocentric textual practices” (p. 35). The same objective fuels Venuti’s “ethics of difference.” Drawing on both Schleiermacher and Berman, Venuti (1995, 1998) decries what he calls domesticating, fluent translations for their neo-imperialist and ethnocentric underpinnings. He (1995) calls, therefore, for a foreignizing or “resistant” translation (p. 24) based on a militant ethics. Such translation, according to him, can dismantle hegemony and destabilize unequal power structures. Despite its share of criticism, too, Venuti’s reflection has had a significant impact on both postcolonial and feminist theoretical reflections on translation (Robinson, 1997).

5.5 Postcolonial Translation Theory

Postcolonial translation theory gained momentum as of the 1990s, with significant input from other disciplines. Eric Cheyfitz (1991), for instance, explored the role of translation in the conquest of the Americas to conclude that translation “was, and still is, the central act of European colonization and imperialism of the Americas” (p. 104). Vicente Rafael (1993) explored what he termed the “uneasy relationship” (p. ix) between translation and Christian conversion and their role in the colonization of the Tagalog of the Philippines by the Spanish.

From India, several scholars looked into the workings of translation in British colonization, most notably Tiaswini Niranjana (1992), and Harish Trivedi (1995, 1997). Niranjana (1992), for instance, maintains that translation of Indian texts, including literary ones, into English played as significant a role in colonialism as the teaching of the English language and English literature to the colonized. These practices sought, according to her (pp. 30-31), to construct a colonial subject that is more “English than Hindu,” and that sees the world through the same orientalist prism as the British colonizer, i.e. a subject that interiorized “ways of seeing … or modes of representation that came to be accepted as ‘natural,’” but that were inscribed in “a teleological and hierarchical model of cultures that places Europe at the pinnacle of civilization” (p. 18).

Similar works emerged around another local reality, that of Ireland. Studying the translation of early Irish literature into English, Tymoczko (1999) aptly shows how translation, as a way of gathering information about the Other, can be a tool as much of colonization as of resistance and self-determination (p. 294). From Canada, two important studies engaging with the Quebecois reality from a postcolonial perspective came to fruition, namely Annie Brisset (1990) and Sherry Simon (1994).

5.6 Feminist Theory

The cultural turn heralded by Lefevere and Susan Bassnett (1990) also opened the discipline to feminist theory. In fact, Simon (1996) credits the reconceptualization of translation as “re-writing,” together with the mounting interest within the social and human sciences in issues of gender and identity, for the “alliance” that would form between feminist theory and translation theory. This development gave birth to several theoretical works and translation projects grounded in gendered identity politics and “engaging directly with power differentials that rule relations between the sexes […] and that are often
revealed in the detailed study of translated literatures” (Luise von Flotow, 2011, p. 2).

Main scholars associated with this trend include Lori Chamberlain (1988), who explores the way the gendering of translation was mapped onto the productive/reproductive oppositional paradigm; Simon (1996) who further explores what she calls the “gendered theorization” of translation and sheds valuable light into the equally “gendered positions” taken by feminist translators and translation theorists, like Suzanne Jill Levine and Suzanne de Lotbinière-Harwood; and Barbara Godard (1990) who advocates a feminist translation where the feminist translator “womanhandles” the literary text (p. 50).

While the main thrust of research grounded in feminist translation theory initially took place in North America, it soon spread to the peripheries at a time when feminist theory itself was integrating a new concept, that of intersectionality, whereby gender difference is only one among other differences, including race, nation, class and religion, that intersect to make identity. Gayatri Spivak (1993) and Rosemary Arrojo (1999) are among the first theoreticians to explore intersectionality in translation, mainly by looking into representational practices pertaining to the Other woman from the double perspective of feminist and postcolonial theory.

5.7 Sociological Approaches

Once the focus of translation theory shifted from the source text to the process and product of translation, it was only a matter of time before it turned to the main agents in this process, i.e. translators. Moreover, the present conjecture of armed conflicts, military occupation and massive numbers of refugees has heightened the need for translators’ and interpreters’ services, bringing to the fore their agency and putting to the test their assumed neutrality. As a consequence, and with the influence of and insight from other disciplines, mainly sociology and anthropology, translation studies witnessed a proliferation of sociological approaches exploring not only the role and agency of translators but also the role of publishing houses.

In fact, Andrew Chesterman (2006) identifies a whole line of enquiry within translation studies, which he calls “the sociology of translation.” It includes theoretical works dealing mostly with the sociology of translations and the sociology of translators. The first category would include, according to Chesterman (pp. 14-15), Lefevere’s reflection on patronage and sponsors in translation, as well as works informed by critical discourse analysis, particularly Norman Fairclough’s model (1992) with its emphasis on social change.

Theoretical works belonging to the sociology of translators include Hélène Buzelin (2007) who draws on Bruno Latour’s symmetric anthropology in her exploration of translation as a collective process of production. They also include scholars such as Baker (2006, 2007), Jerry Palmer (2007), Mila Dragovic-Drouet (2007) and Moira Inghilleri (2009), who turned to the investigation of the agency of translators as “individuals positioned within networks of power relationships” (Myriam Salama-Carr, 2007, p. 2).

6. Translation Theory for Pedagogical and Professional Purposes

For both translators and translation trainers, functionalist translation theory offers the ideal theoretical and conceptual foundation necessary for translators and translation teachers alike. Despite the criticism levelled at the approach (see, for instance, House 1997 on the concept of function, and Gentzler 2001 on what he calls the “sales mission” underlying the theory), the theory takes into consideration the main variables that impinge on the translation process, including the producer of the original text and his/her own skopos, the initiator and his/her commission with the various work conditions it sets (time, mode of delivery, communication…), and the receptors of the target text with their needs and expectations. In so doing, it best responds to the reality of the profession, and accounts for the constraints within which the translator works.

Breaking with prescriptivism and the sterile debate of faithfulness vs. freedom, functionalist theory also introduces the concept of loyalty. Unlike the concept of faithfulness, which implies a relationship between source and target texts, loyalty is an ethical concept meant to regulate the relationship between the translator and author, on the one hand, and the translator and readers of the target text, on the other hand. In other words, the functionalists view translators as free agents who still negotiate their way between the constraints and expectations of the other agents involved in the process. This concept allows for the variety and diversity of strategies that professional translators use, including within the same translation project. As Nord (1997, p. 29) points out, translators in this theory can choose between “a ‘free’ or a
‘faithful’ translation, or anything between these two poles, depending on the purpose for which the translation is needed.” In other words, there is no right or wrong translation, as long as it fits the bill and satisfies the client but still without being disloyal to the author of the original.

Moreover, and while functionalist translation theory might seem to be exclusively adapted or at least better suited to non-literary translation, the concepts of loyalty, function and skopos make it equally adaptable to literary translation. Indeed, the functionalists conceive literature itself like any other text: as a communicational action with an author/sender, intentions, receptors, a message and an effect or function. The theory thus provides “a theoretical foundation for literary translation that allows translators to justify their decisions” whatever the decision is (Nord, 1997, p. 91).

7. CONCLUSION

Translation studies has evolved tremendously over the past few decades. With new undergraduate and graduate programs and new summer schools every year, increasing numbers of book-length studies, journals and international conferences, it has become an established discipline with a more affirmed epistemological identity. This evolution has only been possible because TS remained open to new paradigms and new theories borrowed from other fields of inquiry. In fact, and as Alexis Nouss (1995) has so well put it, undergirding translation studies is "an epistemology of openness, unaccepting of all totalizing knowledge and embracing of the idea that translation is dialogue" (p. 341; my translation).

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A Speech Act Analysis of Bedouin Proverbs in Jordan
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ARTICLE INFO
Received: September 02, 2019
Accepted: October 05, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.27

ABSTRACT
The main aim of this study is to investigate Bedouin proverbs in Jordan in accordance with Speech Act Theory. More specifically, it attempts to determine the illocutionary acts as well as the illocutionary forces in the selected contextualized proverbs. More importantly, it targets to test the applicability of specifying the perlocutionary acts of Bedouin proverbs as it tries to explore the possible perlocutionary acts that Bedouin proverbs can accomplish in their real contexts. The study revealed that the illocutionary acts performed by using Bedouin proverbs are representatives, commissives expressives and directives, while the illocutionary acts are scolding, threatening, advising, criticizing, requesting and asking. It also proved that it is applicable to determine the perlocutionary acts of Bedouin proverbs. It showed that the perlocutionary acts are categorized into two levels: the psychological consequence (insulting, scaring, convincing, angering, motivating and persuading) and getting the hearer to do something.

KEYWORDS
Pragmatics, Speech Act Theory, Context, Proverbs, Bedouins

1. INTRODUCTION
Proverbs like any other traditional verbal folklore genres, e.g. folktales, riddles, legends, stories and jokes exist in every society as part of that society's folklore. A proverb is a short statement or phrase that encodes people's ideas, feelings, traditions, habits, beliefs and experiences. Mollanazar (2001) defined the proverb as "a unit of meaning in a specific context through which the speaker and hearer arrive at the same meaning" (p. 53). Mieder (2004) pointed out that "proverbs fulfill the human need to summarize experiences and observations into nuggets of wisdom that provide ready-made comments on personal relationships and social affairs" (p. 1).

When people interact with each other, they usually use proverbs in their daily speech in order to perform a wide variety of functions; they use proverbs to give a piece of advice, to criticize, to threaten, to request and many other communicative functions. Such functions of language were called illocutionary forces by Austin (1962). Moreover, by using a proverb in a certain context it can have a specific effect on the hearer. This effect was called the perlocutionary act by Austin. In few words, whenever a proverb appears in communication, it will contain illocutionary act, illocutionary force and perlocutionary act. In order to find out the illocutionary act, illocutionary force and perlocutionary act a proverb can achieve, it is essential to take the context into consideration. Yan (1996) states that "when contexts are taken into consideration in the study of meanings, pragmatics hence comes into existence" (p. 11).

Although much ink has been poured on Arabic proverbs, no single study has examined the perlocutionary effect, which is a neglected component in Speech Act Theory. In this study, a number of Bedouin proverbs were investigated as per the speech act theory to explore not only the illocutionary acts and forces of Bedouin proverbs but more importantly the perlocutionary effect of these proverbs. Accordingly, the study sought to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the kinds of the illocutionary acts of Bedouin proverbs?
2. What are the illocutionary forces of Bedouin proverbs?
3. What are the possible perlocutionary acts of Bedouin Proverbs?

To the researcher's best knowledge; there was no single study that investigated the perlocutionary acts of proverbs in general and Bedouin proverbs in particular. Therefore, this study comes to fill in this gap in literature. What is more, the fruits of the study will benefit second language learners as well as
linguists. In this study, only Bedouin Proverbs were investigated. Moreover, the researcher applied Searle's classification of speech acts on the collected data. Accordingly, the results of this study cannot be generalized beyond the study.

2. RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Theoretical Framework

Speech Act Theory is one of the most important theories that falls under a branch of linguistics called pragmatics, which has been defined by many scholars and researchers. Levinson (1983) defined pragmatics as "the study of those relations between language and context that are grammaticalized, or encoded in the structure of a language" (p. 9). Mey (2001) also defined it as "the use of language in human communication" (p. 6). Furthermore, Leech (1983) described pragmatics as "the study of meaning in relation to speech situations" (p. 6). In pragmatics, the context is significant to determine the meaning of an utterance.

Speech Act Theory was firstly proposed by John Austin (1962) and then elaborated by John Searle (1976, 1969). Both Austin and Searle believed that language can be used not only to say things but also to perform actions.

Austin distinguished between direct and indirect speech acts. Yule (1996) states that direct speech act means the direct relationship between form and function, and the indirect speech act means the indirect relationship between form and function.

Austin (1962, 94-108) proposed three kinds of acts: the locutionary act which is the actual words uttered, the illocutionary act which is the intended meaning and the perlocutionary act which is the effect of the utterance on the hearer. According to Seale (1969), the perlocutionary acts include the act of persuading, amusing, embarrassing, boring, intimating, or inspiring the addressee.

Austin also made a clear distinction between the illocutionary act and the perlocutionary act. He stated that the former is a conventional linguistic act, whereas, the latter is non-linguistic act. He reported that the illocutionary act is under the control of the speaker, while the perlocutionary act is more related to the hearer. The distinction between the two has been illustrated by contrasting lists of illocutionary and perlocutionary verbs. Accordingly, to embarrass, persuade, frighten or get the hearer to do something/realize something are perlocutionary, not illocutionary. This is because such acts cannot be used performatively. To understand this. Consider the following examples.

1. I hereby embarrass you.
2. I hereby persuade you
3. I hereby get you to do something.

According to Austin, a speaker cannot say (1, 2 and 3) above, as such verbs cannot figure in explicit forms. Unlike the illocutionary verbs that can be used performatively. In order to make the distinction clearer, Austin classified the illocutionary verbs by using the explicit performative test and a concise dictionary. He comes up with five main classes: verdictives, exercitives, commissives, behabitives and expositives.

Searle (1976) criticized Austin's taxonomy and proposed an alternative taxonomy of illocutionary acts:

1. Assertives (representatives): acts which commit the speaker to the truth of the proposition such as claiming and reporting.
2. Directives: acts in which the speaker attempts to get the hearer to do something such as asking, requesting and advising.
3. Commissives: acts which commit the speaker to some future act such as promising and offering.
4. Expressives: acts in which the speaker makes his attitude about a proposition such as thanking, apologizing, and congratulating.
5. Declarations: acts which bring about correspondence between the propositional content and the reality such as naming and appointing.

2.2 Previous Studies

Lawal, Ajayi and Raji (1997) investigate the illocutionary acts implemented through the use of twelve Yoruba proverbs and analyze the kinds of pragmatic context and competence which the listeners have to invoke and deploy respectively to interpret them appropriately and to resolve the overt contradiction in each of the six selected pairs of proverbs. The researchers interpret proverbs according to speech act theory. They aim to answer why and how these proverbs are used. The data were collected from literary texts and native speakers of the language. Each proverb is analyzed pragmatically by stating the direct and indirect illocutionary acts. They find out that the direct performative illocutionary force of Yoruba proverbs tends to be "assertive". The indirect illocutionary forces vary and include the "expressive act of blaming".

Ali and Makhlef (2001) carries out a study to analyze the speech acts of the English and Arabic proverbs.
They deal with the problem that both English and Arabic proverbs express the literal meaning of their words while they bear indirect/metaphorical meanings which are not explicit for the hearers. They also limited their study to the analysis of 59 English and Arabic proverbs, following Searle’s model of speech acts. Their study has shown that the "commissive" speech acts type and "representative" speech acts type are the most occurring types of speech acts. The "commissive" speech acts represent the first occurrence, whereas, the "representative" speech acts represent the second occurrence. Moreover, it has shown that the most of the English and Arabic proverbs have the occurrence of warning acts more than others. The asserting acts have the second occurrence while the advising acts have the third occurrence. It also has shown that there are some other acts such as threatening, requesting and wisdom acts but they represent the lower percentage.

Yan (2006) studies English proverbs in terms of Speech Act Theory. She focuses on how speech act theory can be applied to the understanding of English proverbs and how the illocutionary forces produced in proverbs function in different contexts. She also hopes that her views about proverbs can attribute to a better understanding of how proverbs can be employed to perform different illocutionary acts and how they function to effect successful communication. She finds that the majority of proverbs are "directive", "expressive" and "representative".

Hor, G and Jamal, H. (2007) conduct a study entitled A Test of Searle’s Speech Act Theory: A Case Study of Lebanese Religious Proverbs. Their study aims at testing, with a platform of selected Lebanese Arabic Religious Proverbs, the validity of Searle’s theory when applied within a culturally specific context. The study reveals the success of Searle’s speech act theory when applied on Lebanese religious proverbs and it is applicability of this theory on Non-western communication mode. They find that the percentage of the occurrence of "representatives" is (43%) and "commissives" is (30%) and the non-applicability of declarative speech acts.

Lutfi (2007) applies speech acts to weather proverbs. The main concern of his paper is to demonstrate that weather proverbs are often intended to be speech acts rather than statements about atmospheric settings. The study has noted that weather proverbs are always indirectly exploited to express the direct speech acts of warning, advising, exhorting, urging, prophesying, etc. He found that weather proverbs are special cases of indirect speech acts which are associated with atmospheric conditions. These acts are uttered and performed on the condition that they are related to instances of weather broadcasting, i.e., generally, they either urge their hearers to make use of a fine weather or to avoid unhappy weather.

Abdul Jabbar (2008) applies the speech act theory to the American English proverbs and analyzes them in a way similar to that used in conversational speech acts in spoken language. The study focuses on the speech acts of advice to show whether it is subjected to certain rules and distinctive semantic meanings that prevent it from becoming pragmatically fail. The study is limited to the study of Harry Collies’ book 101 American English Proverbs and this study follows Wierzbuck’s model. The analysis shows that the highest score recorded is the suggest speech act. Next in the scores recorded is the recommend speech act. No score is given to the speech act of consult. All other speech acts: advice1, advice2 advocate, propose, and counsel are equally scored.

Dairo (2010) examines 30 different Yoruba proverbs in terms of speech act analysis. He classifies these proverbs according to their illocutionary acts for interpretation and he examines how proverbs are used to perform several acts. He concludes that "any utterance made by language users in whatever form are speech acts; therefore, a proverb, as a rhetorical variable, is used to perform certain acts" (p. 441). In this paper, the analysis of proverbs has shown that proverbs are used severally to achieve acts of adjudication, expression of facts, warning or admonition, giving advice, issuing caution and giving directives.

Ayeni (2011) conducts a study under the title of A pragmatic Analysis of Nigerian Proverb in Wole Soyinka’s the Lion and the Jewel. The study aims at: firstly, examining how meaning is generated from the use of proverbs and beyond the level of general conversational meaning. Secondly, surveying the importance of proverbs in Nigerian culture. Thirdly, showcasing Wole Soyinka as a competent writer whose work is relevant to the Nigerian society. He uses speech act theory to give an account of the speech act/ illocutionary act. He finds that all proverbs are "assertives", because they commit someone to something being the case, the truth of the expressed proposition.

Jombadi, A. and Juliana, J. (2014) carries out a study to examine the validity of Searle’s theory when applied within the Yoruba proverbial context. For the purpose of the study, they collect 25 proverbs from two resources, written text and home video. Moreover, they classify these proverbs according to nine aspects, that is, social relation, justice and ethics, religion, philosophy, life and death, beauty, faith, agriculture and game. Their study provides an
empirical account of the significance, essence and functions of proverbs within the Yoruba culture. Moreover, their study finds out that four proverbs have two different speech acts while the others vary and include “assertives” and “directives”.

Alishorafat (2016) examines North-Eastern Badia's proverbs in light of Speech Act theory. It aims at highlighting and exploring the types of illocutionary acts found in North-Eastern Badia's proverbs and identifying the pragmatic functions of these proverbs. It also targets at explaining why Non-Bedouins may fail to understand and interpret these proverbs outside and inside their real contexts. The study has revealed that there are three prevalent types of speech acts that occur in these proverbs. They are expressives (45%), directives (30%) and representatives (25%). It also has explored ten pragmatic functions of these proverbs: scolding, blaming, scorning, advising, complaining, ridiculing, criticizing, vilifying, praising and asserting. Moreover, the study has revealed that Non-Bedouins (outsiders) face some problems in understanding many Bedouin Proverbs due to some factors: First, they lack semantic knowledge of the lexical items found in proverbs (lexical gap). Second, they lack pragmatic knowledge. Third, most of the proverbs are restricted only to Bedouins (culture-specifics). Fourth, there are intrinsic cultural differences between Bedouins' culture and Non-Bedouins'. Fifth, many informants have not been in close contact with Bedouins' traditions, customs, beliefs, etc. Sixth, most of these proverbs use metaphorical language; their meaning cannot be lexically predictable. Seventh, there is a phonological variation between Bedouins and Non-Bedouins that may trigger such a pragmatic failure.

The present study differs from all the above studies in that it has explored the perlocutionary acts of Bedouin proverbs in their real contexts, which is the central concern of this study.

3. METHODOLOGY
The researcher interviewed 10 Bedouin native speakers who reside in different parts in the city of Mafraq and who are 40 years and more. They are all educated. The researcher chose those people due to the fact that they are familiar enough with Bedouin proverbs and their usage.

The researcher collected the data of the present study by interviewing 10 people individually. In the interview, the researcher asked the interviewees to give him a proverb and a real situation in which it can be used. The researcher was recording and taking notes during the interview. This procedure helped the researcher immensely to obtain the data needed for this study.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
The data is categorized according to the act that is produced which is either a psychological consequence or getting the hearer to do something.

Psychological Consequence
1. قال قاسم لجاره الذي يؤذيه باس: لا تجعلني "حترم رأسك عند رجلين".

Qasim said to his neighbor who is always hurting him: do not make me "Put its tail near its head".

Func. “Close the stable door before the horse has bolted”

The above proverb is metaphorically said to an individual who is too late in doing or accomplishing an activity. Thus, when this proverb is used in different social contexts, it can perform various communicative meanings such as advising, criticizing and many others. After considering the contextual clues, the proverb user employed this particular locution (the proverb) in this situation to implement the illocutionary force of scolding, which is categorized as expressives speech acts as the speaker makes his attitude toward a proposition. It clearly can be noted that the possible perlocutionary act (the effect of the utterance on the hearer) could be "insulting" the hearer. This is the overall meaning of the proverb above.

2. قال قاسم لجاره الذي يؤذيه باس: لا تجعلني "حترم رأسك عند رجلين".

Func. "Make the situation get worse”

The above underlined proverb is said by Bedouins mainly to threaten the hearer. Similarly, in the context at hand the speaker used this proverb in order to threaten the addressee. In terms of pragmatics, the illocutionary force that is achieved just by uttering this proverb is threatening, which falls under the illocutionary act comissives as the speaker commits himself to some future act. In this case, the utterance can have perlocutionary act of "scarring" the addressee.

3. لاحظ المعلم أن اجابة الطالب كانت مبهمة، فقال له: "اجابتك "سيل ظهرة"
The teacher noticed that the student’s answer was vague. Then, he said to him: your answer “is a flood on a very low hillock”.

Func. It is unclear.

Bedouins cite the above proverb when commenting on an individual’s response or attitude that is not clear enough. Actually, this proverb when it is used in different occasions can achieve a variety of pragmatic functions. After taking the context at hand into consideration, it can be seen that the illocutionary force of this utterance is criticizing, which belongs to the speech acts of representatives as the speaker tells others how things are, while the apparent perlocutionary effect (psychological consequence) that the utterance might bring about is “insulting” the hearer. In brief, the act of insulting is the result of saying that proverb in that situation.

Salameh, who does not have a driving license, made a car accident, and he asked Khaled to claim that he was the driver. Khaled replied: no “One hundred eyes cry but not mine”.

Func. It is better to avoid danger (do not put your head in the lions’ mouth).

Bedouins have been using the above underlined proverbs to indicate that they do not prefer to put themselves in troubles. In other words, they often say this proverb when they fear from claiming to say that they commit a problem to save the true committer. According to the above situation, the speaker performed the illocutionary force of refusing, which falls within the speech acts of commissives. As noted, the effect performed by the speaker upon a listener by means of this proverb is “convincing”. Put it differently, what can be done just by uttering this proverb is “convincing” the hearer.

Abu Mohammad had a son who was too lazy and who did not do what he is asked to do. Then, his father said to him: “you are too heavy on vehicles and you are food consumer”.

Func. “Good-for nothing”.

Bedouins have been using the above proverb to describe a person who is not doing or achieving what is needed or wanted. Thus, when it is contextualized, it can bear several pragmatic functions such scolding, criticizing, and many others. According to the context at hand, the interlocutor (Abu Mohammad) used the locution (the proverb) in order to perform the illocutionary force of scolding, which falls within the speech acts of expressives. Clearly, the perlocutionary act related to that illocution might be “motivating” the addressee (the son) not to be lazy anymore.

Before Zayed asked Eman’s hand, he had begun digging deep into her history. Then, a person advised him by saying “If food is looked over, it can’t be accepted to be eaten”.

Func. “Do not exaggerate a lot in doing things”.

Actually, it is a custom that Bedouins do not look deeply over food to see how clear or dirty it is. This is because that they believe if food is examined carefully, it may not be edible because the foreign particles it may contain. Accordingly, it is better to accept food as it is. As the passage of time, people started applying the utterance “ترى الزاد لا تفتش ما ينوك” to many situations to mean that a very careful examination of something is not praised until it became a proverb. Thus, the speaker uttered the above proverb in this certain context to implement the illocutionary meaning of advising, which falls within the speech acts of directives as the speaker attempts to get the hearer to do something, and to “persuade” the hearer not to asking about Eman’s record more and more, this is the most possible perlocutionary effect of the utterance.
Getting the Hearer to Do Something

Mohammad was sitting at Khaled's house and it was too cold. Then, Mohammad said to Khaled: "Fire is but not a bad host".

*Func.* *Kindle the fire*.

Bedouins often cite the underlined proverb above when asking the host to kindle a fire. Accordingly, when this proverb is used, it can tolerate many pragmatic functions depending on the context in which it is employed. In terms of pragmatic, the speaker cited this proverb to accomplish the illocutionary force of *requesting*, which belongs to the speech acts of *directives*. In this case, the perlocutionary effect might be "causing" the hearer to kindle a fire. This is the overall meaning of the proverb.

Mohammad's visits were too long and his friend said to him: "The visit is a raid".

*Func.* *Make your visits short*.

The above idiomatic expression indicates that a visit should be similar to a raid in its shortness, to not annoy the host. As the passage of time, people started quoting this expression to achieve several pragmatic functions. Based on the context above, the speaker wanted to give a piece of advice to his friend, not to make his visits too long. In terms of pragmatics, the illocutionary force is *advising*, which falls under the illocutionary act of *directives*. While, the perlocutionary act that the speaker may produce on the hearer is to get him make his visits short.

Abu Mohammad told the story to his friends and refused to complete its rest. Then, one of them said to him: "You are like the one who shows its head and hides its tail".

*Func.* *Make something incomplete*.

This proverb can be said to a person who does not give the full story that he has already told. By examining the context above, the speaker criticized the addressee indirectly for not telling the entire story. Pragmatically, the illocutionary force in quoting that proverb in this specific situation is *criticize*, falling under the speech acts of *expressives*.

5. CONCLUSION

This study was conducted to investigate the speech acts of Bedouin proverbs in Jordan. It tried to explore the illocutionary acts and the illocutionary forces of those proverbs. More importantly, it aimed to test the applicability of finding the possible perlocutionary acts of those proverbs. Based on the analysis of 10 contextualized proverbs, several conclusions can be drawn.

1. There are four illocutionary acts performed, namely, *representatives, commissives, expressives* and *directives*.
2. There are many illocutionary forces accomplished. They are *scolding, threatening, criticizing, asking*, *requesting* and *advising*.
3. There are two kinds of effects proverbs can produce on the hearer. They can be either psychological consequences such as *insulting, scaring, angering, motivating, convincing* and *persuading* or getting the hearer to do something or realize something.

Based on the data analysis and findings of the study, researchers similar in fields should apply other pragmatic applications on Bedouin proverbs. For example, they should investigate these proverbs to find out the politeness strategies used in them.

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An Inside-out Review of Lexical Collocations: Considerations for Teaching and Learning Vocabulary in EFL Contexts
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ARTICLE INFO
ABSTRACT

Received: October 02, 2019
Accepted: November 07, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.28

Assuming the importance of lexical competence as a crucial variable in learning English as a Foreign Language, this paper attempts to discuss lexical collocations including the phrasal verbs from theoretical and pedagogical point of view. More specifically, the paper focuses on how collocations and phrasal verbs are composed in terms of their lexico-grammar and semanticity. The study also reveals learners’ problems with the form, meaning, use and phonology of collocations and phrasal verbs. The paper concludes with the mention of some practical teaching measures based on awareness-raising and practical tasks as a solution to these issues. It is anticipated that these will provide EFL teachers an insight into the concept and use of collocations and phrasal verbs to make their teaching practice more effective.

KEYWORDS
Awareness-raising; Collocations; English as a Foreign Language; Phrasal Verbs; Vocabulary

1. INTRODUCTION
Despite the acknowledgement that collocations significantly facilitate English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners in developing near-native proficiency in the target language, there is a lack of due focus on collocations in EFL pedagogy, second language (L2) learning, and linguistic enquiry (Abduldafi & Abdalla, 2019). Premised on the notion that "acquisition of vocabulary is crucial to successful language learning" (McCarten, 2007 p. 26), this paper presents an inside-out review of some of the theoretical and pedagogical perspectives on lexical collocations with phrasal verbs as a distinct entry, especially in regard to their form, meaning, use and phonology. The choice of the topic was motivated by two factors: First, lexical collocations including the phrasal verbs provide learners with a range of lexis that can be used for diverse communicative purposes (Hyland, 2008) and secondly, they help learners acquire native-like clarity and naturalness in speech and writing (McCarthy & O’dell, 2007; Nation, 2001). Following Halliday and Hasan (1976) cited in Ahmad (2019), collocations as a class of reiteration are instrumental in establishing co-referential ties within and beyond the clause structure to give the text its cohesive property which results in the creation of texture - the essential qualification for a text to be defined as such.

However, research on collocations has revealed that most L2 learners including the advanced level face difficulties in using collocations appropriately (Nesselhauf, 2005; Revier & Henriksen, 2006). Phrasal verbs - a sub-category of lexical collocation - also offer a formidable challenge to both the teacher and the learner of English as a foreign/second language. The diversity of meaning (verb/particle collocation) embedded in the phrasal verbs is often confusing as is the form which involves a complete understanding of the verb-particle behaviour. EFL learners' problems with collocations motivated the initiation of this article which is expected to provide useful insights to the EFL practitioners as far as the understanding and teaching of lexical collocations and phrasal verbs are concerned with specific attention to the concept, issues, awareness-raising, and practical tasks.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW
The term collocation was coined by Firth who propounded that “meaning by collocation is an abstraction at the syntagmatic level and is not directly concerned with the conceptual or idea approach to the meaning of words” (Firth, 1957 in Cheng, 2019 p.108). This entails that the meaning is not derived from the individual words but from the collocational...
relationship that is established between the words which frequently co-occur. Collocations can, therefore, be understood as a class of formulaic language or idiomatic expressions which are arbitrary both in their lexico-grammatical composition and semanticity. Zaabalawi and Gould (2017 p.21) argue that "collocations are not necessarily grammatical and/or cannot be generated through knowledge of rules or formulae". This speaks for the relative difficulty which EFL students face when dealing with collocations.

Collocations are thus combinations of words with “habitual co-occurrence” (Crystal, 2008 p.86-87) such as make dinner, have a shower etc. Cruse (2006 p.27) is of the opinion that we can understand collocations from two different perspectives: First is the any grammatically well-formed combination, such as an excellent performance. The second is the compositional co-occurrence which has a semantic unity and is sometimes referred to as the ‘encoding idiom’ (ibid). For example, in the high seas, high wind, high office, have a high opinion of, the word high has a special meaning in every use which is different from its default meaning as, for instance, in high wall.

Combinations of words which are fixed are called "strong collocations" (McCarthy & O'Dell, 2006 p.6). For example, in take a photo the verb take cannot be replaced by any other word. Collocations which allow for different words to give the same meaning are "weak collocations" (ibid) such as fast bowler, fast car, fast food etc. However, a strong collocation may be infrequent in its use, for example, bite the dust, and a weak collocation like have lunch, have a nice day etc can be more frequent. Idioms are also a type of collocations which have a fixed meaning that cannot be guessed through the meaning of the discrete words.

A phrasal verb, on the other hand, is formed when a particle (an adverb or a preposition or both) is added to a verb (Thornbury: 2006 p. 164). Phrasal verbs are also sometimes called multi-word verbs or two-part verbs (Attenburg & Vago, 2010 p. 38-39). Some writers consider phrasal verbs (verb + adverb particle), prepositional verbs (verb + preposition particle), and phrasal-prepositional verbs (verb + adverb + preposition) distinct from each other due to the grammatical patterns in which they occur. But, nowadays, the term phrasal verb is often used to include all the three types mentioned above (Platt & Richards, 1992 p. 275-276).

Form and Meaning

Collocations may be grammatical as well as lexical. Grammatical collocations have a content word, i.e. an adjective, a noun or a verb, and a preposition or a grammatical construction such as a clause or an infinitive. For example, (to be) attracted to, (it is) delightful + to + infinitive, (to have) an interest in (something), (it is) a myth that +clause and to vote against (someone/something) (Maurer-Stroh, 2004 p. 1). Lexical collocations, on the other hand, consist of two content words and typically reveal the following structures (Maurer-Stroh, 2004; McCarthy & O’Dell, 2005):

i. Adjective + noun (e.g. unemployment is a major problem for the government at present).

ii. Nouns + verb (e.g. John proposed a solution to the board of governors).

iii. Noun + noun

Nouns often require further qualification and are usually the words that carry the most meaning within a sentence. The pattern a …. of …. is quite frequent in English (e.g. After the traffic warden left the place, I felt a sigh of relief).

iv. Verbs and expressions with prepositions (e.g. The mother burst into tears when she heard the news of her only son’s accident).

v. Verbs and adverbs (e.g. She sang beautifully at the concert last night).

vi. Adverbs and adjectives (e.g. The mobile phone battery was fully charged when I gave it to you).

vii. De-lexicalized verbs

De-lexicalized verbs like get, have, make, do, put, take have a basic meaning (make = create/manufacture, have = own/possess), they mostly collocate nouns or other words as chunks of meaning (e.g. Get an instruction; Have a nice weekend).

viii. Fixed expressions with adjective / verb + dependant preposition (e.g. depend upon; good at)

ix. Idioms/fixed collocations where substituting any of the words is impossible: (e.g. to get out of bed on the wrong side; to shrug your shoulders).

Diversity in the Meaning and Use of Lexical Collocations

Collocations make the language sound and read natural. This naturalness of the language is achieved with the use of register and quite often, it is the
collocation that suggests a particular register (McCarthy & O’Dell, 2006). Different combinations are used for different contexts and purposes and have formal and informal connotations. EFL learners are exposed to a variety of genres (a particular class of speech event or text type) during the course of their learning English, and hence the possibility of diverse use of collocations. For instance, the use of collocations in conversational English is less formal and is different from that of writing (e.g. The students were all bored stiff by the lecture). Business English has its own specific register, and thereby its exclusive collocations (e.g. South Korea’s Samsung Electronics launched a new version of its Galaxy Tab in order to compete aggressively with Apple’s iPad). Collocations which are used in an academic or official context are more formal than the collocations of the conversational English. These are often found in instructions, acknowledgements, and legal notices.

e.g. “I would like to express my sincere thanks and appreciation to all those colleagues and friends whose helpful comments, support, and encouragement were invaluable to me in the preparation of this book”. (Omaggio, 1986 p. xv)

Similarly, newspaper English is often sensational and frequently makes use of word combinations that create an emotive and dramatic effect. Newspaper collocations do not appear in everyday usage.

e.g. US Republican hit aid to Pakistan: Representative Howard Berman, the top Democrat on the committee and a main author of the 2009 bill, said he agreed on the need to “get tough with Pakistan” but disagreed on restrictions over civilian aid.

Diversity in the Meaning and Use of Phrasal Verbs

Redman (1997 p. 36) suggests that “sometimes the meaning of the phrasal verb is very similar to the base verb, and the adverb just emphasizes on the meaning of the base verb”. For example, stand in stand up suggests an upward movement and the particle up does not add or change the meaning; it only gives an extra stress on the meaning. Thornbury (2006 p.165) argues that the meaning of the phrasal verbs “is not simply a combination of the meaning of their component parts”. He refers to the abstract and idiomatic meaning that most of the phrasal verbs carry (e.g. It took her a long time to get over her illness). However, sometimes the concrete meaning of a phrasal verb can help in understanding the abstract meaning; for example, you can look back to say goodbye to someone as you leave in a car (concrete meaning – look behind you), or you can look back on your past life (abstract meaning – remember or recall) (McCarthy & O’Dell: 2004 p. 14).

Many phrasal verbs have more than one meaning (Redman: 1997 p. 36), but there is no direct connection between the multiple meanings of a single phrasal verb as is illustrated in the examples below:

a. It was hot so I decided to take off (remove) my jacket.

b. I am always very nervous when the plane takes off (leaves the ground).

Some phrasal verbs can be formal or informal depending upon the mode of use i.e. spoken or written. Spoken language allows for frequent use of the informal phrasal verbs (e.g. They have put off the match until next week). However, when it comes to formal use as, for example, in writing, there is a one-word verb with the same meaning as the phrasal verb (Eastwood: 1994 p. 306). The above mentioned phrasal verb put off can be substituted by a single word postponed. But sometimes this substitution is not possible and a phrasal verb is needed for formal expressions (e.g. The Saudi Airlines flight SV 702 for Asmara will take off at 7:00 a.m.).

The particle carries a clear basic meaning in some of the phrasal verbs as in the following sentences:

c. Jack invited me out. (let’s go out together)

d. Rosie invited me in. (Please come in!)

According to McCarthy and O’Dell (2004 p. 10), most particles have multiple shades of meaning. For example, over can be used to express “changing positions” as in fall over or can be used to give an idea of “thoroughness” such as talk over. The use of phrasal verbs varies in different cultures, especially in the English speaking countries (ibid p. 14). For example, the Australian belt into versus the British throw yourself into or the American wash up versus the British freshen up.

Phonology of Lexical Collocations and Phrasal Verbs

The phonology for collocations involves proper ordering of chunks (which are believed to be equivalent of an intonation unit), linking in connected speech, stress placement, and weak forms. For instance, the chunk white and black will sound unnatural. Similarly, the stress in compounds generally falls on the first syllable as in high’ rise. Pauses normally come at the end of a chunk, while content words are stressed. The phonology of phrasal verbs, on the other hand, involves stress on the verb or the particle for achieving different communicative functions like giving instructions, orders, showing directions etc, for example, in pick up the particle
down emphasizes the meaning of the lexical verb and will be stressed. Phrasal verbs also involve linking when spoken as a chunk, for example /pt ˈkʌp/ instead of /ptk/ /kʌp/.

3. LEARNER PROBLEMS WITH COLLOCATIONS AND PHRASAL VERBS

The sub-sections below present learners' problems in regard to collocations and phrasal verbs.

Quantity and Arbitrariness

One of the basic problems learners have is the huge body of collocations itself. The Cambridge International Corpus of written and spoken English, the CANCODE corpus of spoken English, and the Cambridge Learner Corpus mention several thousands of collocations in English (McCarten, 2007; McCarthy & O’Dell, 2006). The fact that there are so many possible collocations and that the choice of which word to collocate with, for instance, a noun is completely arbitrary. This leads to the question: “Well, why is it have a coffee not drink a coffee?” and the inevitable reply (hated by teachers and students alike): “It just is.” (Hunt, 2006). Similarly, the grammar of phrasal verbs is certainly complex as it involves not only transitive and intransitive verbs but also the behaviour of these verbs with different particles which can either be a preposition or an adverb or both. The positioning of the particle before or after the object is often confusing for the learners and, we can come across such utterances as “I can no longer put up with”. Similarly, not all verbs followed by a preposition are phrasal verbs as in, for example, I looked at the painting. Phrasal verbs carry multiple meanings. It is really hard for the students to distinguish the idiomatic meaning from the concrete. Since phrasal verbs allow different particles to convey different meanings, the learners find it difficult to retain the variety of meanings that occur in one set of phrasal verbs. According to Thornbury (2006 p.166), many phrasal verbs “are restricted in terms of style, tending to be informal or even slang such as nod off, chill out.

Tendency for Learning Individual Words

Wray (2002) argues that the learners mostly focus on individual words rather than on chunks of language. One reason for this is the traditional approach to language teaching where the primary focus is on achieving accuracy through teaching form, and the teaching of vocabulary is given a secondary importance. Learners who learn individual words take a longer time in processing and retrieving the target item and sound less natural than those learners who learn language in chunks and achieve a better fluency (Thornbury, 2006, p. 85). Similarly, Vilkatie & Schmitt (2019 p.329) refer to several studies which show that “collocations are processed faster than matched control phrases, both in L1 and in L2”. Hence, a frequent exposure to collocations not only facilitates reading ability but also comprehension.

L1 Transfer

Many learners over-generalize the collocation forms of their first language (L1) for L2 use and as a result, sound unnatural. One reason is the untranslatability of many L1 words and phrases into the target language. They take it for granted that because they collocate something a particular way in L1, it will translate directly and accurately into English. Many EFL students, for example, use incorrect verb + noun and adjective + verb collocations such as open the fast instead of break the fast and beautiful food instead of tasty food. They also over-generalize the meaning of phrasal verbs and try to find their equivalents in their L1. This may work for the literal meaning but when it comes to idiomatic meaning the learners falter. The particle is the most confusing element in this. For example, the students are likely to use the phrasal verbs bring out incorrectly as to take something out instead of to publish something.

Spoken Form

Since learners are in the habit of learning and noticing individual words, they often have problems speaking larger chunks in a natural manner. There are three main reasons for this: They give equal stress on every word that they speak or read, or stress the second syllable unnecessarily to make the word sound ambiguous. For instance, many Urdu and Arabic learners have this tendency of unduly stressing the second syllable, and we have confusions with words like learn’ed to understand whether it is an adjective or a verb. They may fail to notice how the sentence could be chunked. For example, I have a mobile phone + like that. The students may also find it challenging to link the chunks together. For example, When I left university + I made a decision + to take up a profession + in which + I could be creative. (McCarthy & O’Dell, 2004). Phrasal verbs are not too problematic for learners in terms of pronunciation, though misplaced word stress is a common error (Steele: 2005). Students are frequently reluctant to give stress to particles. They may pronounce check in as /tfekin/. Similarly, they fail to notice how the phrasal verb with an object between the verb and the particle could be chunked. On hearing a native speaker saying pick them up (ˈpɪk ˈðə mʌp), a novice EFL learner may wonder what mop is.

Written Form
Written form is affected by compounds (units of meaning formed with two or more words). Since there are no definitive rules but only guidelines about the formation of compounds, the learners are often confused if compounds are a single word or all noun + noun combinations are hyphenated. For example, the collocation singer-songwriter can be challenging for the elementary level learners to understand (McCarthy & O’Dell, 2005 p.7).

Thornbury (2006 p.166) observes that the traditional approach to teaching vocabulary focuses more on the syntactic structure of phrasal verbs (2.1) than on meaning. This focus includes issues of transitivity and intransitivity and whether phrasal verbs are separable or inseparable. In addition, phrasal verbs are taught according to their lexical group of the verb which has the main meaning like, for example, get up, get back, get off etc. This approach, although systematic, may confuse the learners as the verbs are so similar in form.

4. SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHING

This section attempts to address the learners’ problems through awareness raising and production tasks.

Awareness Raising

Research (e.g. Wood, 2010) suggests that raising awareness about the form, meaning, use, and phonology of collocational structures to EFL contexts may yield better results in terms of developing the discourse competence of the learners. Collocations are important for understanding new lexical chunks as well as for successful communication. The first step in developing learners’ vocabulary is through awareness-raising which aims at developing the learners’ notions of collocations, their significance in language learning, and readiness for new lexical items. One very effective method of awareness-raising is the activation of learners’ schemata through elicitation and prediction techniques. Prompts such as pictures, realia, and cues with the help of the white board or digital paraphernalia can be exploited both for schemata and context development. Thornbury (1997) suggests that acquisition of vocabulary cannot be realized without noticing. Reading activities can also be used for awareness-raising. After answering comprehension questions, learners can be asked to put the original text away, and are given a new version with some of the key collocations blanked out. Working in pairs, they have to reconstruct the collocations, before checking with the original. An alternative could be to give a text to the learners, they read the text, and notice and underline the collocations.

McCarthy and O’Dell (2004 p. 6) suggest the learners to understand the meaning of a phrasal verb as one unit. This requires frequent noticing of phrasal verbs in context. Teachers should select those texts which have high frequency of phrasal verbs in them. Students can be asked to identify and underline phrasal verbs used in the text. To help EFL learners understand phrasal verbs as one unit, a set of theme-related phrasal verbs such as dealing with sports, travel, etc. can be useful. Learners can be engaged in a spoken interview where they use these phrasal verbs, for instance, to conduct a survey on a topic or ask each other questions and answers about a personal experience that is related to a certain theme. To further raise their awareness of phrasal verbs, students can also be asked to match the particle with the lexical verb or match phrasal verbs with their definitions or prompts.

As Thornbury (2002 p. 122) opines that “knowing a word means knowing its associated grammar”, it is important to contextualize phrasal verbs in such a way as to help students understand their grammatical form. Teachers should select material from authentic texts and point to patterns in phrasal verbs. Students can also substitute the phrasal verb with a synonym or classify the verb according to the four types mentioned by Thornbury (2006 p. 166). Phrasal verbs can also be included in the classroom language. High frequency phrasal verbs can be used in varying classroom contexts to address problems of form, meaning, and phonology. Some of the common phrasal verbs for this use are sit down, put your hand up, turn your papers over, write this down, look it up, hurry up.

Practical Tasks for Teaching Lexical Collocations and Phrasal Verbs

The following production tasks can be designed to help learners learn, practice, reinforce, and recycle the target collocations and phrasal verbs, and thereby overcome the problems they can have with the new lexical chunks:

Topic-based Approach

Keeping in mind the huge corpus of the collocations and the level of the learners, it is pertinent to adopt a topic-based approach to teaching collocations. This will give a better focus on the lexical items and it will be easy for the learners to understand them. For example, the elementary learners can be taught collocations from topics like money, travel, towns and cities, sports etc. To help students learn vocabulary in chunks and reinforce new lexis or personalize learning experience, contextualized set of sentences or a passage, for example, a gap-fill can be designed where students fill in the missing chunk using correct phrasal verb. They can also be given practice in dealing with particles to raise their awareness of their meanings, for example, by matching definitions of phrasal verbs, for
instance, with the particle down with sentences and then noticing the common meaning of the particle.

**L1 Transfer**

As mentioned above, the learners are influenced by L1 while using collocations because of the non-availability of the appropriate equivalent. Use of collocation pelmanism such as vocabulary grids (Morley, 2006) is a good idea to help the learners practice and create the word combinations that are possible in the target language. This can also be done by asking learners to first translate the collocations into L1 and then, retranslate them into the target language. These grids can be very useful for teaching weak forms where learners can notice one word going with several. To help students overcome L1 influence while dealing with phrasal verbs, activities which require matching phrasal verb with its synonym can be useful for elementary learners. Higher level learners can do rephrasing i.e. they can be given a text with lexical verbs in bold and then asked to substitute the verb by phrasal verb with same meaning as, for example, depart can be replaced with set off.

**Spoken Form**

To help learners figure out problems of the spoken form, choral drilling can be very effective for the learners to understand and use the correct model of pronunciation. The white board can be used to mark the stress, intonation, and linking. Oral surveys to personalize the newly learned phrasal verbs provide valuable repetition to consolidate pronunciation, meaning, and form.

**Written Form**

As already stated that there are no definitive rules as to the formation of compounds, the learners can be asked to notice and record the written form of the collocations. Recycling of the target collocations in the lesson is particularly important to tackle the issue of compounds and hyphenation. Similarly, surveys, reports, and stories can also be used to resolve the problems of the written form. In addition, matching activities such as matching the collocation with the correct definition as well as a cloze test to fill in the gaps can be very helpful.

To familiarize the learners with the four distinct grammatical patterns of phrasal verbs, learners can be asked to notice and record the patterns of target lexis. Elementary learners will benefit from a more gradual approach where they start underlining the form of phrasal verbs. Intermediate level learners can label phrasal verbs in a text as verb, particle, object etc. They can also categorize the verbs as transitive and intransitive. At intermediate and advanced levels, learners can be asked to do gap-fill activities where they fill in the missing verb or particle or object. To do a comprehension check or gauge learning outcomes, students can also be set to do error correction on an activity which has phrasal verbs in an incorrect form. This activity cannot only be used to practice the form but also used for achieving accuracy of meaning.

**Recycling Collocations and Phrasal Verbs**

The learners have the tendency to forget chunks if they are not recycled in the subsequent lessons. Following Morley (2006), learners can be engaged in discussion that can either be on a topic or a personalized one such as narrating a travel experience or a broken relationship. In addition, pelmanism, i.e. the memory game where learners have to find matching halves of collocations from cards placed face-down on the table can be created by the teachers. The learners turn over two cards, and keep them if they go together. Using grids where students create a new collocation with any of the content words is also useful. The learners can be asked to write all the collocations they have done in the class. The teacher can provide a list of definitions and ask the learners to match the collocations with their definitions. This can also be done in the beginning of the lesson to develop a link with the previous lesson.

**5. CONCLUSION**

Research has shown that L1 interference and the tendency of the learners to learn individual words impede the learning process and the result is inaccurate and unnatural language production both in speech and writing. It has been observed that learners achieve a better level of accuracy and fluency if they learn chunks of language. One way of learning the language through chunks is through lexical collocations and phrasal verbs provided issues of course design, teaching methodology, instructional materials, and learner autonomy are adequately dealt with. Phrasal verbs are an excellent source of developing lexical range of students so that they could achieve native-like fluency. But they are daunting for students and therefore, for teachers. However, anticipation of students’ problems and preparedness for awareness raising and production can figure out the complexity that surrounds the teaching and learning of collocations and phrasal verbs.

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ARTICLE INFO

Received: September 24, 2019
Accepted: October 27, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.29

KEYWORDS

Contemporary novel, Post-2003 War, Saddam regime, Exile, U.S. Invasion

ABSTRACT

This study focuses on discussing the Iraqi contemporary novelistic production. The study handled the development of the Iraqi novel genre during three different periods; during Saddam’s regime, during exile after the fall of the regime, and during the post-2003 war and U.S. Invasion to Iraq. The study explored the historical development of the Iraqi novels through discussing the main subjects and themes of these novels during the three different periods. In addition to that, some names of the best writers in each period, were given. The study concluded that Iraqi contemporary novelistic production has passed through three different periods; during Saddam regime in which the literature was directed by the government and used to glorify the authority and sing of heroism of the leaders. The second period was during the exile when thousands of Iraqis were migrated forcefully abroad leaving their homeland, families and everything they own. The exile literature has involved new experiences generated new trends and different themes reflected the exile sufferings, culture differentiation, and identity crisis. The third period in the Iraqi contemporary narration was the post-2003 war and U.S. invasion. The novel genre in Iraq is flourished and produced hundreds of novels within a short period due to the variety of subjects emerged talk about invasion, sectarianism, election, new government, openness on the world through the internet and social media which was forbidden previously. The post-2003 war period produced a type of narration qualified to compete with the Arab and global literature. Some novels got the chance to win Arabic and International prizes which brought the international attention to the Iraqi literature such as Frankenstein in Baghdad by Ahmed Saadawi which was short listed as one of the best novels in International Booker 2018 and translated into more than 30 languages.

1. INTRODUCTION

The Iraqi novel does not take enough area of interest as the other literary forms such as poetry for many reasons. One of them is the political restrictions and ideologies which tie up the Iraqi novelists in the past. But the drastic change after 2003 U.S-led war and what resulted of changes in the local cultural scene led to more openness on the global experiences. This reason in turn led to the production of a generation of narrators have boldness and courage in dealing with the Iraqi reality and its complexities through abundant of professional works. Some of their productions compete with the Arabic novelistic production and won Arabic and global prizes such as the Arabic Poker Prize which is considered as one of the most valuable prize in the field of literature.

The U.S. invasion of Iraq was at the forefront problems faced by the Iraqi novelists. The invasion caused social, political and sectarian schisms in the country which represents a fertile material from which the novelists draw their stories. From those novelists were Ahmed Saadawi, Fawzi Al Hindawi, Ali Bader, Inaam Kachachi, Saad Mohammed Raheem and others. Some critics argue that still insufficient attention has been paid to the Iraq situation, despite many important works are produced. Those critics attribute the reason for the non-spread of the Iraqi novels compared to their Arabic counterparts to the foggy and unclear local reality which made the Iraqi writers became in a state of confusion in front of the anarchy. How to describe a face has no clear features? In addition, the Iraqi
intellectual was loaded with a legacy of silence stretched for decades, he could not be able to write about it. But now he stood up to express himself in a narrative way.

The novel in Iraq and in Arab countries (as a result of the Arabic Spring) after 2003 has taken new turn different to what was known in the previous period. While much has been written about the political motives behind the ongoing violence and the reasons behind the spread of armed groups and terrorism in Iraq, the majority of Iraqis still find it difficult to interpret all this violence through conventional methods. The Iraqis before the invasion were one unity and none of them was thinking of anybody else’s sect, religion, ethnicity, or region. All are Iraqis and all are part of the country’s components. They have rights and duties regardless of the gender, colour or religious affiliation.

People almost surrendered to their fear because "absence of logical answers … questions led many Iraqis to despair, and perhaps to accept violence as part of their daily routines. Instead of focusing on confronting violence and its political, social and cultural causes, a lot of Iraqis prefer to live with it and accept that violence has become part of their lives." (Al-Qarawe, 2014).


The Iraqi novelistic production witnessed a revolution of narration after the toppling of the Saddam regime. The new narrators were encouraged to publish more than 600 novels during the period from 2003-2016. This massive literary production of the narrations documented the history, difficulties, miseries, and burdens of the Iraqis during the contemporary time under Saddam regime, in exile and under the invasion of the U.S. troops. All the published novels are talking about what is happening in Iraq under the invasion of the U.S troops to Iraq; represented by the bloodshed situation and the concepts and values are confused. The writers were in need to invent new methods of writing different than what they used to in order to express this new situation.

It is difficult to chart out all of the new literary currents and circles that are developing or scarcely forming inside and outside Iraq in the post-2003 period. The invasion of the U.S. troops in Iraq created lots of changes cast its shadow over the Iraq scene.

3- PROBLEM STATEMENT

The Iraqi contemporary novelistic production was abundant, use new themes and trends but still not appreciated critically.

4- LITERATURE REVIEW

The contemporary Iraqi novels passed through three different periods. Every one of them has its own characteristics and represents a totally different era of literature. These periods are: during Saddam’s regime, in exile, and Post-2003 War and U.S. Invasion to Iraq.

4.1 The Novel during Saddam Regime

The Iraqi novel before 2003 did not have the presence to enable it to occupy a remarkable space of the interest of the Arabic and Iraqi literary readers. Two reasons may be the cause of this non-presence; the lack of this product or it has been not being subjected to the experience of modernity and transformations which are part of the characteristics of this creative form of literature. Therefore, what is performed, especially inside Iraq, remained confined to traditional narratives workout which is full of ambiguity due to the pressure of the censorship by the authority. So, this little novelistic product remained out of circulation because of the lack of communication between the recipient and the text. The novelist production is an extension to what was previously known. It was under the control and authority of the government (Ba'ath Party which was the governing party). The subjects handled by the novels of the period of Ba'ath party ruling period where the political, social issues, military coups and revolutions of the 1950s and 1960s of the past century. Also, it discussed the Iraq-Iran war but in using symbolic works of history and mythology. This period was represented by Fouad Al Takarli, Jabra Ibrahim Jabra, Abdul Sattar Nasir, and others.

Narration under the dictatorship, which was featured by: Texts resort to Symbol and legend in the history of ancient Iraq in a narrative construction added new artistic forms to the Arabic narration but it avoided discussing the Iraqi dilemma in its time. Texts justified the war culture in a narrative construction glorified killing and violence values. Texts addressed most of the life aspects of the citizen but avoided the essence of its sufferings. It also avoided discussing the three forbidden: Politics, Sex, and religion.

"This process followed the long hiatus of the 1980s and 1990s during which Iraqi writers were either silenced, exiled, or enlisted by the state in the production of war glorification literature that is generally deemed stylistically poor and duplicitous in content.” (Hanoosh, 2013).
4.2 The Novel under Freedom in Exile

As numerous waves of intellectuals have been politically or otherwise compelled to leave Iraq over the course of more than half a century, contemporary Iraqi literature currently assumes a binary shape as a product of "inside" and "outside" sensibilities and cultures. (Hanoosh, 2013). Most of the Iraqis who belonged to anti-regime parties such as Iraqi Communist party, Dr'awa Islamic party, Supreme Iraqi Council, etc. were, if discovered, to be imprisoned or executed and the lucky ones of them cross the borders through Iraq, Syria, Saudi Arabia or Kuwait to be in exile. Kashou (2013) stated that:

Many Iraqis were forced into exile, including many writers; hence, very few actually write from the center of the war. The Iraqis that wrote from exile were mainly political dissenters to the Saddam regime... These writers were exiled early on in Saddam’s regime. As such, they mainly focused on themes of exile and nostalgia." (Kashou, 2013: P.27).

Being in exile during the wartime, the Iraqis find new themes and subjects to deal with in their writings. They narrate their tragedies and memories that hunt them of the past. Also, another worrying concern is the dark unknown future of their country and the safety of their relatives in a turbulent state. During Saddam regime the close relatives will not be safe of being investigated, imprisoned or convicted until the family member to surrender himself to the authority. This was considered as a nightmare for everyone has the chance to leave the country. Therefore, the family denies any knowledge of the destiny of that person from one side and the fugitive could not declare his existence. So, the suffering was double. "They feel helpless and handicapped, passive and not proactive, which results into guilty consciousness with consequences that land them into therapy and depression in a cold, lonely land". (Kashou, 2013: P. 134)

Texts are written under freedom in exile, which was featured by: Drawn the dimensions of the Iraqi man under the dictatorship in depth and clarity depicting his sufferings, fears, resistance, intolerance, disappointment, and collapse. New narrative construction has appeared for writers really involved in the wars and taste the bitterness of being homeless which reflected reliability in their writings. This new experience generates new trends and different themes of the history of Iraqi narration as the exile sufferings, culture differentiation, identity crisis, sufferings of the soldier in the military establishments and the fight fronts, the sufferings of the fighters in the Iraqi mountains which is a unique Iraqi experience. It is unique because the fight was against a dictator and not against an invasion. In exile, Iraqis show their nostalgic feelings for their homeland. "They all write about nostalgia for Iraq while in exile, but when they write about it they convey their memories of their past suffering in a nation they left in ruins."(Kashou, 2013: P.18). But still the exile novelists, despite the wide space of freedom which might be strong impulse, could not be able to dig deep to reach the real problems because their works were connected to the memory which is accomplice due to the inner desire of the writers to keep an image of the place they were in out of all the psychological, economic and cultural changes. They did not want to distort, forgetting the changes that have taken place on it.

Also, there was an obvious role for the women in this revolution enabled her to participate in political parties or movements. For the first time, there was no objection to discuss the three forbidden concepts: Sex, politics, and religion. Kashou (2013) argues that "When Iraqi women write on their personal and collective Iraqi experience, they write in a manner that presents the personal lives of Iraqi women within the context of their troubled nation."(Kashou, 2013: P. 6) The narratives of the Iraqi women do not only reflect the daily life issues of women but the lives of Iraqis as a whole that are all affected by the war and exile. Their subjects were about their feelings of loneliness, the absence of the man who lost in the successive wars with Iran, Kuwait, Coalition Forces, and/or in the sea during the migration to Europe through Turkey and Greece. There were common subjects handled in the women narratives especially after the war of 2003. These subjects are kidnaps, rapes, assaults, and trafficking in women.

4.3 Post-2003 War and U.S. Invasion to Iraq

The post-2003 war period is a distinguishing to the Iraqi literature field especially the novel genre. It was flourishing and hundreds of novels were produced dealt different subjects and interests. These novels handled the change in the Iraqi society after the toppling of the regime and the U.S. invasion. One of the most dangerous changes was sectarianism. "The disastrous U.S. occupation of Iraq was the chief catalyst for sectarianism's spread across the region, part of a larger diabolical plot by Washington to pit the Arab world against itself." (Wehrey, 2014: P. X). Other causes of sectarianism came through different channels such as media, domestic extremists (both
Sunni and Shiite), and political marginalization. In more recent decades, the political and economic dominance of Iraq's minority Sunni Arabs and their persecution of the country's Shiite majority have only served to stoke sectarian tensions." (Gritten, 2006). Also, "a smaller fringe sees sectarianism as a largely instrumental tool in the hands of authoritarian rulers, who mobilize religious leader to spread a sectarian discourse with the aim of bolstering their control over society." (Wehrey, 2014: P. X)

The literature was affected by these changes and scholars show an obvious reaction against the newly imposed situation after the occupation. This leads to the appearance of writers who could manage to criticise the situation under invasion or what we can call it post colonialism. Roger Allen (2007) stated that "the Arabic novel metamorphosed in a similar developmental approach as its Western counterpart, as it originated from a political backdrop, analogous to the political events that took place in the region." It developed a nationalist identity as a reaction to colonialism or occupation by foreign countries. It also served as a reaction to society as a whole. This can denote that crisis creates new trends of literature not known before. The emergence of many writers in the literature circle produced some valuable works were able to compete with other Arabic works in the international occasions. Some of these works won prizes.

The novelist production which tries to keep pace with the contemporary time. This can be divided into two trends:

A- Starting from 2003, novelists tried to unmask the crimes of the ex-regime which run the country for about 40 years of tyranny and injustice. This trend extends to 2006. The themes and subjects of the novels written in this period were the violent changes the Iraqi society went through after the U.S. invasion and what impacts it caused to the Iraqi society. It created thorny issues represented by the spread of sectarianism, violence, terrorism, migration, and exile. The best representatives’ writers of this period are Ahmed Saadawi, Ali Bader, Inaam Kachachi, Saad Mohammed Raheem, and others.

B- After 2006 a new trend appears as a result of sectarian war and new challenges of hidden civil war in absence of power whether from the US, the invaders, and/or the authority which in one way or another ignited the sectarian and fed it using the possibilities and capacities of the state by funding it with money and machineries. The writers of this period were restricted by strict censorship from the ruling parties and its related militia, and the preference not to tackle themes that can harm the political authority in order not to be lost amid sectarian, ethnic or parties issues. The novelists preferred to write in a symbolic way. This period witnessed the appearance of Muhsin Al Ramli, Sinan Antwan, Lutfiyyah Al Dulaify, and others. The Iraqi novelists produced more than 500 novels between 2010 and 2016. This is considered as an explosive number when looking to the first start of the Iraqi novel in 1928. The theme of war was the common denominator among all the novels produced in this period.

Frederic M. Wehrey (2014) gave a description to the year of 2006 saying:” During this momentous year, the civil war in Iraq had risen to a steady crescendo of violence, and it seemed, at least from the outside, that the warring protagonists were lining up neatly along Shi’a and Sunni lines." (V). Whereas Saadawi in his novel Frankenstein in Baghdad stated as the American "created this monster and released it in Baghdad. The American behind this monster". (Saadawi 335). Another observer to the Iraqi scene after 2003 said that ‘Since its inception in the spring of 2003, the nature of the fighting in Iraq has evolved from a struggle between Coalition forces and former regime loyalists to a much more diffuse conflict, involving a number of Sunni groups, Shiite militias, and foreign jihadists, and which has spread to become a widespread civil conflict."(Cordesman, 2007: P 2)

The subjects which were discussed in the contemporary Iraqi novel were totally new because it handled new situations under the invasion and post-war of 2003 in which there were issues of the postcolonial era. The bloodshed was the dominant subject in which concepts and values were in confusion. (Ibrahim, 2010)

The researcher Sabah Muhsin Kadhim believes that what is written of the narration after the absurd wars became in general as representation to public ambitions and hopes and reflect real picture of Iraq reality in all its components. The Iraqi novel set off from the locality to the Arabic market and gain different prizes. (Hassan, 2017: P. 15).

The new novel trend is an attempt to establish the features of an Iraqi novel posses the determination to deeply unpack the unexplained, such as the texts tacked the sectarian image and dig deep into its roots more than any previous attempt in the literature and the attempt to highlight the marginalized segment of the people and explain its sufferings. The abundance of novel production is considered as a turning point in the art of narration. The linguistic use of the Iraqi narrative is still trying to use verbal diversity in
narration; and there are changes on the level of using ironic and sarcastic and textualization with history, international cinema and theatre texts. (Thiyab, 2014).

5-METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction
The war of 2003 has a great impact on all fields of the Iraqis life; socially, culturally, politically and economically. Literature has also a share of change in most of its genres, especially novel. When investigating the aftermath of the U.S. invasion to Iraq, we can find that the narrative production has experienced so many changes in style, themes, and discourse language. It resulted to abundant of production of novels which have new literary trends. But, still few studies were presented in the field of novel to discuss and analyze these changes.

This is a qualitative study in which the author discusses the research approach and design used in the study, the theories used in formulation of the study and some critical comments and publications emerged during three different periods in the Iraq's history; during Saddam Regime, during the freedom in exile and during the post-2003 war and the postcolonial Iraqi literature.

The methodology presented in this study draws upon several sources. First, a comprehensive history of Iraq before and after the fall of Saddam Hussein. The resources were taken from the literary archive, government documents, newspaper periodicals, archival records.

The contemporary Iraqi novels were handled according to the postcolonial theory. Critical readings of postcolonial texts have been analyzed in which the authors reflected the concerns and daily problems of the Iraqis under the US-led invasion after 2003. The postcolonial period after 2003 highlighted the array of emotions of terror and vengeance that characterizes the frayed fabric of life and justice in the country. It was a good cause for the new narrators to publish more than 600 novels during the period from 2003-2016. This massive literary production of the narrations documented the history, difficulties, miseries, and burdens of the Iraqis during the contemporary time under the invasion of the U.S. led troops.

5.2 Data Collection
The data collection procedures used to compile the information, studies, and criticisms about the novels chosen in this study were mentioned and discussed. Also, a variety of methods of data collection, including observations, textual or visual analysis (eg from books or videos) and interviews (individual or group), observations, textual analysis, descriptive method in addition to interpretations of interviews and case studies was adopted to analyze the research materials used in systematic way.

5.3 Data Analysis
In this study, various concepts, approaches and theoretical frameworks were used to analyze and interpret data according to the theory it belongs to and trying to find the historical development of the Iraqi contemporary novelistic production.

The theory used for the data collection is the grounded theory which is "a systematic methodology in the social sciences involving the construction of theory through methodic gathering and analysis of data." (Wikipedia). The extracted data were analyzed textually to show the main themes and the changes of the style and techniques of the new Iraqi contemporary novels. The focus was on the savior concept as the main theme.

6. CONCLUSION
It can be concluded that Iraqi contemporary novelistic production has passed through three different periods; during Saddam regime in which the novels written in careful way and totally controlled by the governing authorities. It means a directed literature in which in glorified the authority and sing of heroism of the leaders. The second period was during the exile after thousands of Iraqis were migrated forcefully abroad leaving their homeland, families and everything they own. This literature in which narrative construction has involved new experiences generated new trends and different themes reflected the exile sufferings, culture differentiation, and identity crisis. The third period in the Iraqi contemporary narration was the post-2003 war and U.S. invasion. This period was a very important period in which the novel genre in Iraq is flourished and produced hundreds of novels within a short period due to the variety of subjects emerged talk about invasion, sectarianism, election, new government, openness on the world through the internet and social media which was forbidden previously. This period results some discrepancies and produced new situations not familiar to the Iraqis before. It led to new exile, migration and loss of security.

From other side the post-2003 war period produced a well-respected type of narration was qualified to compete with the Arab and global literature. Some novels got the chance to win an Arabic and International prizes which brought the international
attention to the Iraqi literature. Frankenstein in Baghdad by Ahmed Saadawi was short listed as one of the best novels in International Booker 2018 and translated into more than 30 languages. It is a good example of the development of the Iraqi narrative as a result of freedom the writers got after they have been liberated from the chains of the authority.

REFERENCES


Motivation as a Tool of Improving Learners’ Performance in French Language in Ekiti State Secondary Schools
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ARTICLE INFO

Received: September 22, 2019
Accepted: October 19, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.30

KEYWORDS
Motivation, Performance, French Language, Secondary Schools

ABSTRACT
This study examined motivation as a tool of improving learners’ performance in French language in Ekiti State secondary schools. The study specifically examined factors influencing French Language learning, important characteristics of teacher that can motivate the learner and ways French language learners can be motivated in the class. The descriptive research design of the survey type was adopted in this study. The population consisted of all junior secondary school students from public secondary schools in Ekiti State. The sample consisted of 200 students drawn from ten public secondary schools using Multistage sampling technique. A self-structured questionnaire tagged “Motivation and French Learning Questionnaire (MFLQ)” was used to collect relevant data for the study. The responses obtained were collated and analyzed using descriptive statistics. The findings revealed that teacher’s teaching method, giving feedback on performance, availability of textbooks, and good relationship with the students and competence to manage the class motivates French language learners to learn in the classroom. Based on the findings, it is therefore recommended among others that French language teachers should use appropriate teaching method and find ways to strengthen students’ self-perceptions so that the students become self-motivated to make an effort and therefore become active participants in learning of French language.

1. INTRODUCTION
One of the most pronounced changes in learning French is that it has become a global language. French is not only used as an official language in many nations, but also has influence on many different cultures in a large number of countries; it is a central language of communication world-wide. The expansion of French language has rapidly increased the needs to gain better communication skills in French because the aptitude to use French is very much needed for further studies, journeys to other countries as well as for social and professional global contacts of different kinds. A study carried out by Ogunbiyi (2012) discovers that French language is generally used as an international language for communication among people from different language backgrounds in all parts of the world.

In the same vein, French language is a global language which can be used for communication with native-speakers and non-native-speakers worldwide. People’s demands toward French language in many countries in the world make French language a key factor and become an international language that spreads quickly (Ogunbiyi, 2012).

One of the objectives of teaching and learning French at the secondary school level is to facilitate interaction with the neighbours who are French-speaking countries like Cameroun, Chad, Niger and Benin. The precise objective of French at the Junior Secondary School level has been outlined in the (Ogunbiyi, 2012). It is believed that by the end of their three years, learners should be able to:

i. understand French expressions necessary for seeking and obtaining solutions to their immediate personal problems and satisfying their needs such as, attracting peoples’ attention, asking for information etc.
ii. understand verbal narration of events, within their range of experiences that have already taken place.
iii. to understand simple verbal introductions of events, plans and projects yet to take place.
iv. to read correctly with understanding including oral and written French, appropriately to the situations outlined in (i-iii) above.
v. to use intelligently and appropriately, oral expressions and structure that are related to the situation outline (i-iv) above.
vi. to be good in conventional letter writing, French language activities in the situation outlined in (i-iv) above.

There are numbers of factors that influence the learning of language which is not the language of mother tongue. However, what is often singled out as the most significant factor in the overall process of language acquisition is motivation and desire to learn a particular language. The researchers observed that students’ poor performance in learning French as a foreign language is majorly as a result of lack of motivation in language learning process. It appears that many students think French is only a school subject and they don’t see its significance for their prospective employment to work with multinational or national companies where French Language is employed.

Motivation is often cited as a key contribution to help language learners succeed and improve (Brown, 2007). Thus, motivation refers to a process that starts with a need and leads to a behaviour that moves an individual towards achieving a goal. It has been observed by the researchers that without adequate motivation, French learners with distinctive talents will not be able to fulfil such objectives, even if they have a good curriculum and teachers.

In foreign language acquisition, not only do students know about the importance of motivation in language learning, but teachers and parents are concerned about its effects on the students’ learning progress as well. In addition, keeping students interested in school and motivating them to succeed are always challenges for teacher, parents, and students. The effect of motivation on foreign language acquisition, according to Zhou (2012), indicates that among the things that clearly affect the mastery of a foreign language is the type of motivation that a learner has.

In foreign language acquisition, these types of motivation came from cognitive and social psychology. In cognitive psychology, two types of motivation are involved; instrumental and integrative motivation while in social psychology; two main types of motivation are considered: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Zhou, 2012).

Integrative motivation is defined as an individual’s desire to learn a language because of its value in helping him integrate with speakers of the target language as well as for cultural enrichment. In other words, integrative motivation is described as learners’ desired aspiration to identify with the culture of the foreign language community (Ellis, 2008). Therefore, when foreign language learners are highly motivated interactively, the goal is perceived as more significant and valuable, which in turn will encourage successful learning.

Integrative motivation has a link with intrinsic motivation as both are derived from within the individual which is especially important for encouraging students’ success in foreign language learning. The activity itself, not the reward, interest students to learn the language or make them better in the language learning. Factors influencing students’ intrinsic motivation are physical conditions, teachers as well as their teaching methods.

Loewen and Reinders (2011) explain that instrumental motivation refers to a need of fulfilment towards some objective or the motivation that is derived from a perception of the real benefits that learning the foreign language might bring about. In short, instrumental motivation includes a group of factors that associate with motivation arising from external goals, for instance, passing examinations, or obtaining financial rewards, occupying good positions or accomplishing a school requirement. Thus, some argue that instrumental motivation in a foreign language setting has a greater influence on foreign language learners.

Instrumental motivation could be linked with extrinsic motivation because both arise from external factors. Extrinsic motivation happens when external factors make the person do something that comes from an external source. This encourages or fosters an individual to succeed. Extrinsic motivation comes from such factors outside the classroom as parents, teachers, friends, or their previous learning, but most often involves subjects in a reward and punishment system.

The major factors influencing the types of motivation discussed above are teachers as well as their teaching methods. Students’ level of interest and desire to engage in learning of French are heavily influenced by some factors, such as teachers, administrators, the school environment and their classmates. However, among these factors, teachers seem to be the strongest
one because their roles are very important in students’ learning of French. Pearse (2000) also points out that teachers’ feedback mostly affects students’ learning motivation especially when they are aware of their own progress. For teachers, the key to foster motivation and engagement in French learning can lead to good teaching method as well as good teachers, both of which attract students a lot in their learning of French Language. If students find their teachers’ methodology boring, they will not be motivated whereas if they are interested in the method, they will find it motivating and this prompts them for better learning.

Besides, French Language teachers should vary their activities, tasks, and materials because students are reassured by the existence in classroom routines that they can depend on. However, lessons, which always consist of the same routines, patterns and formats, have been shown to lead to a decrease in attention and an increase in boredom. Thus, varying the activities, tasks, and materials can help to avoid non-motivation and increase students' interest levels in French Language learning.

At present, it appears that many numbers of students have failed in their French language learning because of lack of motivation from some elements such as family background, social-environment, physical environment, culture, methods of learning and so forth (Dembo, 2004). Motivation can influence students’ freedom, attention, attempt, and patience, the frequency of using learning strategies, leads to effective learning process. Learners have pleasure for a second or foreign language learning when they receive motivation, especially internal motivation because it could be well predicted by perceived second language ability and independence (Zhou, 2012). The aim of this study is therefore to investigate motivation as a tool of improving learners’ performance in French Language.

The researchers observed that there was a low performance in the outcome of teaching and learning process in French language as a result of lack of motivation, this study was carried out with the following in focus:

1. Factors influencing French Language learning;
2. The important characteristic of a teacher that can motivate the learner
3. Ways by which French language learners can be motivated in the class

2. RESEARCH QUESTIONS
The following questions addressed the research problem
1. What are the factors influencing French Language learning in classroom?
2. What are the important characteristics of a teacher that can motivate the learners?
3. What are the ways by which French language learners can be motivated in the classroom?

3. METHODOLOGY
A descriptive survey design was adopted which enabled the researchers to collect and analyze data from a sample of the entire population without any manipulations.

The population for the study was all French students in public Junior Secondary school in Ekiti State. The sample consisted of 200 students selected from 10 public secondary schools in two local government areas of Ekiti State. The sample was selected via multi stage sampling procedure.

3.1 Instrumentation
A well-constructed and self-developed questionnaire titled “Motivation and French Learning Questionnaire (MFLQ)” was used to get the desired information from the respondents. The questionnaire was divided into two sections (A and B). Section A was for collection of information on personal data of respondents, Section B consisted of 20 items that elicited responses from the respondents with response options: Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD).

The face and content validity was ascertained by giving the designed questionnaire to experts of Tests and Measurement for vetting before distributing it to the respondents. Responses from the questionnaire were analyzed using the descriptive statistics of frequency counts and percentage, mean, and standard deviation.

4. RESULTS
Research Question 1: What are the factors influencing French Language learning in classroom?
Table 1: **Descriptive Statistics of the Factors Influencing French Language Learning in Classroom**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Agree (%)</th>
<th>Disagree (%)</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Previous Learning Experience</td>
<td>148 (74%)</td>
<td>52 (26%)</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>4th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>School Facilities</td>
<td>133 (66.5%)</td>
<td>67 (33.5%)</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>5th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Availability of Textbooks</td>
<td>172 (86%)</td>
<td>28 (14%)</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>3rd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Teacher’s Teaching Method</td>
<td>200 (100%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Feedback on Performance</td>
<td>194 (97%)</td>
<td>6 (3%)</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>2nd</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Mean Cut-off: 2.50**

Table 1 shows the factors that influence French Language learning in the classroom. The table revealed that 148 representing 74% of the respondents agreed that previous learning experience influence French language learning in the classroom while 133 respondents representing 66.5% and 172 respondents (86%) agreed that school facilities and availability of textbooks respectively influence French language learning in the classroom. All the respondents agreed that teacher’s teaching method influence French language learning and 194 respondents representing 97% agreed that feedback on performance influence French language learning in the classroom.

Based on the respondents’ view, it can be concluded that teacher’s teaching method is the most important factor that influence French Language learning in the classroom. This is closely followed by feedback on performance, availability of textbooks and previous learning experience. The least factor that influence French language learning in the classroom is school facilities.

**Research Question 2:** What are the important characteristics of a teacher that can motivate the learners?

Table 2: **Descriptive Statistics of the important characteristics of a teacher that can motivate the learners**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Agree (%)</th>
<th>Disagree (%)</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Good Teaching Method</td>
<td>200 (100%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Good personalities</td>
<td>89 (44.5%)</td>
<td>111 (55.5%)</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Good relationship with students</td>
<td>200 (100%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Competence to manage the class</td>
<td>127 (63.5%)</td>
<td>73 (36.5%)</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Teachers’ Gender</td>
<td>46 (23%)</td>
<td>154 (77%)</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Mean Cut-off: 2.50**

Table 2 shows the important characteristics a French language teacher should possess which can motivate the French language learners. All the respondents agreed that good teaching method and good relationship with students can motivate French language learners in the classroom. 89 respondents representing 44.5% agreed that good personalities of the teacher can motivate students to learn French while 127 representing 63.5% of the respondents agreed that teacher’s competence to manage the classroom can motivate learners and only 46 respondents representing 23% agreed that teacher’s gender can motivate learners to learn French Language.

Based on the mean cut-off point of 2.50, the important characteristics of a teacher that can motivate learners to learn French language are good teaching method, good relationship with the students and competence to manage the classroom effectively.

**Research Question 3:** What are the ways by which French language learners can be motivated in the classroom?

Table 3: **Descriptive Statistics of the ways by which French Language learners can be motivated in the classroom**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Agree (%)</th>
<th>Disagree (%)</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Role Playing in the classroom</td>
<td>147 (73.5%)</td>
<td>53 (26.5%)</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Group and pair work in the classroom</td>
<td>138 (69%)</td>
<td>62 (31%)</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Using of multimedia gadgets in the classroom</td>
<td>200 (100%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Giving bonus marks to students in the classroom</td>
<td>98 (49%)</td>
<td>102 (51%)</td>
<td>2.47</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Designing challenging exercises</td>
<td>152 (76%)</td>
<td>48 (24%)</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Paying more attention to low performing students</td>
<td>144 (72%)</td>
<td>56 (28%)</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3 shows the ways French language learners can be motivated in the classroom. The table revealed that 147 representing 73.5% of the respondents agreed that role playing in the classroom can motivate French language learners in the classroom while 138 (69%) of the respondents agreed that group and pair work in the classroom can motivate learners in the classroom and all the respondents agreed that using of multimedia gadgets in the classroom can motivate French language learners.

Less than half of the respondents (49%) agreed that giving bonus marks to students in the classroom can motivate French language learners. 152 (76%) and 144 (72%) of the respondents agreed that giving challenging exercises and paying more attention to low performing students respectively can motivate French language learners in the classroom while 96 (48%) of the respondents agreed that using of different approaches to teach French language can motivate French language learners in the classroom. All the respondents agreed that helping students with their difficulties in French Language, praising and rewarding performing students in the classroom and assisting students to set learning goals in French Language can motivate French language learners in the classroom.

Based on the mean cut-off point of 2.50, role playing in the classroom, group and pair work in the classroom, using multimedia gadgets in the classroom, designing challenging exercises, paying more attention to low performing students, helping students with their difficulties in French language, praising and rewarding performing students in the classroom and assisting students to set learning goals in French language can motivate French language learners in the classroom.

4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION
This high endorsement of teacher’s teaching method in table 1 (accounting for 100%) reflected that students knew the importance of teaching methods in their French language learning. Thus, with this finding, to enhance and motivate students in French language learning, teachers should help students find out effective ways of learning French language. Feedback on performance and availability of Textbooks were the second and the third influential factors influencing students’ French language learning. The finding was consistent with the view of Harmer (2002) who puts it that teachers and the teaching method play important roles in language learning classroom such as a controller, a prompter, a participant or a tutor. Sparks (2000) also concludes that one of the most important factors in improving students’ learning is using an appropriate teaching method.

Also, in table 2, it revealed that good teaching method, good relationship with the students and competence to manage the class are important characteristics of a teacher that can motivate French language learners to learn in the classroom. Ogunkeye (2007) indicates that in the classroom, a good teaching method, sympathetic teachers and good class control have a similarly supportive effect on students’ learning.

In table 3, it was revealed that role playing in the classroom, group and pair work in the classroom, using multimedia gadgets in the classroom, designing challenging exercises, paying more attention to low performing students, helping students with their difficulties in French language, praising and rewarding performing students in the classroom and assisting students to set learning goals in French language can motivate French language learners in the classroom.

5. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS
It can be concluded that teacher’s teaching method, giving feedback on performance and availability of textbooks influences students’ French language learning. Also, good teaching method, good relationship with the students and competence to manage the class are important characteristics of a teacher that motivates French language learners to learn in the classroom.

Role playing, group and pair work in the classroom, using multimedia gadgets in teaching activities, designing challenging exercises, paying more attention to low performing students, helping students with their difficulties in French language, praising and rewarding performing students in the classroom and assisting students to set learning goals in French
language motivate French language learners in the classroom.

Based on the findings it is therefore recommended that:

1. French language teachers should use appropriate teaching method in the teaching of French language in the classroom.
2. French language teachers should cease every opportunity to make students aware of their performance.
3. French language teachers should find ways to strengthen students’ self-perceptions so that the students become self-motivated to make effort and therefore become active participants in learning, both the French language, and throughout their learning experience.
4. French language teachers should motivate learners by applying various motivational activities as indicated in the findings of this work.
5. The government should provide facilities that can motivate students in learning French Language.

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The Role of Lwidakho on English Word Stress Perception and Production

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Received: September 24, 2019
Accepted: October 27, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.31

Lwidakho is a tonal language that lacks word stress; instead, the meaning of each syllable in a word is determined by the pitch at which it is pronounced. The language is different from English - a stress timed language - which relies on syllable stress to determine the meaning of words. It is against this background that the paper commented the extent to which Lwidakho influences the ability to perceive and produce English word stress. Of form three secondary school Lwidakho speaking students, in Ikolomani Sub-County, Kenya, using Transfer theory, the paper examines the role of Lwidakho on English word stress perception and production. The paper used descriptive research design to identify and obtain information on how Lwidakho affects the learning of English word stress perception and production. Using simple random sampling, the paper sampled out 144 form three students out of 1440 students in day secondary schools. Eight (8) secondary schools were sampled out purposively out of the twenty (20) day secondary schools in Ikolomani Sub-County. Structured interviews were used to elicit data among the respondents. The paper considered the word as a unit of analysis and therefore, thirty (30) English content words were purposively sampled out for analysis. The results of the study reveal the non-existence of word stress in Lwidakho which is assumed to be the cause of errors in English word stress perception and production among Lwidakho speaking form three secondary school students. The study recommends the inclusion of English language activities and/or materials in the listening and speaking lessons among form three students in secondary schools in Kenya. This inclusion would help such students improve their skills in word stress perception and production.

1. INTRODUCTION

Lwidakho is a member of the Luhya macro-language. According to Lewis, Gary & Charles (2015) Lwidakho is classified within the Niger-Congo family as a narrow Bantu, Central J language. The language is closely related to other immediate bordering Luhya languages such as Lwisukha and Lutirichi. According to Were (1967), there are six major clans that comprises the speakers of Lwidakho namely; Shikulu, Ngalori, Shiangala, Musali, Kasam and Masaba. Geographically, speakers of Lwidakho are spread across twelve Sub-Counties of Kakamega County namely Lugari, Likuyani, Navakholo, Malava, Lurambi, Khwisero, Ikolomani, Shinyalu, Mumias, Mumias East, Matungu, and Butere. However, as Lidonde (1978) notes, many of Lwidakho speakers come from Idakho location in Ikolomani Sub-County.

Most children born in Ikolomani Sub-County acquire Lwidakho through constant interaction with caregivers, parents, siblings and other speakers found within their linguistic environment. Lwidakho is, therefore, a first language to students learning English as a Second Language (ESL) within Ikolomani Sub-County. Such speakers have internalized the tonal patterns of words in Lwidakho during their first language acquisition. Consequently, learning English word stress for such students entails acquisition of a new set of linguistic habits. Tahreen (2015) observes that, although English language shares some linguistic aspects with some of the Bantu languages, its
phonological systems differ quite considerably from those of African languages.

It is against this argument that this paper presents the Lwidakho tonal patterns, English word stress and syllable structures; and English word stress perception and production. Further, a brief discussion on first language transfer is also provided. The paper further provides a description on how Lwidakho affects English word stress perception and production among form three Lwidakho speakers in day secondary schools in Ikolomani Sub-County, Kenya.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW
2.1 Lwidakho Tonal Patterns
Several studies have been conducted on Lwidakho language such as Savala, 2012; Mocho, 2015 and Ebarb, 2012. According to Savala (2012), Lwidakho is a tonal language, with the meaning of each syllable determined by the pitch at which it is pronounced. This is illustrated by examples (1 and 2) below:

1) khu-tsí /‘xu- tsí/.
   ‘I have died’.
2) khu-tsí /’xu-‘tsí/.
   Let us go.

When high tone is placed on the first syllable, that is, ‘khu-tsí /’xu - tsí/, the word means ‘died’ while a high tone on the second syllable as in khu-tsí /’xu- ‘tsí /, changes the meaning to ‘go’. From this example, Lwidakho speakers do not recognize stress in words in their pronunciation; they instead rely on tone to decode meaning.

Pronouncing the words in Lwidakho with high tone on the wrong syllable changes the meaning of the uttered word or affects the understanding of the word by the native Lwidakho listeners. The native Lwidakho listeners are therefore likely to decipher the wrong meaning of the words during conversations when stress is marked on the wrong syllable. Such a situation would impede communication.

2.2. Lwidakho Syllable Structure
A syllable is defined as the way in which vowels and consonants are joined to form various patterns (Roach 2002). Lwidakho syllable types are presented as follows: Firstly, Lwidakho has CV syllable type. This syllable type consists of a consonant and a vowel. Consider the Lwidakho word in example (3) below

3) /mu-sa-la/
   ‘Tree’

The word has a CV syllable structure with the consonant and vowel sounds; /m/, /u/, /s/, /a/. /a/.

Secondly, Lwidakho has the CCV syllable type. It mostly consists of a consonant in the onset followed by the bilabial approximant. This syllable type is also common in Lwidakho words, consider example (4) below, where, the first syllable has a CCV structure.

4) /mwi-xo/.
   ‘Relative’

The above word has two consonants /m, w/ and a vowel /ɪ/ joined to form the first syllable in /mwi- xo/. The second syllable in the above word has the consonant /x/ and a vowel /o/.

Lastly, Lwidakho language has the V syllable type in which the V place is occupied by a vowel. Example (5) below illustrates the same

5) /tʃi-li-ʃi/.
   ‘Bull’

Example (5) above shows a polysyllabic word, with four syllables and the first syllable is made of a single vowel (i). As a general rule, Lwidakho has an open syllable and does not allow codas.

2.3 English word stress
Word stress refers to the emphasis put on a given syllable of a word (Underhill, 1994). It is identified in words by the level of vowel duration, loudness, and or pitch height in pronunciation of syllables (Ladefoged, 2005). Word stress is significant when processing speech whereby native speakers of English rely on word stress patterns to perceive the meaning of words (Field 2004).

Underhill (1994) supports the view that spoken lexicons with correct sounds but wrongly stressed syllables are hard to understand than words with correctly stressed syllables, but wrongly pronounced. As a result, second language learners’ inability to acquire English word stress patterns is one of the many pronunciation errors which lead to misunderstandings in spoken English language contexts (Ur, 2003).

According to Roach (1992), English word stress can either involve the perception or production of a word. Word stress perception involves the recognition of the stressed syllable in word when pronounced. For example, when the first syllable in the word object /’ob-ʤekt/ is stressed, the word becomes a noun, alternatively, when the second syllable is stressed /ob’ʤekt/, the word becomes a verb. On the other hand, word stress production involves the pronunciation of English words with emphasis on the correct syllable.

2.4 English and Lwidakho syllable structure
English language has six syllable patterns (Barrie, 2015). These are: (ØVØ), (CVØ), (OVC), (CVCVCV), (CCCVC) and (CVC). The table below provides examples words with the above syllable patterns:
The Role of Lwidakho on English Word Stress Perception and Production

Table 1: English syllable structures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English syllable pattern</th>
<th>Examples of words</th>
<th>English transcription</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ØVØ</td>
<td>Eye</td>
<td>/ai/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVØ</td>
<td>Bar</td>
<td>/ba:/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ØVC</td>
<td>Eat</td>
<td>/i:t/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVC</td>
<td>Book</td>
<td>/bok/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVCVCV</td>
<td>Banana</td>
<td>/ba.na.na/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCCVC</td>
<td>Split</td>
<td>/splits</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the Table (1) above, an English syllable may be a vowel only, as in the pattern (ØVØ), for example /or/ transcribed as /ər/, this type of syllable is known as a minimum syllable. The syllable which is not closed by consonant, with such a pattern (CVØ), as in /be/ and transcribed as /b/ is called an open syllable. Further, the pattern (ØVC) indicates a syllable type in which a vowel precedes a consonant, for example up /æp/. The other syllable pattern is CV as in the word Canada, /kæ.nə.də/. Also, we have the CCCVC syllable pattern as in the word spleen, /spli:n/. The last syllable pattern comprises of a vowel enclosed by consonant sounds, as in teach, /tiːʧ/. It is the syllables that can either form a word or be joined to form a word in English. Therefore, if one stresses the wrong syllable in a word, he or she will not communicate the intended message, or will be misunderstood.

Lwidakho language has the following syllable patterns; CV, VCV, CCC, and V. The table below summarizes the above Lwidakho stress patterns.

Table 2: Lwidakho Syllables Structures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lwidakho syllable structure</th>
<th>Examples of words</th>
<th>Lwidakho transcription</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CV</td>
<td>mwiya</td>
<td>/mwiya/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VCV</td>
<td>inzi</td>
<td>/inz/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVCCV</td>
<td>butsya</td>
<td>/botswa/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCVCV</td>
<td>khostsa</td>
<td>/khostsa/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table above, Lwidakho has a CV syllable structure pattern, as in the word mwiya (newly married), CCC as in the word khosta (uncle), and VCV for instance, inzi (I).

English language has its distinctive syllable structure, far away from what exists in Lwidakho language. From the two languages’ syllable patterns discussed above, the pattern V only exits in Lwidakho and not English. On the other hand, CVC syllable pattern only exits in English and not Lwidakho. Therefore, form three students, who are Lwidakho speakers, in secondary schools in Ikolomani Sub-County, can tend to transfer their L1 word syllable structures to the English word syllable patterns, thereby inhibiting their mastery of English language.

2.5 Language Transfer

Transfer is the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously acquired (Odlin, 2001). Faerch & Kasper (1987) define transfer as the process by which second language learners’ active first language knowledge is used in developing or using their inter-language, and they also pointed out that the process may either support or defect from learning.

The acquisition of second language phonology is generally a complex process (Roach, 2002). An understanding of how learners acquire a new phonological system must consider linguistic differences between the mother tongue and the target language systems as well as universal facts of phonology. Phonology is both similar to and different from other linguistic domains. It is similar in that some of a learner’s pronunciation of the second language is clearly attributable to the first language, whereas some are not. It is different in that not all of the concepts relevant to syntax are applicable to phonology. For example, avoidance is a common L2 strategy used when a syntactic construction is recognizable beyond one’s reach. Thus, if a learner wants to avoid passives, it is relatively easy to find an alternative structure to express the same concept.

Not only are sounds of a language transferred, but there is also evidence that learners attempt to maintain their mother tongue syllable structure during the acquisition of a target language. When the target language permits syllable structures that are not permitted in the native language, learners will make errors that involve altering these structures to those that would be permitted in the native language (Broselow, 1987).

Further, Selinker & Gass (2008) on language transfer argue that, the learners’ native language will negatively or positively affect their second language acquisition. Moreover, when there are similarities between the native language and the target language, transfer functions positively, and when there are differences, it functions negatively, hence positive language transfer occurs when first language habits facilitate second language learning, while negative transfer occurs when first language linguistic characteristics interferes with target language learning. Therefore, language transfer occurs when first language linguistic units facilitates second
language learning, but when first language linguistic units impedes second language learning, it then becomes first language interference on second language.

In the next section of this paper, we present the research design, sampling procedures in which both human respondents and words were sampled, how data was collected and analysed, and the research findings.

3. METHODOLOGY
The present paper used descriptive research design to identify and obtain information on how Lwidakho affects the learning of English word stress perception and production. Using simple random sampling, the paper sampled out 144 forms three students out of 1440 students in day secondary schools, eight secondary schools were sampled out purposively out of the twenty-day secondary schools in Ikolomani Sub-County. The paper also considered the word as a unit of analysis. Thirty English content words used in the present research had stress on the ultimate syllable, penultimate syllable and antepenultimate syllables.

Table 3 English word list

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ultimate</th>
<th>Penultimate</th>
<th>Antepenultimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Play</td>
<td>Abuse</td>
<td>Revelation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Novel</td>
<td>Reported</td>
<td>Character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forms</td>
<td>Father</td>
<td>Advertisement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poem</td>
<td>Student</td>
<td>Information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pulleys</td>
<td>Legend</td>
<td>Biography</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World</td>
<td>Internet</td>
<td>Paragraph</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Person</td>
<td>Library</td>
<td>Composition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Words</td>
<td>Money</td>
<td>Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Little</td>
<td>Doubler</td>
<td>Studying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>Contrast</td>
<td>Supporting</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These words were sampled using simple random sampling techniques. They were obtained from form one, form two, and form three Excelling English secondary school, students‘ course books. This course book was one of those recommended for use at secondary schools in Kenya, by Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development. The sampled form three (Lwidakho speakers) students in day secondary schools were subjected to a structured interview.

To test the respondents’ perception of word stress, students were asked to write and mark on sheets of paper the stressed syllable of the words that they heard being pronounced from a digital voice recorder LCD screen directed laptop. This happened in a classroom. During the production test, the researcher offered the test to students singly in the same class. He wrote English word stress production test word list on the chalk board and asked each respondent to get inside the classroom and read out loudly the fifteen words written on the chalkboard. Each word was read once. Each learner was given an average of ten minutes to read the word list, meanwhile, the researcher audio-recorded the Lwidakho form three students’ readings using a smart phone and also made notes from what he heard being read out by the students to complement the recorded data as presented in the findings below:

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
4.1 Stress Perception Test

Figure 1 below presents the results of the Stress Perception test.

Figure 1 Stress perception test
A total of 144 respondents took part in the perception exercise. Basing on the sample size used, the correct scores were; thirty-eight percent (38%) identified words which had stress on antepenultimate syllable, thirty-three percent (33%) identified penultimate stressed syllables in words and only twenty-nine percent (29%) were able to identify words which had stress on the ultimate syllables. The discrepancies in scores of the English content words stressed on the ultimate, penultimate and antepenultimate syllables indicates that the respondents made more word stress placement errors with words with stress placement on the last syllable than with words with the stress placement on the second and third syllable from the last. This could be resulting from guess work among the respondents, since it does not exist in English language and also their mother tongue.
4.2 Stress Production Test

Figure 2 below presents the stress production test results:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stress Production Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Correct Stress Placement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wrong Stress Placement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2 Stress production test

The data in Figure 2 above shows that in the production exercise, thirty seven percent (37%) of the respondents read the given words with correct stress placement, whereas sixty-three (63%) percent either stressed the whole word or placed stress on the wrong sounds in the stressed syllables. These learners did not understand how to read the English words given to them.

Generally, data from the present research indicates that Lwidakho affects English word stress negatively. Lwidakho speakers in form three-day secondary schools in Ikolomani Sub-County were unable to write fifteen (15) English content words read to them, marking the stressed syllable. Only thirty three percent (33%) of the sampled size was able to perceive English Word Stress correctly. Consequently, the remaining sixty seven percent (67%) did not perceive English Word Stress correctly. To add on, the same respondents were subjected to a production test, which involved reading of fifteen English content words by each respondent in a secluded room. The production test scores in figure 2 above indicated that twenty-seven percent (27%) passed whereas seventy-three percent (73%) failed the test.

4.3 Effects of Lwidakho on English word stress

The low scores in the tests above attributed to the role played by Lwidakho as the learner’s first language on their pronunciation, specifically syllable stress in words. Lwidakho being a tonal language, as quoted in Savala (2012), does not recognize word stress as one of its supra-segmental features in its phonology. The form three Lwidakho speakers in mixed day secondary schools communicate in their mother tongue outside the school environment, and therefore do not easily notice stress patterns in their words. Such students encounter word stress during the learning of English (foreign language) in secondary schools. These students find it difficult to express English word stress, they thus read English words stressing wrong syllables, and also do not realize the stressed syllables in words pronounced in Received Pronunciation.

Consequently, this paper supports the view that positive transfer occurs when the same stress patterns exist in first language and target language, and does not cause difficulties, while negative transfer means that a word will be difficult to stress since it does not exist in the learners first language. In the perspective of the present paper, negative transfer took place, in that Lwidakho negatively affected Lwidakho speakers English Word Stress Perception and Production.

4.4 Implications of negative Lwidakho transfer on English word stress

As earlier noted, Lwidakho is a tonal language (Savala 2012), and tone operates lexically to vary meaning. The tones are pitch variations and are also linked to syllables. For example, the sequence /mu-xo-pe/ in Lwidakho can be pronounced with two different tones whereby each of the them will have a specific meaning realized as /mu-‘xo-pe/’help’, and /‘mu-xo-pel/ ‘sugar cane’, /ma-βe-le/ on the other hand it can be pronounced with variations in tone either as /ma-‘βe-le/ to mean ‘milk’, or /‘ma-βe-le/’sorghum’. This is completely different from the English language.

The English stress pattern is related to syllable length, loudness, and pitch. There is a distinction between stressed and unstressed syllables in words, with stressed syllables being longer, louder, and with a higher pitch. English uses sentence intonation, a continuous changing of the pitch, to express meanings. From the present paper, Lwidakho learners have problems with the alternation between stressed and unstressed syllables in English. Accordingly, Lwidakho form three learners tended to produce every syllable with the same amount of stress, or simply to delete the unstressed syllables as a result of perceptual influence.

5. CONCLUSION

The paper sought to determine the role of Lwidakho on English Word Stress Perception and Production among Form Three Secondary School students. The research reveals that, Lwidakho as the respondents’ first language played a negative role on their English Word Stress Perception and Production. The respondents do not have stress patterns in their mother tongue unlike English language which is a stress timed language. Thus, hearing stress and articulating stress are dependent from each other. Most of the respondents in the study who perceived stress wrongly also produced it wrongly, both attributed to influence of Lwidakho on English word stress perception and production.
There is need to include language activities and/or materials in the listening and speaking lessons among form three students in secondary schools in Kenya. This inclusion would help such students improve their skills in word stress perception and production. Furthermore, teaching Form Three Lwidakho students of English to perceive and produce both the stressed and unstressed syllables of English words could help them improve their word stress perception and production skills. This can be complimented with more oral English exercises in the classroom in addition to grammatical and lexical knowledge. The aforementioned strategies shall enable Lwidakho students of English to be comprehensible in English oral communication.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT
I give God all the glory and honour for the far He has brought me. He gave me strength to accomplish every single task throughout the research period. Whenever I faltered, He stretched His hand of mercy and lifted me.

Secondly, I would like to sincerely thank a number of individuals for their contribution that enabled me to complete this paper through their participation, guidance, prayers and encouragement. To begin with, I wish to appreciate my supervisors: Dr. Lucy Mandillah and Dr. David Barasa for their unwavering academic guidance, intellectual support and continued interest in my research work. For sure, this work could not have been completed in time, without their combined efforts, comments and positive criticisms which catapulted me in shaping this paper.

Lastly, I cannot forget my comrade Joel Mbugua for his kind heart and mutual support during the entire research. I register my appreciation to Ms. Harriet Shivanda who typed the paper and Mable Wakoli for proofreading the paper.

REFERENCES


The English Language and the Second Language Learners’ Perception in a Multicultural Nigeria: An Appraisal
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ARTICLE INFO
ABSTRACT
Received: September 14, 2019
Accepted: October 16, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.32

The objective of the study was to evaluate the impact of English as language of formal learning using some schools from the three senatorial zones in Imo State as well as teachers’ challenges in the use of this target language as a pedagogical tool. Through a random sampling process, 1200 copies of pretested and validated questionnaire written in English were administered to selected students from these regions. Key Persons Interview was also used to supplement the questionnaire data. 895 copies of questionnaire representing 74.6% were duly completed and returned for analysis. Studies showed that students’ perception of English as a language of education is one in which they feel compelled and have rather come to terms with its usage as a result of its imposition by the British colonialists, acceptance by the Nigerian government and general implementation as an official language. Findings revealed that 68.5% feel the need to fall back on their local language for clarification of some sort while 14.5% of the respondents have little or no need to use the mother tongue but 17% have occasional inkling to resort to their mother tongue for proper understanding. This interference is expected in a multilingual nation like Nigeria which has instituted bilingualism and multilingualism to her citizenry. The study established that the use of English accounts for some of the challenges in academic performance of students and therefore recommends that teachers, parents and government must strive to reiterate the need to inculcate and acculturate this official language as an ineluctable tool for academic success and societal integration.

KEYWORDS
Multilingualism, Language, Academic, Learning, Interference

1. INTRODUCTION
The significance of English as a veritable tool for effective communication has maintained an unwavering stance in both local and international milieu. Its multifaceted functions span through the horizon as second language to non-native speakers and foreign language to non-English speakers. It is inarguably a connective device that unites individuals from diverse ethno linguistic backgrounds particularly in a multicultural Nigeria. The general acceptance as a global language and usage account for the manifold roles English plays in our society particularly and the nation in general.

Furthermore, the advent of the English Language in the nation has institutionalized bilingualism as most Nigerians are seemingly bilinguals by virtue of necessity occasioned by language infestation. It is also a known fact that English exists alongside the very many vernaculars such as Igbo, Hausa, Yoruba, Ibibio, Ijaw, Kalabari and as such regarded as the high variety while the vernaculars, the regional roles are tagged the low variety. Bilingualism by extension, typifies our core Nigerianness. As a multilingual and multicultural nation, Nigeria has exposed her nationals to manifold languages other than that which exists in their immediate environment as first language which accounts for the several disinterests among some citizens who have continued to grudgingly acquire this language. Young learners of English are faced with the gruelling task of imbining this global language at all cost for both learning and integration in the society. In Nigeria,
indigenous languages have no place in official and educational matters although official recognition was accorded to the three major languages that represent the three geo political zones, Igbo, Hausa and Yoruba. These languages are not usually mutually intelligible and so are not widely accepted as other supposedly minor linguistic groups continue to clamour supremacy of their languages. Several policies have thus, been put in place to ensure the indigenous languages do not become extinct which did not particularly favour the English language as the indigenous ones were taken into major consideration before the adoption of the policies. However, the English language still thrived to earn its prestigious status.

As a global language, studies have shown that English has attained an enviable status such that other languages spoken around the world are merely relegated to the third place as is the case in Nigeria where it has assumed a pride of place as other indigenous languages clamour for some degree of relevance. Finegan (1989), however, asserts that English is the only language known for its rapid widespread than other languages; some other renowned researchers equally admit to this exulted position of the English language as unbeatable, unstoppable, unflinching and a lingua franca, Anderman & Rogers (2005), Saur (2006:187). Also, Crystal (1997) authenticates this global status of English considering the trifurcated roles of first, foreign and official language which substantiate its generic attribute. The emergence of this language has undoubtedly generated unwholesome debates notably its supremacy over the very many indigenous languages spoken in the nation as well as the acceptance and implementation of the language in the educational sector where teaching is practically done in English, hence, the students are expected to get acquainted and avail themselves the opportunity of easy learning of the language. The efficacy of the English language in bonding and creating mutual understanding across millions of people of diverse cultural, ethnic and linguistic background is beyond measure. Considering that English assumes a messianic role which bridged the language barrier and unintelligibility that existed around the nation as a result of ethnic diversity, the perceived downsides cannot be ignored particularly in the areas of teaching and learning where it is believed to be somewhat deficient in knowledge transfer. On the issue of English as a lingua franca, second language learners’ attitude on the task of playing by the formal norms of the language and the extent to which this conformity will assist in formal learning and international intelligibility remains a grey area. In addition, there is a growing concern on students’ perception of this language as a learning tool and their overall impression, assessment and efficacy towards comprehension of lessons. Similarly, pre-school teachers’ actual take on this language will be understudied so as to uncover their difficulties or ease in the use of English as an instructive tool. These among others form the purpose of this study which include:

a. To investigate students’ attitude towards English as official language and medium of instruction.
b. To examine Pre-school teachers’ perception of the use of this language as a veritable tool in pedagogy.
c. To explore the various challenges of learning English in a multicultural society.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW
2.1 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
Every research work is believed to have a theoretical standpoint which invariably supports the overall study structure, therefore, this work adopted the theory of affordances as developed by James J. Gibson in 1979. The theory is primarily concerned with that which is predominant and prevalent in an environment that actually conditions inhabitants’ interaction and learning modes while one strives to get acquainted in order to fit in perfectly as well as its appropriateness to the individual. In other words, one’s ability to acculturate in a given environment is dependent on the ability to get one’s need satisfied in a given environment. This explication therefore, points to the complexities of language learning in a multilingual society particularly for a bilingual and the degree to which the environment influences or shapes one’s learning process. It further brings to the fore the various challenges that second language learners undergo in a bid to have their needs met. These needs are a pivotal trench through which an individual could either get his needs fulfilled or mar the process of acculturation. Generally, humans are known to adjust and manipulate a given situation for their benefit but Gibson advises that the ripple effect of such act may be detrimental and that one’s knowledge of an extant affordance prevalent in a given environment is a surest way to mingle in an unfamiliar situation. On the flip side, some authors have delved in to the affordance study, notably, Eleanor Gibson, Jakob Von Uexkull, Donald Norman. Willaim Gaver interestingly made a threefold categorization of the affordances to include: perceptible, false and hidden. An affordance is termed perceptible when there is core information which is perceivable by an actor as he strives to act upon the existing affordance. A false affordance
depicts an unreal disposition which negates any possible reality and so requires no further action. A hidden affordance on the other hand, indicates an obscure situation with immutable opportunities for action even though unbeknownst to the actor for its existence. Basically, false and hidden affordances may generate unwelcome misinterpretation, ignite needless errors and perhaps, go the wrong way while, perceptible affordance draws a direct nexus between discernment of an existing affordance and appropriate action taken to that effect.

2.2 Review of Previous Studies
Learning a second language in a multilingual environment can be an arduous task particularly when the target language is sine-qua-non to integration in the society and attainment of educational qualification. It is important to note that learning a second language is one thing but navigating the nitty-gritty of its applicability and usage is yet another. Given the intricacies that surround the advent of English in Nigeria and the apparent reactions from its learners, it is vital to survey previous studies on second language learners’ perception of English around the globe.

Anyanwu (2016) examined the socio-cultural factors that bear on the use of the English Language among Nigerian undergraduates in some tertiary institutions which account for most communication breakdown both in teaching and learning of the language. The researcher observed that poor socio-economic background, nonchalant attitude towards English learning, interference among others are instrumental to this appalling mindset of these undergraduates as regards English as a pedagogical tool. The study also showed that students are less attuned to the use of English courses slated to enhance their proficiency at the nymph stage in their pursuit for advanced learning as they rely on slangs/pidgin for informal interactions. She therefore, recommends that digitizing English language instruction, multilingual and cultural creativities and teachers’ hands-on approach will go a long way in salvaging this ugly trend in the use of English among undergraduates. On the other hand, Finnish attitude towards English is an enviable trait due to the positivity it portends. It is that which they believe prevails in all the facets of their social lives and so one’s knowledge of English is considered a prestige accomplishment as that of the ability to read, (Taaavitsainen & Pahta, 2004:10). This delineates the status which English has over Swedish which is the official language of the Finns.

Similarly, Ebere (2016) examined the cultural and socio-economic implication on secondary school students’ academic performance in the West Coast Region of Gambia. Results from the study demonstrated significant influence of culture and socio-economy on students’ performance as well as parents’ poor educational level. These point to the varying perception of ideas, norms, cultural disparities/beliefs and language discordance prevalent in a multicultural society which in turn have undue control of the students’ mindset who are torn between understanding the need for this western education and the overall cultural implication of no adherence to the custom of the land which often has severe punitive measures. Gambia is culture oriented and abounds in her inextricable beliefs that pay less attention to girl-child education as is the case in Africa and this undeniably hampers students’ performance in schools particularly as regards early marriage.

In addition, Mercado (2018) investigated the extent to which language registers influence the development of students’ writing skills in Universidad Técnica de Ambato using both qualitative and quantitative approaches while adopting the pre-test and post-test writing techniques in order to ascertain their applicability in both formal and informal parlance. The study revealed that most students were at home with social context as a precursor to the appropriate register to adopt in written English while some grappled with appropriating the contextual need in their writing. This was clearly demonstrated as their general knowledge of the various registers was instrumental to the suitability of the formality or informality writing to be adopted in any given context. Again, the writing skills and vocabularies of these students were significantly advanced demonstrating unhinged mastery of these language registers.

Furthermore, Reko (2019) did a comparative study of the attitudes of teachers of English as a second language (ESL) and English as foreign language (EFL) towards English as lingua franca in Finland and USA drawing the margin between the native and non native teachers. He pointed out that the native teachers are seen as key players who adhere strictly to the formal norms of English where as non native teachers are known to deviate here and there. Consequently, this deviation according to the researcher enhances hitch free communication as opposed to the infringement of communication which the native teachers envisage. The researcher also acknowledged the efficacy of English as a veritable tool in teaching, learning and overall development of participants which invariably culminates to communicative competence. In all, this review has
shown that ELF is assessable for users in a Standard English prone environment which instigates the need for conformity.

Also, Thompson (2019) investigated the nature of early child pedagogy in a socio-cultural multiplicity in Ghana. A qualitative approach was adopted to explore teachers’ perception of cultural diversity in teaching at the kindergarten level as regards storytelling, learning materials and rhyme rendition. Having duly collected data from the respondents and proper observations made, analysis revealed that imbibing and conforming to the socio-cultural context teaching method is a first step toward enhancing children’s language acquisition, literacy augmentation and general cognitive growth. Also, teachers repeatedly demonstrated the zeal to carry these pupils along in their quest for learning through rigorous trainings considering their context and further drawing the curriculum to suit the cultural environment as well support the children’s education.

In the light of these previous studies, it is evident that English usage in a multicultural society has its baggage as citizens especially students constantly strive to attain seeming competence and mastery for purposeful academic pursuit and engagement. The above studies clearly indicated the various challenges faced with the learning of this foreign language by second language learners in other nations but the current research shall evaluate the perception of the students in conforming to the use of this language for pedagogy. In addition, the teachers’ notion will also be explored since they are the actual drivers that steer the application for knowledge transfer.

### 2.3 METHODOLOGY

#### 2.3.1 Study Area

This study was conducted in Imo State precisely the public secondary schools which are known to have significant number of students and are mostly second language learners of English. The samples were drawn to capture schools from the three educational/senatorial zones in the state, namely: Owerri, Okigwe and Orlu. Owerri educational zone is known to have the highest students’ concentration with nine local government areas under its jurisdiction namely: Abob Mbaise, Ahiazu Mbaise, Ezinihite Mbaise, Ngor-Okpala, Mbaitoli, Ikeduru, Owerri West, Owerri North and Owerri municipal. Okigwe educational/senatorial district comprises seven local government areas made up of: Isiala Mbano, Ehime Mbano, Onuimo, Ns, Ettiti, Obowo and Ihitte Uboma. Orlu senatorial/educational zone is made up of eleven local government areas which include: Orsu, Isu, Njaba, Nwangele, Nkwerre, Ideato North, Ideato South, Oru East, Oru West, Ohaji Egbea and Oguta. Thus, two schools were systematically selected to represent both the modern and rural areas. Data were collected from public senior secondary students. These are Nigerians from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds drawn from Girls secondary school, Owerri(GSSI) and Ahiazu Secondary School, Mbaise(ASSM) (representing the Owerri zone); Ibeafor Secondary School, Ehime Mbano(ISS) and Ezinachi Community Secondary School, Okigwe(ECSS) (representing Okigwe zone), Township Comprehensive Secondary School, Amaifeke(TCSS) and Community Secondary School, Amaokpara Umudei, Nkwerre(CSSN), (Orlu zone). These samples were systematically selected while the pretested and validated questionnaire distributed equitably to investigate students’ attitude towards the use of English as a medium of learning as well as the various challenges they encounter as second language learners of English. These students are young adults aged 15 years and above. However, the researcher sought consent from the school management and appropriate information regarding the study given to the respondents before commencement as it is wont prior to any data collection procedure in order to gain the trust of the respondents. The subjects for the interview were basically preschool teachers who are seen as groomers of these children as they make their ways to the academic world.

#### 2.3.2 Study Design

This is a cross-sectional questionnaire and structured interview-based survey study. The questionnaire was designed in the check-list format for ease of response and the eleven item questions were made to elicit objective selection from the under listed options. In order to supplement and substantiate the data collected and result, six- item structured interview questions were administered to pre-school teachers in order to ascertain their perception of English as a pedagogical tool for preschoolers. To achieve the purposes of the study which are to investigate the attitude of students towards English, explore teachers’ perception of English as a pedagogical tool and the undue challenges of learning with the target language, senior students from selected public secondary schools around the three major ethnic groups were chosen for the study as well as preschool teachers who are known to groom these pupils as they engage in official learning in their infantile stage. Although, the education policy postulates that learning should be done in the native language of the pupils but that has always been flouted because of the need and interest of all and sundry to acquire and further demonstrate their mastery of the target language. The copies of questionnaire were
disseminated to the students in the senior secondary levels in all the selected samples and the interview conducted among all the preschool teachers in the selected samples.

2.3.3 Sampling Technique
This study used the systematic random sampling for the selection of the samples for the questionnaire distribution and random sampling for the selection of interviewees. This involved systematic selection of two samples each from the list of all the secondary schools in the study areas and random picking of the teachers for the interviews at the preschool levels.

2.3.4 Study Instrument
Data for this research were collected using pre-tested and validated questionnaire and structured interview written by the researchers. The questionnaire was written in English and designed in a check-list format while stating the purpose of the study to aid comprehension by the respondents. The questionnaire comprised two parts; one centred on the demography of the participants which included: gender, student’s status, tribe and English proficiency level. The other part contained eleven items which addressed the following: their language of formal learning, the frequency of the English as a pedagogical tool, the possibility to fall back on one’s mother tongue for clarification of thoughts, the subjects students wish were taught in their local language, how fascinating do the students find English, students’ view about English, the assessment of teacher’s use of English as a means of knowledge transfer, the influence of the mother tongue in learning in English in schools, second language learners’ perception of English, the probable challenges that abound in the use of this target language in a multicultural Nigeria etc.

2.3.5 Data Collection
The ratified form of the questionnaire was distributed to the samples during normal school periods. The objectives of the study were clearly stated and the students showed great interest in the exercise. Informal verbal consent was sought from the heads of the various schools to enable us carry out this task. Data collection spanned approximately one hour considering the time spent on clarification of unfamiliar terms under the supervision of some senior members of staff. The structured interview data on the other hand, was organised for the preschool teachers during the break periods as agreed by the various heads after approval for the task was granted. Informal introduction was made which stirred the interest of the respondents and further set them at ease as well as the aims and significance of the study were undoubtedly elucidated. Responses to the interview were collected using the audio tape recorder having obtained consent from the respondents. Each interview session was introduced in order to avoid needless muddle up of responses. Ethical considerations were considered, reaffirmed and upheld during the duration of the data collection.

3. DATA ANALYSIS
The data obtained from both the questionnaire were analysed using frequency tables and simple percentage calculations.

A total of one thousand two hundred copies of questionnaire were distributed to the respondents in the six selected schools. Two hundred copies were equitably distributed to each school and the participants involved only the senior secondary students from SS1 TO SS3. The summary of the distribution and level of returns are presented herein.

Table 1 shows the response levels from the various schools. A total of one thousand two hundred copies were evenly distributed and the overall response rate was 74.6 % with GSSI having the highest return at 87% followed by TCSS with 80% and CSSN recorded the least return rate with 64.5%.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schools</th>
<th>No. Of Questionnaire distributed</th>
<th>No/% returned</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GSSI</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>174 (87%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AMSS</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>144 (72%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ISS</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>131 (65.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECSS</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>157 (78%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TCSS</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>160 (80%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSSN</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>129 (64.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>1200</td>
<td>895 (74.6%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key


AMSS = Ahiazu Mbaise Secondary School, Mbaise.

272
ISS = Ibeafor Secondary School, Ehime Mbano.

ECSS = Ezinachi Community Secondary School, Okigwe.

TCSS = Township Comprehensive Secondary School, Amaifeke.

CSSN = Community Secondary School, Nkwerre.

Table 2 indicates respondents’ first contact with English. Results showed that a good number of respondents represented by 30% of the population admitted to have encountered English in their primary school while 21% agreed that their use of the language at home was mere happenstance as it was the first language of communication.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First contact with English</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nursery</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>28.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>271</td>
<td>30.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>21.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>20.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>895</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
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</table>

Table 3 demonstrates respondents’ level of English proficiency and the results show that the ‘Good’ proficiency level had the highest percentage (28.0%) while the ‘Excellent’ proficiency level had the least percentage (11.1%).

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Level of proficiency in English</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Weak</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>20.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>231</td>
<td>25.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>28.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very good</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>14.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>895</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
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Language of formal learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language of formal learning</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>895</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Igbo</td>
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<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Igbo</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4 indicates the frequency of respondents’ responses on perception of the English language as a teaching medium. Data collected gave insights on the view of English among the secondary school students. Highlights on the responses on language of formal learning indicate that all of the respondents recorded at 100% admitted to the use of English as a language of formal learning in their school. Also, 53.1% of the students are at home with the status of English in Nigeria as against 3.0% who are atypical and so believe it should be eradicated. 44.0% of the respondents on the hand are of the view it should be used along with the indigenous languages. In addition, 58.4% attest to the fact that their mother tongue does not interfere with the teaching and understanding of lessons in English, while 27.3% affirm to the interference of their mother tongue in the understanding of lessons and 14.3% agree to the occasional interference of mother tongue. Similarly, 68.5% of the respondents accepted to fall back on their mother tongue for clarification of concepts in school while 14.5% have little or no need for mother tongue for clarification. 17.0% have occasional inkling to resort to their mother tongue.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ITEMS</th>
<th>RESPONSES</th>
<th>FREQ.</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>RESPONSES</th>
<th>FREQ.</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>RESPONSES</th>
<th>FREQ.</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What is your language of formal learning?</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>895</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>Igbo</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Others</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How often does your teacher use English as a means of knowledge transfer?</td>
<td>Very often</td>
<td>734</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>7.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you understand your lessons when being taught in English?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>795</td>
<td>88.8</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>8.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does your mother tongue influence your understanding of lessons taught in the English language?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>523</td>
<td>58.4</td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are there times you fall back on your mother tongue for clarification of concept?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>613</td>
<td>68.5</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>Often times</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>17.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are there subjects you wish were taught in your native language?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>573</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>297</td>
<td>33.2</td>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you find English fascinating?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>625</td>
<td>69.8</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>13.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is your view about English as a compulsory subject?</td>
<td>It should be eradicated in schools</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>I am pleased about its status</td>
<td>475</td>
<td>53.1</td>
<td>It should be used alongside other indigenous languages.</td>
<td>393</td>
<td>44.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
How do you rate your teacher’s use of English as a medium of knowledge transfer?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>533</td>
<td>26.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>233</td>
<td>11.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What challenges do you face as a second language learner of English in school?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenge</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inability to communicate effectively in the target language</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>12.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother tongue interference</td>
<td>493</td>
<td>24.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total disinterest in the English language</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total: 5,294 (591.9)

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
The use of English as an official and educational language cannot be undermined as all the students attested to the use of the language as a pedagogical tool in schools irrespective of the plethora of indigenous languages prevalent in the nation. This assertion was drawn from the data collected for the study where 100% of the respondents confirmed that the language of formal learning in school is English. This is in line with the National Education Policy (1977) which stipulated the use of English for academic instruction from the third year in primary school. This however, authenticates the unflinching stance which the language has attained in Nigeria.

Given the appreciative recognition of this foreign language in Nigeria, and the overall need to engage in meaningful communication with near perfection in English and impart positively on their wards, 82% of the teachers are quite sedulous in discharging their duties by constantly relishing their teaching skills in English for the purpose of knowledge transfer as well as enhancing students’ speaking and writing skills, 10.3% occasionally use the foreign language for academic instruction and 7.71% rarely make use of the language of educational instruction. The least percentage who owned up to the rarity of the English as medium of teaching was basically from some of the rural areas of the state where English is less used.

Speaking about comprehension of lessons being taught in English in schools, 88% of the respondents concurred to having undiluted understanding of lectures. 2.8% on the other hand, noted their incomprehensibility of their lectures in school as a result of the poor knowledge of English and 8.4% have a hard time with understanding lessons in school due to their staunch acculturation of their native language. These varied responses are attributed to the multicultural and multilingual nature of the country which have literally exposed and influenced the overall English usage of her citizens for mutual talk exchange and academic pursuit. This result is akin to (Anyanwu, 2016) study which observed that undergraduates’ complacent attitude towards English and socio-economic background are instrumental to the poor academic performance of students.

As a multilingual and multicultural nation, the nationals are regrettably exposed to the myriads of indigenous languages where English becomes the second language for all. First language usually has a very strong hold on its speakers thereby hindering comprehension of other spoken languages. The issue of mother tongue interference is a barraged concept which has stirred several debates by renowned scholars as to the possible ways to forestall the ever-growing influence of the local language in the understanding and smooth usage of the foreign language. Bilinguals are known to rely on their mother tongue for ease of expression of inner most thoughts and feelings, students are mostly affected in this rather regrettable trait where 27.3% of the respondents confirmed to the influence of their mother tongue in the understanding of their lessons while 58.4% admitted to non interference. However,
14.3% of the respondents agreed to occasional interference. This undue interference of the mother tongue during lessons understandably corresponds to the responses derived from the question which addressed the possibility of the students to fall back on their mother tongue for clarification of concepts in schools. The results revealed that 68.5% of the students often fall back on their native language for complete elucidation of ideas, while 14.5% found substituting with English for clarification of concepts needless, 17.0% admitted to intermittent recourse to their mother tongue.

Furthermore, in a bid to ascertain respondents’ view on the preferred language of education, 64% assented to the native language for easy comprehension of certain subjects, 33.2% were conceited about the use of English as a teaching medium while 2.8% of the respondents were utterly undecided in their response. Some of the respondents further listed a few subjects as: Civic Education, Physics, Geography, Chemistry and Basic Science. This is in line with the National Educational Policy which stipulates that English be used as a teaching instruction from the third year in Primary school and so a wish to have it the other way may result to exercise in futility. Similarly, this policy is akin to the situation in Finland where English studies begin formally at the third grade, (Roope, 2019). Due to the seeming difficulty in learning English and adapting to its usage particularly among students, 17.1% of the population do not find the language fascinating while 69.8% of them demonstrated high regard for the language. 13.1% on the other hand, were indecisive in their response. In addition, result from students’ views about English as a compulsory subject showed that 53.1% of the population are pleased with the status of English in national curriculum, 44.0% are of the opinion it should be used alongside other indigenous languages in order to prevent them from going moribund while 3.0% believe it should be eradicated from the school syllabus. This clearly shows the level of disinterest among students which is contributory to the wrong perception of the English language despite the manifold functions it plays in the society. A look at the teachers’ use of English as a medium of knowledge transfer reveals that a good number of them have demonstrated ‘good’ mastery of the language as agreed by 60% of the population, a handful exhibited ‘fair’ knowledge of the language concurred by 14.4% while 26% of the respondents attested to the ‘excellent’ proficiency in the language by their teachers. This result supports Reko (2019) study on the attitude of teachers of English as a second language and English as a foreign language which established that positive attribute towards the English birthed conformity to the norms of the language. As regards the challenges bilinguals face in schools, 28.5% revealed they have a hard time with effective communication in the target language, 55.1% confirmed the influence of mother tongue while 16.4% are totally indifferent in their view. These thorny challenges are what bilinguals are faced with in their bid to integrate in the society and engage in meaningful conversation with their fellows.

In addition, the structured and Key Person Interview which was designed to supplement and validate the findings of the questionnaire survey confirmed that teachers have their fair share when it comes to educating bilinguals in a target language. A good number of them agreed that most pupils understand their lessons in English owing to their early exposure to the language and so derive pleasure listening to the teachers in the classroom. On the contrary, a few interviewees disclosed that considering their rural background, understanding lessons in English is almost an arduous task as the teachers employ the use of vernacular as a remedial strategy. As Thompson (2019) pointed out in his study that teachers’ ability to adapt to the socio-cultural practises facilitate literacy and overall cognitive development of children. The teachers’ perception of English as a formal language was received with some positivism. Most of them affirmed its acceptance and efficacy in knowledge transfer and overall academic delivery while acknowledging inordinate hitches in its usage particularly for those in the bucolic areas. Majority of the interviewees admitted to the onerous nature of teaching preschoolers due to the gruelling task of nurturing their speaking and writing skills at that grade level. Furthermore, as an educational language and a compulsory subject in schools, teachers strive to synergise their teaching skills in order to accommodate all the pupils irrespective of one’s first language. On the issue of the challenges these teachers are faced with in the course of teaching the preschoolers, a good number of the teachers attested to the socio-cultural background of the new pupils as instrumental to the learning profundity which not only inhibits a child’s capacity to learn and understand lessons but culminates to unwillingness to participate in school activities. In introspect, most of the interviewees gave compelling insights as regards the challenges faced during teaching, some of which include: choice of words to suit the age and need of the pupils particularly the newbies, difficulty with understanding the phonetic pronunciation usually orchestrated by their backgrounds, lack of concentration, mother tongue interference etc. As a result, most of preceptors employ abecedarian
approach in order to salvage the situation and get the pupils properly indoctrinated in the system.

5. CONCLUSION

This study has x-rayed the unflinching status of English in Nigeria amidst plethora of undesirable perceptions by its users and the efforts to regenerate the general acceptance in the minds of students and society at large. These negative thoughts are birthed by the plurilingual nature of the country which nevertheless left the masses bilinguals and multilinguals as the case may be and the compulsory need to get acquainted with this global language for both societal integration and literacy. As a formal language, the English language has retained its pride of place in Nigeria, hence, the need for conformity and application of set rules. Data collected revealed the differing views of students as regards the use of English as a language of education ranging from the acceptance of its usage with the indigenous languages for fear of them going moribund although just a handful of the respondents opted for total eradication of the target language in the school curriculum. In conclusion, although English is alien to us considering its imposition by the colonialists, the need to uphold our native languages should not obviate the gap it tends to fill in our communication quest and academic competence. Students on the other hand should strive irrespective of socio-cultural, linguistic or economic backgrounds to swot up on communicative competence and overall academic performance through rigorous practice. Based on the findings of the study, the researchers make the following recommendations:

a. The need for regular trainings for public school teachers/ instructors as regards getting equipped with the nitty-gritty of the target language and attractive emoluments remunerated by the government in order to spur them for optimal discharge of their duties.

b. Parents should be made to know the need to be part and parcel of their ward’s academic growth especially from their infantile stage to ease the burden on the teachers.

c. Conducive learning environment be considered in all the schools to energise and encourage these students for the rigorous academic exercise.

d. Teachers must be resolute in their quest for knowledge transfer in a most passionate manner so much so that the students may find the need to learn and enjoy the use of this target language particularly in the classrooms.

e. A hands-on approach should be employed by all the educational bodies in Nigeria as a remedial strategy towards improving the learning system.

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REFERENCES


Reading Comprehension Difficulties Faced by Sudanese School Learners: A Case Study
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ARTICLE INFO
Received: September 14, 2019
Accepted: October 17, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume:2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.33

KEYWORDS
Reading problems, EFL learners, motivation, vocabulary, teaching methods, insufficient understanding.

ABSTRACT
The study intends to investigate the reading problems encountered by Sudanese EFL secondary school learners in reading texts and comprehension. The researchers prepared a questionnaire for EFL teachers and a test for EFL students as tools for data collection. The sample includes 20 teachers and 20 students randomly selected from El Hasahisa secondary schools in Gezira State, Sudan. The researchers used an analytical-descriptive method to collect data, which were further calculated and analyzed with SPSS Program. The findings indicate that Sudanese secondary school students face problems in reading and answering reading comprehension questions. Students’ lack of vocabulary, motivation, students’ inadequate understanding of the relationship and functions of words within sentences, idioms and figurative meanings, insufficient study material, lack of teacher’s training, traditional teaching methods contribute to the main barriers of reading and comprehending texts. The paper concludes with some concrete and constructive suggestions that would indubitably lessen these problems to get the desired performance.

1. INTRODUCTION
Reading is a complicated and interactive process comprising of psychological, linguistic, and sociological facets. Learning EFL today has become a need of the hour and improving English proficiency gains a significant position in this language acquisition (Sharma, 2018:56). The reader in this process constructs the meaning of the texts and relates to his personal experience. This activity involves greater levels of attentiveness and adds to the conversational skills of the reader. Today, in this era of development globally, it is considered an essential skill required for success. However, efficient reading is an intricate and painstaking skill to master due to its complex process. In reading, readers do not only rely on the features of the text they are facing but it also involves the features of readers and tasks (Ebrahimi, 2012). This leads to tailor reading instruction to help students get through the reading process effectively. Effective reading means a better understanding of the text, and what the writer tries to present in his writing. This requires readers to have prior knowledge, personal experience and competence to correlate with the text while reading. Razali and Razali (2013) stated that some readers use their background of knowledge and experience to compose meaning from the text in the reading process, and then the readers will connect the ideas in the text to what they already know in order to get the comprehension of the text. Even most people can comprehend the material what they read after reading word-by-word and they are spending a lot of time repeating the difficult term of the text. The research will ensue through the research objectives, varied reading problems, research methods of data collection and analysis, discussion and finally conclusion bringing up some suggestions to improve the vital communication skill.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW
It is believed that there are good reasons for using the extensive reading procedure much more than it is being used today. One could argue that students "learn to read by reading" (Smith, 1985: 88) and that "comprehension will take care of itself" (Pearson, cited in Cooper, 1987: 77). In other words, students with a certain level of ability in English can learn to read by extensive reading alone. Experiments have shown (if not conclusively) that reading ability can

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improve as much with extensive reading as with skills training (Robb & Susser, 1989). At present, we cannot claim that extensive reading is sufficient for most EFL students to learn to read English. Most likely, skills and strategies training are also necessary. However, we also observe that the existing reading instruction focusing on teaching (skills and strategies) training isn’t at par. As Jolley (1985) believed that, because students do not spontaneously apply the skills presented in skill lessons, instruction and activities to encourage the development and automatic use of comprehension skills must be incorporated into daily instruction. The general reading procedure comprises just this kind of activity. Further, the students don’t get the opportunity to use English outside of class. The wide exposure to a bit longer tasks of reading simple and easy passages and books will indubitably boost exposure to the target language, perhaps better than translation or skills assignments, which may involve cognitive skills in the native language. Moreover, extensive and wide reading paves the way to tremendous resources of building plans and strategies. Through this route, the teachers may anticipate students develop their reading skills and good performance ahead.

It is noteworthy to mention that a motivated, keen and aspiring student develops his reading that side-by-side also develops his writing skills. Over time, students improve their vocabulary, reading propensity and writing skill. Conversely, a student with low reading ability will encounter many problems in learning process. Moreover, the students will feel ashamed in adapting themselves to their school environment. On the contrary, the onus lies on teachers to equip with more skills in teaching grammar and vocabulary that facilitate easy, fast and sound learning. Teaching reading should pursue a sole idea to enhance students’ ability and knowledge of the material of the reading text. Such as: the ability to read various texts in English, the ability to adjust reading styles according to the purpose of reading (i.e., skimming, scanning), and the ability to have a critical perspective on the content of the texts (Alyousef, 2005).

3. PROBLEMS OF EFL STUDENTS IN READING SKILLS

Many students consider how to learn to read is one of the most wearisome and tedious activities they ever visage. This phenomenon, all too often, substantially becomes constriction that not only demotivates but also scares them away from reading. The barriers they face constantly overshadow their desire to read, without proper guidance, they never overcome them. (Smith, 1994:26) In fact, the presence of reading difficulty cases in secondary schools in Sudan constitutes a serious problem in academic development. Sanford (2015) considers that one of the most important factors that impede students’ reading comprehension is phonemic awareness, the ability to process the individual sounds of letters, which is needed for word recognition. Poor working memory, lack of vocabulary knowledge low prior knowledge, lack of breadth in vocabulary and motivation are other factors that may influence students’ reading process. Sharma (2018) observes that there are differences in pronouncing vowels and consonants in English and few sounds don’t exist in the Arabic language. Schroder (2005) suggests that reading difficulties nearly occur on a continuum, which includes students experiencing reading difficulties, students with a learning difficulty, numerous students who just need good reading assistance and students who make effort and struggle with reading. It doesn’t conclude all who cannot read well are disabled readers but some are. Conversely, some of the students who are seemingly progressing fairly well are in reality reading difficulty cases (Al-Khuli, 2000).

Reading difficulty comprises of features such as: difficulties in single word reading, initial difficulties decoding or sounding out words, difficulties reading sight words, insufficient phonological processing; the understanding that sentences are comprised of words, words are made up of syllables and syllables are made up of individual sounds or phonemes, expressive or receptive language difficulties and difficulties with comprehension. The processing difficulties may also be revealed in spelling and writing. Lundberg and Hoien (2001) assert that the reading difficulties are not the result of generalized developmental delay or sensory impairment, therefore, a student with a reading difficulty shows difficulties in reading skills that are unexpected in relation to cognitive ability, intervention, quantity and quality of instruction, and age. Besides, difficulties with reading, decoding, comprehension, retention are a few that contribute to reading problems.

The objectives, research questions, material, methods, data collection, analysis, discussion and conclusion are explained in the succeeding paragraphs.

4. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The study intends to achieve the following objectives:
1. To investigate difficulties that EFL secondary school learners face in reading and comprehension
2. To suggest possible teaching techniques that improves students’ reading comprehension.

5. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The study attempts to answer the following questions:
1. What are the difficulties that EFL secondary school learners face in reading and comprehension?  
2. To what extent can extensive reading improve students reading comprehension?

6. MATERIAL AND METHOD
The participants of this study were EFL secondary school students and teachers at El Hasahisa Locality, Gezira State, Sudan. A questionnaire for (20) EFL teachers and a written test were prepared for 20 EFL students for data collection. The test includes five areas of assessment: reading comprehension, vocabulary, grammar, and punctuation. The students are asked to answer the comprehension questions and fill gaps with a suitable vocabulary and grammar that fit the meaning of the English language context. They are also asked to write with correct spelling and punctuation in the test. The data collection, analysis and results using statistical analysis are discussed herewith.

6. DATA ANALYSIS

The analysis of the Teachers’ Questionnaire:
Statement 1 Some reading materials are difficult to understand because of many idioms and figurative meanings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
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</tr>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table & diagram (1) Difficulty of many idioms and figurative meanings

According to the statistical analysis of table (1), most respondents (60%) agree and (40%) neutral that, some reading materials are difficult to understand because of many idioms and figurative meanings. The result concurs with Sharma (2018:43) that the curriculum must contain unambiguous and unequivocal goals and objectives.

Statement 2 Some reading passages are difficult because of many new words.

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Percent</th>
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<td>Agree</td>
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<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table & diagram (2) Some reading passages are difficult because of many new words. Table (2) shows that most respondents (65%) disagree, (15%) neutral and (20%) agree that, some reading passages are difficult because there are many new words.

Statement 3 Students find it difficult to comprehend the sentences that have complex structures.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
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<td>25.0</td>
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<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table & diagram (3) Students find it difficult in the sentences that have complex structure

Table and diagram (3) show that most respondents agree that, students find it difficult to comprehend the sentences that have complex structures. The results show (70%) sample agree, (25%) neutral and (5%) disagree with the statement.

Statement 4 Many reading materials are difficult because they don’t have enough background knowledge.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Frequency</th>
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<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative %</th>
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<tbody>
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</tbody>
</table>
According to the statistical analysis of table (4), most respondents (40%) agree, (35%) neutral and (25%) disagree that many reading materials are difficult because they don’t have enough background knowledge.

**Statement 5** Students find difficulties in understanding the words with different syntactical functions and varieties of ‘inflectional endings’

<table>
<thead>
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</table>

**Statement 6** Students have difficulty understanding the materials because of poor strategy use.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
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<td>15.0</td>
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<tr>
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<td>20.0</td>
<td>20.0</td>
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<tr>
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<td>65.0</td>
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<td>Total</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table (6) Students’ difficulty in understanding the materials because of poor strategy

According to the statistical analysis of the statement understanding the materials because of poor strategy most respondents (65%) agree, (20%) neutral and (15%) disagree that students have difficulty use.

Statement 7 The reading passage may be difficult when the author’s and students’ cultures are different

<table>
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<td></td>
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<td>100.0</td>
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<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table & Diag. (7) Reading passage may be difficult when the author’s and students’ cultures are different

The statistical analysis in the table (7) shows that, most respondents (75%) agree, (15%) neutral and (10%) disagree that the reading passage may be difficult when the author’s and students’ cultures are different.

Statement 8 Students often get frustrated when reading English texts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Valid</th>
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<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative %</th>
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<td>25.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20.0</td>
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<tr>
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<td>20</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table (8) Students often get frustrated when reading English texts

Table (8) shows that most respondents (20%) agree and (25%) neutral and (55%) disagree that students often get frustrated when reading English texts.

**Statement 9** Reading passages are difficult because they cannot predict what would come next

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table & Diag. (9) Reading passages cannot predict what would come next

Table (9) shows that reading passages are difficult because they cannot predict what would come next, (85%) of respondents disagree and (15%) neutral with the statement.

**Statement 10** Teachers’ training impacts on students’ ability in reading

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
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<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
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<tr>
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<td>Agree</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
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</table>
Table (10) Teachers’ training impacts on students’ ability in reading

Diagram and table (10) show that the whole of respondents (100%) agree that, teachers’ training impacts on students’ ability in reading.

The Analysis of the Test: Comprehension Skills: Short answers

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Options</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Write correct answers</td>
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<td>45.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not able to write correct answers</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>45.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the statistical analysis of table (11), only (45%) of the sample comprehend the text successfully and wrote the correct answer to the comprehension questions. However, (10%) of the sample to some extent comprehend the text as they have some problems related to the lack of awareness about reading comprehension. However, (45%) of the sample was not able to write correct answers. It seems that those students who encountered many problems in reading comprehension.

Writing the correct Vocabulary:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>10</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Write incorrect vocabulary</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to the statistical analysis of table (12), half of the sample writes with correct English vocabulary items in the test. However, (20%) of the students have a few vocabulary items to use in the test and (30%) of the sample failed to write with correct vocabulary.

### Using Correct Grammar in the English Language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Using correct grammar</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>60.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fail to use correct grammar</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the statistical analysis of table (13), over half of the sample (60%) writes with correct grammar in the written test. Besides, (15%) of the respondents to some extent write the grammar in the test and (25%) of the students use incorrect grammar in the test.

### Punctuation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Write with correct punctuation</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fail to write with correct punctuation</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Reading Comprehension Difficulties Faced by Sudanese School Learners: A Case Study

Table and diagram (14) EFL learners’ punctuation

According to the statistical analysis of table (14), only (40%) of the sample write the answers with correct punctuation, (30 %) of the sample to some extent write punctuation and (30 %) of the sample failed in writing with correct punctuation in the test.

8. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
A questionnaire for the teachers of secondary schools and a test for the students were used for data collection. The data analysis shows that many students find difficulties in reading comprehension. The findings of the study indicate that Sudanese secondary school students face problems in reading and answering reading comprehension questions. Lack of motivation, vocabulary, interest and anxiety also deter students reading comprehension. Many students still depend on the dictionary when they find new words or difficult words in the text. It makes them unable to understand the meaning of the words contextually and the text thoroughly. Students’ inadequate understanding of the relationship and functions of words within sentences often cause reading problems. Therefore, many idioms and figurative meanings in text deter them to comprehend the text.

In the analyses of the test, table (11) shows that only (45%) of the sample comprehend the text successfully and wrote the correct answer of the comprehension questions. The statistical analysis of table (12) also shows that only half of the sample writes with correct English vocabulary items in the test. However, in the table (13) (60%) of the sample write with correct grammar in written test and finally, table (14) affirms only (40%) of the sample write the answers with correct punctuation.

9. CONCLUSION
This study aims at exploring the causes of EFL students’ difficulties in reading skills and comprehension. The results from the data analysis point to the dependency of students on dictionary to find the meanings of new words or difficult words in the text, anxiety to understand the meaning of the words contextually, difficulties in reading related to syntactic analysis and semantic analysis, inadequate understanding of the relationship and functions of words within sentences, poor language knowledge and use of idioms and figurative meanings in text are some of the major problems the students encounter in reading skill. It makes imperative for the teachers to plan and create activities connecting students’ interest and curriculum to arouse students’ involvement, fun, and keenness to pursue extensive reading. The teachers ought to conjointly devise, evolve and adopt new teaching methods and approaches to facilitate, help and guide students to develop reading skills that lead to better comprehend the given texts. Organizing training programs for teachers, enrich-activity-based curriculum, establishing language laboratory, using authentic educational websites, availability of state-of-the-art academic resources are a few that may facilitate teachers and students to smoothen the teaching-learning process. Furthermore, most students are addicted to social media (SM) and the teacher can make the most effective use of it to plan-arrange various activities at par with learning objectives and the studies proved worth helping the students in the language learning process. Sharma (2019) mentioned that the students’ interaction on SM enables them to produce the target language; listening, reading and then write comments, and ask questions, which in turn develops a learner-centered approach, augments motivation and creates a well-controlled active learning environment. This research doesn’t confine its scope to students’ reading difficulties though opens new boulevards for researchers to explore more in other realms of language learning and acquisition in the future.

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REFERENCES


The Impact of Translation Techniques Toward Translation Quality of Logical Metaphor as Conjunctive Relation in the Indonesian Version “Pride and Prejudice”
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ARTICLE INFO
ABSTRACT

Received: September 24, 2019
Accepted: October 27, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.34

The aims of this study are to identify translation techniques of logical metaphor as conjunctive relation in the Indonesian version of novel “Pride and Prejudice”, and its effect on translation quality of logical metaphor in accuracy, acceptability, and readability aspects. This descriptive qualitative research is an embedded-cased study and oriented to translation products. The data were collected by document analysis, focus group discussion and analyzed by Spradley’s data analysis method. The results show that the translation techniques established equivalence, explicitation, transposition and modulation contributed to the translation quality. Meanwhile, creative discursive, paraphrase, generalization, particularization and deletion decreased the translation quality. This implies that translators should consider logical metaphor in translating commands.

KEYWORDS
logical metaphor, conjunctive relation, translation techniques, translation quality

1. INTRODUCTION

According to Bell (1991: 36), a translator should meet five distinct conditions, namely having access to source language knowledge, target language knowledge, text type knowledge, subject area knowledge, and contrastive knowledge. However, Sriyono (2012) added that translators should also pay close attention to symbols in the source text and endeavor to maintain in the target text. To realize the unity of source text and target text, one of the symbols that should be noticed is the conjunctive relation. How the conjunctive relation that signifies the logical relationship between clauses, sentences or paragraphs is formed, would affect whether the cohesion of a text could be interpreted and examined properly.

Conjunctive relation is the concept of systemic functional linguistics, expressing logical meaning in the logic of discourse. Santosa (2011) indicated that the logic of discourse generally is considered to be realized through conjunctions, but according to Martin and Rose (2003), the logic of discourse can also be realized by continuatives and logical metaphor. The three forms of realizing logic of discourse are referred to as conjunctive relations. Logical metaphor is another kind of conjunctions, which is rendered by verbs, nouns and other grammatical classes.

The former researches related to the translation of conjunctive relation are mainly focused on conjunctions, and the recreation of logical structure in translation. Krisztina (2016) founded that the number of conjunctions and relational propositions in translation no statistically significant shifts occur, but in their quality and the hierarchical organization of relational propositions considerable shifts appear, even affecting the global meaning of the target text. The results may be attributed to a special set of discourse-level translation strategies, forming part of translator’s discourse competence. Sriyono (2017) compared conditional conjunctions in English and Indonesian legal texts, the results showed that inappropriate technique in translating conditional conjunctions may cause multi interpretation. Besides, explicitness and implicitness of conditional conjunctions between source text and target text are also identified by translation techniques applied. Pan (2013) also compared conjunctive relation in two legal subgenres to find how translators configure the logical flow of translations. It was showed that conjunctive patterns in the two subgenres had two different trends, tending to become implicit in one of the subgenre translations and to become explicit in another subgenre translation. This may be caused by cross-linguistics differences and extra-linguistic factors.
However, conjunctions are not the only way to realize the logic of discourse, and the translation quality would also reflect the competence of translators more directly. Accordingly, this research aims to study the translation techniques of logical metaphor and its effect on translation quality.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Logical Metaphor

Conjunctions can be reconstrued as other kinds of elements, including processes, things, qualities, and circumstances. This kind of conjunctions is called logical metaphor. It is used to reconstrue logical relations between figures as if they were relations between elements within figures (Martin and Rose, 2007). The classification of logical metaphor is based on the classification of Martin and Rose (2007) and Santosa (2011).

2.1.1 Logic as process

Logic as process means that conjunctive relation is realized with the verbal group that acts as predicate in grammatical functions or as process in transitivity. There are four types of meaning in this kind of logical metaphor, namely addition, comparison, time and consequence.

2.1.2 Logic as Circumstance

It is called logic as circumstance because it acts as adjunct in the grammatical functions and as circumstance in transitivity. There are three types of logical meaning in this kind of logical metaphor.

2.1.3 Logic as things

Logic as things is presented on the subject or complement in the grammatical functions or on the participant in transitivity. So, this kind of logical metaphor is found inside noun group. It has two logical meaning, namely comparison and consequence.

2.2 Translation Techniques

According to Molina and Alibir (2002), most studies of translation techniques do not seem to fit in with the dynamic nature of translation equivalence. In their opinion, a technique can only be judged meaningfully when it is evaluated within a particular context. Therefore, translation techniques are not good or bad in themselves, they are used functionally and dynamically. In the light of the above, a proposal to classify translation techniques are made by them, including:

**Amplification.** To introduce details that are not formulated in the ST, including information and explicative paraphrasing. This includes SCFA’s explicitation, Delisle’s addition, Margot’s legitimate paraphrase, Newmark’s explicative paraphrase and Delisle’s periphrasis and paraphrase. Footnotes are also a type of amplification.

**Reduction.** To suppress a ST information item in the TT. This includes SCFA’s and Delisle’s implicitation, concision, and Vázquez Ayora’s omission. It is the opposite of amplification.

**Borrowing.** To take a word or expression straight from another language. It can be pure (without any change), or it can be naturalized (to fit the spelling rules in the TL). Pure borrowing corresponds to SCFA’s borrowing. Naturalized borrowing corresponds to Newmark’s naturalization technique.

**Calque.** Literal translation of a foreign word or phrase; it can be lexical or structural. This corresponds to SCFA’s acceptation.

**Compensation.** To introduce a ST element of information or stylistic effect in another place in the TT because it cannot be reflected in the same place as in the ST. This corresponds SCFA’s conception.

**Description.** To replace a term or expression with a description of its from or/and function.

**Discursive creation.** To establish a temporary equivalence that is totally unpredictable out of context. This coincides with Delisle’s proposal.

**Established equivalent.** To use a term or expression recognized (by dictionaries or language in use) as an equivalent in the TL. This corresponds to SCFA’s equivalence and literal translation.

**Generalization.** To use a more general or neutral term. This coincides with SCFA’s acceptation.

**Particularization.** To use a more precise or concrete term. This also coincides with SCFA’s acceptation. It is in opposition to generalization.

**Linguistic amplification.** To add linguistic elements. This is often used in consecutive interpreting and dubbing.

**Linguistic compression.** To synthesize linguistic elements in the TT. This is often used in simultaneous interpreting and in sub-titling. It is the opposite of linguistic amplification.

**Literal translation.** To translate a word or an expression word for word. In contrast to the SCFA definition, it does not mean translating one word for another. Molina and Alibir’s literal translation
correspond to Nida’s formal equivalent; when form coincides with function and meaning. It is the same as SCFA’s literal translation.

**Modulation.** To change the point of view, focus or cognitive category in relation to ST; it can be lexical or structural. This coincides with SCFA’s acceptation.

**Substitution.** To change linguistic elements for paralinguistic elements or vice versa. It is used above all in interpreting.

**Transposition.** To change a grammatical category.

**Variation.** To change linguistic or paralinguistic elements that affect aspects of linguistic variation: changes of textual tone, style, social dialect, geographical dialect, etc.

3. Translation Quality Assessment (TQR)

This assessment is intended to measure the quality of the translation text from English to Indonesian. This study is going to apply the TQR instruments from Nababan et al. (2012). The TQR model they proposed aims to evaluate the translation quality from English to Indonesian. Translation quality evaluated includes accuracy, acceptability, and readability. The level of translation accuracy is set by how accurate or equivalent the message from the source language transferred into the target language. The level of translation acceptability is set by deciding whether the message from the source language text has been conveyed in accordance with the rules, norms, and culture of the target language. The level of translation readability refers to the degree of ease of the translated text to be understood by the target readers.

There are three instruments for translation quality assessment in the TQR model: (1) Translation Accuracy Assessment Instrument, (2) Translation Acceptability Assessment Instrument, (3) Translation Readability Assessment Instrument. Each of the instruments includes three parts: (1) Translation category, (2) Scores with the scale from 1 to 3, which is arranged in an inverted pyramid form, (3) Description of parameters.

Table 2.1 Translation Accuracy Assessment Instrument

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Translation Category</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Qualitative Parameters</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accurate</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>The meanings of words, technical terms, phrases, clauses, sentences or source language texts accurately transferred into the target language; absolutely no meaning distortions occur.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less Accurate</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Most of the meanings of words, technical terms, phrases, clauses, sentences or source language texts had been transferred accurately into the target language. However, there are still distortions of meaning, translation of double meanings or the meanings are deleted, which disturb the integrity of message.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inaccurate</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>The meanings of words, technical terms, phrases, clauses, sentences or source language texts are not accurately transferred into the target language, or totally deleted.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(adopted from Nababan et al., 2002: 50)

Table 2.2 Translation Acceptability Assessment Instrument

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Translation Category</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Qualitative Parameters</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acceptable</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>The translations are natural; the technical terms are commonly used and familiar to the reader; phrases, clauses, and sentences are in accordance with the rules of the Indonesian language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less Acceptable</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>In general, the translation already feels natural; however, there are few problems in the use of technical terms or grammatical errors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unacceptable</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>The translations are not natural; the technical terms are not commonly used and not familiar to the readers; phrases, clauses, and sentences are not in accordance with the rules of Indonesian language.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(adopted from Nababan et al., 2002: 50)
Table 2.3 Translation Readability Assessment Instrument

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Translation Category</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Qualitative Parameters</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Readable</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>The readers can understand the words, technical terms, phrases, clauses, sentences, or translation texts easily.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less readable</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>In general, the readers can understand the translations; however, there are certain parts that require to be read more than once to understand.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unreadable</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>The readers cannot understand the translation.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(adopted from Nababan et al., 2002: 50)

The three instruments above show the scale from 1 to 3. The higher the score given by the raters, the more accurate, acceptable, and readable the translation resulted. In contrast, the lower the score is given to the translation, the less accurate, acceptable, and readable the translation resulted.

3. METHODOLOGY

This study led to the translation product. Research about translation products can be done by comparing the source text with the target text. Translation units of this study are a logical metaphor as conjunctive relation in the novel “pride and prejudice” and its translation in Indonesian. The data were analyzed to achieve the research objective: to find the translation techniques used in the logical metaphor in the novel “pride and prejudice” and its influence toward translation quality inaccuracy, acceptability, and readability.

Besides, this descriptive qualitative study is an embedded case study, the study focuses on the logical metaphor in the novel “pride and prejudice” and this focus is based on the objectives and interests of the research before the researcher enters the ground (Supoto, 2006).

The sources of data used in this research are “pride and prejudice” and its Indonesian translations. The data are all logical metaphors founded in the novel.

Affective data were collected by document analysis. Then in the focus group discussion, questionnaires were distributed to three informants (raters) to collect the respondents about translation techniques and translation quality of logical metaphors.

Data were analyzed by Spradley’s data analysis method (Spradely, 1980). In domain analysis, the researcher collects all the effective data in the novel. In Taxonomy analysis, researcher classified all the translation techniques employed by translator and translation quality which had been collected in the focus group discussion. In componential analysis, the components in domain analysis and taxonomy analysis were connected together, researcher could analyze the impacts of translation techniques toward translation quality. In the final stage, researcher could describe the characteristic of pattern among domain and taxonomy.

4. RESULTS AND DISCCUSION

Table 4.1 The relation of Logical Metaphor, Translation Techniques, and Translation Quality in the Novel Pride and Prejudice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Logical Metaphor</th>
<th>Translation Techniques</th>
<th>Translation Quality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Accuracy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L as C</td>
<td>Established Equivalent</td>
<td>62 - -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Modulation</td>
<td>3 - -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Transposition</td>
<td>5 - -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Explicitation</td>
<td>19 - -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Discursive Creation</td>
<td>- 1 2 1 2 1 -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Paraphrase</td>
<td>- 3 - - 3 - -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Particulartization</td>
<td>- 1 - - 1 - -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Deletion</td>
<td>- - 6 - 6 - -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L as P</td>
<td>Established Equivalent</td>
<td>26 - -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Modulation</td>
<td>7 - -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Transposition</td>
<td>7 - -</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Impact of Translation Techniques Toward Translation Quality of Logical Metaphor as Conjunctive Relation in the Indonesian Version Pride and Prejudice

From the table above, we could know that 9 translation techniques are used on the logical metaphor in the novel *Pride and Prejudice*, namely established equivalent, modulation, transposition, explicitation, discursive creation, paraphrase, generalization, particularization, and deletion.

Translation techniques that contribute to translation accuracy are established equivalence, modulation, transposition, and explicitation. Established equivalent can be implemented if the translators maintain the logical metaphor in the target language. This technique is mostly used in translating logical metaphor, that suggests that even though English and Indonesian have different language systems, but still share a great similarity in logical metaphor. Modulation changes the cognitive category relation to the ST but not changing the category of logical metaphor, i.e. logic as circumstance “at this time of year” becomes logic as circumstance “pada masa seperti ini”. The logical form and meaning are still maintained in the TT. Transposition changes grammatical category, i.e. logic as process “was added” becomes logic as circumstance “sebagai tambahan”. Category logic as process was translated into logic as circumstance, but the translation is still logical metaphor and the logical meaning addition is also maintained. The explicitation technique also produces accurate translation, with changing the form of conjunctive relation. Conjunctive relation that realized in logical metaphor in the ST was translated into continuatives and conjunctions. i.e. logic as thing “consequence” becomes conjunctions “karenanya”. Conjunctive relation was realized in conjunctions in the TT and logical meaning is still consequence. In addition, the translation techniques mentioned above also contributed to acceptability and readability.

Discursive creation, paraphrase, generalization, and particularization may result in less accurate translation. The application of those translation techniques discarded the logical form and meaning of logical metaphor in the translation. i.e. Generalization: logic as process “continued” becomes “kata”. Logic as process “continued” not only has meaning ‘continue to do something’, but also has the logical meaning time, sequencing the event in the context. “Kata” only has the meaning ‘to say’ but not having the logical meaning that is implicit in the ST. Thus, the message in the ST could not be able to represent integrally in the TT.

Most of the inaccurate translation was resulted in the application of deletion, only few translations were translated by discursive creation. Deletion (omission) belongs to the translation technique reduction (Molina and Albir, 2002). “Omission is the unjustifiable suppression of elements in the ST.” (ibid). In other words, this translation technique was used to delete the wordy phrases in the ST. But this opinion is contrary to what is found in this research. What the translator deleted is not the wordy phrases but the logical metaphor in the ST. In this way, the integrity of message in the TT declined. Besides, it is worth noting that some translations maintained the form and meaning of logical metaphor were still evaluated inaccurate, i.e. Discursive creation: logic as process “continued” becomes logic as process “mengakhiri”. The logical form and meaning in the translation are the same as in the ST. But if “continued” was translated into “melanjutkan” would be more appropriate. The meaning of the source language was improperly transferred.

In the acceptability aspect, except the established equivalence, modulation, transposition and explicitation contributed to the translation acceptability, discursive creation, generalization, particularization also produce acceptable translations, since the words used by the translator are in accordance in the rules of Indonesian language. Less acceptable translations were resulted in the use of paraphrase and discursive creation, because there are still some problems in using words in the translation.
All the unacceptable translations were found in applying deletion. Since the logical metaphor in the ST was deleted in the TT, the translation naturally is unacceptable.

Finally, as to translation readability, only one translation was evaluated less readable, which was attributed to the use of discursive creation. All the unreadable translation was imputed to using deletion. The rest of the translation techniques all produce readable translations.

According to Nababan et al. (2002: 49), the evaluation of translation accuracy, acceptability, and readability was done separately. Therefore, the translation may be evaluated less accurate, but has a high score in acceptability and readability.

5. CONCLUSIONS
In this research, the researcher found 9 translation techniques used by the translator in translating logical metaphor in the novel “pride and prejudice”. They are established equivalent, modulation, transposition, explicitation, discursive creation, paraphrase, generalization, particularization, and deletion. Established equivalent is the translation technique which mostly used by the translator.

The translation techniques give an influence for the translation quality. Established equivalent, modulation, transposition, explicitation produce accurate translation, while the application of discursive creation, paraphrase, generalization, particularization produce less accurate translations. Discursive creation also produces inaccurate translations, so does the deletion technique.

The acceptable translations were resulted in the used of established equivalent, modulation, transposition, explicitation, discursive creation, generalization, and particularization. Some of the less acceptable translations were produced by applying discursive creation, the others were from the paraphrase’s application. All the unacceptable translations were due to applying the translation technique deletion.

Only one translation of logical metaphor was evaluated less readable in the novel “pride and prejudice”, because of using discursive creation. Meanwhile, the translation technique deletion produces all the unreadable translations. The rest of the translation techniques have a good influence on the translation readability.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT
This paper is part of my Master’s thesis, I wish to thank my two supervisors Prof. Drs. M. R. Nababan, M.Ed., M.A, Ph.D and Prof. Drs. Riyadi Santosa, M.Ed., Ph.D., for their support and guidance throughout the entire research and writing process.

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REFERENCES


English Interference Found in Indonesian Magazines

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ARTICLE INFO

Received: September 17, 2019
Accepted: October 19, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.35

KEYWORDS

interference, English, Indonesian, bilingualism

ABSTRACT

This study focused on English interference found in Indonesian magazines. Interference is one of bilingualism aspects that occur when a speaker learns a second language. In this case, the interference of English into Indonesian found in the magazines was chosen because most articles in the magazines use English words in their articles which conveyed the occurrence of English interference in Indonesian. This study intended 1) to identify the interference of English in Indonesian magazines, especially identifying the forms of English interference in the Indonesian articles found in Indonesian magazines, namely Tempo and Cosmopolitan Indonesia 2) determine the factors that causing the interference of English in those Indonesian magazines. This study used descriptive qualitative method by applying it to analyze the data, especially the English words and phrases that applied in the Indonesian texts. The units of analysis of this research are English words and phrases used in the Indonesian articles found in Tempo and Cosmopolitan Indonesia magazines. The magazines were chosen because there were many English words found almost in every pages of the magazines. This study becomes interesting because there are many English words can be found in the magazines, but people are often confused whether those words have already adapted as the Indonesian vocabulary or not, besides many people are not familiar with the Indonesian equivalences for many English words that usually applied in the Indonesian text. This circumstance can be either beneficial or harmful to the existence of certain language as well as the ability of the speaker to communicate in a certain language properly. The analysis found that the lexical interference occurred in both magazines. The factors caused the English interference in the Indonesian magazines are the lack of knowledge, bilingualism, lack of vocabularies mastered by the writers, prestige, style, and the synonym needs.

1. INTRODUCTION

Language has an important role as a means of communication. It is always evolving and adapting in accordance with the speakers’ needs. The contact occurring between people in different purposes caused the development of the languages. The contact between people promotes the occurrence of language interplay, especially in the speech community in which the contact between languages occurred as the consequences of the interaction between the people.

Two or more languages are considered in contact if they are used alternately by the same person. The use of two languages alternately is called bilingualism. This phenomenon occurs in the community as a result of people familiarity with more than one language. This condition also promotes the occurrence of interference phenomena. Interference as a result of the implementation of the introduction of foreign language, such as English in the Indonesian sentence or utterance, implies the arrangement of certain part of English element in Indonesian grammatical form, such as sentence or clause. The addition of some areas of vocabulary, elements of syntax and morphology can be found in the interference phenomena. Especially English interference in Indonesian magazines. Interference can be seen as the invasion of foreign...
languages into Indonesian. If this invasion does not properly handle it will disrupt the rules found in the Indonesian language system.

In Indonesia, English is known as the most common foreign language that is widely used by the people. This language is acquired from teaching and learning activity conducted at school or course. Therefore, there are a lot of Indonesians who are able to speak or at least having ability to comprehend spoken English, since English is one of international language, people often add some English words in their communication using Indonesian language. This phenomenon can be seen in the movie dialogues, newspapers, books, magazines, or social media. People often add English words in their Indonesian utterances for different purposes, one of them is to add prestige in their utterance.

Based on the background above, this topic is interesting to be discussed. This study is intended 1) to identify the interference of English in Indonesian magazines, especially identifying the forms of English interference in the Indonesian articles found in Indonesian magazines, namely Tempo and Cosmopolitan Indonesia 2) determine the factors that causing the interference of English in those Indonesian magazines.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Interference

Weinreich (1970) states that language interference causes deviations. He argues that “those instances of deviation from the norm of either language which occurs in the speech of bilinguals as a result of their familiarity with more than one language, will be referred to as interference phenomena. Language interference commonly occurs in an open society, either in bilingual or multilingual countries, such as Indonesia.

In the process of interference, Chaer and Agustina (2004) stated there are three elements that take significant role, namely.

1) The source language, is a source of interference. A language that give or affects other languages as dominant language in a society, so that the elements of language are often borrowed for the purposes of communication between members of the community, it is normally the learner’s native language.

2) The target language or recipient language; is that in which communication is being attempted. In the case of a learner, it is the language he/she learning when uses it. This language receives the source language elements, and then aligns the rules of pronunciation and writing into the target or recipient language.

3) The elements of importation; are the elements given in another language and then switch from a foreign language into the target language. That is the deviant linguistic system actually employed by the learner attempting to utilize the target language.

3. METHODOLOGY

Data of this study were taken from two magazines, namely Tempo and Cosmopolitan Indonesia, *February edition*. Both magazines are Indonesian magazine with a lot of English interference phenomenon found in the articles. Data were collected by observation method and analyzed by descriptive qualitative method in order to identify the types of interference found in the magazines and also the factors causing the interference.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 4.1 The occurrence of lexical interference

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lexical Interference</th>
<th>Occurrence of lexical interference</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English words with Indonesian equivalence</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>98%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English words without Indonesian equivalence</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This part discussed the results of the observation conducted on both Tempo and Cosmopolitan Indonesia magazines. It was found that the Cosmopolitan Indonesia magazine has higher occurrences of lexical interferences of English language, with 60 occurrences, than those found in Tempo magazine, only 27 occurrences, since Cosmopolitan was established in USA and published in Indonesia by PT. Higina Alhadin. Besides, the topics that covered modern lifestyle, trend and fashion also caused the use of English lexical terms in every article because the trend, modern lifestyle and fashion published in the magazine were come from western
country. Of 89 English words, 87 words have their Indonesian equivalences in Indonesian, and two of them have borrowed the English terms since the terms have not got their Indonesian equivalences yet.

4.1 Lexical Interference

Vannestal (2009) explains that interference is the contact that takes place between the native language and foreign language. It may cause deviations in using the native language in terms of syntactic, lexical or semantic which can promote the occurrence of the interference. The lexical interference shall be differentiated from the word loan. The word loan or integration has come together with a second language, while interference cannot be accepted as part of the second language. The occurrence of lexical elements of the first language or foreign language into a second language can be disturbing the context.

English lexical interference found in Indonesian magazine is the interference that occurred by the addition of English lexical elements into Indonesian sentences. Based on the data collection, it was found that Cosmopolitan has higher occurrence of lexical interference than Tempo magazine. Most of English vocabularies that are used in both magazines have their Indonesian equivalences. However, there are two terms that have no exact equivalent to disclose these terms in Indonesian, therefore the occurrence of interference cannot be avoided. The analysis of the interference phenomenon will be as follow.

Data 1

Total 38 tim developer muda dari seluruh Indonesia

This sentence has information about the 38 developer teams comes from all over Indonesia. The used of word developer in data 1 is classified as lexical interference. The lexical element interferes Indonesian sentence. The word developer is a noun, means a person or company that develops. This word actually has its Indonesian equivalence, namely pengembang. Since the word developer more familiar for some people, the writer prefers to use the English word developer instead of pengembang. The used of this English word showed the need of synonym that caused by the familiarity of the English term in the Indonesian, therefore the writer prefer to use this English word instead of its equivalence in Indonesian.

Data 2

Editor saya kemudian berkata bahwa jika saya bisa menemukan draft-nya, mungkin cerita itu bisa diterbitkan.

Data 2 showed the existence of lexical interference by using the English word draft in this Indonesian sentence. The use of English word draft here showed the occurrence of lexical interference. This word has its Indonesian equivalence, namely konsep. The interference of English word “draft” in this sentence cannot be avoided, since this word is more familiar for the speaker in their daily basis. This also showed that the speaker has imperfect bilingualism state so that they decided to use the English word to complete the sentence.

Data 3

Sebagai pilot project...

The phrase pilot project is an English noun phrase. The occurrence of this phrase showed lexical interference. This phrase has its own equivalence, that is proyek percontohan. The writer’s choice in using English noun phrase instead of its Indonesian form caused the existence of lexical interference in this circumstance. The use of this English word showed that the speaker has insufficient vocabulary, therefore, the interference cannot be avoided.

Data 4

Yang menjadi penyebab timbulnya jerawat bukan kopi, namun ingredients yang ditambahkan seperti susu dan gula secara berlebihan.

The word ingredients has its Indonesian equivalence in Indonesian, namely bahan baku. The use of the word ingredients caused the lexical interference in this Indonesian sentence since this word can be replaced by the word, bahan baku. Instead of using the Indonesian phrase bahan baku, the writer chose to use ingredients due to the insufficient vocabulary, besides the use of the word bahan baku commonly used in different context situation other than the cause of acne, such as cooking.

Data 5

… diberikan waktu 10 jam untuk coding aplikasi...

Interference in data 5 is called lexical interference. The lexical element that interfere in the sentence above is the English word, coding. The word coding derived from the word code. This word can be replaced by its Indonesian equivalence, that is penyandian. However, the term coding is widely used on the programming term which mostly use English terms, the insufficient vocabulary for this kind of context situation caused the occurrence of interference in the sentence.
Data 6

Best choices? Pepaya, nanas dan semangka!

English noun phrase best choices interfered the above Indonesian sentence. The occurrence of the English noun phrase can be considered as lexical interference. This noun phrase has an Indonesian equivalence, that is pilihan terbaik. This circumstance showed that the speaker wanted to emphasize her statement by using this English noun phrase. The sense that is conveyed through this English phrase will be different when it is conveyed in the Indonesian term. In order to keep the message and showed the prestige, the English noun phrase interfered the Indonesian sentence.

Data 7

Lalu melakukan presentasi dan live demo

Interference in this sentence is belong to lexical interference. The lexical element that interfere this sentence is the English word live. The adjective, live has the Indonesian equivalence, namely langsung. The insufficient vocabulary to convey the message in Indonesian promotes the occurrence of the interference in this sentence.

Data 8

Hotel yang baru saja re-furnished ini menggabungkan berbagai elemen dekorasi lampau dan kekinian,

The sentence above was interfered by an English word, re-furnished. The occurrence of this English word was belonged to lexical interference. This English word has its own equivalence, namely diperbaharui. Hotel as the tourism accommodation used a lot of English terms in presenting their products and services. Therefore, the interference of English language in this sentence cannot be avoided due to the common practice in the hospitality industry in which English language is widely used to convey the prestige.

Data 9

Mengidentifikasi siapa saja kelompok swing dan undecided voters yang berpotensi golput.

Interference in the sentence above belongs to lexical interference. The lexical elements that interfered this sentence were the word swing and Noun phrase undecided voters. The word swing referred to voters who changes their choice, while the word undecided voters referred to the voter who have not any choice yet. These lexical elements can be translated into pemilih yang berubah pilihan and pemilih yang bimbang. The context of this sentence is politics. Politics is a set of activities associated with the governance of a country or area that has a lot of English technical terms that is widely used in the community. The use of English term in Indonesian to convey a certain idea cannot be avoided because of the need of vocabulary to emphasize the message.

Data 10

Ediwan bukan satu-satunya perwira tinggi Angkatan Darat yang berstatus non-job

Interference in data 10 can be classified into lexical interference. The lexical element that interfered the sentence is the word non-job. This noun means having no occupation or tanpa pekerjaan in Indonesian. The word non-job has its Indonesian equivalence that is tanpa pekerjaan. The use of this English word showed that the writer wanted to emphasize their message since they are bilingual, they prefer to add the English word in the Indonesian sentence.

4.2 Factors Contributing Interference

The use of English words and phrases in the Indonesian sentences showed the occurrence of English interference in Indonesian. According to Komariah (2008), The interference caused by the following factors:

1) The bilingualism

The bilingual participants are the foundation of interference and various other influences from the source language, both national and foreign languages. This is due to the occurrence of language contact in a bilingual speaker, which may eventually lead to interference.

2) The lack of loyalty of the recipient language user

The lack of bilingual allegiance to the recipient language is likely to lead to a less positive attitude. The results in ignoring the rules of the recipient language used and the taking of elements source language that mastered by the speaker uncontrollably. In addition, it will result in the appearance of interference in the recipient language that is being used by the speaker, either orally or in writing.

3) The insufficient vocabulary of the recipient language

Insufficient factor or limited vocabulary of the recipient language to express a new concept in the source language, is likely to lead to interference. Interferences arose from the need for new vocabulary, tend to be deliberate by the language user. The new vocabulary gained from this interference tends to be faster integrated because it is indispensable to enrich the vocabulary of the recipient language.
4) The disappearance of words that are rarely used
Interference caused by the disappearance of the rarely
used vocabulary will result in interference caused by
inadequate vocabulary of the recipient language, i.e.
the element of absorption or the element of the loan
will be more quickly integrated as the element is
required in the recipient language.

5) The need for synonyms
Synonyms in the use of the language have a very
important function, namely as variations in the
selection of words to avoid the same use of the word
repeatedly that can lead to saturation. With a
synonymous word. Language users can have
vocabulary variation used to avoid repeated use of the
word, which can be boring to the reader or listener.
Because of this synonym is important, language users
often interfere with the absorption or borrowing of
new vocabulary from the source language to provide
synonyms in the recipient language. Thus, the need for
synonymous vocabulary may encourage interference.

6) The prestige source and style of language
The prestige of the source language can encourage
interference, because the language user wants to show
that he or she can master the language to show the
prestige. The prestige of the source language can also
be related to the desire of the language user to be
stylish in the language.

7) The tendency of transferring the mother tongue behavior
The carrying habits in the mother tongue in the
recipient language that is being used, is generally due
to the lack of language control and lack of mastery
over the recipient language. This can happen to a
bilingual person who is studying a second language,
both native and foreign languages.

After analyzing the data, there were found three
factors contributing to the English lexical interference
in Tempo and Cosmopolitan magazines.

a. Bilingualism of the speakers
The above data indicated that the speaker
(writer) is bilingual. It can be seen through
the use of English lexical items in every
sentence found in the articles. It can be
concluded that the language user is able to
speak two or more languages. However, their
ability in speaking or writing in both
languages are not equal therefore, the
interference of one language cannot be
avoided.

b. Lack of vocabularies

Data above also showed the indication of lack
of Indonesian vocabularies for certain topics
that promoted the addition of English
vocabularies in writing Indonesian articles.

c. Prestige and style of language
Prestige and stylistic reasons are also
considered as the factors of the addition of
English words in writing Indonesian articles.
The above sentences occurred in the articles
that have various topics, such as social,
politics, culture, trend, etc. the topics allowed
the occurrence of language contact. There is
a possibility in borrowing lexical items from
English language in delivering the message
in Indonesian articles.

5. CONCLUSION
The analysis showed the occurrence of English lexical
interference in Indonesian articles found in Tempo and
Cosmopolitan Indonesia magazines. The background
of the magazine, the segment, and topic that presented
in the magazine also promotes the occurrence of the
interference in the magazine. The lexical items are in
form of words, as well as phrase. The factors
contributing lexical interference are bilingualism of
the speaker or writer, lack of vocabularies, prestige
and style of language.

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The Representation of Morocco in Postcolonial Travel Narrative Novels: The Case of El Maghreb: 1200 Miles Ride through Morocco by Hugh E. M. Stutfield
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ARTICLE INFO
Received: September 14, 2019
Accepted: October 18, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.36

KEYWORDS
Post-colonialism, representation, Stutfield, travel narrative

ABSTRACT
The current study is intended to investigate how Morocco is represented in post-colonial travel narrative novels, especially after the end of the occupation of Tangier by the Kingdom of England in the second half of the seventeenth century. In this respect, El Maghreb: 1200 Miles Ride through Morocco by Hugh E. M. Stutfield (1886) is a case in point. The novel is analyzed thematically in the light of post-colonialism, hybridity and travel narrative framework. The analysis reveals that Morocco is subjectively represented by the author from an ethnocentric perspective. This is evidenced as the Moors are described as backwards who need to be civilized by the Kingdom of England, which occupied Tangier from 1667 to 1684. Moreover, the agricultural system of Morocco was evaluated as backward just by sight. In addition, the description of the visited cities, especially Fes and Meknes, conveys a sense of strangeness and negative atmosphere. Accordingly, the agricultural, social and cultural sides of Morocco in the last decades of the nineteenth century are ethnocentrically represented in the novel El Maghreb: 1200 Miles Ride through Morocco.

1. INTRODUCTION
Several thinkers in the realm of post-colonialism like Bhabha, Young, Spivak, Hall and Gilroy have all written on theories of representation, hybridity and associated terms like diaspora and travel narrative. In particular, Bhabha (1994) has developed the concept of hybridity from literary and cultural theory to describe the construction of culture and identity within conditions of colonial antagonism and equity. In regard to the significance of our study, it resides in bringing into focus the role travel writing plays in constructing misrepresentations about Moroccan people and their culture, and how these writings serve as a discourse for shaping knowledge about and creating stereotypes of Moroccan people and culture. Accordingly, theories of postcolonial literature, travel narratives and orientalism in addition to (mis)-representation, hegemony and stereotypes will be presented as a framework of the study. Moreover, the novel will be thematically analyzed in the light of post-colonial and travel narrative framework.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW
2.1 Postcolonialism, Travel Narratives and Orientalism
2.1.1 Postcolonialism
Colonialism refers to the practice by which a powerful country controls another country or other countries. Colonialism and imperialism are often used interchangeably to refer to settlement in a new country, “the conquest and control of other people’s land and goods” (Loomba, 1998, p. 02). However, “it is by no means safe to assume that colonialism stops when a colony achieves its independence” (McLeod, 2000, p. 32). For this reason, life after independence is oftentimes characterized by the persistence of many of the effects of colonization. Therefore, postcolonialism involves the challenge to colonial ways of knowing, writing back in opposition to such views which still circulate in the present (McLeod, 2000).

Postcolonialism or postcolonial studies is an academic discipline which deals with the effects of colonization on cultures and societies. Ashcroft et al., (2000)
pointed out that the term was originally used by historians after the Second World War in terms such as ‘the post-colonial state’; ‘post-colonial’ had a clearly chronological meaning, designating the post-independence period. However, from the late 1970s, the term has been used by literary critics to discuss the various cultural effects of colonization. The authors add that although the study of the controlling power of representation in colonized societies had begun in the late 1970s with texts such as Said’s Orientalism, and led to the development of what came to be called colonialis discourse theory in the work of critics such as Spivak and Bhabha, “the actual term ‘post-colonial’ was not employed in these early studies of the power of colonialist discourse to shape and form opinion and policy in the colonies and metropolis”. (Ashcroft, et al., 2000, p. 168)

Young (2003, p. 02) states that, “Since the early 1980s, postcolonialism has developed a body of writing that attempts to shift the dominant ways in which the relations between western and non-western people and their worlds are viewed”. He also adds that postcolonialism claims the right of all people on this earth to the same material and cultural well-being because the reality is that people live in a world of inequality. He pointed out that much of the difference falls between people of the west and those of the non-west. He says, “This division between the rest and the west was made fairly absolute in the 19th century by the expansion of the European empires, as a result of which nine-tenths of the entire land surface of the globe was controlled by European, or European-derived, powers” (Young, 2003, p. 02).

Young (2003, p. 04) pointed out that despite decolonization, the major world powers did not change during the course of the 20th century, and for this reason “postcolonialism names a politics and a philosophy of activism that contests that disparity, and so continues in a new way the anti-colonial struggles of the past” (Young, 2003, p. 04). That’s to say, postcolonialism elaborates a politics of the ‘subaltern’, that is, the subordinated classes and people. Therefore, postcolonialism, in Young’s view (2003, p. 07), “seeks to change the way people think, the way they behave, to produce a more just and equitable relation between the different peoples of the world”.

2.1.2 Travel Narratives
The literature of travel has played an important role in the history of the West. The reports of early travelers made people, especially Europeans, aware of the existence of people very different from them.

These reports also excited the imaginations of readers and writers, fueling the desire for exploration and discovery. Indeed, there is a large body of travel narratives. A narrative is, according to Quinn (2006, p. 278), “an account of actual or imagined events told by a narrator. A narrative is made up of events, the story, and the arrangement of those events: the plot”.

Travel writing includes travel stories, travel guides, travel memoirs, and travelogues – that is, a film, book, or illustrated lecture about the places visited by a traveler-. Travel narratives or travel writings have existed since a long time ago. Among many others, some key works in this type of writing was the travel journal of two Muslim scholars Ibn Jubayr (1145–1214) and Ibn Battuta (1304–1377), both of whom recorded their travels across the known world in detail. For example, Ibn Battuta, the Muslim Moroccan scholar, started his journey from Tangier to Mecca in Saudi Arabia to make Hajj, pilgrimage to Mecca. He spent about twenty nine years old traveling from land to land. He entitled his work, “تحفة الناظر في غزائم الأعاصم وعجائب الأسفار”, which is translated in English as “A Gift to those who Contemplate the Wonders of Cities and the Marvels of Traveling”. Also, travel writing of some literary significance appears in the late-13th-century writings of Marco Polo (1254–1324), the Italian explorer and travel writer. His travels are recorded in Livre des Merveilles du Monde, (1300) (Book of the Marvels of the World), a book that described many aspects of China and Chinese life as well as some other Asian cities and countries. Moreover, many books of travel literature and writing were later written by writers and travelers around the globe for the sake of exploration of new people and cultures. According to Ammari (2018, p. 46):

Travel accounts often clarify the mental maps that individuals and cultures have of the world and its inhabitants, and the larger matrix of prejudices, fantasies and assumptions that they bring to bear on any encounter with, or description of, the other. In this regard, in the late decades of the 19th century and the outset
of the twentieth century – the era of “high imperialism” – most British travelogues deploy different tropes and conventions of colonial discourse to represent and often downplay other peoples, and to underpin the British Empire and its ideological pomposity.

The last half of the nineteenth century witnessed several travel narrative accounts which aim to lay the ground for British colonization of the so-called primitive people or third world countries.

Besides, Hulme and Youngs, (2002, p. 01) state that, “Travel has recently emerged as a key theme for the humanities and social sciences, and the amount of scholarly work on travel writing has reached unprecedented levels”. Indeed, writing and travel have always been intimately connected and travel narratives have existed since a long time ago. However, Hulme and Youngs, (2002, p. 08) claim that, “Orientalism was the first work of contemporary criticism to take travel writing as a major part of its corpus, seeing it as a body of work which offered particular insight into the operation of colonial discourses”.

Hulme and Youngs (2002) explained that scholars working in the wake of Orientalism have begun to scrutinize relationships of culture and power found in the settings, encounters, and representations of travel texts. Because travel writing is a genre of writing which constructs and domesticates the other; it is seen by many postcolonial writers as a means for imperial hegemony. In the field of postcolonial studies, travel writing is said to have disseminated discourses of difference that were then used to justify colonial projects. In addition, many travel accounts misrepresent and produce stereotypes about other people. In fact, travel narratives have contributed to the Western production of knowledge and (mis)representation of the ‘exotic’ other. The term exotic is used to mean alien, introduced from abroad, not indigenous.

Hugh Stutfield’s El Maghreb: 1200 Miles Ride through Morocco is a travel narrative which can be considered as an orientalist work that takes the reader in a journey of visiting the ‘exotic’ Morocco.

2.1.3 Orientalism

Edward Said, especially in his book Orientalism (1978), made the influential argument that writings from America and Europe, the West, presented inaccurate, misleading, and stereotyped cultural representation of the East. Writers, designers, and artists from the West perceive of the Eastern society as exotic. In other words, orientalism is the Western construction, or representation, of the Orient. It is often claimed too that orientalism is a strategy of Western world domination.

Edward Said examined the processes by which the ‘Orient’ was, and continues to be, constructed in European thinking. Professional Orientalists included scholars in various disciplines such as languages, history and philology, but for Said, the discourse of Orientalism was much more widespread and endemic in European thought. In addition, Ashcroft et al., (2000, p. 153) state that:

Said discusses Orientalism as the corporate institution for dealing with the Orient ‘by making statements about it, authorizing views of it, describing it, by teaching it, settling it, ruling over it: in short, Orientalism as a Western style for dominating, restructuring, and having authority over the Orient.

The authors also stressed that Orientalism, in this sense, is a classic example of Foucault’s definition of a discourse. The concept of discourse has been used in a variety of meanings. As a term in linguistics, it simply refers to “a continuous stretch of language larger than a sentence” (Crystal, 1987, p. 419). Thus, discourses are such stretches of language like conversations, interviews, commentaries, and speeches. However, within the context of Critical Discourse Analysis (Fairclough, 1995), the concept of discourse is used in the Foucauldian sense to refer to, “a group of statements which provide a language for talking about– a way of representing the knowledge about– a particular topic at a particular historical moment”. (Foucoulit in Hall (ed), 1997, p. 44). In this current study, it is this latter definition of discourse that will be adopted.

2.2 Representation and Misrepresentation

Across various disciplines such as sociology, philosophy, linguistics, anthropology and translation studies, researchers have been concerned with how
language is used to construct representations of people in written and oral accounts. Representation is one of the central practices which produce culture. It is defined by Hall (1997:15) as “using language to say something meaningful about, or to represent, the world meaningfully, to other people”. It also involves the use of signs and images which stand for or represent things – photography is also a representational system involving the use of images to communicate photographic meaning about a particular person, scene, or event (Hall, 1997, p. 5). Language and culture are inextricably linked to each other. Language is the privileged medium in which “we make sense” of things– it is the medium through which meanings are produced and exchanged whereas culture is about “shared meanings”.

The issue of representation is inextricably related to such questions as the following, some of which are put forward by Stuart Hall in his article, the Spectacle of the Other (1997):

- How do we represent people and places which are significantly different from us?
- How can Otherness be best represented?
- What are the typical forms and representational practices which are used to represent “difference” in popular culture today and where did these popular figures and stereotypes come from?
- How do we give meaning to “other cultures” and what are the representational practices and discourses used in the process?
- How power differentials or relations of power affect the representation and the translation of other cultures?

The term culture has various definitions. This difficulty in pinpointing a common definition of culture yielded several conceptions of the construct. Hall (1997, p. 02) argues that culture has traditionally been viewed and debated on the basis of the dichotomy between ‘high culture’ and ‘mass culture’. High culture of an age refers to “the best that has been thought and said in a society. It is the sum of the great ideas, as represented in the classic works of literature, painting, music, and philosophy”, whereas the ‘mass culture’ or the ‘popular culture’ of an age, “the widely distributed forms of popular music, publishing, art, design, and literature, or the activities of leisure time and entertainment, which make up the everyday lives of the majority of ‘ordinary people’.

In recent years, culture is used to refer to all that is distinctive about the way of life of a people. Culture here is, in the anthropological sense as formulated by the English anthropologist Edward Burnet Tylor in 1871 (cited in Katan, 1999, p. 16), “that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law customs, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society”. This is one of the oldest and most commonly cited and rephrased definition of culture. It considers culture to be a system of collective beliefs, worldviews, customs, traditions, values, etiquette and norms shared by the members of a cultural group.

2.3 Hegemony and stereotypes

2.3.1 Hegemony

Hegemony is an important concept in postcolonial studies. Ashcroft et al., (2000) argued that the term hegemony which was initially used to refer to the dominance of one state within a confederation is now generally understood to mean “domination by consent”. They further pointed out that this broader meaning was coined and popularized in the 1930s by Italian Marxist Antonio Gramsci, who investigated why the ruling class was so successful in promoting its own interests in society. Ashcroft et al., (2000, p. 106) state:

Fundamentally, hegemony is the power of the ruling class to convince other classes that their interests are the interests of all. Domination is thus exerted not by force, nor even necessarily by active persuasion, but by a more subtle and inclusive power over the economy, and over state apparatuses such as education and the media, by which the ruling class’s interest is presented as the common interest and thus comes to be taken for granted.

In postcolonial studies, hegemony is used to describe how the West justifies its exploitation and power over its colonies. The term is useful for describing the success of imperial power over a colonized people wherein the colonizing power pretends to offer advancement, stability and social order. Hegemony is crucial because the ability to influence the thought of
the colonized is in fact the most sustained and powerful operation of imperial power in colonized regions. The following quote by Ashcroft et al., (2000, p. 107) elaborates on this use of hegemony in a succinct way:

Consent is achieved by the interpellation of the colonized subject by imperial discourse so that Euro-centric values, assumptions, beliefs and attitudes are accepted as a matter of course as the most natural or valuable. The inevitable consequence of such interpellation is that the colonized subject understands itself as peripheral to those Euro-centric values, while at the same time accepting their centrality. (bold in original)

In travel writing, one can question the narratives and the various ways they represent the “other”. These narratives can at times function as a way of constructing the other and a means for misrepresenting this other. In many travel narratives, the positive representation of the Self may result in a derogatory representation of the Other, which is fraught with downgrading images and stereotypes.

2.3.2 Stereotyping
There are different conceptualizations and theories on stereotypes in different disciplines. In general, a stereotype is an over-generalized belief about a particular category of people. It is an oversimplified perception of some aspect of the social world. In other words, stereotypes are fixed general images and commonly held ideas about other groups of people. They are oftentimes negative, inaccurate, and unfair as they tend to make generalizations about others. Quinn (2006, p. 398) defined a stereotype as a “highly generalized idea, situation, or character, derived from an oversimplified treatment in a work. More commonly, it refers to the reliance on generalizations about racial, national, or sexual groups in the depiction of certain characters”. He gave the following examples to illustrate his definition by explaining that the rendering of Irish Americans as drunken and pugnacious in 19th century political cartoons, or of African Americans in the films of the 1930s and 40s as shuffling and slow witted, qualifies as stereotypes.

Stereotyping is also a common feature of travel writing. In fact, postcolonial critics, for example Said (1978) and Spivak (1993), claimed that Western writings about the non-western other often contain distortions, stereotyping and misrepresentations. They often produce and reproduce misrepresentations of the other as barbaric, uncivilized, and backward. This research seeks to unravel instances of these hidden discourses in Hugh Stutfield’s El Maghreb: 1200 Miles Ride through Morocco.

3. METHODOLOGY
3.1 Research Objective
It is the objective of the current study to analyze a travel narrative novel on Morocco in the last decades of the nineteenth century. The novel is about a journey by Hugh E. M. Stutfield in Morocco during the last decades of the nineteenth century. The focus will be on the novel’s representation of Morocco as an orientalist country.

3.2 Research hypothesis
The research hypothesis is that Morocco is negatively depicted in travel narrative accounts by westerners. The novel El Maghreb: 1200 Miles Ride through Morocco by Hugh E. M. Stutfield is no exception.

3.3 Research questions
The research questions that the study aims to answer revolve around the ways Morocco is represented. They can be formulated as follows:
What are the major themes in the novel El Maghreb: 1200 Miles Ride through Morocco by Hugh E. M. Stutfield?

How is Morocco represented in El Maghreb: 1200 Miles Ride through Morocco by Hugh E. M. Stutfield in the last half of the nineteenth century?

3.4 Background of the novel
The title of the book is about a journey in Morocco. The journey is 1932 kilometers long. The book starts with a preface in which the author presents the general view to El Maghreb. The latter is used to refer to Morocco. It depicts Morocco from the perspective of a new comer. The author portrays Morocco as uncivilized and underdeveloped. The author plainly states that: My book, therefore, is a plea for the civilization of the country and the development of its agriculture, so as to utilize the magnificent properties of the soil for the benefit alike of the natives and the outside world. (ii-iii)

The book is organized into several chapters. The first chapter is about the visits of some cities, especially in
the north of Morocco. The second chapter is about the description of the Moors and some historical facts. The third chapter presents some characters and the description of Fes city. The fourth chapter delves into the history of Fes. Berbers constitute the topic of the fifth chapter. Meknes along with Jews and Hebrews is the topic of the sixth chapter. Other chapters are about saints, Rabat and Casablanca. There will be a thematic analysis of the novel based on the notions of travel narrative, post-colonialism, exoticism, feminism and the like.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Hugh Stutfield’s novel is a travel narrative which can be considered as an orientalist work that takes the reader in a journey of visiting the ‘exotic’ Morocco. This work is Stutfield’s representation of Moroccan culture. Stutfield uses his own experience to write his account of Morocco and Moroccan culture. Bearing in mind these considerations, our thesis is a scrutiny of Hugh Stutfield’s El Maghreb: 1200 Miles Ride through Morocco with an aim to reveal misrepresentations of Moroccans and Moroccan culture, focusing especially on stereotyping, identity, power differentials, and cultural differences.

4.1 Travel accounts
In 1881, the author was compelled to leave England and came to Tangier because of health issues. Moreover, the author moved from one city and village to another throughout Morocco. The cities he visited were Rabat, Fes and Meknes. Rabat was described in terms of its monuments, especially Hassan Tower. Fes and Meknes were described in terms of their historical sites. They were viewed by the author as preserving antiquity through their beautiful gates and big walls surrounding the old cities. The author visited other places including cities and Dawars or tent villages in Morocco, such as Tadla, Beni Messkin and Beni Ahmed, among others.

4.2 Exoticism
The author described many scenes as exotic according to his cultural background. Some scenes are viewed as normal by natives and Moroccan readers. However, the author viewed them as strange and worth investigating and narrating. Unfortunately, the author equated this strangeness with barbarism as can be seen in the following passage:

The sense of wonderment felt by all who set foot for the first time in the place, at the sudden transition from civilization to Barbarism, was not without its effect upon me as I strolled from the port, where grave, turbaned moors sat cross-legged at the receipt of custom, up the queer, old, ill-paved streets, thronged with white-robed Arabs, Jews, Negros, mulattoes and Europeans (p. 01).

The diversity of Moroccan culture is described as barbarism. The people’s clothes and skin complexion are negatively portrayed. Besides, some social behaviors are viewed as strange as illustrated in the following passage:

This individual saluted us in in courteous but peculiar fashion, sizing the thumb of our right hands with his own, and then kissing his fingers, and pressing his hand to his heart, which last is the customary form of salutation amongst the moors (p. 64).

The way Moroccans salute each other is cultural. However, the author was intolerant of this culture by describing it as peculiar. The author also talked about couscous which is a famous food in Morocco. Moreover, the clothes consist of jellabias and veils. The author stopped at each scene and described it in detail, giving the impression of wonderment.

4.3 Religious practices
Al Maghreb was described as consisting of many religions, namely Islam, Judaism and Christianity. Islam constitutes the religion of the majority of Moroccans. It was ascended on the Prophet Mohamed (peace be upon him). It is based on five pillars, among which are prayer, almsgiving and pilgrimage to Mekka.

There are other religious practices and cultural habits associated with the Islam religion. Slaughtering is done in the name of Allah and not by infidels; Kuskusso as Moroccan dish is offered for saints and on religious occasions like Friday. Wine is forbidden to Muslims. The prayer as one of the most demanded Islamic practices is fully described as follows:

He was very devout, and we watched him at his prayers, which he performed with great
Like most Eastern saints, the Shereef was known to be quite ready to place his sanctity at the disposal of anyone who made him a good bid for its use, but no one ever dreamt of his denationalizing himself and becoming a citizen of the Republic of France (p. 55).

The natives are depicted to not imitate the other by undergoing the process of denationalization. In the example above, it is the Shereef as someone with sanctity and firm religious beliefs is thought to not abandon his nationality in a favor of a French citizenship.

4.7 Uncivilized Moors
The Moors are portrayed as backwards and uncivilized. They do not treat animals well. A donkey is treated with fierce and an inappropriate way. The following passage illustrates an instance of maltreating animals witnessed by the author:

I have seen a man thrashing unmercifully an overladen donkey stop for a while and say in a tone of most serious reproach, “Ewa Sidi” (Really my lord), and then begin walloping it again. All beasts, domestic and otherwise, are credited with powers of understanding, and even speech, by the more ignorant natives. (p. 105)

Besides, the authors admitted that some Arabs are intelligent. However, a quite number of them are not intelligent or ignorant because they tame their animals. This seems to be natural, and it exists in most societies. However, the author further attributed this stupidity to race as is illustrated in the following: “The Arabs are naturally quick-witted race, whereas most of their number in Morocco are hopelessly stupid; but the intellectual degradation of the country is, no doubt, largely due to admixture of negro blood” (p. 120).

The admixture of the negro blood is the reason behind why the Moors are stupid. This is the author’s logic in explaining some human characteristics. The author may have an ideology which is against not only the Moors but also the Africans. He tried to prove that Shoolh or berber are the autochthons of Morocco, and the Moors are the colonizers who are uncivilized and backwards. Hence, most descriptions of the Berber are positive, whereas they are negative when it comes to the Moors.
4.8 Backwardness
The Moroccan infrastructure was described as defective. The author described the infrastructure of Fes city as bad in terms of drainage as in the following: “Bad drainage, however, is worse than none at all, and the sewage of New Fez is all discharged into the river which forms the drinking water for the inhabitants of Old Fez below” (p.74).

Besides, Fez is described as full of inns. Moreover, Hashish or kif (Indian hemp) is smoked and eaten. Fez is also described as full of mosques. Some social practices are also revealed and portrayed as primitive. The following passage describes the superstition against the evil eye: “There is the fear from the evil eye as a common superstition in Morocco. Hence, a hand is marked on some walls of houses or is taken in a necklace” (p. 117).

The Moroccan culture and the use of some expressions are critically observed and reviewed by the author. Morocco is portrayed as diverse consisting of Rifian, Shlooh, Arabs, Moors, and Jews. Moreover, the Moors use some religious expressions like Mektoob which means it is written. It is an expression to describe the fatalist destiny of some people. Inshallah is another common expression used daily by Moors, which translates as “if Allah wills”. The use of some expressions like Balak, Balak which means make room. Balak is a cultural and linguistic form of communicating which is peculiar to the Moors.

4.9 Colonization
Some cities of Morocco were colonized in the nineteenth century. Tangier was an international city. Great Britain had a large part of it. The Moors showed a fierce resistance against the British colonization. The following passage illustrates this:

At Tangier, the only people I ever knew to whom a Moorish gun was a source of alarm, were the British authorities at Gibraltar. I once brought over from Tangier what I believe to have been the longest gun in the country, and it so impressed the Custom House officers that they deprived me of it. (pp. 183-184)

Gibraltar is a place which constitutes a crossing bridge between Morocco along with Africa and Europe.

England was said to have been in communication with Moroccan courts as in the following passage:

England has been in communication with the court of Morocco from an early date, and in the reign of Queen Elizabeth envoys were dispatched to the Sultan. Our brief occupation of Tangier, which terminated with the ill-advised evacuation in 1685, is sufficiently well known (p. 319).

The Moroccan Sultan and British Queen seemed to have diplomatic relations despite the colonialism. Morocco was a land of compromise by the British as it was in conflict with the French and Spanish authorities on who would take control of the land. Great Britain wanted to give Morocco to the French and Spanish colonization in exchange of Egypt as is stated below:

Morocco may go her own way, if only we are allowed to have our way in Egypt. Taken in connection with the rest of the speech, this meant that France might be allowed to annex the country in return for leaving us free to act as we please in Egypt (p. 326).

Hence, Morocco was a cake which is shared by many European states. The country was colonized under the names of Protectorate during 1912-1956 which is a euphemism for colonization.

4.10 Stereotypes
The westerners have some stereotypes about the orient. In case of Morocco, it is viewed as an African country with black skinned people, deserts and camels. However, these stereotypes are decomposed when the author actually visited the country in his 1200 miles journey. “Two things I learnt on my first visit to Morocco: it is not a desert, but remarkable fertile; and the climate, so far from being tropical, is as temperate as anyone could desire” (p. 203).

Hence, Morocco has a moderate climate and a fertile ground. Even the author made some recommendations on using the fertile land of Morocco, of which a large area is unfortunately still unexploited by the natives, even nowadays. The author silenced the natives by not giving them voice in the textual representation of Morocco. In general, the subjective description of the
Moors against the cultural background of the author reveals that tolerance of different cultures was and is still an issue which should be addressed through fostering intercultural education.

5. CONCLUSION
The objective of the current study was to study a travel narrative novel on Morocco in the last decades of the nineteenth century. The novel was about *El Maghreb: 1200 Miles Ride through Morocco* by Hugh E. M. Stutfield. The focus was on the novel’s representation of Morocco as orientalist country. The research hypothesis is that Morocco is negatively represented in travel narrative accounts by westerners. The novel *El Maghreb: 1200 Miles Ride through Morocco* by Hugh E. M. Stutfield portrayed some cultural aspects as negative.

In this regard, postcolonial literature, diaspora and travel narratives along with the representation and misrepresentation theories in the form of stereotypes were discussed. This was followed by analysis of the content of the novel. The analysis was thematic dealing with some aspects on travel accounts, colonialism, mimicry, and stereotypes. The author represented the natives as the latter were not given a chance to speak for themselves or represent themselves. This gives rise to several distortions and misconceptions about the Other. Accordingly, the issue of tolerating other cultures should be practically addressed through education as there is no culture which is superior to others just because it is different.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT
We would like to thank the editor and reviewers of the journal for taking the time to review this manuscript.

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The Representation of Morocco in Postcolonial Travel Narrative Novels: The Case of El Maghreb: 1200 Miles Ride through Morocco by Hugh E. M. Stutfield


Notes

i Some of travel narrative authors of the nineteenth century are Drummond Hay,
Stuffield, Phillip Durham Trotter, Robert Bontine Cunninghame Graham, Frances Macnab, Arthur Leared and Budgett Meakin

ii The concept of Hegemony was developed by the Italian critic Gramci. It is used to describe dominance which is usually tacit.

iii This concept of exoticism was developed by Edward Said in his theory of orientalism 1978 to describe how others are represented as strange or exotics. It is used to describe the East as strange or exotic.

iv Mimicry is a concept theorized by Bhabha (1994). It means “almost the same but not quite”, and it refers to the imitation of the colonizer by the natives. This leads to cultural hybridity and dissolution.
Interlinear Transliteration and Reconstruction of Plate 538 in 3 Fragments of Greek Minor Prophets Scroll from Nahal Hever Dead Sea Scrolls
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ARTICLE INFO
Received: September 02, 2019
Accepted: October 05, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.37

ABSTRACT
Interlinear Transliteration of Plate 538 in 3 Fragments of Greek Minor Prophets Scroll from Nahal Hever (Dead Sea Scrolls) based on the original text in 1st or 2nd Century Greek (Roman Period). The original manuscript is written on parchment in Uncial Greek Script is a translation of the Zechariah from Hebrew and was discovered in the “Cave of Horror”. Plate 538 is of special significance for translators and Bible scholars in that while being a translation written in Greek, the text preserves the Tetragrammaton in its Paleo-Hebrew (Pre-Babylonian Exile) script. The preservation of the Tetragrammaton within the Greek text gives archeological and linguistic proof that the Tetragrammaton was not only known but also in use among the early Christians and in the early Christian congregation. This paper is designed to provide a reconstructed text as a template for Biblical translations with a greater level of accuracy and has been cross referenced with existing Greek and Hebrew manuscripts in order to establish an authentic reading.

KEYWORDS
Dead Sea Scrolls, Minor, Prophets, Nahal Never, 8 Hev grXII, Greek, Tetragrammaton

1. INTRODUCTION
Plate 538 of the Greek Minor Prophets is part of the collection of Dead Sea Scrolls currently under the masterful care of the Israel Antiquities Authority. The scroll is common of the era being parchment with Greek Uncial script and is a translation of Hebrew Masoretic texts for either personal use or for the sake of proselytising. It is part of a collection of 981 texts which have been excavated in the areas surrounding Khirbet Qumran (קמרן/خربة قمران) from 1946 onward.
Plate 538 is comprised of three fragments containing portions of Zechariah chapters 8 and 9. An interesting feature of these scrolls is the retention of the Tetragrammaton in its Paleo-Hebrew form יְהֹוָה corresponding to the English letters YHWH. The Tetragrammaton will be rendered in its modern equivalent Jehovah as will other terms which may have more archaic equivalents. The reasons for rendering the Tetragrammaton as Jehovah are discussed in great detail in “A study of the translation of the Tetragrammaton יְהֹוָה: its phonetics, phonology, semantics and argument for rendering in vernacular languages”.

Another interesting feature is that the Book of Zechariah was completed in 518 (B.C.E/BC) and foretold the coming destruction of Tyre. This was finally accomplished by Alexander the Great in 332 (B.C.E /BC), about 186 years after the prophecy and hence Christians and Jews alike would have found its fulfilment significant and strengthening.

It is sincerely hoped that this transliteration of Plate 538 will assist in the understanding of ancient Near-East literature and history. Painingstaking work has gone into creating a clear, concise and accurate rendering of the original.
Numbers correspond to modern numbers in Standard Bible Translations and letters appearing in brackets are reconstructed from other texts so as to complete the text and provide a definition, the original being too fragmented.

The basic method of reconstruction followed a direct technique for firstly ascertaining the original root text in a three stage process. In this case, the original text from which it was translated was Hebrew which allowed for a semantic cross comparison (the Hebrew Aleppo Codex). After this cross comparison to validate the authenticity and accuracy of the translation, a second cross comparison was done, in this instance a cross comparison of existing Greek codices/manuscripts (Apostolic Bible Polyglot).

For clarity of readings Strong’s Concordance was consulted in correspondence with trusted English translations in order to affirm usage (American Standard Version, New World Translation of the Holy Scriptures, Young’s Literal Translation).
This fragment contains too few letters to locate within the rest of the verses. Possibly lines 2,3 of Zechariah 8:20 & 1st line of verse 21 based on relative position of letters.

ελ
ον

Line 3 Indecipherable due to damage.

ε-

Plate 538, Frag 1 B-370936 Photo By Shai Halevi, 2013

Zech 8:19 line 4 start

(νησι)τει fasting
(ο)ικω House
(ευφροσυνη)ν και gladness and
και την α(ληθειαν) and the truth
ειρηνην α(γαπησατε) peace love

(20) ο(λ)οι τον δυνα(μεων)
Jehovah of the armies/power
(ελ)θωσιν λαοι και There shall come people and
πολεις πο(λ) The cities city/village
(επιλαβω)νται δε(κα)

Towards/ with one
(πορευθο)μεν πο(ειμενοι)
Travel/ journey move along/go

Plate 538, Frag 3 B-365058 Photo By Shai Halevi, 2013

Zech 8:23
(ημερ)αις εκει(νας)
Day (day time) yonder

(επιλαβω)νται δε(κα)
Take hold of ten

(πασ)ων των
Whole/all the
(εθ)νων κ(αι)
Races (ethnic groups) even

Plate 538, Frag 1 B-370936

Photo By Shai Halevi, 2013

(πορ)ευσομεθα μεθ υμ(ων)
will go with you
(ακ)ηκοαμεν θεος μεθ (υμων)
Listen to God with you

9:1 Λημμα λογου ἐν
Assuming word of Jehovah in
και δαμασκου καταπαυ(σις)
also Damascus rest/dwell
οτι τω ὁφθαλ(μος αν)
Because the Jehovah’s eyes on
θρωπων και πασων φ(υλων)
beings/mankind(?) and every tribe
ισραηλ (2). και γε εμαθ(οριζει)
Isreal (2) and which borders
την τυροκ και σειδ(ον)
the Tyre also Sidon
Φρονησεν (σ)φοδρ
wise exceedingly
(3) (ωκοδο)μησεν τυρος οχ(ρωματα)
build Tyre a fortress
και εβουνισεν αρ(γυριον)
also/and having silver
χουν και χρυσιον(ως)
Dust even gold that

Plate 538, Frag 1 B-370936  Photo By Shai Halevi, 2013

Continuing from Zechariah 9:3

εξοδων (4) ιδου
Street (4) Look! Jehovah
(κληρονο)μησει αυτη και π(αταξει)
Will inherit Her (refering to Tyre) even smite
θαλασσαν δυναμι(ν)
Sea/lake forcefully
αυτη εν πυρι κ(α)ταν(αλωθησε)ται.
her in fire consume-utterly
2. CONCLUSION
The Dead Sea Scroll provide a treasure trove of linguistic and spiritual value, Plate 538 is no exception. It provides historical, linguistic and archaeological evidence of Christian worship in the 1st and 2nd Centuries and is an irrefutable testament to the use of the Tetragrammaton. By implementing the three step textual reconstruction as utilized for the transliteration and reconstruction of this plate, high quality and authentic translations can be produced which increase Biblical understanding and that of Koine Greek.

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The Translation Quality on Slurs in *BlacKkKlasman* Movie

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### ARTICLE INFO

**ABSTRACT**

This research aims to analyze the micro translation technique and determine its impact on the accuracy of translation quality on slurs in movie called *BlacKkKlasman*. It applied a descriptive qualitative method with embedded case study. The data in this research focused on slur expressions explored in *BlacKkKlasman* movie. They were collected by using document analysis and then they were also validated by 3 raters through FGD (Focused Group Discussion). The results of the analysis revealed that there are 13 micro translation techniques applied. The established equivalent technique becomes the most dominant technique in this analysis because it cannot be separated from the context. As a result, it has a good impact on the quality of translation, especially on accuracy. It can be proven by knowing the average total of the translation quality for accuracy amounting 2.8 of 3 points. So, the translation quality of slurs especially in the term of accuracy assessment in this research is good.

### KEYWORDS

Slurs, movie, translation quality, accuracy

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### 1. INTRODUCTION

Hate speech has become a serious issue in our life. It is still done by people to express their freedom in delivering messages. This speech is categorized into prohibited terms to express in many aspects of lives. They are taboo, swearing, pejorative words, insult and slur expressions. One interesting topic which can be investigated more is slurs because this phenomenon often happens in the society. According to Anderson and Lepore (2013b: 3), slurs are prohibited words and it is the violations of those prohibitions that cause offense. Based on this point of view, the application of slurs is not only functioning as the expressive of derogatory, but also becoming taboo expression. Then, A Gay-Straight Alliance (GSA) network anti slur campaign defines slurs as “any offensive, insulting remark or comment intended to ridicule someone based on their race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, gender, religion, class, etc (Anderson, 2013). Besides, “Slurring terms are expressions used to derogate persons and groups of persons on the basis of their ethnicity, race, religion, sexual orientation, nationality, gender, occupation, and various other socially significant categories” (Jeshion 2013, p.232). Several definitions about slurs above explain how those words can be harmful and destroy the relationship among people. One of the uses of slurring expressions causes racism which can happen in many aspects of life, especially in social life.

This study of investigating slurs has been done by many linguists or philosophers. They applied many approaches or perspectives to analyze this field especially in literature. There are several studies on slur expressions which applied semantics approach only, including Ritchie (2017), Beller (2013) and Hedger (2012). Each of them has a commitment in
identifying the slur expressions. First, Ritchie’s opinion about Slur is that he who tries to change the semantics of pronouns on slurs can be used to access the appropriate content. Moreover, according to Hedger, this slur can be analyzed through the permissible semantic agreement with the interpretation of truth-condition content. Meanwhile, Beller identified the word pejorative through subjective evaluation or personal opinion.

Furthermore, the research of slurs can also be developed by combining semantics and pragmatics approaches. Semantics approach is for the interpretation of literal meaning and pragmatic approach is for meanings that require the contexts (Sileo; 2018), (Panjeri and Carrus; 2016), (Technau; 2016), and (Bianci; 2014). Besides, Diaz-Legaspe, et al (2019) also did the research on slur by using sociolinguistics approach. Taxonomic registers are applied to determine the intersection categories of slurs which have slang, vulgar, disrespectful and demeaning elements.

Based on previous studies, researcher has a few gaps to identify the slur expression by applying the translation approach. The goals of this research are to find out the micro translation technique and determine its impact towards the accuracy aspect of translation quality. The BlacKkKlasman movie is chosen as data source, because this movie reflects racism.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW
Translation
There are many definitions of translation that are described by the experts in this field. One of them is (Newmark, 1981:7) who defines translation as some efforts to transfer one certain written language message to another language with the equivalent message or statement. So, this definition only focuses on transferring messages from the source language into the target language. Moreover, Brislin, the other expert, explained translation as a term of transferring written or oral ideas and thought from one language to another language (1976:1). This is not like Newmark’s idea, Brislin makes translation more complex by transferring thoughts or ideas in the form of written or spoken language from the source language into the target language. In addition, Bell explains translation is the expression of one certain source language to another target language by preserving semantic and stylistic (1991:5).

Based on the definitions above, it can be concluded that translation is a process of transferring messages, ideas and thought from the source language into the target language with also concerning semantic and stylistic equivalence. At last, Bell (1991: 20) also explained the process of translation is divided into three steps including Analysis, Semantic Representation, and Synthesis, which exposed in the following chart below:

Chart I: Step of Translation Process Bell (1991: 21)
a. Analysis
In the first step, the translator reads the whole source language text, in order to get the messages delivered by the writer of source text. Besides that, the translator also looks at both structure and language features used in the text, so these can be adjusted with structure and language features in target language text.

b. Semantic Representation meaning
In the second step, the translator does the transferring in his or her thought or in other words, there is a cognitive process in this step.

c. Synthesis
In the last step of the translation process, the translator starts to do the translation activities.

Translation techniques
According to Molina & Albir (2002), translation techniques can be defined as procedures to analysis and classify the equivalence of translation from source language text into target language text. Therefore, these techniques are also called as a realization of decision making process. Then, it produces the result which can be identified in the work of translation. So, translation techniques have an impact on translation quality including accuracy, acceptability, and readability. There are 18 translation techniques which are recommended by them. These techniques are (1) Adaptation as translation technique which replaces the cultural term in source language text into the other cultural term in the target language text, for example “as white as snow” is translated into “sepuit kapas”. Then, (2) Borrowing technique, which borrow the words or expressions from source language text. There are two types of this techniques consisting of pure borrowing and naturalized borrowing. The example of pure borrowing technique is the word “pizza” in source language text which is translated into “pizza” in target language text. Another type of borrowing technique is the naturalized borrowing which can be seen from the example “pencil” which is translated into “pensil”. The next translation technique is (3) Calque used by the translator in translating the word or phrase in source language text literally. It can be seen from this example “interest rate” in source language text is translated “tingkat suku bunga” in target language text. Besides, there is (4) Description technique which is applied by the translator to change the term or expression by describing form and function from source language text into target language text. For example: the word “panettone” in source language text is translated into “kue tradisional Italia yang dimakan pada saat Tahun Baru” in target language text.

After that, there are translation techniques which apply to two sides. They are Generalization technique which is the opposite of Particularization technique. (5) Generalization technique uses the more general or neutral term in the translation process, for example the word “penthouse” is translated into “tempat tinggal” (subordinate to superordinate). On the other hand, (6) Particularization technique applies the term more concrete and precise. The example which is a representative for this technique is the phrase “sea transportation” in source language text translated into “kapal” in target language text (superordinate to subordinate). The other translation techniques which also show the opposition of two sides are Amplification technique which is contrary to Reduction technique. (7) Amplification technique is a technique which paraphrases implicit information in source language text to make an explicit one in target language text, for example “Ramadan” translated into “Bulan puasa kaum muslim”. The opposition of this
technique is (8) Reduction technique which uses the density of text information from source language text into target language text. In other words, explicit information in source language is changed to become the implicit information in target language text, such as “the month of fasting” is translated into “Ramadan”.

Moreover, there is also a translation technique called (9) Compensation technique used by translator to recognize the elements of information or the effect of stylistic from source language text into target language text. The next technique is (10) Discursive Creation technique which is intended to display the unpredictable temporary-equivalence or the meaning out of context. This technique is usually used in the title of movie or book. Meanwhile, there is (11) Established equivalent technique which uses the customized term or expression based on the application of using dictionary, for example “Killing two birds with one stone” in source language text is translated into “Sambil menyelam minum air” in target language text. This technique is almost similar to (12) Literal translation. This technique translates the expression word to word, for instance “I will ring you” in source language text is translated into “Saya akan menelpon anda”. Next, (13) linguistic amplification technique adds the linguistic elements in target language, such as realization in dubbing in the movie. After that, (14) Linguistic compression technique is used by translator in translating movie text by synthesizing linguistic elements in target language.

There are also several translation techniques relating to the changing case, such as substitution, modulation, transposition and variation. (15) Substitution technique is to refer to the changing linguistic elements to paralinguistic elements (intonation or sign). Next technique is (16) modulation which changes the point of view or focus or cognitive categories in relation to the source language text. It can be in a lexical or structural level for example “This novel is written by Enid Blyton” becomes “Enit Blyton menulis novel itu”. In addition, there is (17) Transposition technique which changes the grammatical category from source language into target language, for example “safety” as noun is translated into “aman” as adjective. The last technique is (18) Variation which replaces linguistic or paralinguistic elements (intonation, gesture) which have an impact on linguistic variation, such as “What do you want?” is translated into “Apa mau lu?”

Translation Accuracy

Nababan, et al (2012) state that there are three aspects such as accuracy, acceptability, and readability in assessing the quality of translation. One of the interesting aspects discussed in translation research is accuracy. It means that the message in source language text can be transferred accurately in the text language text. So, the translator must look for the referent meaning in language target text correctly without meaning distortion.

Moreover, Machali (2000:110) says that translation accuracy can be seen from several aspects, such as linguistic aspect (grammatical structure), semantics and pragmatics. So, it can assess not only accuracy in word choice, but also correctness in grammatical structure, meaning equivalence, and pragmatics.

3. METHODOLOGY

Methodology of this research is a descriptive qualitative method focusing on a single case. Bell explains translation as the expression in another language (or target language) of what has been
expressed in other, source language, preserving semantic and stylistic equivalence (1991:5).
Then, it belongs to the qualitative research because this research analyzes social phenomena in the society (Creswell, 1998:15), in this case relating to slur expression happening in the real life in movie. This research is also called as a qualitative research because it is based on the data forms including words, phrases or clauses (Moleong, 2000:18). There are two data in this research. The first data focused on slur expression and its subtitle in _BlacKkKlasman_ movie as the primary data and then the secondary data came from the informants or the raters for the translation quality including accuracy, acceptability and readability. This research used a purposive sampling technique in collecting the data. Therefore, the data were collected by using document analysis and validated by 3 raters through FGD (Focused Group Discussion). There are some instruments which are used by the raters to validate the data in FGD. Table 1 shows the parameters used to assess the translation quality.

Table 1 The Instruments of Accuracy Assessment of Translation quality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Translation category</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Qualitative parameters</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accurate</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Word meaning, technical term, phrase, clause, sentence, or source language text are translated into target language text accurately; without meaning distortion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less Accurate</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Most of word meaning, technical term, phrase, clause, sentence, or source language text are translated into target language text accurately; even though, there is still meaning distortion or ambiguous meaning or omission, which destruct the whole message.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inaccurate</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Word meaning, technical term, phrase, clause, sentence, and source language text are not translated into target language text accurately, or deleted in the text.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The accuracy of translation quality instrument has three categories including Accurate, Less Accurate and Inaccurate. Each category can be assessed by scoring from 3, 2, and 1, which shows the quality translation degree from high to low. Moreover, it also has qualitative parameters showing the description of accuracy instruments for translation quality assessment.

The researcher applied content analysis to collect the data based on Santosa (2014). There were some steps taken in doing this research: (1) Watching the movie called _BlacKkKlasman_ and its subtitling, then marking the utterance expressing slurs based on its context. (2) Identifying the micro translation techniques applied. (3) Calculating the frequency of translation technique. (4) Analyzing the effect of using translation technique towards the term of accuracy in translation quality. (5) Concluding the report based on analyzing the data above.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of the research revealed that there are 13 micro translation techniques applied by the translator in translating slur expressions in the _BlacKkKlasman_ movie. The researcher used some theorists in analyzing the data. The first analysis is to look for slurring term as the data linguistic coming from
theory belongs to Jeshion, 2013. After that, the theory of micro-translation (Molina & Albir, 2002) was applied by the researcher to find the best technique that have an impact on the translation quality. Finally, the researcher and the raters assess the translation quality including accuracy, acceptability and readability based on the theory from Nababan, et al (2012). In this study, the researcher only focuses on the translation quality in terms of accuracy assessment. Here is the table of translation techniques applied in this research;

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Translation Technique</th>
<th>∑ data</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Established Equivalence</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>74.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Modulation</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Deletion</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Pure Borrowing</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Generalization</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Explicitiation</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Implicitation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Literal</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Discursive Creation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Established Equivalence + Reduction</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Established Equivalence + Explicitation</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Established Equivalence + Literal</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Pure Borrowing + Discursive Creation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Translation techniques applied by the translator as the first finding

1. Established Equivalence; it is the most dominant translation technique used by the translator in translating source language text into target language text with 148 data from the total of 198 data. It can be seen in the example below:

ST: Forget those fags. BK / 119
TT: Lupakan homo-homo itu.

Expression slur “fags” in source language text translated into “homo-homo” in target language text is equal. This expression is familiar in dictionary or language in use. So, the message can be transferred well based on context.

2. Modulation; this technique is used by translator to change the point of view. It can be found in the data with amounting 14 data. It can be represented the example below:

ST: So you're a crazy son of a bitch, huh? BK/053
TT: Kau bajingan gila, huh?

The example above shows that there is the change of view point from the translator in translating “son of a bitch” in source language text becoming “bajingan” in target language text. It means that there is a translation shift between them. “son of a bitch” is categorized
into gender in slur, but “bajingan” is categorized into the others.

3. Deletion; in this technique, translator deletes word in source language text. The effect of this technique causes unequal message deliver from source language text into target language text. So, the quality of accuracy is poor. The example of this technique is found in this expression below:

ST: what your nigger name is! BK/ 039
TT: Aku tak peduli siapa namamu!

The translator deletes the word “nigger” in target language text. There is missing word in target language text.

4. Pure Borrowing; in this technique, the translator borrows the word from source language text. In other words, this technique causes the existence for the same word between source text and target text in translation activity. this technique is repeated 4 times. For example;

ST: Oh, shut the fuck up, Landers. BK/ 160
TT: Oh, tutup mulutmu, Landers.

The word “landers” in source language text is borrowed in target language text. So, the translator uses the same word between source text and target text.

5. Generalization; there are 3 data applied in this technique. This technique prefers to use general terms or neutral expression in target language text. For example;

ST: Watch, watch. They're gonna scare the pickaninnies. BK/ 169
TT: Lihat, lihat. Mereka akan menakuti bocah-bocah itu.

“Pickaninnies” in source language text is translated by the translator to “bocah-bocah” in target language text in order to show the generality.

6. Explicitation; this technique is used by the translator to convey messages in source language text explicitly, in order to make them clear in target language text. There are 3 data emerged in the source of data which applied this technique.

ST: pigs are out tonight, yeah. BK/ 139
TT: polisi berpatroli malam ini, ya.

The translator translated the word “pig” in the source language text into “polisi” in target language text, in order to express the implicit meaning in source language, the text becomes explicit meaning in target language text.

7. Implicitation; in this study, Implicitation technique is used once in the data. The translator made the information in source language text become implicit to target language text.

ST: Yeah, wasn't long ago them sumbitches wasn't on no TV. BK/ 071
TT: Ya, belum lama ini mereka tumben tidak muncul di TV.

In the result of translation, the word “sumbitches” in source language text is changed into “mereka” in target language text, because
the translator makes the result of translation implicitly in target language text.

8. Literal; the application of this technique only emerges once in the data. This technique was used by the translator by translating the source language text into the target language text word for word directly without paying attention to the context.

ST: Are you a pig? BK/ 088
TT: Apa kau seorang babi?

The word “pig” in source language text is translated directly “babi” in target language text without attention to the context.

9. Discursive Creation; there is one data applied in this translation technique, for instance;

ST: spade, spook, Sambo, spear-chucking jungle bunny, BK/ 188
TT: muka ancur, setan, Sambo kelinci hutan, kelamin hitam,

The example above applied the Discursive Creation technique because of the word “spear-chucking jungle bunny” in source language text which is translated “kelinci hutan, kelamin hitam” in target language text. There is creation which is done by translator in translating those words.

10. Established Equivalence + Reduction; this technique is a combination of established Equivalence technique and Reduction technique. There are 9 techniques applied in the data. For example;

ST: I’d rather see a brother kill a white racist cop than kill a Vietnamese. BK/ 036
TT: Lebih baik aku menyaksikan saudara kita membantai polisi rasis itu daripada membantai warga Vietnam.

The phrase above “a white racist cop” in source language text is translated into “polisi rasis” in target language text. In the source language text, the word “white” is not translated into target language text. So, there is a missing word in target language text.

11. Established Equivalence + Explicitation; there are 3 techniques which are used by translator in the data. This technique is the mixture of two technique which paraphrases information from source language text into target language text, in order to make it easy for the audience or reader to understand the meaning.

ST: is Ron Stallworth, you racist, peckerwood, BK/ 190
TT: dialah Ron Stallworth, dasar kau rasis, kulit putih bangsat,

From the example above, the word “peckerwood” is translated by translator becoming “kulit putih bangsat”. There is additional information in target language text which is used to describe the word “peckerwood” in source language text.

12. Established Equivalence + Literal; there is one technique applied in the data. Translator applied this technique by using word by word from the source language into target language.

ST: Black bitch, you get this Black Panther. BK/ 040
TT: Pelacur hitam, kau bawa anggota Black Panther ini.
“Black bitch” is translated in source language text into “Pelacur hitam” in target language text literally. The meaning between source language text and target language text is the same although its meaning is out of the context.

13. Pure Borrowing + Discursive Creation; in the data, there is one technique applied by translator in translating the same word between source language text and target language text. This combination of two techniques produces the creativity of translation. It can be seen in the example below:

ST: spade, spook, Sambo, spear-chucking jungle bunny, BK/187
TT: muka ancur, setan, Sambo kelinci hutan, kelamin hitam.

“Sambo spear-chucking jungle bunny” in source language text is translated into “sambo kelinci hutan, kelamin hitam” in target language text. The reason why the translator used this technique is the translator borrowed the word from source language text, and developed the creativity in its translation product

**Translation quality in accuracy assessment aspect as the second finding**

Accuracy is the first aspect in translation quality assessment. To know the translation quality, the researcher applied the assessment applied by Nababan, et al (2012) by applying the findings of the Average of Translation Quality. This result can be seen in table 3:

Table 3 The Average of Translation Quality of slur terms in BlacKkKlasman movie.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Translation Quality in term of Accuracy</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Σ data</th>
<th>The average of translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accurate</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>171</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less Accurate</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inaccurate</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total data</td>
<td></td>
<td>198</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the table 3 above, the translation quality in terms of accuracy shows that there 171 data from 198 data which has the highest score with score 3 or accurate. Next, in the second rank of translation quality in terms of accuracy is less accurate with 19 data which has score 2. The third one in accuracy level is inaccurate by appearances of 3 data from the total of data. It has the lowest score in terms of accuracy level with score 1. So, it can be concluded that on average the accuracy of translation quality for slur terms in BlacKkKlasman movie is 2.8 of 3 points. It means that the translation quality is good. Several examples of translation quality of term of accuracy including accurate, less accurate, and inaccurate level can be seen in the table 4 below:
Table 4. The Examples of Slurs in the Form of Accuracy Assessment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Data code</th>
<th>Source Language Text</th>
<th>Target Language Text</th>
<th>Accuracy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>BK/004</td>
<td>They're <em>lying, dirty monkeys</em>, stopping at nothing to gain their equality with white men.</td>
<td><em>Mereka monyet-monyet pembohong dan menjijikkan, tak akan berhenti sampai mereka mendapatkan kesetaraan dengan warga kulit putih.</em></td>
<td>Accurate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>BK/019</td>
<td>Good. So, knowing that, if somebody calls you a <em>nigger</em>, will you be able to turn the other cheek?</td>
<td><em>Bagus. Jadi, mengetahui itu, jika seseorang memanggilimu <em>nigger</em>, apakah kau dapat menahan dirimu?</em></td>
<td>Accurate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>BK/083</td>
<td>Course I'm no stinkin' <em>kike</em>.</td>
<td><em>Tentu saja aku bukan Yahudi.</em></td>
<td>Accurate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>BK/198</td>
<td>Not all of those people were <em>neo-Nazis</em>, believe me.</td>
<td><em>Tidak semua dari orang-orang itu adalah <em>neo-Nazi</em>, percayalah padaku.</em></td>
<td>Accurate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>BK/071</td>
<td>Yeah, wasn't long ago them <em>sumbitches</em> wasn't on no TV.</td>
<td><em>Ya, belum lama ini mereka tumben tidak muncul di TV.</em></td>
<td>Less Accurate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>BK/088</td>
<td>Are you a <em>pig</em>?</td>
<td>*Apa kau seorang <em>babi</em>?</td>
<td>Less Accurate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>BK/139</td>
<td><em>pigs</em> are out tonight, yeah.</td>
<td><em>polisi berpatroli malam ini, ya.</em></td>
<td>Less Accurate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>BK/188</td>
<td><em>spade, spook, Sambo, spear-chucking jungle bunny,</em></td>
<td>*muka ancur, setan, Sambo <em>kelinci hutan, kelamin hitam,</em></td>
<td>Less Accurate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>BK/039</td>
<td>what your <em>nigger</em> name is!</td>
<td><em>Aku tak peduli siapa namamu!</em></td>
<td>Inaccurate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>BK/056</td>
<td>Only I have to change it every time that British <em>fag</em>, David Bowie, pipes on.</td>
<td><em>Hanya saja aku harus menggantinya lagi kalau ada musiknya David Bowie terdengar.</em></td>
<td>Inaccurate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table 4 above states the examples of Slurs in the aspect of Accuracy Assessment. The examples 1 until 4 show that source language texts are translated into target language texts accurately. So, the messages transferred are equal between source language texts and target language texts without any meaning distortion. In these examples, the raters assess the translation quality of accuracy with score 3 which is the highest score. This quality can also be proven by applying the translation techniques correctly. These techniques used by the translators are Establish equivalence, Pure borrowing and Modulation. After that, the next examples started from 5 to 8 are evaluated by the raters as less accurate in terms of accuracy assessment. They scored 2 for the translation quality. It means that there is still meaning distortion or ambiguous meaning or omissions, which
destroy the whole message. It can also be seen from translation techniques. These techniques applied in the data are Implicitation, Explicitation, Literal and Discursive Creation techniques. The last examples in number 9 and 10 are included in inaccurate level in accuracy assessment of translation quality. The raters gave score 1 which is the lowest score for this assessment. So, there are meanings which have been deleted by the translator in translating the source language text into target language text. One translation technique which deletes meaning from source language text into target language text is Deletion technique.

5. CONCLUSION
It can be concluded that there are 198 data relating to slur expressions which were translated from Source Text into Target Text in *BlacKkKlasman* movie. Then, the translation techniques applied here are classified into 13 techniques both single and double techniques. Those are Established Equivalence, Modulation, Deletion, Pure Borrowing, Explicitation, Generalization, Literal, Discursive Creation, Established Equivalence + Explicitation, Established Equivalence + Reduction, Established Equivalence + Literal, Pure Borrowing + Discursive Creation. The most dominant technique in this analysis is Establish equivalent technique because it cannot be separated from the context. Finally, the translation techniques above have a good impact on the translation quality including accuracy, acceptability, and readability. It can be seen from the average total of the accuracy term of translation quality was 2.8 point from 3 points. Therefore, the translation quality in *BlacKkKlasman* movie is good for the audiend.

ABOUT THE AUTHOR(S)

Agus Dimyati Masykur is a student in Sebelas Maret University’s post graduate program, majoring in translation studies. He is also interested in many linguistics researches, such as semantics, pragmatics, sociolinguistics and systemic functional linguistics. He has not had international journal. Professor Mangatur R. Nababan and Professor Djatmika are lecturers in post graduate program in Sebelas Maret University who always motivate him to complete his thesis and give him a lot of knowledge in several linguistic fields.

REFERENCES


The Translation Quality on Slurs in BlacKkKlasman Movie


Reading Difficulties Faced by ESL Undergraduate Learners: The Case of King Khalid University in Saudi Arabia

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ARTICLE INFO

ABSTRACT

Reading is one of the important language learning skills in English. The purpose of this research is to find out the difficulties in reading skill among undergraduate Arab undergraduate students of. Widely, English is the preferred language for communication and job sector so it is important to accomplish the difficulties in learning the language. Reading is one of the important skills when learning the language. There are some factors and strategies to achieve success in reading. This paper tried to find out those problems and strategies to overcome the difficulties. For the data, a survey was conducted among 77 undergraduate English department students of level-3 from King Khalid University, Almajardha campus. The results from the survey help to find out the difficulties and strategies to overcome the problem.

KEYWORDS

ESL, LSRW, Strategies, Acquisition.

1. INTRODUCTION

English language is a skill-based subject. There are four fundamental skills namely LSRW (listening, Speaking, reading and writing). As an ESL learner should must acquire all of these skills to be successful in the language, each skill is important when learning the language. Reading is considered as a significant skill, which needs the active mind. This research paper is mainly focused on reading skill and difficulties in acquiring it. There are some factors: English language is only learned for the purpose of getting marks in the exam not for the real-life communication. Other factors are the lack of self-motivation, lack of interest in reading and learners give less attention to the practices in learning process. Problems occur in learning process specifically in reading skill due to memory problem, limited understanding of phonics, difficulty in comprehending and showing lack of attention. Even a small barrier in reading will prevent pupils from achieving the goal.

To avoid these barriers, a learner should follow some strategies to get successful in learning the language. Learners should identify what is the major problem in acquiring the skill and what they can do to avoid such barriers.

1.1 Objectives and significance of the study

This study targeted on the problems and difficulties in reading skill among the undergraduate Arab students. In Saudi Arabian schools, English has been taught as a foreign language from class six but in the past few years, English was introduced as one of the subjects from class four to improve the skills. Also, these students study other subjects in mother language, Arabic. Giving attention to reading skill is important because standard education depends on learners reading proficiency. So, this is the main reason to do study on this area; also, this research tried to investigate the problems faced by the students in acquiring ESL (English as a Second Language).

2.1 Strategies in reading skill

Reading strategies help the learner to understand the text quickly. Skimming and scanning are the two ways one can use to understand the text ideas. Scanning is used to find out the specific information and is
normally used to find out numbers, names, bolded items or key words. Skimming method is used for the purpose of understanding the main idea or general view of the text. Skimming lets the learner glide through a text as to read quickly. A reader can skim a text when she or he wants to get a general idea about the information contained in the text but does not need to know full information. Other methods to understand the main idea is that the learner should find out the idea which is close to the topic or text and should not focus on the general ideas or specific point of information.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

English Language Acquisition

The acquisition of vocabulary at first sight seems straightforward; we all know we need a large number of words to speak a language (Vivian Cook, p46). So, it is a must for an ESL learner to know and memorize more vocabulary.

Dechant (1982) defines reading as a conceptual and thinking process which is interpretive. Reading skill needs the active mind of the reader and should give self interest in developing the process of learning.

Reading Skills

The ability to think critically about the information that is presented in the text is the crucial part of being an active reader (Mindy Pasternak, 2008).

Reading like speaking occurs in a context rather than in isolation. The meaning of a text is not found just in the sentences themselves, but is derived from the previous knowledge stored in the reader’s mind and the process through which the reader tackles it. (Vivian Cook, p121).

Reading Difficulties

Reading is a complex process which involves eye movement, decoding, encoding and utilizing linguistic awareness (Fisher,1981). Complex process will make the learner to have difficulties in the process of learning.

3. METHODOLOGY

Reading is considered to be an important skill for ESL learners. They face lot of difficulties in acquiring the process. In this research quantitative data were used to find out the causes. A survey was conducted directly from the students during their class times. Undergraduate English department seventy-seven students of level-3 from King Khalid University, Almajardha campus were asked to give their opinion on the questionnaire. They were asked to answer yes or no questions in the survey.

The survey had eight types of questions regarding the problem they face. And after the survey, a discussion was formed with the same students to understand more about the causes and difficulties they face during the learning process. For results from the data, each question was converted as a chart and percentage by using Microsoft Excel software.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The following section deals with each question separately, and is followed by an explanation of the results obtained.

Q1. Are you interested in reading?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer type</th>
<th>Number of students</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>58%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Discussion

For this question out of 77 students, 32 students given their opinion as yes and 45 students said no. The results show part of the learner does not show interest for developing reading skill.

Q2. Did you study in a school where English is the medium of teaching?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer type</th>
<th>Number of Students</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

All the 77 students said yes to this question, they studied primary and secondary education in their first language. So obviously all the students must give interest in learning new vocabularies and making use of it in real life communication. Also, they should do more practice in English other than the subjects.

Q3. Do you translate in Arabic when you do not understand?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer type</th>
<th>Number of Students</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Discussion

All the 77 students said yes for this question. All do translate when they do not understand in English. It is obvious that this has connection with their medium of education in school. This shows that most of them have problem understanding contextual meaning.

Q4. do you do extensive reading in English?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer type</th>
<th>Number of Students</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>61%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

Among 77 students 30 students said yes they give reading other than the text book but 47 students said no for this question. Learners should expand their reading habits in other mediums. They can use social media, e-magazine and story books to learn the language.

Q5. Do you feel fear when you read loud in class?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer type</th>
<th>Number of Students</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>64%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NO 36%
YES 64%
Discussion

For this question 49 students said yes and 28 students said no. Most of the students feel fear because they think that they are weak in phonic and having less confident about the vocabulary they pronounce. Reading and vocabulary have deep connection because vocabulary is the main element in English language. It helps to express the language skill. So, this shows that this level student must develop their vocabularies.

Q6. Do you have difficulty in understanding large vocabularies?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer type</th>
<th>Number of Students</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>82%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

Almost 63 students have problems in understanding large words they read. 14 students said no for this question. This again shows that most of the students have poor vocabularies and they often forget the words quickly after they learn. This is due to the way students use such vocabulary. Most of the ESL learners do not use language outside the classroom.

Q7. Do you have difficulties in understanding the topic?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer type</th>
<th>Number of Students</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>43%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Discussions

Out of 77 students, 44 said they have problems in grasping the main idea or topic of a text. 33 students said no for this question. Reading is all about vocabularies and meaning. This shows that most of them have difficulties in understanding the topic itself.

Q8. Do you have problem in comprehending?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer type</th>
<th>Number of Students</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Among 77 students, 50 students said they have problems in comprehending. 27 students said no for this question. Question number 7 is related to this question, it is divided to understand problems strongly. Most of the students said they have problems in understanding the large text than the smaller one. To overcome this problem, the learner should use some strategies like skimming and scanning. Also, students should give interest and involvement while reading the text, this will help the learner slowly to overcome this problem.

5. CONCLUSION

This study tried to find out the distinct problems that ESL learners have when learning reading. The study revealed many findings. Most of the students are weak in reading skill due to various reasons. The major barrier is their basic education; it’s not included with the English language as one of the subjects till class six and this has prominent connection in other distinct problems. Other barriers include poor vocabulary, lack of interest to read in English, struggle in understanding contextual meaning and problems in comprehending. This study suggests that providing solid foundation in reading skill will help the learner to overcome the problem. Also, the learner should use strategies like skimming, scanning and memorizing lot of vocabularies. Above all, the ESL learner should use the English language in real life communication rather than the purpose of examinations and to be successful in English language acquisition. ESL learners need special attention from the teachers and also they must develop self-motivation and more practices in reading skill.

REFERENCES

Investigating the Performance of Saudi EFL Learners while Translating Circumstantial Case
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ARTICLE INFO

ABSTRACT

Received: September 12, 2019
Accepted: October 15, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.40

Arabic is the most widely spoken Semitic language and has seen phases of change from the Quranic form to the more popular Modern Standard Arabic that is used for communication today. It shares some of its features with other languages in the family, and the use of the Cognate Accusative is one such characteristic. For this reason, Arabic is known as a Cognate Language like other languages of this family. However, English is of the Indo-European family and naturally has a different set of rules and preferences. Training learners in language forms that differ in style and value discourse elements differently can be a daunting task as what sounds natural in one can be frowned at in the other. With students inclined to literally translate between such languages as in the case of KSA, the change of form can be quite difficult to understand. Where no equivalence exists between two languages, the translator’s need to establish it for obvious reasons is one of the most problematic and challenging endeavours in translation theory. Teachers of language and translation in KSA are concerned with learning problems that arise due to lexical and grammatical non-equivalence between Arabic and English which often leads to confusion and incorrect output during translation process. The current study aimed at investigating one of the Arabic grammatical structures which has no equivalent in English (Circumstanial Case). Circumstanial Case or using the same verb root twice in a construction is valued in Arabic discourse as it serves usually one or more of three purposes: Adding emphasis, explaining the type, and explaining the number. However, this is absent in English as the construction is seen as unnatural and hence, incorrect. Following analytical methods, the study targeted two objectives: One, testing the learners’ ability to translate the Cognate Accusative; and two, to gather an understanding of the strategies they adopted in the process. The study is likely to be of great value in a foreign language learning environment as is the case in the KSA. We used written tests to collect the data, followed by detailed interviews to elicit information on the translation strategies used. Participants were female undergraduate students (N=35) at Hurimilla College of Science and Humanities, Shaqra University, KSA, of which fifteen were randomly interviewed consequently. The data collected was analyzed using SPSSR.

The findings showed that this structure is indeed confusing for students with 37% of them using literal translation, and 12.29% producing incorrect versions or sometimes avoiding translating them. Personal interviews revealed that the reason of these results can be directly attributed to the absence of these categories in English, and non-equivalence between Arabic and English.

KEYWORDS

Equivalence, Translation, Saudi EFL Learners

1. INTRODUCTION

Translation is as much an essential component of human communication as the very production of speech in the first place. Moreover, given the changing face of human interaction in the world, it has assumed the status of an important element for the exchange of information, thoughts, and ideas regardless of people’s different tongues and cultures. Apart from a
communication tool, translation has an undeniable place in foreign language teaching and testing. Azziz and Lataiwish (2000: 166) point out that translation is has been an integral part of academics, and it has been widely practiced throughout the course of human language. Hence the growing worth of translation studies which is also the beacon light that guided the current study in Contrastive Linguistics.

Contrastive linguistics is considered one of the new fields within translation studies. It involves the analysis of two or more languages, with the aim of understanding their similarities and differences. The objectives of the comparison may vary: The term ‘contrastive linguistic’ or ‘contrastive analysis’, specially concerns itself with the applied aspects of contrastive studies as a means of predicting and/or explaining difficulties of second language learners with a particular mother tongue in learning a target language. Contrastive studies in translation do not only concentrate on texts but also investigate even the smaller units in languages, such as, grammatical and lexis. Williams and Chesterman (2002: 90) highlight this fact when they state, “A contrastive approach might also focus not on texts but on grammatical structures or lexical items, looking for equivalence rules for translating certain structures between a given pair of languages, or for terminology equivalents”.

Equivalence or its absence is a known hurdle in translation. The problem arises when suitable counterparts in a target language do not exist for expressions in the source language. Non-equivalence, predictably, is one of the obstacles that face both translators and students of English. Arabic has many structures that do not exist in English such as Circumstantial Case. Therefore, when students encounter such structures, they feel confused. Translating to and from English-Arabic therefore poses a peculiar, though not unique, challenge for them. English and Arabic belong to different language families and are even written in different directions. Evolution in English can be said to be more of a constant feature with the language getting enriched by the varied cultural contact that it got exposed to. Arabic is an old language and one that prides itself in its purity and closeness to the original. In terms of discourse, Arabic is a highly inflectional language with amazing scope for improvisation as these inflections convey meaning even with a changed word order. This is not so in English. As if the differences were not enough to challenge the students’ faculty, there are degrees of prevalence of certain features in both the languages, that is, they share certain characteristics. For instance, the feature of agglutination or of adding morphemes or inflections to words to form long words strings exists widely in Arabic but only peripherally in English. However, the fact that it is present in both is adequate to confound the learners of both or either. In terms of translation, this is called non-equivalence. Another feature of non-equivalence, and one which is also the focus of this study, is the accusative case. Syntactically, the object in Arabic appears in the accusative case but its semantic function may vary from emphasis to indication of any of the many aspects of an event. This embedded feature is seen by Arabic speaking learners of English as a major hurdle in translation. This problem has been previously studied but the current research aims to add the dimension of learner strategies employed to counter it. Thirty five female students of the Department of English at College of Science and Humanities in Shaqra University at Huriyilla were requested to undertake translation of a short selection of Arabic sentences with Circumstantial Case into English. This was followed up with personal interviews with fifteen of them selected randomly to gain an understanding of the strategies they followed to translate the problematic case marking.

2.1 Statement of the Problem
As teachers of translation courses, we understand the particularly challenging task that is translation. Whether identified as a science or an art, the pitfalls associated with it still remain. Translation teachers (at least in the KSA) are conscious of sensitising their students to the fact that meaning is embedded in context, that language can sometimes be restrictive, and that precise language equivalents sometimes do not exist. English and Arabic being two very different languages in many ways, translating between these is particularly difficult for students. With much training, some proficient students are indeed able to translate ‘what’ a text says but not ‘how’ it is said. This paper tries to find why the Arabic speaker fails to capture the essence of a text while translating between Arabic and English.

2.2 Research Questions
1. Which strategies do the students resort to when translating Circumstantial Case in English?

2.3 Research Objectives
The study had the following objectives to achieve:
(a) Create an understanding among those engaged in learning and doing translation about the possible linguistic challenges that they may have to encounter.
(b) Create greater awareness among the linguists and translators towards undertaking descriptive bilingual comparative studies in the study of translation between Arabic and English.
2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Theoretical Framework
Contrastive studies of English and Arabic are numerous with a long history. These came into vogue more than half a century ago in the late 1950s (Mukattash, 2001: 115) Elwedeyani cf as quoted in Abu-Jarad reports of a study conducted by Catford. This extensive study included phonology, morphology, and syntax. According to AbuJarad (1986: 18) Native language interference, TL overgeneralization and fossilization were likely to occur in case of translation between Arabic and English.

Mukattash, (2001:116) pinpoints the following titles that investigate different issues in English-Arabic contrastive studies in the last five years: “Verb movement, subject movement and word order in English and Arabic”, “Locative attention in English and Jordanian spoken Arabic”, “Negation in Cairene colloquial Arabic, English and French: an historical linguistic analysis”, “Syntactic devices for marking information structure in English and Arabic”, and “Lexical, phonological and textual features of English and Arabic advertisements: a contrastive study.”

Traditional Arabic versus Modern Standard Arabic
In modern times, two standard (al-)fuṣḥā (الفصحى) varieties of Arabic are recognized: the Classical Arabic (CA) (اللغة العربية التقليدية) as found in the Quran and early Islamic (7th to 9th centuries) literature, and Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) (اللغة العربية المعاصرة) the standard language of use today. MSA is based on classical Arabic, and the differences between the two varieties of the language are lies in the modernizing and simplification, both in speaking and writing styles to be seen in MSA. However, the two are not seen as separate entities, rather as two registers.

The Accusative
The accusative case of a noun marks the direct object of a transitive verb. The same case is used in many languages for the objects of (some or all) prepositions. It is a noun that is the focus of the action. For example, “they” in English is nominative; “them” is accusative. The sentence “They like them” clearly shows the nominative case and accusative case working in conjunction using the same base word.

Accusative in Arabic are nouns used as object in sentences, and their modifying adjectives. The number, gender and definiteness of the noun or adjective in question are marked using inflections in Arabic. This makes Arabic a highly inflectional language.

There are five types of objects or complements: the internal object or cognate accusative structure. This structure intensifies an action by following the verb with its corresponding verbal noun (المصدر maSdar) and an adjective modifying it.

Examples of Accusatives are:
1. **The accusative of specification**: often answers the question “in what way?” Includes the comparative/superlative and counted nouns between 11 and 99.
2. **Concomitant Accusative**: shows the purpose of an action, usually using an indefinite مصدر "Don’t kill your children for fear of poverty".
3. **The circumstantial accusative**: This is a way to describe a condition/action going on at the same time as the main action.
4. **The accusative of specification**: often answers the question “in what way?” Includes the comparative/superlative and counted nouns between 11 and 99.
5. **The accusative of specification**: often answers the question “in what way?” Includes the comparative/superlative and counted nouns between 11 and 99.
6. **The accusative of specification**: often answers the question “in what way?” Includes the comparative/superlative and counted nouns between 11 and 99.

Circumstantial Case
Expressing a condition or circumstance that occurs concurrent with or ongoing at the time of the action of the main verb, a participle is often used to describe that condition. The canonical example is “Zaid came to me riding,” in which the word “riding” is Circumstantial Accusative because it describes the state under which the “coming” occurred. The governing agent for the Circumstantial Accusative is a verb (or verb-like entity) and it is actually considered one of the details of the verb. The Circumstantial Accusative describes
the circumstantial-aspect, but not of the verb itself. In the sentence “Zaid came to me riding,” for instance, 
the Circumstantial Accusative describes the state of 
the subject Zaid, not of the verb. It was Zaid who was 
riding, not the act of coming that was riding. This is 
why Circumstantial case is not a type of مفعول (Object) 
in Arabic. Because Circumstantial case is one of the 
details of the verb but it is not a type of مفعول، it falls 
under a category of verb details referred to as 
المفاعل

Some Basics about the Circumstantial Case

Circumstantial Accusative – that detail of the verb which describes the 
circumstances of the subject and/or the object under which the verb was enacted

There are three main types of this structure with sub-
types:
1. Single
   جاء القائد ظافرا
   “The leader came back victorious”:
   Adjective;
   The active participle is widely used in this function, but occasionally the passive participle or a verbal noun is used:
   (1) Using passive participles: حَضَرَ الطالِبَة إلی الصَّفِّ ضاحِکـَة
   “The student came to class smiling.”
   (2) Using a verbal noun: بين السحاب رأيت الهلال
   “I saw the crescent moon among the clouds”
   There are cases where 
   the Circumstantial Accusative will be definite. In such cases, it will be interpreted 
   indefinite. For example:

In addition to, the Circumstantial case can be a noun 
phrase such as: جُرِّخ الرجل من القأعة منكس الرأس: ‘The man went out from the hall with his head bowed.’
2. Sentence
3. There are two types of the Circumstantial Accusative 
sentence. It must have a connection with what it 
refers to either by:
   a. A pronoun, if it is a verbal sentence and it 
      refers to a definite noun. For example: جاء 
      العذب وهو يركض
   4. A wāw of Circumstantial case if it is a nominal 
      sentence: (Seek knowledge while 
      you are young)
5. Fragment: رأيت الهلال بين السحاب
   “I saw the crescent moon among the clouds”
   There are cases where the Circumstantial Accusative 
   will be definite. In such cases, it will be interpreted 
   indefinite. For example:
B. Previous Studies
A lot of syntactical problems often face EFL students throughout their years of study. Concerning translation exercises especially from Arabic into English – which certainly is the most difficult, students find difficulty when translating particular Arabic categories. They might need more concentration on translation theories; specifically equivalence. Besides, their awareness of the problems resulting from non-equivalence, and the strategies for solving them help them to avoid literal translation and other difficulties. As a matter of fact, there are a lot of researches that have been conducted in translation, but a few in the above mentioned areas of study.

This part deals with relevant studies which shed light on this area of study. These studies are as follows:

First study, Haitham Basher Mustafa, (January 2014), a PhD thesis entitled “Critical problems encountered by EFL Saudi Students”. This study discussed translation problems confronted EFL learners from English to Arabic such as articles, pronouns, English word order, idioms, phrasal verbs and proverbs, dualism and feminine suffix signs beside the notion of equivalence as a problem for student. He also discussed how students think in the mother tongue which causes interference. The research judged the effect of grammar, culture and thinking in the mother tongue on correct grammar. He followed the qualitative analytic approach. The study was conducted in Shaqra university as a case study, using (384) Saudi students selected randomly from Dawadmi Community College studying English as a requirement (first year) and college of Science and Humanities who are specialized in English (first year). For the methodology of this research, he used a test, two questionnaires for the students, in addition to an interview for experts in the field.

Second study, Mohammad Al shehab, Translation Department Jadara University, Jordan Arab World English Journal INTERNATIONAL PEER REVIEWED JOURNAL ISSN: 2229-9327 AWEJ Special issue on Translation No. (2) 2013 “Investigating the Syntactic Difficulties which Encounter Translation Students at Irbid National University in Jordan from Arabic into English”. The major purpose of this study is to identify the most important difficulties that Jordanian students in English may encounter in syntax (omission, addition and grammar) through translating Arabic sentences into English. The sample was (20) Jordanian translation students who were selected randomly. They constitute 20 % of the total number (100) of the second year who enrolled in the second semester of the academic year (2011-2012) at Irbid National University in Jordan. The subjects had studied different courses in translation from English into Arabic and vice-versa. They passed a prerequisite test to measure their proficiency when they joined the University. Therefore, all of them are identical in their educational background. The researcher used a test which consists of (20) Arabic sentences. These sentences were taken from a book in General Translation (2): from Arabic into English by Dr. Muhammad AlKhuli. The test was given to two instructors in the Department of Translation at the same university. They were asked to translate it and to make their comments and views. Their comments were taken into consideration, followed by approving the final version (instructor’s) and its suitability for testing students. The subjects were given a test of Arabic sentences to be translated into English.


The objectives of this research were:
1. To investigate the factors that affect equivalence,
2. Identify the existing equivalence problems in translation,
3. Providing the main techniques for translation and reduce the problems in curriculum showing and comparing differences between the two languages (contrastive analysis studies)

The researcher used the descriptive analytical method. The population were all learners of translation especially post graduate males and females who are in Omdurman Islamic and Omdurman Ahlia Universities, and those who worked in the field of translation. The data collection tools were a questionnaire and a test distributed to 100 participants randomly, males and females. The questionnaire consisted of five parts offered to post graduate, master degree and Phd students.

It is worth mentioning that the findings of this study which applied to different levels of students, agree with the present study as follow:

a. There is no exact equivalence between two languages in the field of translation.
b. There are real problems and difficulties encountered translators.
c. EFL learners encountered by different linguistics factors in languages.
d. There are no two languages have the same grammatical structure or word order.
There are many types of equivalence can be used to reduce the problems of translation.

Fourth study, Esti Junining, An English Language Lecturer of Brawijaya University in Malang, JawaTimur conducted a paper entitled “Translation Strategies Adopted by English Department Students in Coping with Non Equivalence Problems”. Translation skill is undoubtedly needed by university students to uncover the problems in understanding textbooks written in English. Despite the need, there are still few students using appropriate strategies to help them comprehend the textbooks. This is due to their lack of understanding in the theories of translation which more or less help them translate the textbooks well. This paper is intended to find out appropriate strategies adopted by English department students in coping with problems with non-equivalence. The study used a quantitative approach supported by some forms of qualitative data. In collecting the data, the researcher used content analysis (Ary, 2002), where researchers analyzed the work of translation subjects and investigated the translation strategies adopted by the respondents. There were 65 respondents participating in this study. The selection of research subjects was through using purposive sampling method in which the 65 respondents were taken from two classes of Introduction to Translation class managed by the researcher. The two classes were divided into class A (32 respondents) and class B (33 respondents) respectively.

The method of data collection is done in two ways: the first was given a translation test in which the students were given three short texts consisting of informative texts, literary works and news in English. These three different "genre" of the texts were chosen because they represent the kinds of texts that are commonly taught in the college. Of the three texts, the respondents had to translate the texts into Indonesian and then make a list of difficulties and choose appropriate strategies adopted in solving these problems. Secondly, the researcher gave questionnaires to find out what strategies the respondents used at the three different genres. The data analysis was performed by analyzing the contents of the translation done by the respondents. After that the results of a questionnaire were analyzed to know the translation strategies used by respondents then mapping the types of texts and strategies used in solving the problems of non-equivalence.

On the basis of the analysis, there are two primary findings, namely the translation strategies adopted by the English department students and the explanation whether they adopted the same strategies in coping with the non-equivalence in translation. This study focused on the seven translation strategies by Baker, (1992). It can be seen that most of the students adopted translation by more general word (superordinate) (96) out of 252 or around (38 %). Besides using general words, the second strategy is omitting the non-equivalent words 46 out of 252 or 18%. The third most adopted strategy is translation by a more neutral/less expressive word, 32 out of 252 or about 13%. The fourth most adopted strategy is paraphrasing the unrelated words 28 out of 252 or 8 around (11%). The fifth most adopted strategy is cultural substitution 20 out of 252 or 8 %. The sixth most strategy is translation using a loan word or loan word plus explanation 17 out of 252 or 7%. Finally, the least adopted strategy is using illustration 13 out of 252 or 5 %. Solving the problem of nonequivalence by translation using more general words is the most preferable translation strategy adopted by the students due to the reason that it is more difficult for the translator to translate using the more specific choice of word.

On the basis of the data collected, most of the students adopted more general words (52%) to solve the problem of non-equivalence in informational text. It was followed by omitting the non-equivalent words (17%), using loan words with explanation (10%) and paraphrasing the difficult words (10%). Translation using more general words is preferable due to the reason that it is easier strategy compared with the others. Concerning Translation Strategies used in Literary Texts, the same as informational text, the students mostly adopted more general words in translating nonequivalence in literary text.

Similar to both informational and literary texts, in news, most of the students (45%) adopted more general words to solve the problem of non-equivalence. They thought that translation using more general words is easier to understand compared with the others like omission which is becoming risky to change the original meaning of the source language. In general, most of the respondents preferred to translate using more general words instead of omission, using loan words with explanation, paraphrasing, using more neutral or less expressive meaning, cultural substitution and illustration. At the end of the paper, it is suggested that the students undergo more practice in translation using the seven strategies of translation. It is suggested that English teachers could give a model or drill more translation strategies to make the students use to solve the problems of non-equivalence easily.

Fifth study, Ahmad Ezzati, (2004). College of Foreign Language Islamic Azad University, Shahr-e-Qods Branch Tehran, Iran, “Non-Equivalence at Grammatical and Word Level and the Strategies to Deal with”: A Case Study of English Translation into Persian. The present paper tried to examine non-
equivalence at grammatical level, and then discussed the problems of finding equivalence at word level and proposed theoretical strategies and techniques to deal with such difficulties from English translation into Persian. Considering the fact that finding equivalence at grammatical and word level plays a pivotal role in translation, this paper aimed to research some difficulties in areas such as: voice, gender, tense and aspect, person, at grammatical level and culture specific- concepts, and differences in expressive meaning at word level. Moreover, the study’s theoretical framework is based on Baker.

Analyses showed that these difficulties may occur in any circumstance. Then some techniques to overcome these difficulties such as exploitations and transposition at grammatical level; and strategically ones such as translation by super ordinate, and translation by omission at word level have been mentioned. Another key concept to be considered is translators who are supposed to have a perfect knowledge in both source language and target language. Moreover, research on linguistic and stylistic aspects between these two is significant. As a result, it is essential for a translator to know both languages as well. The findings indicated that there are a number of elements which should be considered by translators in order to translate a text at grammatical and word level such as, enough information about the culture of both the languages, beside the linguistic and stylistic aspects of languages.

This study highlights the importance of the strategies for solving non- equivalence problems. As a matter of fact, there are different types of strategies that can be applied while translating. Choosing the appropriate strategy depends on the nature of the sentence or text.

3. METHODOLOGY
We used the descriptive analytical method in this study. Both quantitative and qualitative methods were used to collect data from the selected participants, level six learners of translation who were administered a translation test comprising five Arabic sentences to be translated to English. The structures had the cognate accusative in different functions (Appendix 01). The actual number of the students enrolled in the course (translation 2) was (41). Six withdrew for different excuses. So, the study sample consisted of (35) undergraduate female students from the English language program at Hurimilla College of Science and Humanities, Shaqra University, KSA. One of the suggested fields of work for these students is translation. So, they are prepared, although with a few courses of translation, but intensive. Because it is a small province, the number of the females in different departments, particularly English is few.

All the students were females ranged between 18-23 years old. The number of students at this level is few as usually a great number of the students withdraw, or are transferred to other departments when they reach advanced stages in the home departments. EFL learners at this college receive three courses of translation. The first one is assigned in the first year (Level One) of the program, second term. It trains the students in English – Arabic translation. This course includes some theories in translation such as the principles of translation, types of translation etc, but it does not include any information about equivalence. Similarly, the second course which follows the first one also trains the students in translation from English into Arabic, neglects this notion. The last course is assigned to students in the third year (level six), second term when students’ competence in English is fortified. According to the department curriculum, they receive just a single Arabic- English course. These students (academic year 1436-1437 H.D)/Second Term comprised the population of this study.

Following the test, fifteen of the respondents were randomly requested to answer questions on a one-to-one basis. The interview questions were centred on the obstacles faced by the respondents in translating to English.

Procedures
Face validity
To establish face validity, the test was judged by four Arabic language assistant professors at Shaqra University. The intended questionnaire is also seen by four translation assistant professors who have a considerable experience in teaching translation. Their constructive comments and remarks were taken into consideration and the necessary modifications were made accordingly.
Table 1. Criteria followed for marking the students’ test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mark</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The translation provided is correct or acceptable (It means that the student translated the target structure correctly, or produced a good trial).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>The translation provided is literal (the student used the same part of speech of the studied category).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 1/2</td>
<td>The translation provided is incorrect (the student avoided translating the target or used a different grammatical category)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1/2</td>
<td>The translation provided is weak (the student’s translation is semantically and syntactically poor).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zero</td>
<td>No translation is given at all.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Reliability analysis and internal consistency Cronbach’s Alpha

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Circumstantial Case</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha (α)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>علموا أطفالكم وهم صغار.</td>
<td>.687</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>سمعت المريض شاكيا.</td>
<td>.765</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>شاهدت المزارع بحصد المحم.</td>
<td>.605</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>رافقى الفرد وسط البناء.</td>
<td>.505</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>لعب الأطفال في نشاط ومرح.</td>
<td>.483</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

0.813

Procedures of the students’ test
The students at English Department, level six (Third Year/Second Term) were asked to translate (5) Arabic sentences into English at the beginning of the Arabic-English translation course. Out of context sentences were chosen for two purposes. Firstly the test was conducted at the beginning of the term. The students usually start this course (Translation 2) by translating different types of sentences as an introduction before shifting to paragraphs or texts. Secondly, according to the researcher’s experience, the students are rather slow in translating and they would have needed a longer time had paragraphs been chosen for the exercise. They were also likely to lose interest if the test was made too difficult or long. The test was graded out of 10 marks with two marks allocated for each sentence. They were asked not to use any translation web sites or apps other than dictionaries to ensure that they will translate the sentences by themselves. The sentences have been taken from different sources such as books and specialized web sites.

Reliability of the Students’ Test
After the researcher distributed the test to (35) students, it was collected and reliability was calculated and measured (Alpha Cronbach rule). The higher the Alpha is, the more reliable the test is. Usually 0.70 and above is acceptable.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 3. Students’ marks in the translation test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sentences regarding Circumstantial Accusative</th>
<th>Freq.</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
<th>Mark Mean ± SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>علموا أطفالكم وهم صغار.</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>62.9</td>
<td>1.66 ± 0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The translation provided is correct or acceptable (2)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>1.57 ± 0.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The translation provided is correct or acceptable (2)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>7.37 ± 1.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The translation provided is incorrect (1.5)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The translation provided is weak (.5)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No translation is given at all (0)</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>51.429</td>
<td>1.57 ± 0.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the translation provided is incorrect (1.5)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
the translation provided is literal (1)  8  22.857
the translation provided is weak (.5)  1  2.857
no translation is given at all (0)  1  2.857

The translation provided is correct or acceptable (2)  17  48.57
The translation provided is incorrect (1.5)  1  2.86
The translation provided is literal (1)  14  40.00
The translation provided is weak (.5)  1  2.86
No translation is given at all (0)  2  5.71

The translation provided is correct or acceptable (2)  16  45.7
The translation provided is incorrect (1.5)  2  5.7
The translation provided is literal (1)  15  42.9
The translation provided is weak (.5)  2  5.7
No translation is given at all (0)  0  0.0

The translation provided is correct or acceptable (2)  7  20.0
The translation provided is incorrect (1.5)  4  11.4
The translation provided is literal (1)  24  68.6
The translation provided is weak (.5)  0  0.0
No translation is given at all (0)  0  0.0

As shown in table (4.3), the mean score of the students regarding *Circumstantial case* was above average (mean=7.37, SD=1.96) indicating that the students were done well in this part of the test, although (38.9%) of the students’ translations were literal and (10.3%) were incorrect, while (3.4%) of the translation was weak and only (1.7%) of the students did not answer at all.
Table 4. Marks interpretation of Circumstantial Case

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mark interpretation</th>
<th>S1</th>
<th>S2</th>
<th>S3</th>
<th>S4</th>
<th>S5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The translation provided is correct or acceptable (2)</td>
<td>80/175*100 =45.7%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The translation provided is incorrect (1.5)</td>
<td>18/175*100 =10.3%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The translation provided is literal (1)</td>
<td>68/175*100 =38.9%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The translation provided is weak (.5)</td>
<td>6/175*100 =3.4%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No translation is given at all (0)</td>
<td>3/175*100 =1.7%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2. Students’ marks of translation in the sentences of Circumstantial Case

This structure is so eloquent that it expresses different situations. It has five types. The performance of the students in this structure was good as the functions and meanings in the sentences were obvious.

I heard the patient complaining”. However, some students used a noun (complaint), or put the verb in the past (complained). This type of Circumstantial Accusative (single) can be translated by a gerund. Moreover, a participle can be used or an adjective e.g.: "The army came back/ returned victorious”. In spite of all these possibilities, the students found the correct translation (19), compared with (7) literal translations and 8 incorrect productions.

The performance of the students in the nominal type of the Circumstantial case was the best. However, the other type of sentences, the verbal one, received worse translations from students.

On the other hand, the two other types of the circumstantial case were confusing for students.

The most confusing sub-type of this structure was the prepositional type as the students could not cope with it and mostly translated it literally by producing the same prepositional phrase instead of using an adverb which is the correct translation. لعب الأطفال في نشاط ومرح “The students play actively”.

5. CONCLUSION

According to the students’ results in the fragment type. راققي الورد وسط اليسان. (15) students translated it literally, while only two of the total group translated it incorrectly compared with (16) acceptable translations.

The present study aimed at investigating Circumstantial Case which is absent in English through testing the abilities of EFL learners in translating it. Further, this study tried to find the reasons for the confusion EFL learners encounter during translating it. The subjects of the study were undergraduate EFL students (level six, English Department) at Hurimilla College of Science and Humanities, Shaqra University KSA. The target respondents faced some difficulty in dealing with this structure, however, they the general performance was not bad as most of Circumstance Case functions are
clear. The shortcomings of the teachers in developing the learners’ awareness to the problem areas are glaring. So, the dearth of awareness of current research and strategies to counter this.

RECOMMENDATIONS
Based on the results of this study, it is recommended that greater emphasis be placed on Arabic structures that are absent in English and the concept of non-equivalence problems between Arabic and English. Circumstantial Case is not the only such feature. These characteristics of difference need to be drilled more diligently as part of class tasks as nothing can replace familiarity with the problem areas and strategies that may be used to counter them.

Further, teachers need to be encouraged to update their knowledge base on current research into language processing during translation and they be trained in strategies that can ease the pressure for the translators. Core theories of translation should be included in the curriculum of courses that have a translation component. This should be backed up with adequate exposure of the learners in translational practices by using real time language outputs such as movies which not only engage the learners in the learning process but also, place the language in a context.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY
This paper was in the nature of a pilot study to understand the pitfalls encountered by professionals and amateurs of translation. The sample size of thirty-five respondents was small and being uni-gendered, the findings may not be freely generalizable. Individual differences are likely to have affected the results. Two, similar studies with other languages of the family need to be studied diligently to draw solemn conclusions about the translational obstacles and useful counter strategies. Finally, for dearth of time and resources, the researcher was forced to administer only short and simple language structures for the test. With the recognition that language is about discourse, it is important that greater resources be invested in future studies on these lines and longer

REFERENCES


This Translation Test is for Research Purposes Only (Appendix)

The researcher is going to shed light on the importance of the idea of non-equivalence as the core of translation theory and practice, and how EFL learners aren’t sufficiently learned about this basic notion in translation. Translating into the foreign language is always considered more difficult than translating into the native language. To illustrate these points, the researcher is intended to discuss some Arabic structures specifically, the Accusative of Purpose, The Concomitant Accusative, the Circumstantial Accusative, and the Cognate Accusative which have no equivalence in English because Arabic as a source language and English as a target language belong to different language families. Hence, the students always feel confused in dealing with such structures and translate them literally.

ترجمي الجمل الآتية إلى اللغة الإنجليزية:

1. علموا أطفالكم وهم صغار.
2. سمخت المريض شاكياً.
3. شاهدت المزارع بحصد الفم.
4. رافتي الورد وسط البستان.
5. لعب الأطفال في نشاط ومرح.
To Probe Employed Consecutive Interpreting Strategies of One Equivalent Terms among Iranian Translation Learners
Pantea Pahlavani* & Reza Kazemi

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ARTICLE INFO

ABSTRACT

Received: September 24, 2019
Accepted: October 27, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.41

In the third millennium, the role of interpretation seems vital for several purposes like education, politics, commerce, healthcare, and so on. So, the performance of interpreters would definitely influence on further success in above mentioned objectives. In the present study, the researchers tried to investigate employed strategies in Persian to English consecutive interpreting of medical and healthcare terms with only one equivalent word by interpreting learners across gender. To this end, twenty four male and female interpreting learners were selected based on the obtained scores in a proficiency test and an interpreting exam. Then, they were asked to listen and interpret consecutively a Persian medical audio file. All interpreters were free to take notes or any kind of techniques they deemed necessary. While they were involved in the process of interpreting consecutively, their voices were recorded for further analysis. Next, the collected data were analyzed thoroughly to identify the employed strategies by consecutive interpreters as they were encountered with terms with only one word equivalent in English. As the results indicated, among six common employed strategies, both male and female interpreting learners employed approximation/ attenuation as the most frequent strategy and transcodage/ calque as the least one. Also, further statistical analysis showed no difference between male and female interpreting learners in strategy employment. The results of the present study could be helpful for novice interpreters, interpreting training courses, interpreting syllabus design, and workshops.

KEYWORDS

Consecutive interpretation, Equivalence, Interpreting learners, Interpreting strategies, Medical/Healthcare Terms

1. INTRODUCTION

Now a days due to the fact of globalization, i.e., “a process which makes national borders more transparent or even eliminates them completely, with restrictions on many kinds of exchanges becoming rapidly obsolete” (House, 2018, p.129), the growing necessity to translate seems inevitable. Interpreting as a form of translation is commonly described as oral or spoken translation and it is viewed as a more or less mechanical activity consisting of a series of encoding and decoding operations (Petrescu, 2014). In the activity of interpreting, “the interpreter translates oral discourse in various communicative situations, where messages are exchanged, through the interpreter, between people” (Niska, 1999, p.2). In other words, “interpreting is a form of translation in which a first and final rendition in another language is produced on the basis of a one-time presentation of an utterance in a source language” (Pochhacker, 2016, p.11).

Despite the rich findings from previous researches; however, little effort has been devoted to studying different features to interpreting activity and its related employed strategies in technical terms in Iran. This study had the propensity to fill the gap in literature. In fact, the aims of this study were to investigate the employed strategies in Persian to English consecutive interpreting of medical/healthcare terms with merely one English equivalent by Iranian interpreting learners in one hand, and to find out any possible difference in employed consecutive interpreting strategies between male and female interpreters in rendition of medical terms with one English equivalent.
2. LITERATURE REVIEW
Translation vs. Interpreting
“In layperson’s terms, interlingual communication, interpreting (oral) and translating (written) are activities whereby words in one language are expressed in another language” (Mulayim & Lai, 2017, p.31). As interpreting and translating are kinds of activities which inevitably include at least two languages and cultural traditions, cause anyone to arrive at this misconception that the two practices are the same. It means both the translator and the interpreter must have “a thorough mastery of the target language, as well as a very good passive understanding of the source language or languages with which they work” (Nolan, 2005, p.3).

Pochhacker (2016) asserts, “Translation could be considered as an activity consisting mainly in the production of utterances (texts) which are presumed to have a similar meaning and/or effect as previously existing utterances in another language and culture” (p.13). On the other hand, he considers interpreting differently as the interpreter’s task is mainly a target-oriented production rather than source-dependent transfer. He continues to mention if the word activity changes to service; however, there would be some differences between them like communication skills required (oral vs. written), as well as timing and preparation (Shuttleworth & Cowie, 1997). In the same vein, Mahmoodzadeh (2003) considers the time factor as the major difference between the two disciplines specifically in interpreting. In addition, interpreting an utterance in a language requires “not only knowledge of the code, but also the inferential abilities that will allow the hearer to make sense of it in context to access the speaker’s intention” (Dicerto, 2018, p.42). Also, Gerver (1971, as cited in Pochhacker, 2007, p. 16) considers interpreting as “a fairly complex form of human information processing involving the reception, storage, transformation and transmission of verbal information” which highlights its nature of performing multiple cognitive tasks concurrently.

Furthermore, the differences between translation and interpreting can be looked at from two different angles: “the viewpoint of the conduct and the viewpoint of the characteristics they have” (Mahmoodzadeh, 2010, p.42). In terms of the conduct, the translation has certain advantages over the interpretation. For instance, in any translatorial activity; the translator can read and re-read the passage as much as he wants in order to understand the text and even to revise his work. Also, he has ample time to analyze the text if he does not understand a certain part (Mahmoodzadeh, 2010). However, in interpreting activity, interpreters must rely on getting it right on their first attempt; they will not have a second chance. Also, they need to use their own knowledge and background information (Mahmoodzadeh, 2010). Finally, Nolan (2005) states, “A translator studies written material in SL and reproduces it in written form in TL, while an interpreter listens to a spoken message in the source language and renders it orally in the target language” (pp.2-3).

Simultaneous and Consecutive Interpreting
Different modes or types of interpreting have been evolved through time for the purpose of communication in different settings like social context and institutional setting (Pochhacker (2017) and orientations like time-based and conduct-based orientation (Mahmoodzadeh (2000). Simultaneous and consecutive interpreting are two types of time-based orientations which have been utilized by interpreters. According to Christoffels and de Groot (2005), in simultaneous interpreting (SI), one

has to listen to and comprehend the input utterance in one language, keep it in working memory until it has been receded and can be produced in the other language, and produce the translation of an earlier part of the input, all of this at the same time (p.454).

In other words, in SI, language comprehension and production happens in different languages at the same time. In addition, when the interpretation is delivered simultaneously, it is performed under severe time pressure (Tommola & Hyönä 1990). The simultaneous interpreter- usually sitting in a soundproof booth, or at a table which faces the audience listens to the speaker through earphones and, speaking into a microphone-reproduces the speech in the target language as it is being delivered in the source language (Issa, 2018). Because the simultaneous interpreter cannot fall too far behind, this method needs considerable and sustained practice and presence of mind.
According to Gillies (2017) consecutive interpreting (CI) involves “listening to what someone has to say and then, when they have finished speaking, reproducing the same message in another language” (p.5). In CI, the interpreter relies on “a combination of notes, memory and general knowledge to recreate his or her version of the original” (Gillies, 2017, p.5). This form of consecutive is sometimes called long consecutive to distinguish it from short consecutive, which usually involves a speaker stopping after each sentence (or a couple of sentences) for the interpreter to translate. Moreover, as Nolan (2005, pp. 3-4) asserts, “In CI, the interpreter listens to the speaker, takes notes, and then reproduces the speech in the target language. Depending on the length of the speech, this may be done all at one go or in several segments”. The consecutive interpreter relies mainly on memory, but good note-taking technique could be an essential aid for them. “Some interpreters see consecutive interpreting as having a processing time so as to stay several seconds behind the speaker, while others view it as a form that requires the speaker to stop speaking in order for the interpreter to deliver the message” (Russell, 2005, p.136). Either simultaneous or consecutive interpreting is “a highly complex discourse-interchange where language perception, comprehension, translation and production operations are carried out virtually in parallel” (Russell, 2005, p.136).

**Consecutive Interpreting Steps, Problems, and Strategies**

It is believed that CI entails a large number of almost “concurrent cognitive, psychomotor and affective processes, all of which pose major challenges for the interpreter who has to deal with them simultaneously” (Ribas, 2012, p.813). Gile (1995) asserts, the interpreter is constantly confronted with unexpected circumstances which must be dealt with as he is already working at the limits of his available processing capacity.

The process of CI consists of three steps as understanding, analyzing, and re-expression (Jones, 2002). According to Jones (2002), understanding does not refer to the understanding of words but of ideas. He believes understanding of ideas requires yet another skill rather than linguistic knowledge which every interpreter needs to learn. He has named this skill as “active listening” (p.12), which he differentiates from other forms of listening. Also, it is necessary for the interpreter to make “an analysis of the speech type as this will influence both the fine-tuning of their listening and most certainly the style and content of their interpretation” (Jones, 2002, p.15). Finally, in re-expression, the interpreter becomes the speaker and establishes contact with the audience, speaking up clearly and articulating. In other words, “the interpreter must know exactly what they want to say and how they want to say it as soon as they start speaking, meaning that repetition of a word or phrase in order to find a better equivalent must be avoided” (Jones, 2002, p.33).

Furthermore, Nosratadegan (2014) provides three sources of problem in consecutive interpreting. Note-taking problem happens when the interpreter is not “able to write as fast as the speaker delivers his/her speech and not being able to read what one writes” (p.57). Memory problem takes place as the interpreter cannot recall all portions of the speech delivered. And finally, when the interpreter is unable to “make pace with the speaker’s speech delivery” (p.57), speed problem arises.

Considering CI strategies, Hurtado (1999, p. 246) defines translation strategies as “the individual procedures, both conscious and unconscious, verbal and non-verbal, used by the translator to solve the problems encountered in the course of the translation process, depending on the specific requirements involved”. Lörscher (1991 as cited in Ribas, 2012, p.815) considers a translation strategy to be “a conscious and individual process used to solve a translation problem. Therefore, translation strategies are individual; they entail an element of planning, pursue certain objectives and are associated with a series of actions taken in the pursuit of achieving those objectives”. He organizes strategies into three global ones as exploring, controlling, and paraphrasing strategies. Interpreting strategies are termed differently as “coping tactics” (Gile, 1995, p. 191) or “techniques” (Jones, 2002, p. 101). In addition, by considering different problems a consecutive interpreter may face, Ribas (2012) proposes a series of strategies based on the problems an interpreter may face which is depicted in Table 1.
Table 1. Proposed Interpreting Strategies (Ribas, 2012, p.826)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problem</th>
<th>Listening Understanding and Note-Taking</th>
<th>Decoding Notes</th>
<th>Expression and Reformulation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strategy</td>
<td>Generalizing</td>
<td>Omitting</td>
<td>Adding wrong information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Omitting</td>
<td>Generalizing</td>
<td>Ommitting, Using common sense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Using common sense</td>
<td>Summarizing</td>
<td>Repeating, Resorting to memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adding wrong information</td>
<td>Resorting to memory</td>
<td>Speeding up the reformulation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Summarizing</td>
<td>Paying greater attention to the source speech</td>
<td>Leaving in English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Paraphrasing</td>
<td>Paraphrasing</td>
<td>Omitting</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the same vein, Li (2013) categorizes thirty strategies based on those presented in the literature by different scholars, or even with different terms but similar concepts. Table 2 illustrates these strategies.

Table 2. Proposed CI Strategies by Li (2013, pp.110-113)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CI Strategy</th>
<th>CI Strategy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Compression/condensation/summarizing/filtering</td>
<td>Omission/skipping/ellipsis/message abandonment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text expansion/addition/elaboration</td>
<td>Delaying response/stalling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approximation/attenuation</td>
<td>Paraphrasing/explaining</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morpho-syntactic transformation</td>
<td>Transcodage/transcoding/calque</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parallel reformulation/substitution</td>
<td>Restructuring/changing order</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inferencing</td>
<td>Repair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evasion/neutralization</td>
<td>No repair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incomplete sentence</td>
<td>Repetition</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Recently, a lot of researchers and scholars have intended to achieve a deep view and opinion about the effective factors in maximal use interpreters’ professional characteristics, interpreting strategies on the success of this form of widely utilized translation. For instance, several researches have been conducted on different factors affecting on interpreting activity like the speed of interpreting and its relationship with interpreters’ speed in mother tongue (Amini, 2016), the effect of note-taking strategy in success of CI (Marani & Heidari Tabrizi, 2017), interpreting quality related features (Asgari, 2015), interpreting and solutions in cultural gap (Vasheghani Farahani & Najafabadi Farahani, 2016), teachers’ and students’ opinion regarding note taking strategy in CI (Marani & Heidari Tabrizi, 2018), and CI techniques through task-based instruction (Shafiei, Tavakoli, & Vahid Dastjerdi, 2019).

With respect to the review of literature, the researchers of the present study were convinced the interpreting strategies for Persian to English consecutive interpreting of technical terms with one English equivalent has not been explored yet; hence the present investigation was undertaken to initially explore employed strategies in Persian to English consecutive interpreting of medical/healthcare terms with one English equivalent across interpreting learners’ gender. Also, the researchers intended to investigate whether there is any difference between Iranian male and female interpreting learners in employed CI strategies in rendition of medical terms with only one English equivalent. To reiterate, the suggested research questions in this study were as following:

RQ1: What are the employed strategies by male and female interpreting learners in Persian to English consecutive interpreting of medical terms with one equivalent?

RQ2: Is there any difference between male and female interpreting learners in employed
consecutive interpreting strategies in medical terms with one equivalent?

3. METHODOLOGY
3.1 Design
The present study aimed to investigate the different strategies employed by consecutive interpreting learners when encountering terms with one-equivalent word from Persian to English. The study was descriptive in nature, and for the gathering of the data one audio file was played and voices were recorded. Methods of descriptive data analysis, as well as Chi-Square and Fisher Exact test were used for the analysis of the gathered data.

3.2 Participants

| Table 3. Participants of the Study |
|-----------------|------|------------------|
| Teachers        | N    | Age range  |
| Female          | 12   | 21-37      |
| Undergraduate students in Translation |
| Male            | 12   | 20-25      |
| Undergraduate students in Translation |

3.3 Instruments and Materials
In order to investigate the research questions some instruments were utilized including, a voice recorder for recording the interpreters’ voices during the process of an unplanned CI, a Persian audio file with the general medical topic containing twenty three terms which have only one English equivalent term, a lap top computer for playing the audio file, and offering some papers and a pen to participants for note taking during their performance. Also, a TOEFL exam and an interpreting test were utilized to check the homogeneity of all participants regarding language proficiency and interpreting skill. Finally, in order to identify the employed CI strategies by interpreting learners, the researchers considered the categories complied by Li (2013).

3.4 Procedure
This research aimed at investigating different employed consecutive interpreting strategies in rendition of Persian medical and healthcare terms with only one English equivalent word. For this purpose, 35 male and female university students enrolling in a CI course were chosen at two universities in Tehran. Next, All learners took part in a TOEFL exam, as well as an interpreting test. Considering the obtained scores, those who got more than 490 in TOEFL exam and one standard deviation above and below the mean interpreting test were considered as the homogeneous participants of the present research. Accordingly, 24 male and female interpreting learners were selected. During the course of study, the researchers instructed different techniques and strategies of CI to learners and all participants did tasks and practices in CI for different situations and fields. When the course finished, each individual participant was asked to listen to a Persian audio file contained twenty three medical and healthcare terms with only one English equivalent word and interpreted them (See Appendix A for Persian transcription). The researchers played and paused when a sentence was finished and waited for the interpreter to take notes and consecutively interpret what s/he heard. Meanwhile, the participants’ voices were recorded for further analysis. After the data were collected, the researchers analyzed them thoroughly to identify employed CI strategies when each individual CI learner encountered with terms with one English equivalent word (See Appendix B for twenty three Persian medical and health care words with their English equivalences).

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
The first driving force of the present study was to investigate the employed strategies by male and female CI learners in Persian to English consecutive interpreting of one-equivalent terms in medical field.
When the researchers analyzed the data they came into six strategies which all participants utilized including:

1. Compression/condensation/summarizing/Filtering: This strategy happens when “the original meaning is rendered by the interpreter in a more general and concise way, usually with all repetitive, unimportant, or redundant information deleted or omitted” (Li, 2013, p.). The examples by female and male interpreters are depicted in Table 4.

Table 4. Examples of Compression/condensation/summarizing/Filtering

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interpreted Term</th>
<th>Correct English Equivalence</th>
<th>Persian Term</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vomit</td>
<td>Nausea &amp; vomiting</td>
<td>حالت تهوع و استفراغ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Omit</td>
<td>Toxic elimination</td>
<td>حذف سموم</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Losing weight</td>
<td>Acute weight loss</td>
<td>کاهش وزن ناگهانی</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Omission/skipping: When the interpreter uses “periods of silence and pauses in which certain messages are not interpreted at all due to comprehension, note reading, or memory failure” (Li, 2013, p.), s/he utilizes omission or skipping strategy. Table 5 depicts some instances of this strategy by both female and male interpreters.

Table 5. Examples of Omission/skipping

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interpreted Term</th>
<th>Correct English Equivalence</th>
<th>Persian Term</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>sedimentation</td>
<td>رسوب کردن</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>symptom</td>
<td>علائم (علائمی که مريض اشاره ميکند)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>inflammation</td>
<td>التهاب</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Text expansion: In this strategy, the interpreter “adds information or expands the source discourse, so as to better convey or clarify the message and avoid unclear information in the target discourse” (Li, 2013, p.). Table 6 shows some instances of this strategy by both female and male interpreters.

Table 6. Examples of Text expansion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interpreted Term</th>
<th>Correct English Equivalence</th>
<th>Persian Term</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Liver Cirrhosis</td>
<td>Cirrhosis</td>
<td>سيروز کبدی</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy storing</td>
<td>store</td>
<td>ذخیره کردن انرژی</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Approximation/attenuation: “When the interpreter is not able to retrieve the ideal equivalent of a lexical element in the source discourse, she or he provides a near equivalent term, a synonym, or a less precise version of it in the target discourse” (Li, 2013, p.), s/he employs approximation or attenuation strategy. Table 7 depicts some examples of this strategy by both female and male interpreters.

Table 7. Examples of Approximation/attenuation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interpreted Term</th>
<th>Correct English Equivalence</th>
<th>Persian Term</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>save</td>
<td>store</td>
<td>ذخیره کردن انرژی</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Omit poison</td>
<td>Toxic elimination</td>
<td>حذف سموم</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>accumulation</td>
<td>storage</td>
<td>انباشتی شدن چربی</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Paraphrasing/explaining: When “the interpreter explains the intended meaning of a source speech term or wording when the suitable target correspondent is hard to retrieve at the moment” (Li, 2013, p.), paraphrasing strategy is utilized. Table 8 depicts some instances of this strategy by both female and male interpreters.

Table 8. Examples of Paraphrasing/explaining

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interpreted Term</th>
<th>Correct English Equivalence</th>
<th>Persian Term</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>save</td>
<td>store</td>
<td>ذخیره کردن انرژی</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Omit poison</td>
<td>Toxic elimination</td>
<td>حذف سموم</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>accumulation</td>
<td>storage</td>
<td>انباشتی شدن چربی</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 8. Examples of Paraphrasing/explaining

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interpreted Term</th>
<th>Correct English Equivalence</th>
<th>Persian Term</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Being active and do exercises</td>
<td>Physical activity</td>
<td>تحرک</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enter phase 2</td>
<td>progress</td>
<td>پیشرفت بیماری</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. Transcodge/calque: This strategy refers to one with which “the interpreter selects the word-for-word translation method because the interpreter is not able to grasp the overall meaning of the source text” (Li, 2013, p.). Table 9 shows some instances of this strategy by both female and male interpreters.

Table 9. Examples of Transcodge/calque

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interpreted Term</th>
<th>Correct English Equivalence</th>
<th>Persian Term</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sudden losing weight</td>
<td>Acute weight loss</td>
<td>کاهش وزن ناگهانی</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yellow color of skin</td>
<td>icter</td>
<td>زرد شدن رنگ پوست</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It should be mentioned that some interpreters utilized more than one strategy for a single term for finding the equivalence. The results of frequency of employed strategies which were employed by each individual male and female interpreter are depicted in Table 10.

Table 10. The Frequency of Employed CI Strategy by Individual Participant in Both Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Compression/condensation/summarizing</th>
<th>Omission/skipping</th>
<th>Text expansion</th>
<th>Approximation/attenuation</th>
<th>Paraphrase/explain</th>
<th>Transcodge/calque</th>
<th>Correct employed term</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male 1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male 2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male 3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male 4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male 5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male 6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male 7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male 8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male 9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male 10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male 11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male 12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Compression/condensation/summarizing</th>
<th>Omission/skipping</th>
<th>Text expansion</th>
<th>Approximation/attenuation</th>
<th>Paraphrase/explain</th>
<th>Transcodge/calque</th>
<th>Correct employed term</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female11</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In order to answer the first research question, total frequency and percentage of all six employed IC strategies were calculated. The results are depicted in Table 11.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Strategy</th>
<th>Female Frequency</th>
<th>Female %</th>
<th>Male Frequency</th>
<th>Male %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Compression/condensation/summarizing</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Omission/skipping</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>17.08</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>10.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text expansion</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6.53</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approximation/attenuation</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>55.27</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>54.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paraphrase/explain</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>16.08</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>24.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transcodage/calque</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>199</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td><strong>156</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the results showed, all female and male interpreting learners employed approximation/attenuation as the most frequent strategy. In other words, more than 50% of employed strategies were related to this strategy for both groups. As omission gained the second rank in employed CI strategies among female interpreters with 17.08%, male interpreters preferred to use paraphrase/explain strategy as their second choice with 24.35%. For two groups, the strategy of transcodage/calque was the least employed one, i.e. 4 cases for the female group and no case for the male group. Also, it should be noted female group employed omission and paraphrasing strategies with almost a similar percentage, i.e. 17.08% and 16.08%, respectively. Finally, compression strategy was employed by male interpreters twice as much as the female ones. Figure 1 shows the employed strategies by two groups.

**Figure 1.** The frequency of employed strategies in interpreting medical terms with one equivalence
The second driving force of conducting this study was to check any statistically significant difference between male and female interpreting learners in employed CI strategies of Persian medical and healthcare terms with only one English equivalent word. In order to find the answer, the researchers utilized Chi-square statistical analysis for those strategies with more than 5 cases and Fisher Exact Test for the strategy fewer than 5 cases. The results are depicted in Table 12 and 13, respectively.

Table 12. Chi-square Test Statistics for Medical and Healthcare CI

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy Type</th>
<th>Chi-square</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Compression/condensation/summarizing</td>
<td>0.083</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Omission/skipping</td>
<td>0.392</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text expansion</td>
<td>0.033</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approximation/attenuation</td>
<td>0.012</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paraphrase/explain</td>
<td>0.715</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 13. Fisher Exact Test for Calque strategy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Asymptotic Significance</th>
<th>Exact Sig. (2-sided)</th>
<th>Exact Sig. (1-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>2.000*</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.157</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuity Correctionb</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>2.773</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.096</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fisher’s Exact Test</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.500</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N of Valid Cases 2

a. 4 cells (100.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .50.
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

The results indicated that there was no statistically significant difference between male and female interpreting learners in employing CI strategies as the p value in chi square test and fisher exact test was higher than 0.05. The researchers in this study inspected employed strategies in Persian to English consecutive interpreting of medical terms with only one equivalent word in English among Iranian male and female interpreting learners. Also, the researchers investigated the possible difference between female and male interpreting learners in their employed CI strategies in rendition of medical and healthcare terms with one equivalent word in English. The results of the present research revealed in both groups, approximation/attenuation enjoyed more than 50% of whole employed strategies. Whereas, male and female consecutive interpreters utilized calque strategy as the least employed one. For male interpreters, paraphrasing received the second ranked employed strategy whereas female interpreters employed omission strategy as their second choices.

As Ribas (2012) reports, the cause of using a specific strategy in interpreting activity has a direct relationship with the possible problem an interpreter faces during CI. Accordingly, he believes employed strategies like approximation could be related to problematic areas like understanding, note-taking, and reformulation phases and omission strategy could be related to possible problem an interpreter faces in understanding, note-taking, decoding notes, and reformulation phases. The findings of the present study are in line with his study as he concluded interpreting learners employed generalizing and omission strategies as the first and second ranked strategies as well. One reason that both groups employed omission strategy could also be related to the problem of memory which is one of the most common barriers in interpreting activity (Gile, 2009).

In the same vein, Wang (2012) asserts interpreters not only assume the role of linguistic mediator, but also act as communicative mediator and cross-cultural mediator. Accordingly, his findings showed interpreters employed expansion and omission strategies for preserving their roles. Also, the researchers speculate as CI learners were not medical students, they tended to omit those terms which were unfamiliar for them as a type of avoidance communicative strategy.
On the other hand, the results of the study revealed both groups employed calque or loan translation as the least employed strategy. As Jones (2002) asserts, calque “reproduces source language (SL) forms in the target language (TL) in situation where those forms are not normal in the TL; reformulation or paraphrasing strategy is designed to reduce calque” (p.131). It could be concluded both groups did not face this situation in their CI activity. Paraphrasing strategy was the second employed strategy by male and the third employed one by female CI learners. This could be due to the nature of medical texts which are mostly complicated to understand (Leroy, Eryilmaz, & Laroya, 2006).

Finally, the results revealed no difference between male and female CI learners in their strategy employment. In other words, gender was not affective in choosing a CI strategy. It could be related to the same sociocultural and background knowledge all participants shared with each other.

5. CONCLUSION

In today’s world, communication among people from different nations with different languages seems undeniable due to different personal, political, educational, and other purposes. So, the role of interpreters and their performance cannot be underestimated at all. Despite many researches done in the field interpreting, several aspects of this form of translation have not been investigated in Iran yet. The present study probed the different employed strategies by male and female CI learners in interpreting Persian medical and healthcare terms with only one English equivalent word. The second objective of this research was to find out any possible difference between male and female CI learners in their strategy employment. The results showed both male and female CI learners had tendency to employ similar strategies and no statistical difference was found between two groups in their strategies.

Considering the results of the present study, the importance of the findings lies not only in their contribution to the literature but also in their prominent educational importance for interpreting learning programs in general, and CI learners in special. Moreover, the results can help both practitioners and CI teaching course designers to highlight the importance of common strategies employed in CI to help the novice or professional interpreters understand and practice these strategies for their ultimate goal, i.e. interpreters’ success in different settings.

ABOUT THE AUTHOR(S)

Pantea Pahlavani is a PhD holder in TEFL. She is the faculty member of English department at QIAU, Iran. She has published and presented several papers on the effect of CALL in English teaching and translation, psycholinguistics, and teacher education in various occasions/journals. Her major areas of interest include Artificial Intelligence in SLA and translation, Psycholinguistics, Teacher education, and translation training.

Reza Kazemi is an M.A holder in translation studies. He is currently teaching interpreting courses at different workshops in Canada. His major areas of interest include consecutive interpreting, translation and culture, and translation training.

REFERENCES


Appendix A. Persian Transcription of Audio file

کبد یکی از عضو داخلی بدن است که به ذخیره‌کردن انرژی و حذف سموم کمک می‌کند. همچنین نقش مهمی در فرآیند گوارش به عهده دارد. اما انباشت ترکیبی کبدی می‌باشد که به موجب در انتهای و دارای هرمین حرارت ک唠 در کبد می‌باشد. بیماری کبد چربی ۳ مرحله دارد: در مرحله اول فقط کبد خوبی داردو کبد می‌شود. اما در مرحله دوم انتهای در کبد مشاهده می‌شود و در مرحله سوم استریتی کبدی می‌شود. در مرحله دوم رفع پایست، کاهش وزن ناگهانی، خون ریزی بینی و ثروپها و جای توهم و استفراغ از جمله علائمی است که در مراحل حاد و نشسته این بیماری برای پیدا می‌شود. از تغییرات نیز در زندگی، کاهش وزن و تحرک می‌تواند برای بروز بیماری‌های کبدی پیشگیری کنیم.

Appendix B. Precise medical terms of the medical/healthcare audio file

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Equivalence</th>
<th>Persian Term</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>liver</td>
<td>کبد</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>store</td>
<td>به ذخیره کردن انرژی</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Toxic elimination</td>
<td>حذف سوموم</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gastrointestinal</td>
<td>گوارش</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>storage</td>
<td>انباشت چربی</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inflammation</td>
<td>انتهای</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sedimentation</td>
<td>رسوب کنه</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disease</td>
<td>بیماری</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fatty liver</td>
<td>کبد چربی</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>accumulate</td>
<td>جمع می‌شود</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>progress</td>
<td>پیشرفت بیماری</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cirrhosis</td>
<td>سیروز کبدی</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>weakness</td>
<td>صفحه</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anorexia</td>
<td>بی‌امضایی</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| icter                                | زرد شدن گوارش 6
| Acute weight loss                    | کاهش وزن ناگهانی |
| Gingivitis and epistaxis             | خون ریزی بینی و ثروپها |
| Nausea & vomiting                    | حالت توهم و استفراغ |
| symptom                              | علائم       |
| acute                                | حاد         |
| Life style                           | شیوه زندگی 21
| Weight loss                          | کاهش وزن   |
| Physical activity                    | تحرک        |
Teaching Difficulties in Pronunciation: The Case of Oral Communication Teachers

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ARTICLE INFO

ABSTRACT

Pronunciation is one of the vital aspects of speaking the English language; however, literatures reveal that little is known on the difficulties of teachers in teaching pronunciation. In such light, this qualitative case study identified the teaching difficulties and coping strategies of oral communication teachers. Through the conducted interviews, class observations, and focus group discussion with students, L1 interference, lack of exposure to English language, learners’ language anxiety, and lack of teaching materials were the difficulties of the teachers. In dealing with the identified difficulties, the participants employ audio-lingual method as a coping strategy. Nonetheless, the findings reveal important issues that need to be addressed in the name of quality and excellent pronunciation instruction.

KEYWORDS

habit formation, language instruction, native language, repetition strategies, second language

1.INTRODUCTION

In a society where English is either its foreign or second language, people are generally judged by the way they speak. Learners with good English pronunciation may be judged as competent and knowledgeable while learners with poor pronunciation may be judged as incompetent, uneducated or lacking in knowledge. This means that pronunciation is an important factor in effective communication (Pihu, 2015) because poor pronunciation may cause misunderstanding and therefore can become a barrier to communication (Pihu, 2015).

Though knowing the great significance of good pronunciation, still many learners find English pronunciation one of the most difficult aspects of English language learning. Courses, like speech courses, were crucial to learn about the sound system of English and make learners aware of the correct pronunciation of sounds and words, as also, the intonation and sound clusters (Hameed & Aslam, 2015). However, pronunciation instruction has long been ignored (Chun, 2012; Neri, Cucchiarini, & Strik, 2006; Breitkreutz, Derwing, & Rossiter, 2001; Brown, 1991).

In fact, pronunciation tends to take a back seat in both second language acquisition research and secondary and higher education all over the world (Underhill, 2013). When learners study English at university, however, they generally receive proper pronunciation coaching, which can help them acquire a more native-like pronunciation (Brekelmans, 2017). Pronunciation, especially foreign language pronunciation, gained new meaning after 1980’s due to its fruitfulness to a broad group of international people in both ESL and EFL settings (Derwing & Munro, 2005; Gatbonton, 2005). Academic professionals, other professionals all over the world and students needed to develop their pronunciation because they left their native countries to accommodate in or visit English speaking countries to embrace cultural, financial, and economic opportunities (Derwing & Munro, 2009).

In particular, increased interest in pronunciation has generated a number of teaching-related questions, most of which have sought to determine effective strategies for teaching pronunciation in the communicative classroom. As a result, research has emphasized the communicative importance of training in both segmental and suprasegmental features, allowing language learners to practice isolated sounds as well as combinations of sounds and suprasegmental

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features in meaningful and continuous speech (Chun, 2002; Derwing & Munro, 1997; Munro & Derwing, 1995; Brazil, Pennington & Richards, 1986; Brown & Yule, 1983; Coulthard, & Johns, 1980). Also, Yang (2017) revealed that the participants showed a great improvement in the mastery of segmental and suprasegmental features, as for the non-intellectual factors, the participants presented a stronger interest and lower anxiety level in practicing English pronunciation after experiment, though there was only a little change in their motivation.

In addition, many language teachers have begun to employ technology as an aid to English pronunciation teaching recently (van den Doel, 2007; Neri, Cucchiarini, & Strik, 2006). Media, cell phones and computer programs are becoming more widely infused into pronunciation classrooms as tools for fostering English pronunciation (Haslam, 2010). The number of applications available to both the teacher and the individual learner is increasing rapidly due to advances in research into language and speech, increased computer capabilities and lower computer costs (Zaki & Al-Qudah, 2012). In this vein, automatic speech recognition and speech synthesis, two of the most common applications in speech technology, present the basic technology for the improvement of applications for pronunciation training (Busa, 2008).

As a result, many studies on pronunciation highlighted the effectiveness of modern technology and programs in teaching pronunciation. One of these technology and programs is Computer Assisted Pronunciation Training (CAPT).

In many studies, CAPT was found effective in improving English vowel production. In fact, CAPT program resulted in improved intelligibility scores not only in response to English vowel productions elicited using a voice that had previously been heard in training. The results suggest that the program helped learners isolate relevant phonetic cues to vowel identity that were then generalizable to new speakers (Gao & Hanna, 2016; Pi-Hua, 2015; Zaki & Al-Qudah, 2012; Thomson, 2011). It was also confirmed that combination of human and computer-assisted instruction particularly suits the learners (Gao & Hanna, 2016; Pi-Hua, 2015; Zaki & Al-Qudah, 2012; Thomson, 2011).

Furthermore, teaching English pronunciation can be likewise a challenging task. The analysis of learner accounts, however, suggests that teaching approaches based on philosophy of pronunciation-in-isolation are still present in classroom environments, potentially inhibiting learners from embracing and capitalizing on their positions as multilingual speakers due to feeling of inferior and unintelligent because of their nonnative accents (Muller, 2013). There was also a demonstration of role of pronunciation in the language teaching greatly depends on the kind of methodology used (Gilakjani, 2017). In the analysis of learning the proper pronunciation, the study reveals that trainee translators view pronunciation as an important element of their speaking proficiency, highlighting the issue of intelligibility as an essential component of communicative competence (Hirici, 2017).

With the abovementioned studies, it can be noted that most of the studies mainly presented quantitative results of the learners’ practice with pronunciation software and the effects of pronunciation software and other technology to the pronunciation of learners. However, little studies have been conducted the difficulties in teaching pronunciation. In such light, this study was conceptualized to answer the following question:

1. What difficulties in teaching do teachers encounter in teaching pronunciation?
2. What is the coping strategy of teachers in dealing with their teaching difficulties in pronunciation?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Deterding (2013) and Thir (2016) stated that the reason for teaching pronunciation is that it has been found to be the main cause of communication breakdowns or misunderstandings in English as Lingua Franca (ELF) interactions which makes its instruction an area where the necessity for a stronger orientation towards ELF communication is very important. Hismanoglu (2006) said that pronunciation instruction has a key role in oral communication. Despite decades of advocacy for greater attention, research into pronunciation instruction in English language teaching continues to be restricted (2017). As such various researches were conducted in terms of pronunciation. Some of these researches were discussed below.

Asyrafi and Jambi (2018) conducted a phenomenological study to document Indonesian English as Foreign Language (EFL) student teachers’
experiences in speaking English at one public university in Jambi, Indonesia. Data came from demographic questionnaires and semi-structured interviews obtained from eight participants. Analysis and discussion were taken from Indonesian EFL student teachers’ perspectives and the contexts in which experiences they encountered. The following overarching themes and sub-themes emerged (1) language barriers (vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar, and fluency); (2) psychological factors (anxiety, attitude, and lack of motivation); (3) learning environment (lecturers, peers, and topics of speaking modules), and (4) practicing the language (self-practice, practicing the language with tutors and peers, practicing the language with media and technology, and maintaining a positive motivation).

Bodorík (2017) stated that there are several problems encountered by non-native English teachers in teaching pronunciation. First, Slovak teachers see that the problem of English pronunciation among Slovak learners is linked to both segmental and suprasegmental phonology. The most troublesome area is the incorrect placement of stress. Learners have the tendency to follow the stress pattern in their mother tongue and therefore when applying it the whole appropriate pronunciation effect is corrupted. According to the research results, the most audible issues of segmental phonology are the substitution of phoneme /ð/ for /d/, /tʃ/ and substitution of phoneme /θ/ for /f/, /t/ as well as pronunciation of silent letters. Slovaks also have trouble to properly differentiate between /v/ and /w/ sounds. In the matter of these features it is necessary to point out that Slovak sound inventory does not contain phonemes /ð/ and /θ/. In terms of phoneme /w/ Slovak language may have a sound similar to the English version. Second, Slovak teachers consider teaching English pronunciation an important feature of language acquisition. Majority of them claimed that they worked with learners on English pronunciation regularly in almost every class and they did not depend only on students’ book pronunciation offer. Furthermore, when selecting activities from student’s books and materials of their own selection, they based on the needs of learners. Third, to teach English pronunciation, Slovak teachers use quite a limited range of teaching activities. Furthermore, they tend to prefer activities based on mechanical modelling (repeating sound models) with low level of creativity and communicative openness.

In a study conducted by Hayati (2010) among Iranian High School students, it was found out that there are two factors causing difficulty for an English teacher to teach pronunciation: direct and indirect factors. Direct factors refer to the inadequacy of knowledge of some teachers of English about linguistics and methodology. Indirect factors on the other hand refer to the short time assigned time for English classes through an academic year in which the teachers may not even be able to cover the whole textbook. Another is the presence of a large number of students in class does not allow the teacher to control the class effectively. Last, it has something to do with factors related to the school environment – the lack of facilities like a speech laboratory, textbooks, and other teaching devices such as such as video-players, computers, DVD players among others.

Vasarin (2007) mentioned that in order to meet a demand of modern society, English teachers are supposed to pay more attention to learners’ development in their competence and focus on a more effective and successful method. However, it is obvious that the traditional approaches to English language teaching still dominate most classrooms. Language teachers should not focus reciting anymore, but focus on teaching learners from their own understanding of language learning to increase confidence and competence. Among her recommendations in the research are the following: work out the qualifications for learners and require the minimal level at least in a period of given time and provide learners with various types of courses to enhance their English proficiency and promote familiarity with good approaches in the teaching of phonetics.

Above all, most studies were conducted in the context of EFL. As such this study was conducted with the hope of elucidating the plights of English as a Second Language (ESL) teachers. This study hopes to shed light on ESL teachers’ difficulties and coping in the Philippine setting.

3. METHODOLOGY
3.1. Design
This qualitative study employed case study as its research design. Case study research is a qualitative approach in which the investigator explores a bounded system (a case) or multiple bounded systems (cases) over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information (e.g., observations, interviews, audiovisual material, and
documents and reports), and reports a case description and case-based themes (Creswell, 2007). Also, the focus of case study is to develop an in-depth description and analysis of a case or multiple cases [teaching difficulties and coping strategy in this study] (Creswell, 2007). In as much as the study described the teaching difficulties and coping strategy of teachers in teaching pronunciation, the researchers found the design most appropriate.

3.2. Subject and Study Site
The study was conducted in one state college in Ilocos Sur, Philippines. The key informants of the study were chosen using criterion sampling will be employed in which four criteria are set. First, the teachers have been teaching the Oral Communication or Speech Communication for at least five years. Second, they are holding permanent appointment. Third, they consider English as their second language. Fourth, they are willing to be interviewed and observed. With these criteria, three teachers were considered in the study.

3.3. Procedure
In gathering the data, the researcher constructed first the interview guide. After that, the researchers identified the key informants using the set criteria. After identifying the key informants, they were informed of the nature of the study. Also, they were asked for their consent in participating in the study through an observation and interview consent form.

Furthermore, schedules for the interviews and observations were set. In order to aid the researchers and further encapsulate the experiences and views of the key informants, the researchers used an aide memoir and audio recording. Their sharing revolved around their difficulties and coping strategies in teaching pronunciation. Then, observation using observation guide and focus group discussion with the students were done to triangulate and substantiate the gathered data from the interviews.

Finally, the audio recordings were transcribed and were subjected to spot-checking avoid the transcriptionist effect. Then, member checking procedures were done to ensure the truthfulness and trustworthiness of the data (de Guzman & Tan, 2007). Last, cool and warm analyses were done.

3.3. Mode of Analysis

Interview recordings were transcribed to arrive at an extended text that will be subjected to cool and warm analyses. During the cool analysis, anchors and phenomenal referents were marked to facilitate the identification of themes within the text (de Guzman & Tan, 2007). In the warm analysis, highlighted words or phrases were proof-read and analyzed to formulate categories and themes (Valdez et al., 2012). To establish the validity, truthfulness and trustworthiness of the emerging patterns, member checking procedures were done to ensure the truthfulness and trustworthiness of the data (de Guzman & Tan, 2007).

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Cool and warm analyses of the responses of the select teachers yielded the 4Ls as the difficulties in teaching pronunciation, and the 1U as their coping strategy (Fig. 1). The 4Ls refers to L1 interference or first language interference, lack of exposure to English language, lack of teaching materials, and learners’ language anxiety. On the other hand, 1U refers to the use of audio-lingual method as a coping strategy of the teachers. Although the identified difficulties and coping strategy occur in the pronunciation classes, they represent the simultaneous phenomena which commenced one after the other as a response to the diversity among learners and the changes in the curricula.

L1 Interference. In teaching pronunciation, features of the first language of both the teachers and the students are evident. This situation characterized the first theme which is first language (L1) interference. As verbalized:

“... there are some sounds in their native language which ah that we cannot find in the English language, and they have the tendency to carry that over to English language. For example, in the Ilokano, we only have the [t] sound, we do not have that ‘th’ sound. So, the tendency would be, when they say Thank You, they do not actually say /θenk/ you, follow the soft ‘th’, but rather they say /tenk/ you, simply ‘t’.” (P1)

“There are sounds in the English language which are not found in the Ilokano language. This creates confusion and uneasy production of the sounds.” (P2)

“Second [referring to difficulty] is the first language or mother tongue of my students...
which somewhat fossilized their pronunciation no matter how hard I try to train them. Even I cannot go away from the phonetic inventory of my first language which is Ilokano.” (P3)

In the interview conducted with the students, they affirmed the abovementioned statements. As stated:
“I think sir, our first language or mother tongue is the major barrier. It is because we cannot remove the traces of our mother tongue. Sometimes we find it difficult to articulate sounds correctly.” (S1)

Furthermore, the classroom observations revealed that Ilokano phonetic inventory is present every time they read words even if they were taught the correct sounds. Notably, regional accents are evident among students. Students carry their mother tongue’s suprasegmental and segmental features. In most case, [Ɛ] is mispronounced instead it is pronounced as [i]. The same is the case between [o] and [u] in which they were articulated interchangeably.

These findings find congruency with that of Seefa (2017) who mentioned that learning a second language is considered as a difficult process due to the influential role played by the mother tongue. When learning a second language, a learner usually thinks about the target language in terms of the first language without realizing the fact that a language should be learnt in that language.

Relatively, when learners of second language want to write or speak in the target language, they tend to rely on their first language structures. If the structures are different, then a lot of errors occur in L1 thus this indicates an interference of first language on second language (Decherts & Dllis, as cited in Bhela, 1999).

Khan (2011) identified that the major challenge for students to learn English arises due to the difference in English and Tamil syntax, pronunciation, vocabulary etc. This means the linguistic structure is the barrier.

Meanwhile, Beardsmore (1982) suggests that many of the difficulties a second language learner has with the phonology, vocabulary and grammar of L2 are due to the interference of habits from L1. The formal elements of L1 are used within the context of L2, resulting in errors in L2, as the structures of the languages, L1 and L2 are different.

Furthermore, mother tongue interference can be seen as a transfer that affects learning both negatively and positively. According to Mede et al. (2014), there is high probability of cross-linguistic influence in second language acquisition and this influence may cause some errors, which are caused by negative transfer. In fact, Manrique (2013) stated that mispronunciation and grammatical errors are the most common types of interference between the mother tongue and the target language.

On the other hand, the participants also compared the structure of the English and Philippine languages while highlighting the background of students. As presented by the following verbalizations:
“Background of learners is one barrier because of the fact that learners come from different linguistic background, this affects their production of sounds … Another is on the structure of the native language and that of English which is different in some ways. Because of this it seems hard to make adjustments in the production of some sounds in the English sound system.” (P2)

“And Actually, it’s [English language] a tricky subject; it’s a crazy language. First, because it does not have a consistent rule not unlike in the Filipino. Say for example, in the pronunciation alone, we do not follow specific rules such as same spelling with ah same spelling and different pronunciation.” (P1)

The above statements manifest Hashemi’s (2011) claimed that students’ weakness in English language learning is due to the differences of social contexts, cultural environments. Similarly, Khan (2011) has identified that the major challenge for students to learn English arises due to the difference in … syntax, pronunciation, vocabulary etc. Hence, linguistic structure of both English and the first language creates confusion among learners; thus, impedes the delivery and absorption
of knowledge on pronunciation and of good pronunciation as a language skill.

Finally, the relationship between the two languages must then be considered. Albert and Obler (1978) claimed that people show more lexical interference on similar items. So it may follow that languages with more similar structures (e.g., English and French) are more susceptible to mutual interference than languages with fewer similar features (e.g., English and Japanese). Nonetheless, more learning difficulties are expected, and thus more likelihood of performance interference at those points in L2 which are more distant from L1, as the learner would find it difficult to learn and understand a completely new and different usage.

Lack of Exposure to English Language. In this study, it is interesting to note how teachers and students revealed their lack of exposure to the English language. This is evident in the following statements:

“Another would be, I believe my students do have a limited exposure on the English language. We have to accept it’s not their first language, and it is not even their second. So, I suppose it’s their third maybe, and of course they do not usually use it very often...So students’ pronunciation largely depends on the pronunciation they hear in a daily basis. So the pronunciation that they hear around them, the environment, that would be the pronunciation that they would carry or they would practice.” (P1)

“Duration of instruction maybe a barrier. This is due to the fact that lessons in pronunciation is not devoted to the whole semester but rather only a few weeks at the start of the semester. So, there is no intensive and long-term teaching of pronunciation.” (P2)

“Another barrier is on the lack of exposure of learners to the English language.” (P2)

“...we do not have much exposure to the English language. You know, my students only use the target language during their classes and in writing. In their class, they don’t even use straight English. They like watching Filipino movies or shows. So what do you expect diba [isn’t it]? Even I, I do not use English outside the classroom context.”(P3)

In the conducted observation, students spoke using their mother tongue when asking questions and doing class activities. Sometimes the teacher used Ilokano or Filipino in explaining the lessons and in giving instructions. In some instances, students were not familiar with some English words. They do not know the meaning and pronunciation of the words so they tend to read words according to the words’ syllables. These observations are substantiated by students. As stated:

“...we are not exposed to environment or situation where we use English. The time allotted for pronunciation class is not enough. We lack really exposure.” (S3)

Mullick and Riyaz (2013) stated that since English is a language and learning a language is time consuming, more time should be allocated to teach and learn English unlike other subjects. However, in the school system only a limited time is allocated to teach English. According to 83 students, number of periods allocated per week is 5 and each period is conducted for 45 minutes and 17 students stated that 6 periods a week for English. However, allocation of time for English is not enough because it is only during English period that the students get opportunity to learn English and since these students have less exposure to English outside school and the majority of the students do not attend private classes, limited time allocation is indeed a challenge.

Learners’ Language Anxiety. Through the interviews and class observations, language anxiety of students is evident. Their anxiety comes in the form of fear in speaking or reciting because of being afraid to be laughed at, ridiculed or teased by their classmates. As a result, teachers have difficulty in motivating and getting the enthusiasm of their students all throughout the class discussions. This finding can be seen in the following verbalizations:
“Siguro [perhaps] first we have anxiety, or the students have this fear that when they say this English word, they would mispronounce it, and they would get negative feedback from their classmates and from the students.” (P1)

“On the part of the learners, fear of being ridiculed and corrected is a barrier. Sometimes, students cannot help but feel bad if they get ridiculed whenever they mispronounce a word. Because of this, they are afraid to recite – they are afraid to take risks in trying out using the language.” (P2)

“Last factor is my students are afraid or reluctant to speak using English. As per observation, they are afraid to be teased by their classmates, or they are afraid to commit mistakes while speaking.” (P3)

In the class observations, students were reluctant to recite when they were asked to recite or perform activities. Also, students made fun of their classmates every time they commit mistakes. As a result, some students did not like to recite or do the assigned activities. As evidently stated during the focus group discussion with the students:

“...sometimes or most of the time we are afraid to commit mistakes kasi we are being teased or bullied. I myself have fear of speaking because I cannot produce the sounds well...” (S4)

“If kwan sir ahhm if I am reciting, it’s as if I am afraid to commit mistakes that I may say different word...” (S6)

Fear and anxiety are two psychological factors that make the process of learning difficult; hence, making teaching difficult. Fear is created by several reasons such as the bitter learning experiences associated with English language learning, non-conducive classroom experiences and bad exam results. Anxiety occurs in the classroom learning environment. Krashen (1982) stated that low anxiety appears to be conducive for second language acquisition, whether measured as personal or classroom anxiety.

Besides, a survey into the causes of English language learning anxiety in students also found that students were afraid of making mistakes in the classes, failing the exams, as well as the poor socioeconomic background cause of the poor performance in learning languages (Khattak et al., 2011).

During the abovementioned situations, the teachers intervene. In fact, they even try to divert situation into jokes and make some explanation which were evident in the series of observations conducted. During the interviews and follow up interviews, one of the participants verbalized:

“Well I explain to them that of course it’s not their first language. It’s not their native language ... I also explain to them that there are many varieties, and we are exposed to Philippine English variety, which is you know, we have our distinct pronunciation or distinct pronunciation for each of this sounds.” (P1)

“Well, as you observed, I crack jokes and make some explanations to divert or lesson the tension or should say the anxiety of the students.” (P2)

“If students are getting teased or bullied because of their pronunciation, I just try to divert the attention of my students by cracking jokes and letting my students read again and again. I don’t usually do direct feedback because my students may feel bullied at the same time inferior.” (P3)

With the statements of the teachers, it can be said that teachers play a major role in mitigating problems on language anxiety. The role they play lies on either breaking learning or facilitating learning. The ways they address students’ language anxiety adversely affect the teaching and learning of pronunciation. Hence, teachers must be equipped with imperative skills of addressing language anxiety in order for teaching and learning to take place.

Lack of Teaching Materials. In the teaching learning process, teaching materials are imperative in order to better facilitate instruction. However, the lack of materials impedes the delivery of better if not quality instruction as verbalized:
“... I don’t have enough materials provided by the school... See, we only have one LCD projector. Our audio-visual room lacks the facility and equipment that we need in teaching and learning pronunciation. The lack of materials affects the quality of learning that my students should have.” (P1)

“Well there are a lot of barriers which I can name based on my experience. One is lack of teaching materials and resources that aid teaching. We all know that books and other learning worksheets are very useful in drill exercises because they help facilitate instruction.” (P2)

“First difficulty or problem is lack of materials or let’s say scarcity of materials provided by the school. You know how scarce our resources are such that we buy our own or we spend our money.” (P3)

The abovementioned statements are supported by the following verbalization:

“I think lack of materials is one of the barriers. You see sir we do not use some technology that other universities use. In fact we only have one projector. We also bring our own Bluetooth speakers. We also do not have books. That’s all. I think.” (S2)

Similarly, learning materials in the classroom were not enough during the class observations. The teacher used a book and had its pages be reproduced by some students. There was no speaker in the room, so students brought their Bluetooth speaker. Some resources were downloaded from the net.

Souvannasy, Masashi, and Yukiko (2008) identified that teaching and learning English implementation still has shortages of textbooks, unqualified English teachers and also unstandardized curriculum. Hence, lack of teaching materials impedes the quality of teaching that teachers can give and the quality of learning that students may have.

**Use of Audio-Lingual Method as Coping Strategy**

In terms of the difficulties in teaching pronunciation, the teachers identified different coping strategies. These coping strategies belong to one method which is Audio-lingual Method. This method refers to the use of drills, models, and multimedia materials as manifested by the participants:

“I also make use of visuals of course IPA flashcards would help. It’s a great help. I also encourage them to use dictionary often because in the dictionary we could find in there the correct pronunciation of a certain word, the one in brackets. Okay, and then of course, games, I do have games in my class which they really enjoy. But of course, general recommendation would be I would let them to listen and expose them to English movies, English TV shows, and English songs.” (P1)

“I try to give more repetition drills to my learners so they can be more proficient in their pronunciation. Using trial and error technique is also used. I also encourage them to use dictionaries to locate the proper pronunciation of words. I also encourage them to speak in English in class and even outside of the classroom. I tell them to watch English movies and programs on T.V. in which English is used as medium. Moreover, I try to give more oral communication language activities to them for more opportunities to use the language. I also tried to download pronunciation videos from the internet and had it be viewed in class. Then the students listened carefully to the video and afterwards they engage in repetition drills.” (P2)

“Usually, I used multimedia materials like videos, songs, powerpoint presentations and movies. You know, they love it. I also use drills or the repeat after me technique. Most of all, I use games.” (P3)

Mart (2013) discovered that the Audio-Lingual method aims to develop communicative competence of students through dialogues. Dialogues and pattern drills that students need to repeat are used to form habits in learners that
will allow them to develop quick and automatic responses. Drills are useful in foreign language teaching in that they give students the opportunity to perform what they have learnt.

Similarly, Richards and Rodgers (2001) stressed that foreign language learning is basically a process of mechanical habit formation, and good habits are formed by giving correct responses rather than by making mistakes.

Meanwhile, the teachers incorporated jokes in their class discussions especially in times when students have difficulties in learning pronunciation and when they are afraid to recite. Games and drills were observed to be one of the effective ways of lessening the pressure and letting students enjoy the lessons. In fact, one of the participants highlighted:

“...I suppose, is exposing them to highly structured, low-pressure practicing class. In other words, games. I believe they really enjoy that.” (P1)

“These multimedia materials, games and drills somewhat ease their anxiety and boost their confidence.” (P3)

Repetition drills are the most that were utilized inside the classroom to master the sounds of the English language. Though traditional, the students enjoyed this kind of exercise. Through the repetition drills and trial and error method, the teacher modeled the proper pronunciation of sounds.

In addition, the teachers showed video clips and movies for students to hear the correct pronunciation of words during class discussions and reviews. In some instances, songs are being used. In such case, the use of multimedia materials is also for modeling. Nevertheless, dialogues and pattern drills that students need to repeat are often used to form habits. Larsen-Freeman (2000) said that the more often something is repeated, the stronger the habit and the greater the learning. Teachers should expose students to learning activities that shall make teaching and learning a natural occurrence in their English language classroom. Through these activities, pronunciation instruction may come as unconscious process to both the teachers and students. Hence, habit formation is the key to better pronunciation instruction.

**Simulacrum of the Study**

Figure 1: 4Ls and 1U in Teaching Pronunciation
In figure 1, the outside boxes contain the identified teaching difficulties of oral communication teachers while the inside box is their coping strategy. In the teaching of pronunciation, the study surfaced four difficulties of oral communication teachers: L1 interference, lack of exposure to English language, learners’ language anxiety, and lack of teaching materials. As indicated by the arrows, teachers use the audio-lingual method which includes the use of drills, games, repetition, modeling and use of multimedia materials in coping with their identified difficulties.

5. **CONCLUSION**

In the second language learning context, pronunciation instruction is a challenging task for teachers. Factors such as learners’ first language, teaching materials and among others cannot be undermined because they are contributory factors to the success of pronunciation teaching. However, creativity and resourcefulness of teachers are activated as they face the difficulties in pronunciation instruction.

For a language learner, pronunciation can be one of the most difficult skills to master while for the language teacher, one of his/her goals is to help students become proficient in their pronunciation especially that of the second language. For quite some time, the teaching of pronunciation is less than optimally effective and many factors can be attributed to this phenomenon. Since then, second language pronunciation is a topic of great theoretical interest and practical. More than the correct production of individual sounds or isolated words, pronunciation is crucial in integral in any communication which should be incorporated in classroom activities. The teaching then of pronunciation under careful preparation and
integration leads to the learners’ overall communicative power.

From this study, it can be said that organized methods to activate pronunciation teaching should be investigated and promoted. Teachers should learn more from their strategies and devise methods to do so. Further, it would be important for teachers to set the learning environment as an avenue in which learners are encouraged and supported to learn and practice English pronunciation spontaneously. On the one hand, because teachers can be an external stimulus to learners, they always serve to model the correct means on how to conduct pronunciation lessons. Teachers should pay more attention to their own English pronunciation skills, which will lead some of us to reconsider our own professional role as an English teacher. Teachers are not necessarily required to pronounce like a native speaker of English, but at least they are required to teach intelligible pronunciation to students because, at the threshold level, it is important for students to learn pronunciation that enables them to make themselves understood in English.

Finally, further research on the teaching of pronunciation would be necessary in order to discover the factors that can contribute to learning a second language. These factors could be beneficial in changing English pronunciation teaching in Philippine classrooms. Last, researches on developing pronunciation software or programs are encouraged in order to bridge instruction and the kind of learners that this century has.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS
The authors wish to thank Dr. Ronda Tullay of Benguet State University, Mrs. Ruby F. Amado, and Mrs. Nanette Kumanab for their extending their utmost support. Gratitude is also accorded to the Administration of the Ilocos Sur Polytechnic State College, Philippines and the participants of this study. Finally, the authors wish to thank the Commission on Higher Education for the scholarship grant for their doctorate degree.

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Diagnosing the Qualitative Effects of Applying the 13 Kris Bales Creative Informal Assessment’s Techniques: Re-Building the EFL Students’ “Stress-Free” Reading Assessment Tasks

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ARTICLE INFO

Received: September 18, 2019
Accepted: October 26, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.43

KEYWORDS
qualitative effects, Kris Bales’ CIAT, students’ stress-free, reading assessment tasks

ABSTRACT

Answering the well-defined reading comprehension’ questions and witnessing the EFL students’ great worry, a lot of stress, headaches, fear, and sleeping difficulties of always thinking the grades after doing such tasks are the critical issues raised in undertaking this research. Such conditions adversely affect the students’ knowledge, competences, performance, and skills of English. This study, therefore, aimed at re-building the PNP ED students’ “Stress-Free” Reading assessment tasks by diagnosing the multiplicative effects of the Kris Bales’ CIAT. A qualitative method, observation, and Mile and Huberman’s model were ways of entailing the research design, collecting, and analysing the data. The research findings indicated that the Kris Bales’ CIAT has practically and significantly effect on the students’ reading strategies’ improvement, reading skills’ progress, language skills’ augmentation, vocabulary knowledge of lexical and grammatical collocations, cognitive skills of perceptions, attention, memory, and logical reasoning and critical thinking skills. In conclusion, the Kris Bales’ CIAT of Oral presentation, Journaling, Paper Toss, Matching/Concentration, Exit Slips, Demonstration, Drawings, Narration and Self-Evaluation best described, well improved and practically progressed the PNP ED students’ knowledge and skills of English. Teachers of English are, therefore, encouraged to take account of applying such techniques in order to exempt the students from psychological pressures.

1. INTRODUCTION

The bases from which the idea of proposing such a title, “Diagnosing the Qualitative Effects of Applying the 13 Kris Bales Creative Informal Assessment’s Techniques: Re-Building the EFL Students’ “Stress-Free” Reading Assessment Tasks,” stood on two leading critical causes. Firstly, the students are in disfavours with and disapprovals of inactively doing (participating or engaging) well-defined, formal, and standardised Reading Comprehension Tasks. They think of such applied standardised tasks of the formal types of questions/exam questions (True/False, Multiple Choice, Multiple Response, Open Response, Fill-in-the-Blank, Matching Questions, etc) induce them to have great worry, a lot of stress, headaches, minor pains and sleeping difficulties of always thinking the grade being obtained thereafter. In responding to the well-formulated given tasks/tasks, the students merely expect, whatever will be, to get “a grade A.” On the other hand, the well-designed tasks/tasks have little relevance to the demands of the 21st-century language learning where the students must be capable of finding solutions to problems (critical thinking), thinking out of the box (creativity), working with others (collaboration) and talking to others (communication) placing emphasis on four language skills of Reading, Writing, Speaking and Listening; linguistic competences – the lexicon and grammar as they exist in one’s minds: what one knows and linguistic performance or language as one uses it (Larsen, n.d).

Secondly, the desired knowledge, skills, competencies and performance become meaningless seeing that the EFL teacher keeps insisting on her/his personal old-fashioned views and paradigms highly considering and judging such formal types of questions as the only one tasks that theoretically best assesses the students’
reading comprehension although the researchers never claimed that these standardised tasks of the formal types of questions were faulty. The teacher-made types of questions of the standardised tasks, however, work ineffectively if they are strongly correlated with the vocational college students’ learning characteristics mostly describing them as the bodily or kinesthetic intelligent learners. Theoretically, this type of Bodily or Kinesthetic intelligence best describes, according to Borkar (2018), the students’ learning characteristics who love to learn to tie and link the objects in their own surroundings through their body; employ their body to express themselves; exploiting a lot of movement to construct the knowledge about their own selves, mental and physical abilities, as well as surroundings; have a natural understanding and sense of how the body should react and act in a physically demanding situation and having a strong sense of body awareness.

The Bodily or Kinesthetic intelligence, which is one of the eight multiple intelligences proposed in 1983 by Howard Gardner in his groundbreaking work’s Frames of Mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligences (Borkar, 2018), has not been able yet to shake, defeated and even sabotage the EFL teacher’s decisions to look for the other alternatives to assessing the students’ reading comprehension. There were series of the EFL teacher’s reasons to strongly believe in keeping applying such formal or standardised assessment tasks. The first raison d’être is the formal assessment task, at the fundamental and basic level of reading English texts, enables the learners to recognize and identify the alphabetic symbols, capitalized and lowercase letters, punctuations, words, grapheme-phoneme correspondences and so forth. S/he, therefore, designs and uses the various assessment tasks such as Reading Aloud, Written Response, Multiple Choices (same/different, circle the answer, true/false, choose the letter, and matching), and Picture-cued Items. These types of reading assessment tasks used are widely known as “Perceptive” reading assessment task (Brown, 2003). This task is often referred to as literacy task implying that the EFL students are the early stages of becoming literate or may be the first foreign language they are learning to read although they have been literate in and studying it for many years. The researchers assume that these tasks are best exercised to augment the Primary and Secondary school learners’ “Bottom-Up Processing strategies.” The strategies assist them in comprehending the individual meanings or grammatical characteristics of the most basic units of the text, (e.g. sounds for a listening or words for a reading) although this processing is still inefficient in approaching a text initially or overall (BBC, n.d; Brown, 2003).

The second motive is the EFL teacher’s rationale that causes a particular set of strong belief in keeping insisting on using such formal assessment tasks is to develop the students’ the rudimentary, basic (and or undeveloped) skills level of perception of letters, words and plus formal aspects of language (lexical, grammatical and a few discourse features). This technique, which is known as “Selective” reading assessment tasks of Multiple choices, Matching Tasks, Editing Tasks, Picture-Cued Tasks, and Gap-filling Tasks, sturdily highlights on or deals with many incomplete sentences, error recognitions and vocabulary. The purpose of designing and using these tasks is to assess the learners’ lexical and grammatical aspects of reading ability (Brown, 2003). The combinations of Bottom-Up Processing and Top-Down Processing strategies (happens when a learner uses her/his background information to “predict” the meaning of language s/he is going to listen to or to read) are theoretically expected to be synchronously used (Brown, 2003; BBC, n.d). They, however, rarely happen or are hardly ever combined. If these two reading strategies had been seriously used, it would have produced the practical effects or results which were expected.

The third is the EFL teacher’s rationale for breeding a great deep pain and longest long-drawn suffered unhappiness in taking the “Interactive” reading assessment tasks is the adversity in and emotional and psychological distress of combining the form-focused and meaning-focused objectives because the “Interactive” reading assessment tasks place emphasis on meaning and extremely imply on Top-Down Processing strategy. The designs and the uses of these types of the assessment tasks of “Cloze Tasks (fixed ration deletion: deleting every seven words and filled the gaps, rational deletion: deleting grammatical features and then filled the gaps), Impromptu Reading plus Comprehension Questions (TOEFL/TOEIC like), Contextualized Grammar Editing (Error Recognition), Sentence Ordering Task and Information Transfers: Reading Charts, Maps, Graphs, or Diagrams are, according to the students surveyed, rather difficult for the majority of the vocational college students because they ought be more capable of “negotiating the meaning, and bringing the text a set of schemata for understanding it in a few second.” Top-Down Processing and the identifications of the relevant lexical, symbolic, and grammatical and discourse features form the most difficult processes of answering the designed “Interactive” reading assessment tasks. Different from the previous first and second formal assessment tasks, these tasks require stretches of language of several
paragraphs to one page or more to drive and enable the students to “interact” with the text (Brown, 2003).

As the last type, even though it has not been a crucial part of the EFL teacher’s motive for designing and using it, the “Extensive” reading assessment task is best early introduced to the College students because it highly promotes the Top-down processing strategy which best help the University students improve their critical/higher order thinking skills; tap into global understanding of the texts and are able to communicate orally or in the written form. What is more, to effectively produce the desired effects or results, this task takes relative long time (several days, weeks, or even months) to complete as they deal with the large texts of more than one page such as professional articles, journals, essays, papers, technical reports, short stories, books, etc. It, therefore, is done (read) out of the classroom Reading hours. Skimming tasks, Summarizing and Responding. Note-taking and Outline form the ways of assessing the students’ global understanding of largest texts (Brown, 2003). The “Extensive” reading assessment tasks are, however, still under the rug and it is always avoided seeing that it is extremely tiring in preparing the reading material and designing assessment tasks. Besides, it takes a long time in carrying out the on-going processes and is obliged to provide feedback. It can be ascertained that if “The 13 Kris Bales Creative Informal Assessment’s Techniques are totally applied, the students will freely enjoy their Reading assessment tasks.

As have been generally experienced by the students, these kinds of the formal assessments tasks have not yet highlighted the central points of reading comprehension skills of diagnosing main ideas and details, sequence, cause and effect, fact and opinion, comparing and contrasting, making inference, character and setting, theme, author’s purpose, prediction, nonfiction text features and visual information; and strategies of making connections, visualization, organization, determining important information, asking questions, and monitoring comprehension). Similarly, on linguistic competences/performance, and or four language skills, they ZOOM IN ON SMALL DETAILS (Brown, 2003). Consequently, the insistences on applying these standardised tasks have little effects on the students’ reading skills, strategies, language skills, linguistic knowledge, cognitive skills, and critical thinking skills. Doing or dealing too much with these formal assessment tasks breed them to psychologically stress out. When taking the tasks, they expressed the feeling of dissatisfaction, being a hurry and rush up (without critically thinking) in answering the questions, did carelessly, cheated (and frequently were caught cheating and punished or fined), were boring and tiring. The time provided in answering the questions was strictly restricted or controlled. They started giving up and then did not care what would happen next. In addition, except the extensive one, these three kinds of designing and using the perceptive, selective, and interactive reading assessment tasks lead the students’ opinion that “there is only one correct answer or interpretation in answering the questions and this shows signs of distress at the end of the tasks.” Such an opinion, however, contradicts the Herrington & Herrington (2008) (language) learning assessment’s principles and characteristics affirming that, “instruction and evaluation which put forward a single correct answer/interpretation are not fault but insufficient.”

Nitko (1996), in contrast, proposes four features of authentic (informal) assessment tasks. They are (1) emphasize applications (assess what a student can do and knows); (2) focus on direct assessment (assess the stated learning); (3) use realistic problem (problems that relate or which have been parts of the everyday life) and (4) encourage open-ended thinking (assessment should encourage “more than one correct answer, groups of students to work together, and require/take relative long time to complete it: several days, weeks, or even month”). As a result of keeping applying these formal assessments tasks, the students’ marks/grades obtained gradually decreases; the reading motivation/interest sharply declines; and deteriorates the ability to completely store, absorb, understand and disseminate information. Even though these formal tasks have long been well-liked and accepted, the EFL teacher is required to seek other alternatives to liberate and relieve the students from having psychological tensions, stresses or mental strains. The researchers, therefore, propose the most possible plan or action of applying Investigating the Qualitative Effects of the 13 Kris Bales Creative Informal Assessment’s Techniques: Re-Building the PNP Students’ “Stress Free” Reading Assessment Tasks.

The objective of undertaking this research is to specifically diagnose the Qualitative Impacts/Effects of Applying the 13 Kris Bales Creative Informal Assessment’s Techniques along with Re-Building the PNP Students’ “Stress Free” Reading Assessment Tasks. This research places emphasis on investigating the Qualitative Impacts of Investigating the Qualitative Effects of Applying the 13 Kris Bales Creative Informal Assessment’s Techniques: Re-Building the PNP Students’ “Stress Free” Reading Assessment Tasks. The proposed research questions were What were the qualitative effects of applying the 13 Kris Bales Creative Informal Assessment’s
The significances of investigating the Qualitative Effects of applying the 13 Kris Bales Creative Informal Assessment’s Techniques: Re-Building the PNP Students’ “Stress Free” Reading Assessment Tasks are first to facilitate the students interact with the authentic texts, comprehend their meaning and assimilate them into what they have already known (Grabe, 2009; Jerry & Charles, 2008-2018). The second is to assist the 2nd Year PNP ED Students improve their reading skills, strategies and grammatical and linguistic competencies (Anderson, 1985). The third is to demonstrate the ability to accurately interpret and analyze the written information (Millet, 2005-2019). The fourth is to improve students’ reading comprehension; teachers should introduce the seven cognitive strategies of effective readers: activating, inferring, monitoring and clarifying, questioning, searching and selecting, summarizing, and visualizing and organizing and many others (McEwan, E.K. 2007). The fifth is to facilitate the last year students to “tap into” having better global understanding of reading the off and online (digital) texts/resources for completing writing their final projects. The last is to avoid them zooming in on small details which accordingly cause them to psychologically have great worry, unrest, grief, dumps and distress.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Theoretically, Kris Bales earlier briefly explains how reading comprehension is taught and assessed. She explains that the primary ways of teaching reading comprehension are firstly to “decipher or discover the meaning of” the letters and words rather than comprehend (attach meaning to) them. However, the students who have recognized the meaning of the word, but they do not provide the sentence meaning, they still fail to understand the passages sent. This happens because the Reading comprehension comprises of three separate components, namely, processing text (one sounds out the syllables to decipher or decode the words), understanding what was read, and making connections between the text and what you already know (Bales, 2018).

What is more, in Reading comprehension, Bales (2018) clearly elucidates that, “Vocabulary knowledge and text comprehension are two vital elements of reading comprehension. Vocabulary knowledge refers to understanding individual words. If a reader does not understand the words s/he is reading, he will not understand the text as a whole. Because vocabulary knowledge is essential to reading comprehension, a reader should be exposed to a rich vocabulary and should always be learning new words. Teachers should help by defining potentially unfamiliar words that the students will encounter in texts and teaching them to use contextual clues to understand the meaning of new/unknown words. Text comprehension builds on vocabulary knowledge by allowing the reader to combine the meanings of the individual words to understand the overall text. If s/he has ever read a complicated legal document, a challenging book, or the previous example of a nonsensical sentence, s/he can understand the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and text comprehension. Understanding the meaning of most of the words does not necessarily translate to understanding the text as a whole. Text comprehension relies on the reader making connections with what s/he is reading.”

Secondly, the both teacher and students are required to set the goal of reading comprehension. Theoretically, the goal of teaching reading comprehension is “assisting students develop the knowledge, skills, and experiences they must have if they are to become competent and enthusiastic readers (Anderson, 1985).” The last is the teacher teaches reading strategies. Even though these strategies are the old stories, they do support to understand the texts read. The primary strategies introduced are constructing the meaning. The ways of constructing it comprise of “Interactive” involving the reader, the text and the context in which reading takes place, “Strategic” – Readers have purposes for their reading and use a variety of strategies as they construct meaning and “Adaptable” where readers change the strategies they use as they read different kinds of text or as they read for different purposes (Anderson, 1985).

The other teaching strategies are, as quoted from Gray, Griffith, Kelly, Spears, & Weiss (2010), to call serious attention to first make connections. Students make connections to the text to aid their comprehension. Connections can be made to personal experiences or to things the students have seen or read. The second is the visualization. Students make mental images of what they are reading. They learn to look for vivid language, including concrete nouns, active verbs, and strong adjectives. The third is the organization. Students learn to find the organizational pattern of a text. This allows them to anticipate what they are reading and helps them focus on the author’s central message or important ideas. The fourth is to determine important information. Students learn to categorize information based on whether or not it supports an author’s central message or is important for a specific purpose. The fifth is to ask questions. The students learn to ask questions before reading to set a purpose for reading, during reading to identify when their
comprehension breaks down, or after reading as a way to check their understanding of a passage. The last is to monitor comprehension. The students learn to pay attention to their own reading process and notice when they are losing focus or when comprehension is breaking down. They then can employ another strategy to help them overcome their difficulty (Gray, 2010).

The skills requires, on the other hands, are the ability to identify Main Idea and Details, Sequence, Cause and Effect, Fact and Opinion, Compare and Contrast, Make Inferences, Character and Setting, Theme, Author’s Purpose, Prediction, Nonfiction Text Features, Visual Information, etc (Gray, Griffith, Kelly, Spears, & Weiss, 2010). In terms of making connections, the students should make their personal connections with the text using their schema. The processes of making connections during reading are first Text-to-Self connecting the text and the reader’s personal experience. Second is Text-to-Text. It connects a text being read to a text that was previously read. The last is the Text-to-World connecting a text being read and something that occurs in the world. In assessing the students’ reading comprehension (performance) formally or informally, Brown (2003) urges an EFL teacher to seriously consider the Multiplicity of Types/Genres of Texts such as Academic Reading (general interest articles such as magazines, technical reports: lap report etc, reference materials, textbook/e-books, essay, papers, test directions, editorials and opinion writings), Job-related Reading (messages, letters, emails, memos, signs, reports, schedules, manuals, financial reports, directories) and Personal Reading like newspapers, magazines, letters, emails, greeting cards, invitations, messages, notes, recipes, novels, short stories, poetry, medical reports, comic strips, etc (Brown, 2003, p. 186-187). These genres of texts can be freely sourced/taken from the off and online resources. The four types of reading shows the relationships of (short, medium and long) length, focus on form and meaning and bottom-up and top-down processes and these four relationships automatically lead the teacher to design the perceptive, selective, interactive and extensive reading assessment tasks (Brown, 2003, p. 190).

How is the multiplicity of genres of texts informally assessed?

Kris Bales (2018) offers Creative Informal Assessment’s Techniques as the vicious cycle’s icebreakers of effectively releasing the students’ reading comprehension hardship, pain, frustration, and boredom. One of the primary reasons for applying the 13 Kris Bales Creative Informal Assessment’s Techniques are, therefore, more casual, little advance preparation, OPPOSE TO ASKING THE TEST-TAKERS TO ZOOM IN ON SMALL DETAILS, NO NEED TO GRADE THE RESULTS, and is the observation-based tools for the EFL teachers to authentically measure a students’ knowledge and evaluate learning progress. As directly quoted, Bales (2018) affirms that, “these informal assessments allow teachers to get a feel for student progress and identify the important domains in which they might need more instruction/learning assistance (scaffolding: a teacher designs, selects, or uses other learning supports of solving a problem). In addition, Bales (2018) states that, “Informal assessments are crucial because they can assist to identify any potential problem areas, focus on making correction ahead of having/performing formal evaluation. These assessments often become accurate indicators of understanding the texts and can also provide vital student feedback without the stress of tasks and quizzes.” The informal assessments help a teacher PINPOINT and IDENTIFY the students’ STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES and guide planning for upcoming lessons (Bales, 2018).”

The concise detailed quotations of the Kris Bales’ works of 13 Creative Informal Assessment’s Techniques are elucidated as follows. The first is the Observation. Observation is an informal tool for a teacher to watch her/his students learning progresses throughout the day; to looks for signs of excitement, frustration, boredom, and engagement, to identify any significant, practical, and progressive changes in their behaviour and learning. The observer makes notes about the tasks and activities that elicit these emotions. The second is the Oral Presentation. This is a type of formal assessment, but it can be a fantastic informal assessment tool when a teacher sets a timer for one or two minutes’ talk to tell what s/he has learned about a particular topic (Bales, 2018). The criteria for the assessment tasks are content, Organization or Clarity, Completeness, Grammar or Mechanics, Documentation, Delivery, and Interaction (Azar, 1989).

The third is the Journaling. This technique provides the students one to three minutes at the end of each day/meeting to journal about what they learned. It varies the daily journaling experience. The teacher might ask students to list 5-10 facts they have learned about a topic; write about the most exciting thing they learned that day; list one or two things they would like to know more about; note something that they are having trouble understanding and list ways that a teacher could help them understand a topic better (Bales, 2018). The criteria for the assessment tasks are Structure (Organization, Flow of thought, Transitions, Format); Grammar or Mechanics (sentence structure,
punctuation or mechanics); Language (Vocabulary); Content or information (Clarity of purpose, Critical and original thought, use of examples (Azar, 1989).

The fourth is the Paper Toss. This kind of assessment lets the students write questions for each other on a piece of paper. The teacher instructs the students to crumple their paper and let them have an epic paper wad fight. Then, teacher has all the students pick up one of the paper balls, read the question aloud, and answer it. This activity gets the students wiggles out and checks their knowledge on the topic they have been studying (Bales, 2018). The Paper Toss focuses on how the students pose using “yes/no questions (is it..., are they...), wh-question words (information questions: where are..., how does she...?) and auxiliaries questions (can you..., ought I to study..., etc) plus tenses (Azar, 1989).”

The fifth is the Four Corners. Bales (2018) explains the Four Corners as fantastic activity for getting kids/students up and moving while also assessing what they have already knows. The teacher has them label each corner of the room with a different option such as strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree, or A, B, C, and D. Read a question or statement and have them go to the corner of the room that represents their answer. Allow students a minute or two to discuss their choice in their group. Then, choose a representative from each group to explain or defend that group’s answer. This task focuses on assessing the students’ critical thinking/higher order thinking skills, speaking skills in sharing/presenting ideas, and collaborative skills in constructing the knowledge.

The sixth is the Matching/Concentration. This assessment lets the students play matching (also known as concentration) in groups or pairs. They are required to jot down questions on one set of cards and answers on the other. Shuffling (mixing) the cards and laying them, one by one, face down on a table. The students take turns turning over two cards trying to match a question card with the correct answer card. If a student makes a match, s/he gets another turn. If he does not, it will be the next players turn. The student with the most matches wins. Memory is an extremely versatile game. The teacher can use math facts and their answers, vocabulary words and their definitions, or historical figures or events with their dates or details (Bales, 2018). This focuses on assessing the students’ lower/higher order thinking skills, and the ability to pose questions.

The seventh is the Exit Slips. At the end of each meeting, day or week, have the students complete an exit slip prior to leaving the classroom. The index cards work well for this activity. Teacher can have the questions printed on the cards, written on the whiteboard, or teacher can read them orally. Teacher asks the students to fill out the card with answers to statements such as: Three things I learned…, Two questions I have…, One thing I did not understand…, and or What I found most interesting is… This is an excellent activity for gauging what students have retained about the topic they are studying and areas which may need more explanation. This focuses on assessing the students’ lower order thinking skills: Remembering and Understanding. The eighth is the Demonstration. This lets the students show the teacher what they know, explains the process as they go (Bales, 2018). This task stresses on assessing students’ speaking skills of explaining (understanding of) their work/tasks/products.

The ninth is the Drawings. Drawing is an excellent way for creative or kinaesthetic learners to express what they have learned. They can draw the steps of a process or create a comic strip to depict a historical event. They can draw and label plants, cells, or the parts of a knight’s armour (Bales, 2018). This technique assesses the students’ skills of describing a process: highlighting on rhetorical function in Academic Writing and Speaking. The tenth is the Crossword Puzzles. Crossword puzzles make a fun, stress-free, informal assessment tool. Creating puzzles with a crossword puzzle marker, using definitions or descriptions as the clues rotates our brains to think critically. Accurate answers result in a correctly-completed puzzle. You can use crossword puzzles to evaluate understanding on a variety of history, science, or literature topics such as states, president, animals or even sports (Bales, 2018). This task stresses on assessing students’ students’ ability to define, describe, guess contextually.

The eleventh is the Narration. Narration is a method of student’s learning evaluation widely used in homeschooling and of course, it can be applied in other formal/public/state schools. It explains something in his/her own words requires comprehension of the subject. Using narration is a useful tool for discovering what a student has learned and identifying areas that you may need to cover more thoroughly (Bales, 2018). This task stresses on assessing students’ grammatical complexity (sentence structures), speaking skills, cultural and pragmatic awareness.

The twelfth is the Drama. Teacher invites students to act out scenes or create puppet shows from topics they have been studying. This is especially effective for historical events or biographical studies. Drama can be an exceptionally valuable and easy to implement tool for homeschooling families. It is common for young children to incorporate what they are learning into
their pretend play. Listen and observe as they play to evaluate what they are learning and what you may need to clarify (Bales, 2018). This task stresses on assessing students’ grammatical complexity (sentence structures), speaking skills, lower/higher order thinking skills, cultural and pragmatic awareness. The last is the Student Self-evaluation. The self-evaluation helps students reflect on what they have read and directly assess their own reading progress. On this evaluation, the students are require to elucidate the applied three statements “I fully understand the topic,” “I mostly understand the topic,” “I am little confused,” “I need help” (Bales, 2018).

Characterizing the 13 Kris Bales Creative Informal Assessment’s Techniques

The Qualitative Impacts of Applying Investigating the Qualitative Effects of the 13 Kris Bales Creative Informal Assessment’s Techniques: Re-Building the PNP Students’ “Stress Free” Reading Assessment Tasks originates from the concepts of the Authentic Learning. As cited, the tasks that students perform are, according to Herrington & Herrington (2008), arguably the most crucial aspect of the design of any learning environment. Ideally, such the tasks should comprise ill-defined activities that have real-world relevance, and which present complex tasks to be completed over a sustained period of time, rather than a series of shorter disconnected examples. University courses often require students to complete tasks and activities that are largely abstract and decontextualised. They are formulated by others, well-defined and complete in scope, and often lead simply to an enculturation into the practices of universities and classrooms rather than real-world transfer. Such activities bear little resemblance to those of real practitioners. In contrast to this fragmented and decontextualised approach, a situated learning approach promotes authentic activities that can create the focus for the whole course of study—the activity does not necessarily supplement the course, it can be the course. Herrington & Herrington (2008) cautioned that the conception of situated learning was substantially “more encompassing in intent than conventional notions of ‘learning in situ’ or ‘learning by doing’ for which it was used as a rough equivalent”. Instead, activities can be complex and ill-defined, and echo the same complexity found in real-world tasks (Herrington & Herrington, 2008).

Subsequently, in assessing the students’ learning outcomes, Arhin, (2015); Nitko (2000) elucidates that Authentic Assessment (AA) which can be claimed as a part of an Informal Assessment (IA) is not only an assessment that requires students to apply their knowledge and skills from several areas in order to complete an activity or a task but also integrates learning into real-world life. He further explained that AA and IA are made up of (1) a hands-on task given to a student and (2) clearly defined criteria to evaluate how well every student achieved the application specified by the learning target. The AA and IA calls upon the examinees (test takers) to demonstrate specific skills and competencies (Arhin, 2015). In addition, AA-based Instruction is highly associated with the IA as it is the type of teaching which ascertains that the students make uses of their pertinent prior knowledge and skills to solve open-ended problems with the teacher as a facilitator (Arhin, 2015). In this AA-based Instruction, students demonstrate English language proficiency (bona-fida works). The IA, for that reason, can rightly combine the use of formative and summative assessments if it is required. When an evaluation is focused on the process rather than the product, it emphasizes the elimination of errors (Turner et al., 1998).

Besides, the IA actively involves student to produce and perform their works. Such an assessment provides teachers with information about how students understand and apply their knowledge and skill. The IA is a part of evaluation strategy to understand how well the students are able to apply their knowledge, skills etc through the performance of the tasks (Arhin, 2015; Hibbard, 1996). Students’ line of reasoning (rationales) can help to enhance teaching and learning process (Arhin, 2015).

In scoring, Ernst et al, 2017 explicate that the scoring of IA should reflect the capabilities of students rather than the rater’s perceptions and biases (Ernst et al 2017; Stiggins, 1987). Therefore, a consistent, reliable scoring system is critical to the fairness of IA. Among various scoring techniques, scoring rubrics, which describe the characteristics of different levels of performance, have been accepted as a predominant tool of IA (Ernst et al 2017; Kan, 2007). Scoring rubrics can include both quantitative and qualitative description of performance criteria (Ernst et al, 2017). Therefore, it is more effective and suitable than conventional standard-answer scoring for evaluating student cognitive abilities in higher-order cognitive dimensions. Two types of scoring rubrics, holistic and analytic, have been commonly used in IA. The former provides an overall score of the process or product directly, while the latter scores individual components separately to obtain a collective score (Ernst et al 2017; Nitko & Brookhart, 2015). When scoring student performance based on competency-based learning objectives, an analytic rubric would be more appropriate to address each attribute (Ernst et al, 2017).
In developing the performance tasks or performance assessments, the developer should take into accounts of following three steps. The first step is the teacher lists the skills and knowledge s/he wishes to have his/her students learn as a result of completing a task. As tasks are designed, one should begin by identifying the types of knowledge and skills students are expected to learn and practice. These should be of high value, worth teaching to, and worth learning. In order to be authentic, they should be similar to those which are faced by adults in their daily lives and work. WEAC (1996) suggests that educators need to ask themselves five questions as they identify what is to be learned or practiced by completing a performance task (WEAC, 1996). The questions which must be taken into accounts when dealing with the 13 Kris Bales Creative Informal Assessment’s Techniques are (1) what important cognitive skills or attributes do I want my students to develop? (2) what social and affective skills or attributes do I want my students to develop? (3) what meta-cognitive skills do I want my students to develop? (What types of problems do I want them to be able to solve?) And (4) what concepts and principles do I want my students to be able to apply (WEAC, 1996).

The second step is the design of performance tasks should require the students to demonstrate these knowledge and skills. The performance tasks should motivate students. They also should be challenging, yet achievable. That is, they must be designed so that students are able to complete them successfully. In addition, one should seek to design tasks with sufficient depth and breadth so that valid generalizations about overall student competence can be made. WEAC (1996) has a list of questions which are helpful in guiding the process of developing performance tasks. Those questions, with their recommendations, are (1) how much time will it take students to develop or acquire the skill or accomplishment? (2) There are no rules regarding the appropriate length or complexity of a task; (3) How does the desired skill or accomplishment relate to another complex cognitive, social, and affective skill? (4) How does the desired skill or accomplishment relate to long-term school and curricular goals? Skills or accomplishments which are integral to long-range goals should receive the most attention.

The last step is the criteria for performance tasks’ assessment. In applying 13 Kris Bales Creative Informal Assessment’s Techniques, the assessment of the students’ learning outcomes should emphasize on the performance criteria consisting of a set of score points which define in explicit terms and the range of student performance. Well-defined performance criteria will indicate to the students of what sorts of the processes and products are required to show the mastery and will provide the teacher with an “objective” scoring guide for evaluating student work. The performance criteria should be based on those attributes of a product or performance which are most critical to attaining mastery. It also is recommended that students be provided with examples of high-quality work, so they can see what is expected of them (WEAC, 1996).

In conclusion, the effects of applying the 13 Kris Bales Creative Informal Assessment’s Techniques on students’ reading comprehension are crucial. The IA makes students learn better, boosts motivation, exposes real language, prepares students for future careers, makes the concepts easier to be assimilated, and blends theories with practice (Har, 2005/2013). These impacts arise because the IA deals with real-world relevance; places teacher as facilitator; engages all the senses of learners; encourages the interdisciplinary perspectives; requires the authentic tasks; provides the opportunities for the students to examine the task from different perspectives; stresses on higher order thinking development; produces the products (works) and uses performance, authentic, or alternative assessment (Har, 2005/2013; Reeves, Herrington, & Oliver, 2002). Of a series of current research issues and related literature reviews which have been briefly elaborated and under the light of the research questions, the formulated premise/assumption is, “the the 13 Kris Bales Creative Informal Assessment’s Techniques practically enhance the students’ English reading comprehension and other 3 language skills.”

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research design

The applied research entailed the use of a qualitative method design to present more detailed and wide-ranging images of the problems under investigation (Bell & Aldridge, 2014). The selection of this design had been in line with or conformed to the characteristics of diagnosing the Qualitative Effects of the 13 Kris Bales Creative Informal Assessment’s Techniques: Re-Building the PNP Students’ “Stress-Free” Reading Assessment Tasks. This design facilitated the researchers to study the 2nd Year PNP ED Students’ real world situations/conditions in the Reading Comprehension instructional processes. The processes of investigation unfolded naturally so that the researchers were able to obtain the expected specific and detailed data. Another important benefit from selecting it was to lead the researcher to genuinely explore the open questions rather than test theoretically derived (deductive) hypotheses. As a
result, it provided the detailed descriptions capturing the 2nd PNP ED students’ (and or ELT teacher’s) personal perspectives and experiences (data) of applying the 13 Kris Bales Creative Informal Assessment’s Techniques (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009). More importantly, this design practically provided an understanding towards the researchers of what the 13 Kris Bales Creative Informal Assessment’s Techniques really meant to the 2nd PNP ED students’ reading comprehension.

3.2. Setting and Participants

Politeknik Negeri Padang was the locus of conducting the research. The population was all 2nd year PNP ED students numbering 59. The research sample (participants) who was being involved was, on the other hand, Class II A numbering 30 students.

The research design, qualitative method, involved the purposive sampling. This sampling, which was widely known as judgmental, selective, or subjective sampling, was a non-probability sample that was selected based on its characteristics of the population. Whereas, typical sampling technique (type) was selected because the 2nd PNP ED Class II A students were considered or judged to be typical or representative of that which were being investigated. The researchers selected the 2nd PNP ED Class II A students a sample because they yielded the best understanding of what the researchers were studying (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009; Crossman & Cole, 2018). In this qualitative research design, the researchers were the key instruments taking on or playing the roles of determining the focus of the research; in selecting the informants as sources of the data; in collecting the data; in appraising the quality of the data; in interpreting the data and in drawing conclusions of the study (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009).

3.3. Technique of Collecting the Data

Observation was a technique which was exercised in collecting the data. The researchers observed the students who were being assessed (assessment’s processes, the results/impacts of the assessment) by the EFL teacher using the 13 Kris Bales Creative Informal Assessment’s Techniques. In this observation, the researchers took on the roles of complete participants in a group, their identities were not known to the the 2nd PNP ED Class II A students being observed. The researcher disguised his or her identity and acted just like other teachers. The researchers interacted with them naturally; participated fully in the instructional activities and evaluation processes of the students being studied, but also made it clear that the researchers were doing a research. This was covert participant observation. Field notes, field diary, and field jottings (quick note) were the instruments of collecting the data (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009).

3.4. Technique of Analyzing the Data

Data processing began with making field notes and then analyzed them. Bogdan & Biklen (2007) explicate that the analysis of qualitative data was done by organizing data, choosing them as units that can be analyzed, finding important things, and deciding what parts to convey to others. The process of analyzing qualitative data ran with the following processes of (1) jotting down any things related to field notes; (2) collecting, sorting, classifying, making summaries, and creating indexes and analyzing the data by exploring relationships and patterns between the data. Miles and Huberman’s model was, on the other hand, used to analyze the data. The first stage of analyzing the data was the first is the data reduction. The researchers sharpened, classified, directed, organized and removed the unnecessary data so that the final conclusion could be drawn. The reduction did not need to be interpreted as quantification of data. The second was the presentation of data. This phase displayed the reduction data and categorized them into the forms of the narrative texts (in the form of field notes), matrices, graphs, networks or charts based on the criteria set. The last was the drawing conclusion. This last sequence of data analysis, drawing conclusion, was a fixed and final interpretation of the study and considered as the result of the analysis that could be used to take action (Sugiyono, 2011; Miles, M. B. & Huberman, A. M. Saldaña, J. (1994); Miles, M. B. & Huberman, A. M. (1984).

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This session presented the research results and discussion leading to the single proposed research question The followings were the presentations of the research findings and discussions.

4.1. Results (research findings)

In investigating the Qualitative Effects of 13 Kris Bales Creative Informal Assessment’s Techniques, the students learnt and practiced the normally tested comprehension strategies and skills and these were all verified that the 13 Kris Bales Creative Informal Assessment’s Techniques firstly “better improved” the students’ reading skills and strategies. These techniques increased the students’ abilities to read, understand the wide range of text types as well as
communicate those ideas in the texts as indicated the following table. Here are the results effects.

### Table 1: Effect on Student Reading Strategies' Improvement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reading Strategy</th>
<th>FAT</th>
<th>Bales' CIAT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Making Connections</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visualisation</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determine Important Information</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ask questions</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monitor comprehension</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 2: Effect on Student reading skill's progresses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reading Skill</th>
<th>FAT</th>
<th>Bales' CIAT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Main Ideas/Details</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sequence</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cause and Effect</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fact and Opinion</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compare and Contrast</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make Inference</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Character and Setting</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Author's Purposes</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prediction</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonfiction Text Features</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual Information</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3: Frequencies of Instructing Reading Strategies and Skills

- Visual Information: 6
- Nonfiction Text Features: 6
- Prediction: 12
- Author's Purposes: 14
- Theme: 14
- Character and Setting: 8
- Make Inference: 14
- Compare and Contrast: 14
- Fact and Opinion: 14
- Cause and Effect: 14
- Sequence: 8
- Main Ideas/Details: 14
- Monitor Comprehension: 14
- Ask Question: 14
- Determine Important Information: 9
- Organization: 6
- Visualisation: 8
- Make Connection: 9
Secondly, the 13 Kris Bales Creative Informal Assessment’s Techniques practically “better develop” the 2nd Year PNP ED Class II A students’ linguistic competence and linguistic performance as illustrated in the following table.

![Table 4: Effects on Students’ Linguistic Competence](image)

Thirdly, the 13 Kris Bales Creative Informal Assessment’s Techniques practically “better progress” the 2nd Year PNP ED Class II A students’ language skills of vocabulary, reading, speaking, writing and listening skills along with sentence structures of English as illustrated in the following table.

![Table 5: Effect on Students' Linguistic Performance](image)
Fourthly, the 13 Kris Bales Creative Informal Assessment’s Techniques practically “better improve and enhance” the 2nd Year PNP ED Class II A students’ cognitive skills as illustrated in the following table.

Lastly, the 13 Kris Bales Creative Informal Assessment’s Techniques practically “better progress” the 2nd Year PNP ED Class II A students’ Critical Thinking as illustrated in the following table.
Discussion

The applications of these 13 Kris Bales Creative Informal Assessment’s Techniques, “observation, oral presentation, Journaling, paper toss, four corners, matching/concentration, exit slips, demonstration, drawings, crossword puzzles, narration, drama, and self-evaluation” although these kinds of the ideas are not something new in the ELT practices practically–significantly caused the students who got involved in this instructional processes change in some ways of learning English as Foreign Language in Indonesia. The proofs–pieces of evidences–signified that, firstly, the 13 Kris Bales Creative Informal Assessment’s Techniques impinge on improving the students reading strategies. The practical–significant improvements were, first, in the domains of making connection. The students were capable of linking to the text to give support to their comprehension. Connections could be made to personal experiences or to things the students have seen or read (Klobuchar, Liscinsky, & Spears (2010)). The second effect was the students were able to make mental image (visualisation) of what they have read. They learnt a lot of exploring dramatic and flamboyant language, including concrete nouns, active verbs, and strong adjectives. The third was the students were accomplished/good at locating the organizational pattern of a text read (organization). This bridged them to predict what they were reading and aided them to stress on the messages/important ideas sent by the authors (Klobuchar, Liscinsky, & Spears, 2010).

The fourth domain facilitated the students to determine the important information from the texts. The students learnt to cluster that information backing the writer’s important message or specific purpose. The fifth area encouraged the students to pose/ask questions. In Indonesian ELT and learning context, the students were rarely to teach/learn how to ask questions ahead of reading the text. Through this activity, the students were led to diagnose when their comprehension broke down along with checking their knowledge of the passage read. The last spot was monitoring comprehension. In this case, the students learnt to carefully observe to their reading routes and when they lost theirs or the comprehension broke down, the teacher asked to exercise other strategy to overcome those difficulties encountered (Gray, 2010).

The scores which were displayed in Table 1 indicated the disparities between Formal Assessment Techniques (FAT) or Standardised Reading Comprehension’s Test and the Kris Bales’ Informal Assessment’s Techniques (IAT). A large number of students (80 %) disclosed that the Bales’ CIAT improved their reading strategies while the rest (32.5 %) voted that the FAT had less effect on augmenting their reading strategies.

Furthermore, the students’ skills of identifying what a passage is mostly about and find important details that support the main idea (main idea and details); looking for the order in which things happen or identify the steps in a process (sequence); identifying what happens (effect) and why it happens (cause) (cause and effect); determining which statements can be proved true (fact) and which statements tell what someone (fact and opinion); showing how two or more people or things are alike and different (Compare and Contrast); making uses of their background knowledge and clues from the text to infer information (making inferences); identifying who or what a story is about and where and when the story takes place (Character and Setting); looking for the moral or lesson in a fiction story or an author’s view.
about the world in nonfiction (theme); determining why an author wrote a passage and whether the purpose is to entertain, to inform, to persuade, or to teach (explaining author's purposes); utilising their prior knowledge and clues from the text to figure out what will happen next (making prediction); studying features that are not part of the main body of text, including subheadings, captions, entry words, and titles (non-fiction text features); and studying pictures, charts, graphs, and other forms of visual information (visual information) were the decisive clues of the 13 Kris Bales Creative Informal Assessment’s Techniques on pushing them to realistically perk the students reading skills’ progress up (Gray, 2010; Klobuchar, Liscinsky, & Spears, 2010).

The scores (mean=75) displayed in table 2 strongly confirmed the significant changes the students made on building their English Reading Comprehenssion’s skills up. They were not only capable of understanding and recognising the definitions and concepts of main ideas / details, sequences, causes and effects, facts and opinions, compare and contrast, inference, character and settings, themes, writer’s aim, prediction, non-fiction texts and visual information but also able to identify them properly and correctly. However, the process of implementing the Bales’ CIAT in the English Reading Comprehension classes requires quite a lot of time and takes a lot of special attention from both the teachers and students’ sides (Gray, 2010; Klobuchar, Liscinsky, & Spears, 2010). Oral Presentation, Journaling, Exit Slips, and Narrations, Self-Evaluation best described and progressed to advance the students’ reading strategies and skills.

Secondly, the Bales’ CIAT of Oral Presentation, Narration, and Self-Evaluation (in self-evaluation, the students were asked to re-explain in detail what they have already understood from reading the texts) best augmented and corrected the students’ linguistic competence, the systems of linguistic knowledge of English. The students were strongly encouraged to sensitively produce the correct systems of linguistic knowledge of English when being asked to provide oral presentation in front of the class, re-narrate the authors’ ideas of sending the messages and reflect on their learning progresses. The present, the past, the present perfect and the future times; nouns, pronouns, verbs, auxiliaries, adjectives, articles, adverbs, prepositions and prepositional phrases, conjunction and compounding, clauses and sentences, adverb clauses, adjectives clauses, noun clauses participle phrases, gerund phrases and infinitive phrases were the most sensitive systems of linguistic knowledge of English attentively paid by the students during the assessments. The awareness of the correct uses of these kinds of the systems of linguistic knowledge of English has effects on their own performances. They get used to checking and correcting their rules of grammar and even invited the English teacher’s willingness to measure the accuracy of their sentence-structures before performing theirs. They were, therefore, capable of presenting the pretty-good performances. They, in truth, tried hard to reduce and trimmed down the grammatical and structural errors of the English in their oral or written presentations. The message and information conveyed could be well understood, therefore. The scores (77.64) displayed in table 4 indicated that the Bales’ CIAT best improved the students’ linguistic competence.

Hereinafter, the Bales’ CIAT of the Oral presentation, Journaling, Paper Toss, Matching or Concentration, Exit Slips, Demonstration, Drawings, Narration and Self-Evaluation eased, facilitated and encouraged the students to communicate their ideas in English. The information/facts which had been read/coming from the authentic texts pushed them to disclose (to reproduce and re-articulate) the authors’ messages, passages and or purposes. Besides, the information or facts have been exercised, practised or communicated into their concrete situations or their real-world language settings. The score (83.%) displayed in table 5 indicated that the Bales’ CIAT aided them to improve their linguistic performance. These guided them to not only communicate the ideas, the authors’ messages/passages and facts in the classrooms but also outside of the classroom’s walls. 

Thirdly, the Bales’ CIAT of the Oral presentation, Journaling, Paper Toss, Matching/Concentration, Exit Slips, Demonstration, Drawings, Narration and Self-Evaluation better enriched the students’ vocabulary knowledge (of lexical and grammatical collocations) along with improving the essential-crucial skills of English Reading, Speaking, Writing, and Listening. The students voted that the the Bales’ CIAT (83.6) best affected the students’ language skills. The effects were due to every technique required them to directly and seriously take account of decoding/ changing the meaning of the written strings (series of letters, numbers, symbols, spaces, or sentences); decoding the meaning of the audio strings; encoding (putting it into a code or express it in a different form or system of language) the thoughts and concepts into written forms and encoding the thoughts and concepts into oral forms as illustrated in the following pie chart (online resource: https://id.pinterest.com/pin/747597606868136367/?lp=true by I Rivera).
Pie Chart 7: Four Skills of English for Completing Communication

Fourthly, the Bales’ CIAT of the Oral presentation, Journaling, Paper Toss, Matching/Concentration, Exit Slips, Demonstration, Drawings, Narration and Self-Evaluation better improved the students’ cognitive skills. These kinds of the Bales’ CIAT facilitated the students to “know.” As it is theoretically defined, cognitive skills are mental skills, acts or processes of “knowing, recognise or conceptualise.” These skills were constructed through the four stages. The first cognitive skill empowers the students’ PERCEPTION. This first mental skill picked the information up through the eyes, ears, skin, nostril and tongue. PERCEPTION, therefore, is interpreted as INTERPRETATION seeing that (1) perception empowers the ability of the students’ brain to make sense (to understand) of what the students’ eyes see, observe, perceive and distinguish. This is firstly called as VISUAL PERCEPTION. The students’ ability to interpret, identify and attach the meaning of the information/fact up through sound is AUDITORY PERCEPTION (EOT, 2019).

ATTENTION is the second effect of the Bales’ CIAT on the students’ cognitive skill. This skill enables the students to stay focused on the tasks given (FOCUSED ATTENTION); enables them to stay focused for sustained period of time (SUSTAINED ATTENTION) and enables the students to perform two or more tasks at the same time (DIVIDED ATTENTION is a higher-level skills as it pushes students to work under pressure). The third is the MEMORY. Memory, as it functions, ENCODES (puts it into a code or express it in a different form or system of language), STORES (saves/keeps) and later to RETRIEVES (reprocesses/takes back) the knowledge or facts. The knowledge, tenets, facts and information are usually encoded, stored and retrieved in the students’ short-term memory (records and saves knowledge, experience, information s/he is consciously thinking at the time), long-term memory (permanently records and saves knowledge, experience, information), working memory (students’ ability to hold and store facts/knowledge in their head/brain and mentally manipulate/use/operate them, i.e. $S+V(e/es)+O$ is the form of SPT. The students kept the result in mind that this rule: $S+V(e/es)+O$ belongs to simple present tense), visual memory (record and save facts after seeing), auditory memory (record and save facts after hearing or listening to) and sequential memory (record and save facts in chronological orders, i.e. names of the days, months; telephone numbers, alphabets, etc) (EOT, 2019).

The last clout is to sharpen the students’ logical reasoning in reaching a conclusion from the broadest truth/major premise to the specific/minor one, i.e., all men are mortal (broad truth/major premise). Politician is mortal (specific/minor premise). This is so-called DEDUCTIVE REASONING. If major premise is true and minor premise is true. The conclusion cannot be FALSE. INDUCTIVE REASONING is, on the other hand, the conclusion taken from the SPECIFIC OBSERVATION. For example, one had seen 25 ducks and concluded that all ducks are light brown. A premise is something that one supposes is true and that each student used it as a basis for developing their ideas/proposals (EOT, 2019).
Lastly, the Bales’ CIAT of the Oral presentation, Journaling, Paper Toss, Matching or Concentration, Exit Slips, Demonstration, Drawings, Narration and Self-Evaluation better improved the students’ critical thinking skills. The Bales’ CIAT, firstly, encouraged the students to recognise those facts or knowledge found in the given texts through “defining, mentioning, listing, memorising, stating, etc.” These are ways of asking students “RECALL FACTS.” Secondly, it pushed the students to “classify, describe, discuss, explain, identify, report, rephrase, restate etc” those facts or knowledge in their own words. These are access to EXPLAIN IDEAS/CONCEPTS. Thirdly, it drove the students to articulate those facts or knowledge in the classroom and if possible urged them to apply them to their real-world life, specific-new settings. Doing something new in applying the facts or knowledge is a critical part of constructing new knowledge. Using, interpreting, performing, demonstrating, sketching, executing, etc are ways of asking them to USE THE FACTS/INFORMATION IN NEW SETTINGS (Bloom, 1994; Krathwohl, Bloom, & Masia, 1964).

Fourthly, the Bales’ CIAT asked the students to examine the broken component facts, knowledge or information. Differentiating, organising, relating, comparing, contrasting, examining, questioning, testing, etc are processes of asking them to DRAW CONNECTIONS AMONG IDEAS. Fifthly, The CIAT drove the students judge the facts, knowledge or information. Arguing, defending, evaluating, critiquing, weighing, etc are activities of JUSTIFYING THEIR STAND OR DECISION. Lastly, after going through processes, the students were asked to produce new or original works for being articulated or presented. Constructing new information is ways of producing new works, viewpoints. They formed a notion and defend it (Bloom, 1994; Krathwohl, Bloom, & Masia, 1964).

5. CONCLUSION
In conclusion, applying the 13 Kris Bales Creative Informal Assessment’s Techniques can re-build the PNP ED Students’ “Stress-Free” Reading Assessment Tasks. The “Stress-Free” is due to, firstly, the students have “no” great worry or a lot of stress, headaches, minor pains and sleeping difficulties of always thinking the grade being obtained after assessment seeing that the Bales’ CIAT essentially does not numerically measure/rate the knowledge, skills, competencies and performance of the students. It is rather AWARDING the students with a THUMBS UP, A SIDEWAYS THUMB, or THUMBS DOWN to indicate, “I fully understand the topic,” “I mostly understand,” and “I need help.” Using a ten-finger scale and have the students hold up the number of fingers corresponding to their level of UNDERSTANDING is another way of rating their BEHAVIOUR and CLASS PARTICIPATION.

Secondly, the Bales’ CIAT drives the ELT teacher to assess his/her students’ the knowledge, skills, competencies and performance in many different settings and ways such as observation, oral presentation, journaling, paper toss, four corners, matching/concentration, exit slips, demonstration, drawings, crossword puzzles, narration, drama, self-evaluation, etc. Thirdly, the Bales’ CIAT allows ELT teacher to exploit the authentic materials aiming at bringing the students close to their real-world “language” setting. Fourthly, the Bales’ CIAT strongly places emphasis on assessing what the students know and can do; assessing the stated learning targets; framing the tasks in a highly realistic way so that the students can recognise them as a part
of everyday life; framing the tasks to encourage more than one correct answer; grouping the students to work together; and realising and understanding that the tasks take a relatively long time to complete (Nitko, 1996 p. 243).

Fifthly, the Bales’ CIAT stress on providing authentic context reflecting the ways the knowledge and skills used in real-life; comprising ill-defined authentic learning activities having real-world relevance; giving a model of how real practitioners behave in real situation; enabling and encouraging students to explore different roles and perspectives; promoting collaborative construction of knowledge and problem-solving; reflecting learning; driving students for articulation (presentation and demonstration); accommodating coaching and scaffolding; and those tasks are authentically assessed (Herrington & Herrington, 2008).

Lastly, the Kris Bales Creative Informal Assessment’s Techniques - observation, oral presentation, journaling, paper toss, matching or concentration, exit slips, demonstration, drawings, narration, self-evaluation- best improve and develop the students’ reading strategies, reading skills, linguistic competence, linguistic performance; language skills, cognitive skills and critical thinking skills. This research finding drives the ELT teachers to consider applying these techniques to facilitate the students improve and develop their knowledge and skills of English in addition to adding their world-wide insights about the 21st-century language learning expecting them of being capable of finding solutions to problems (CRITICAL THINKING), thinking out of the box (CREATIVITY), working with others (COLLABORATION) and talking to others (COMMUNICATION) placing emphasis on four language skills of Reading, Writing, Speaking and Listening; linguistic and linguistic performance or widely known as 4Cs (Larsen, n.d).

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Formalist Criticism: Critique on Reynaldo A. Duque’s Selected Ilokano Poems

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ARTICLE INFO

ABSTRACT

Philippines is country with rich literatures that embody the culture and history of the Filipinos. One of the rich sources of literatures is that of the Ilokano people in the Ilocos region of Luzon. However, dearth of critical studies on Ilokano literature is evident. As such, this study analyzed the selected contemporary Ilokano poems of Reynaldo A. Duque using the frameworks of Formalism namely literariness and organic whole. Through content analysis and close reading, the study discovered that Reynaldo A. Duque employed eight literary devices in his poems: persona, tone, mood, rhyme, rhythm, figures of speech, symbolism, imagery, theme and syntax; the meaning of the poem progresses as the eight devices are being decoded; each device gives a clue to the meaning of the poems. Nevertheless, Ilokano literature and text still reveal universal truth specifically on universality of human character or emotions and of the society’s culture; it possesses literary elements.

1. INTRODUCTION

In understanding a work of literature, one must be familiar with literary criticism. Literary criticism is a tool in understanding literature. It allows people to examine a certain literary piece from different angles. Thus, it helps one to conceptualize the pedagogical import of a certain literary piece into its ideological standpoints.

With the growing interest of literary enthusiasts towards literary criticism, many approaches and theories have been postulated to aid them in the realization of the crucial mandate of literary criticism. One of these approaches to literary criticism is Formalism or Formalist Criticism. Formalism is also known as new criticism; thus, focusing on contemporary texts. This approach likewise focuses on the form of the literary piece. It involves close reading of the text. Its maxim is art for art’s sake which means that Formalists view literature as self-complete, written for its own sake and unified by its form (Beaty et al, 2002). The interpretation of this is that form used to present ideas in a work of literature is exalted more than content (Balogun, 2014). From the Formalist’s standpoint, a work of literature is evaluated on the basis of its literary devices and the susceptibility of the same to scientific investigation (Balogun, 2014). Simply put, Formalism looks into the literariness of the text and how the elements of the literary texts are unified to form the organic whole of the texts.

Furthermore, contemporary texts being one of the subjects of formalist criticism refer to those literary pieces written in the 20th century up to present; literature during this period is known as contemporary literature. With the rise of contemporary literature and text, contemporary writers’ styles and topics begin to flourish and evolve as time goes. Contemporary literature and texts reflect modern life, culture, language and ideals. Contemporary literature is no longer innocent but ironic as it reflects peoples’ political, social, and personal disillusionment; it no longer dares to believe that it can create anything new; it only casts the old in new forms; it uses language carefully and precisely to illustrate ideas (Bob, 2009). Nevertheless, contemporary literature and text still reveal universal truth specifically on universality of...
Formalist Criticism: Critique on Reynaldo A. Duque’s Selected Ilokano Poems

human character or emotions and of the society’s culture. On one hand, the literature of the Ilokanos is called *KurditanSamtoy* from the words "kurdit" which means to write and "sao mi ditoy" meaning our language here (Duque, 2011). The ancient Ilokano writers expressed themselves in folk and war songs. Today, Ilokano writers express themselves through poetry, novels, essays and other contemporary text forms.

Interestingly, the Ilokano writer continues to write, expressing the sentiments of his race; thus enriching further the literary traditions of the Ilocos region in particular and of the country in general (Duque, 2011). As proof, many of the contemporary Ilokano writers have gained prominence in the field of literature and even won major prizes in the annual Palanca Awards, the most prestigious and most anticipated of all literary contests in the Philippines. These famous winners’ names include Reynaldo A. Duque, Prescillano N. Bermudez, Maria Fres-Felix, Clarito G. de Francia, Ariel S. Tabag, Daniel L. Nesperos, Roy V. Aragon, Danilo Antalan, Bernardo D. Tabbada and Noli S. Dumlao.

Despite constituting a very significant stream of Philippine literature, there is a dearth of critical studies of Ilokano literature. In fact, study of Ilokano literature was started by Leopoldo Y. Yabes in the 1930s; the comprehensive bibliography of writers and their works also remain to be compiled and written. Most if not all researches dealing with Ilokano literature used biographical and historical approaches, thus neglecting other approaches to literary criticism and one of these is formalism.

Additionally, studies on Ilokano literature though limited manifest dearth of information specifically on diverse Ilokano writers’ views and milieu, their sources and influences; their aims and projects; their positions and oppositions; their styles in writing. Last, with the vital need to review related studies and given the availability of resources for research and review, the researcher discovered that there are no existing researches on Ilokano poetry using Formalism as an approach to literary criticism.

Moreover, researches that deal with literature are focused on the famous or more studied literatures neglecting the literatures of some groups. Despite the popularity of literary criticism, theories and approaches, researches dealing on literary criticism are also limited in number. Specifically, published researches using formalism or formalist criticism, an approach used in this research, are limited. Perhaps, there are studies but are unpublished making them hard to locate and review.

Finally, in an attempt to explore Ilokano literature and its literary conventions, this study analyzed the poetry of Ilokanos specifically the contemporary poems of Reynaldo A. Duque-a native of Bagani, Candon City, Ilocos Sur. The poems were studied for appreciation and cultural preservation since literature is a society’s culture. Last, the study aimed to answer the following questions:

1. What are the literary devices employed by the poet in his poems?
2. How did the poet defamiliarize the texts?
3. How does each device help each other in forming the organic whole in conveying the message of the poems?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW
Theoretical Framework

![Figure 1. Theoretical Framework of the Study](image-url)
approach to literary criticism (Fig. 1). Thus, the following discussions, which are closely related to the subject of the study, present theories and concepts which gave the researcher wider insights in conducting the research activity:

**On Formalism**

Formalism developed and flourished in Russia in the middle of the twentieth century; it has two tenets: Russian Formalism and New Criticism. As an approach to literary criticism, it focuses on form. The analysis stresses items like symbols, images, and structure and how one part of the work relates to other parts and to the whole. Formalists believe that all information essential to the interpretation of a work must be found within the work itself; there is no need to bring in outside information about the history, politics, or society of the time, or about the author's life. Therefore, it disregards extrinsic factors and focuses on the intrinsic aspects of the text.

Formalists also spend much time analyzing irony, paradox, imagery, and metaphor; they are also interested in the work's setting, characters, symbols, and point of view. The critic's concern therefore is to identify and discuss those devices in order to determine the 'literariness' of such a text.

This study used formalism in the analysis of literary devices used in the poems and the defamiliarization techniques of the poet. It also analyzed how one part of the work relates to each other to form the organic whole of the poems or the meanings of the poems.

**On Russian Formalism**

Russian Formalism is the European counterpart of the Anglo-American New Criticism. It is a school of literary criticism that originated in the former Russia around 1915. Figures of the school include Viktor Shklovsky and Roman Jakobson. Russian Formalism is more interested in method and scientific approach; it emphasized a differential definition of literature.

Russian Formalists rejected unsystematic, subjective and impressionistic ways of dealing with literature, inherited from the 19th century and attempted a scientific description of literature as a special use of language. Biographical, social, political or cultural contexts are not important in the critical process. Thus, the focus of analysis is on the form of literature, rather than its content.

Russian formalism focuses on the analysis of literary devices (literariness) as these are the keys to defamiliarization. These two tenets of Russian formalism framed the first and second problem of the study.

**On Literariness.** Literariness is the sum of special linguistic and formal properties that distinguish literary texts from non-literary texts, according to the theories of Russian Formalism. The leading Formalist Roman Jakobson declared in 1919 that 'the object of literary science is not literature but literariness, that is, what makes a given work a literary work. Rather than seek abstract qualities like imagination as the basis of literariness, the Formalists set out to define the observable literary devices by which literary texts—especially poems—foreground their own language. Literariness was understood in terms of defamiliarization, as a series of deviations from 'ordinary' language. It thus appears as a relation between different uses of language, in which the contrasted uses are liable to shift according to changed contexts.

On one hand, Miall and Kuiken (2001) underscored the three components of literariness. The first is the occurrence of stylistic variations that are distinctively (although not uniquely) associated with literary texts. The second is the occurrence of defamiliarization. The third is the modification or transformation of a conventional concept or feeling which means that the reader has been prompted to put in place a new sense of time, but his difficulty in finding the appropriate words attests to the reinterpreting effort required. Simply put, literariness is constituted when stylistic or narrative variations strikingly defamiliarize conventionally understood referents and prompt reinterpreting transformations of a conventional concept or feeling.

Hence, literariness is a feature that distinguishes literature from other human creations and is made of certain artistic techniques or devices which are employed in literary works. These devices became the primary object of the formalists' analyses and, as concrete structural components of the works of literature, were essential in determining the status of literary study as a science. Using the framework of
literariness, this research determined the different literary devices used by the poet in shaping his contemporary poems.

**On Defamiliarization.** One of the concepts of Formalism is defamiliarization, which Victor Shklovsky (1965) argued as making objects unfamiliar to make forms difficult and to increase the difficulty and length of perception because the process of perception is an aesthetic end in itself and must be prolonged. In her article, Torabi (2010) underscored that defamiliarization causes the audience to confront the object on a different level, elevating and transforming it from something ordinary or practical into work that is considered art. She further articulated that defamiliarization does not only forces the audience to see a work literature as an art but also allows the author and audience to distance themselves from the seriousness of the message so that the piece can be enjoyed as art and does not become just another political rant.

According to Shklovsky (1965), defamiliarization can also be achieved through the use of unique or difficult language. He states that, according to Aristotle, poetic language must appear strange and wonderful. An example of this is T.S. Eliot's use of Greek, Latin, German and other languages in *The Wasteland*, which forces the reader to become a more active participant in the process by having to make an extra effort to decode the strange and exotic words in order to understand the poem. One is never allowed to fall into a comfortable lull and be a passive listener or reader when dealing with T.S. Eliot.

Shklovsky (1965) articulated underscored that a work is created "artistically" so that its perception is impeded and the greatest possible effect is produced through the slowness of the perception. As a result of this lingering, the object is perceived not in its extension in space, but, so to speak, in its continuity. Thus "poetic language" gives satisfaction. To realize the defamiliarization of language, poets must use words and images new to readers and create a sense of surprise and freshness. Defamiliarization not only applies to poetry creation but also to poetry translation (Manqiong, 2008). The application of defamiliarization to translation can faithfully reproduce the artistic manner of the original poems and give their readers aesthetic enjoyment. It also allows, in some degree, the creative treason of translated texts (Manqiong, 2008). Of course, defamiliarization should never be overdone whether in poetry creation or in poetry translation (Manqiong, 2008).

Nevertheless, whether an object is rendered unfamiliar by the kind of language used, the unique portrayal of characters in the story, or how a particular event is illustrated, the goal of defamiliarization is to make the object strange and unfamiliar so that the piece is transformed from ordinary prose to extraordinary art (Torabi, 2010); defamiliarization occurs in many guises: it may refer to the content or to the form of a work of art (Webster, 2001). Hence, in this study, the researcher looked into the defamiliarization techniques that the poet used in his selected contemporary poems in such a way that the poems suit the contemporary readers.

**On New Criticism**

New Criticism or American New Criticism emphasizes explication or close reading of the work itself; it rejects old historicism's attention to biographical and sociological matters (Delahoyde, 2011). Instead, the objective determination as to "how a piece works" can be found through close focus and analysis, rather than through extraneous and erudite special knowledge (Delahoyde, 2011). New Criticism, incorporating Formalism, examines the relationships between a text's ideas and its form, between what a text says and the way it says it. New Critics usually resolve it into unity and coherence of meaning (Delahoyde, 2011).

Working with patterns of sound, imagery, narrative structure, point of view, and other techniques discernible on close reading of the text, New Criticism seeks to determine the function and appropriateness of these to the self-contained work (Delahoyde, 2011). With these features of New Criticism, the researcher used close reading as technique in data gathering in order to see
relationships between the poems’ ideas and their forms; the researcher used the framework of New Criticism to surface the beauty of the text using the forms and devices through giving meaning to them; thus, surfacing the organic whole of the poems.

**Organic Whole.** In literature, organic whole also known as organic unity is a structural principle and was first discussed by Plato (*Phaedrus, Gorgias, and The Republic*) and later described and defined by Aristotle. The principle calls for internally consistent thematic and dramatic development, analogous to biological growth, which is the recurrent, guiding metaphor throughout Aristotle’s writings.

According to Aristotle’s *Poetics*, the action of a narrative or drama must be presented as “a complete whole, with its several incidents so closely connected that the transposal or withdrawal of any one of them will disjoin and dislocate the whole.” The principle is opposed to the concept of literary genres—standard and conventionalized forms that art must be fitted into. It assumes that art grows from a germ and seeks its own form and that the artist should not interfere with its natural growth by adding ornament, wit, love interest, or some other conventionally expected element. Organic form was a preoccupation of the German Romantic poets and was also claimed for the novel by Henry James in *The Art of Fiction* (1884).

Furthermore, organic whole is attained when all parts of a poem are interrelated and interconnected, with each part reflecting and helping to support the poem’s central idea. ...allows for the harmonization of conflicting ideas, feelings and attitudes (Liu, n.d). Also, Liu (n.d) stated that organic unity in an art work is achieved when all three components of art (subject, form, content) are successfully combined; the work contains nothing which distracts or is extraneous, with “relationships that seem inevitable”; when attained, it gives works a feeling of completeness.

According to Liu (n.d), organic whole may be achieved by someone in many ways. First, he or she may approach a work by focusing on the subject, which may elicit strong feelings (content) that lead to a development of composition (form). Second, he or she may also initiate the creative process with a particular composition in mind (form), which could suggest a certain state of mind (content), which results in a particular final image (subject). Finally, he or she may also work cathartically (content), choosing certain shapes or colors to reflect his or her feelings (form), which also creates a final image (subject).

Taking into account the mentioned concepts underlying organic whole, the researcher looked into how and why the poet used the different elements of poetry in conveying the messages of the poems. Therefore, the researcher used the theory in analyzing the interrelationship of the different poetic elements or devices used by the poet.

**Definition of Literature**

Literature is an art which uses language to convey secrets of the human heart, to relieve the pain of the soul, to carry off hidden grief, to convey sympathy, to impart counsel, to record experience, and to perpetuate wisdom (Newman, n.d.). It is also a mirror of life since it reflects the society; thus, it is an accurate image of what we see in real life.

Literature is also divided into two: poetry and prose. Poetry is the oldest form of literature whereas prose is the new one. Poetry also refers to those expressions in verse, with measures, rhymes, lines, stanzas and melodious tone (Saymo, et.al, 2014). Lyric poetry, epic, metrical tale, and ballad are some of the many types of poetry.

On one hand, prose is a literary piece which is written in the form of ordinary written or spoken language and within the common flow of a conversation; it is easily understood as compared to poetry; it concentrates on the familiar and the ordinary, but may also deal with subjects such as heroism, beauty, love and nobility of spirit (Saymo, et.al, 2014). Non-fiction and fiction are also the major divisions of prose. Fable, myth, riddles, short story and novel are some of the types of fiction while speech, essay, biography and autobiography are some types of non-fiction. Nevertheless, these divisions of literature are forms used by writers to express their thoughts, emotions and feelings of themselves and of the society they live in.
Last, a literary masterpiece must appeal to our sense of beauty; it should stimulate thoughts; it makes our mental life rich by making us realize the different fundamental truths about life and human nature; it should stir imagination; it should impart values; it can endure the tests of times; it reveals universal truth and has no limits; it is marked by its lasting substances and by its distinctive styles.

**Literary Devices in Poetry**

When reading a poem, one must pay attention to its devices. These devices help one to decipher the poem. Basic ideas such as stanzas, voice, sound, rhythm, figures of speech and form must also be considered. These basic ideas are vital requisites of poetry reading. However, there are eight basic devices of poetry for beginner readers and even professionals to understand: persona, tone and mood, rhyme and rhythm, figures of speech, symbolism, imagery, and theme.

**Persona.** Persona presents a puzzle; it is predicated on artifice, yet persona is also a very intimate form of poetry (Hazelton, 2014). In a persona of a poem, a writer often speaks directly to readers and, in doing so, forges an almost interpersonal relationship with them (Hazelton, 2014). It whispers in their ears or grabs them by the shoulders (Hazelton, 2014). A persona poem allows a great deal of control over the distance between a speaker and the audience (Hazelton, 2014).

Sometimes readers confront a persona’s description differently in their first reading. Moments like these encourage readers to rethink their initial assumptions, and upon rereading, they notice other instances in which the speaker points out the potential for first impressions to be false (Hazelton, 2014).

**Tone and Mood.** In poetry, concepts of tone and mood are related notions (Prudchenko, 2016). In particular, the poem’s tone evokes a certain mood in the reader (Prudchenko, 2016). The tone of a poem is the style, or manner or expression, of its writing (Prudchenko, 2016). Though tone may be conveyed and expressed in a variety of ways, it is generally either through the attitude of the narrator or writer, subject matter, characters or events; the tone comes through from the poem’s syntax and vocabulary or helps evoke the mood or establish the atmosphere of the poem (Prudchenko, 2016).

On one hand, mood refers to the atmosphere that is prevalent in the poem; different elements of a poem such as its setting, tone, voice and theme help establish this atmosphere (Prudchenko, 2016). As a result, the mood evokes certain feelings and emotions in the reader (Prudchenko, 2016). A poem generally has one overall mood, but the types of mood that poetry may exhibit vary greatly (Prudchenko, 2016). The writer of a poem creates tone using particular syntax, setting and structure, and the mood is the feeling that the tone evokes in the reader (Prudchenko, 2016).

Though tone and mood are closely related, the tone tends to be associated with the poem’s voice (Prudchenko, 2016). The narrator of the poem creates the voice of the poem, and voice is associated with the writer’s attitude toward the poem (Prudchenko, 2016). In other words, the tone relays something about the writer’s attitude toward the subject of the poem (Prudchenko, 2016). This attitude, in turn, creates some sort of atmosphere or mood, which then evokes a certain emotion or frame of mind in the reader (Prudchenko, 2016). The tone of a poem may be described using a variety of words such as serious, playful, humorous, formal, informal, angry, satirical, ironical or sad, or any other kind of appropriate adjective; the mood of the poem may be described as idealistic, romantic, realistic, optimistic, gloomy, imaginary or mournful (Prudchenko, 2016).

**Rhyme.** Rhyme is another important tool in the poet's toolbox (Victor, 2015). Rhyme is used to give pleasure; rhyme, done well, is pleasing to the ear (Victor, 2015). It adds a musical element to the poem, and creates a feeling of “rightness” of pieces fitting together; it also makes a poem easier to memorize, since the rhyme echoes in the reader's mind afterward, like a melody (Victor, 2015). Rhyme likewise is used to deepen meaning; rhyming two or more words draws attention to them and connects them in the reader's mind (Victor, 2015). Finally, rhyme strengthens form. In many traditional forms, a regular pattern of rhymes are at the ends of the lines (Victor, 2015). This means that even if the poem is being read out loud,
listeners can easily hear where the lines end, can hear the shape of the poem (Victor, 2015).

Rhyme functions in much the same way as rhythm (Bradesca, 2016). It keeps the poem in harmony, and a rhyme scheme helps the audience to understand what is coming (Bradesca, 2016). Rhyme scheme can be figured by looking at the last word in each line and assigning a letter (Bradesca, 2016). The last word in the first line gets an a. The last word in the second line, if it rhymes, also gets an a (Bradesca, 2016). If a word does not rhyme, it gets the next letter, b in this case (Bradesca, 2016). Discerning the rhyme scheme is important because the pattern brings the poem to life and helps the audience feel connected (Bradesca, 2016).

**Rhythm.** Rhythm creates the pattern of language in a line of a poem, marked by the stressed and unstressed syllables in the words (Bradesca, 2016). A foot in poetry refers to a stressed or unstressed syllable, and meter counts the number of feet in a line (Bradesca, 2016). The most famous rhythm is iambic pentameter, which is found in most of Shakespeare's writing (Bradesca, 2016). The word iamb means the foot is in the pattern of unstressed or stressed, and pentameter means there are five feet, or sets of syllables in each line (Bradesca, 2016).

Rhythm is another essential device in poetry because it is a mirror of life (Bradesca, 2016). Nature expects a rhythm, as evidenced by the change from day to night, or the order of the seasons (Bradesca, 2016). This contributes to the pleasure of the reader; rhythm is what we expect from music, from nature, and certainly from poetry. Cacophony opposes rhythm, and is abrupt to the ear (Bradesca, 2016).

Rhythm is quite literally the heartbeat of a poem and serves as the backdrop from which the ideas and imagery can flow (Victor, 2015). Rhyme is the musicality behind the words and the way the phrases come together (Victor, 2015). These two elements represent the framework of poems and the techniques that set poetry apart from other prose writing (Victor, 2015).

**Figure of Speech.** Another poetic device is figure of speech or figurative language. It is the umbrella term used for a number of different literary devices commonly found in poetry (Tanis, 2014). In general, a figure is created with words that positions one thing in relation to another; hence the name (Tanis, 2014). Figurative language is, in general, a way to compare the thing one wants to talk about to another thing, one that might not seem at first very similar, to help illustrate some idea about the thing one really is concerned with (Tanis, 2014).

In relation to figures of speech, imagery is an often-misunderstood literary element that is as important as figurative language for poets, as it also packs very much in to a small space (Tanis, 2014). Often, in fact, images are conveyed through figurative language (Tanis, 2014). Simply put, an image is a word picture, a set of visual information that the poet wants readers to see or visualize in their mind’s eye (Tanis, 2014). If the poet can make readers see what he or she is writing about, then the idea is that much more effective (Tanis, 2014). They will feel it more intensely and remember it more vividly (Tanis, 2014).

**Symbolisms.** To further understand poems, one must also be familiar with the symbolisms. Symbolism is everywhere; symbolism exists whenever something is meant to represent something else (Thomas, 2016). Symbolism is a figure of speech that is used when an author wants to create a certain mood or emotion in a work of literature (Thomas, 2016). It is the use of an object, person, situation or word to represent something else, like an idea, in literature (Thomas, 2016).

Symbolism is the use of symbols to signify ideas and qualities by giving them symbolic meanings that are different from their literal sense (literarydevices.net, 2016). Symbolism can take different forms (literarydevices.net, 2016). Generally, it is an object representing another to give it an entirely different meaning that is much deeper and more significant; sometimes, however, an action, an event or a word spoken by someone may have a symbolic value (literarydevices.net, 2016). For instance, “smile” is a symbol of friendship (literarydevices.net, 2016). Similarly, the action of someone smiling may stand as a symbol of the feeling of affection which that person has for you (literarydevices.net, 2016).

Symbols do shift their meanings depending on the context they are used in (literarydevices.net, 2016).
“A chain”, for example, may stand for “union” as well as “imprisonment”. Thus, symbolic meaning of an object or an action is understood by when, where and how it is used; it also depends on who reads them (literarydevices.net, 2016).

To develop symbolism in his work, a writer utilizes other figures of speech... (literarydevices.net, 2016). Symbolism gives a writer freedom to add double levels of meanings to his work: a literal one that is self-evident and the symbolic one whose meaning is far more profound than the literal one (literarydevices.net, 2016). The symbolism, therefore, gives universality to the characters and the themes of a piece of literature (literarydevices.net, 2016). Symbolism in literature evokes interest in readers as they find an opportunity to get an insight of the writer’s mind on how he views the world and how he thinks of common objects and actions, having broader implications (literarydevices.net, 2016).

**Theme.** After understanding the symbolisms of a certain poem, one may be clarified as to the poem’s theme. Theme is defined as a main idea or an underlying meaning of a literary work that may be stated directly or indirectly (literarydevices.net, 2016). A writer presents themes in a literary work through several ways (literarydevices.net, 2016). A writer may express a theme through the feelings of his main character about the subject he has chosen to write about (literarydevices.net, 2016).

Similarly, themes are presented through thoughts and conversations of different characters (literarydevices.net, 2016). Moreover, the experiences of the main character in the course of a literary work give readers an idea about its theme (literarydevices.net, 2016). Finally, the actions and events taking place in a narrative are consequential in determining its theme (literarydevices.net, 2016).

**Syntax.** The last device though some may not call it as such is syntax. Generally, it refers to the language, punctuations, parallelism and synonymous, reinforcing or opposing words. Specifically, syntax is maybe defined as the general word order of an English sentence is “Subject+Verb+Object” (literarydevices.net, 2016). In poetry, however, the word order may be shifted to achieve certain artistic effects such as producing rhythm or melody in the lines, achieving emphasis, heightening connection between two words etc (literarydevices.net, 2016). The unique syntax used in poetry makes it different from prose (literarydevices.net, 2016).

Syntax is also closely related to and is understood together with diction. Diction refers to the choice of words in a particular situation while syntax determines how the chosen words are used to form a sentence (literarydevices.net, 2016). Most often than not, adopting a complex diction means a complex syntactic structure of sentences and vice versa (literarydevices.net, 2016). In combination, syntax and diction help writers develop tone, mood and atmosphere in a text along with evoking interest of the readers (literarydevices.net, 2016). Nonetheless, to convey meaning is one of the main functions of syntax (literarydevices.net, 2016).

In literature, writers utilize syntax and diction to achieve certain artistic effects like mood, tone etc. (literarydevices.net, 2016). Like diction, syntax aims to affect the readers as well as express the writer’s attitude (literarydevices.net, 2016). Syntax also helps to pay close attention to subject and predicate relationships, subordinate and coordinate relationships, and modifiers; it helps to read beyond line endings to search for the completion of phrase or clause in the next lines (enjambment); it helps to look at punctuation, both what is there and what is omitted as clues to syntax (cod.edu, 2000). It helps to accept syntax that is complex and hard to follow as one feature of many poems and not as an error or difficulty imposed for its own sake, but rather as feature with a designed effect (cod.edu, 2000).

Punctuations are also used as one important tool in poetry. Punctuations are written symbols in a language which neither correspond to the phonetics of a language nor to the words and phrases of a language; they are used to organize and clarify the thought process of a language (Chakravarthula, 2015). The rules of punctuation vary from language to language and usage to usage; the use of punctuation is also to a certain extent an author’s style (Chakravarthula, 2015). Punctuation is the modulation of a written thought.
The period is easily the most understandable punctuation mark; it creates a full-stop wherever it is used in a work of poetry and should be used to the effect of separating thoughts that are meant to be digested one at a time (WW, Aeras, & Jeremiah, 2011).

The comma …the most used punctuation mark in poetic writing period; commas are often used at the ends of lines and even then not always well; when a comma is used at the end of a line, it should be due to the fact that the reader is not meant to directly continue on to the following line (WW, Aeras, & Jeremiah, 2011). In essence, the comma provides a very brief pause, a yield sign, if you will, so that the reader will check their speed and not proceed too quickly; commas should serve to separate thoughts that may be related but are not directly so (WW, Aeras, & Jeremiah, 2011).

Exclamation marks can be tricky to master; if one use too long a line (or a stanza devoid of any punctuation until a final exclamation point), he or she may force the reader to re-read the line with the proper emotion in check (WW, Aeras, & Jeremiah, 2011). They do signify a pause of sorts but the pause is so fleeting due to the emotion in toe that the reader progresses on with nary a thought to the impediment (WW, Aeras, & Jeremiah, 2011). Especially when used effectively exclamations can add a deeper level of significance to a line than previously would have been present (WW, Aeras, & Jeremiah, 2011). They may also add merriment or amplify a statement intended to hold its key meaning through irony or sarcasm (WW, Aeras, & Jeremiah, 2011).

Additionally, cadence or pace in poetry is influenced by the rhythm of the words, but it is also influenced by the amount and kind of punctuation. The general rule: the more punctuation, the slower the poem will read (Camy, 2011). Punctuation is not the only factor influencing a reader’s pace, but it is an important influence (Camy, 2011).

Line breaks are devices used to separate one line of the poetry from another; it may or may not deal with different lines of thoughts (Chakravarthula, 2015). Each line of poetry should seamlessly blend into next line of poetry like the waves meet together at the shore yet each holds on to its identity (Chakravarthula, 2015). Note that line breaks are distinct from punctuation marks; line breaks compliment, contradict, confound, and compete with real or implied punctuation (Chakravarthula, 2015). Unlike punctuation line breaks have no set of rules governing their use, however loosely defined, they are not theorized but on the contrary popularized by practical use (Chakravarthula, 2015).

When punctuation occurs at the end of a line, it is called an end-stopped line (Camy, 2011). End-stopped lines put a clear rhythmic break at the end of each line, often reinforced by a comma or period (Chakravarthula, 2015).
A run-on line, also called enjambment, occurs if there is no punctuation at the end of the line, or if the idea expressed in one line is continued on in the next (Camy, 2011). Enjambment urges the reader to move to the next line without pausing. It lessens the sing-song effect or a regular end-rhyme pattern (Camy, 2011). Enjambments conversely run into each other and make meaning in conjunction with each other rather than independent units like end stopped lines; enjambments are also called run on lines as they 'run into' each other.

Enjambment is the breaking of a linguistic unit (phrase or sentence) by the end of line between two verses; it is in contrast with end stopping, where each linguistic unit corresponds with the line length; enjambments can be cleverly used in a poem to make it more interesting and even create a feeling of suspense which prompts the user to go and read the next line to see what happens; it also stops a poem from being just a sequence of related sentences; through enjambments meaning flows from line to line, and the reader's eye is pulled forward (Chakravarthula, 2015). Enjambment creates a feeling of acceleration, as the reader is forced to continue reading after the line has ended; enjambments are used to smoothen the edges of a poem and make it flow more fluidly; also when a line of thought is too large to fit into a single line, enjambment is used to split it into more than one line (Chakravarthula, 2015).

A mark of punctuation that comes within the line itself is called a caesura; caesuras cause the reader to pause or stop in the middle of a line, providing a clear break in thought or slowing the pace of the poem. Some poets omit punctuation or use it minimally (Camy, 2011).

In relation to the diction, poets also use reinforcing words or they repeat words. The repetition in poetry as a literary device goes far beyond mere parroting of words (Stratford, 2016). It gives drive to poetry, as it does for any song from primitive chant to hard rock; it is a unifying device that adds commentary to a poem's narrative; it solidifies and often alters meaning; it thereby adds change, development and meaning to a poem's theme (Stratford, 2016). Repetition is not always in stanzas; parallelism is a highly effective poetic device for deepening thematic meanings (Stratford, 2016).

Another important consideration in poetry is capitalization. Usually when poets do not capitalize throughout their poem, they do so so that they can capitalize a word or phrase to show its importance; capitalization may serve to take the reader's attention for a moment away from the point of the writing to the emphasis on something.

Last, lack of capitalization is also indicative of a metaphysical expression of humility or 'ordinariness' even when such ordinariness seems incongruent with the lofty words a poet may use or the subtext of a poem (Knox, 2011). Such incongruency may have a heightened dramatic effect by jarring the reader's brain in such a way that makes them really take notice of the words and their meaning (Knox, 2011).

**Ilokano Literature**

Most if not all literatures of the world start orally. Tracing the beginning of all literature makes one arrive at one beginning and that is oral literature. Same is true with Ilokano literature. Ilokano literature's diversity and richness go with the country’s history. The ancient Ilokano writer expressed himself in folk and war songs: in the **dallot**, a versified exchange of wit between a man and a woman; in the **badeng**, love song; and, in the **dung-aw**, the death chant (Duque, 2015). Even before the coming of the Spaniard in the Ilokos in 1572, **Biag ni Lam-ang** (Life of Lam-ang), the famous Ilokano epic, was believed to have been sung by bards accompanied by the kutibeng, a native guitar (Duque, 2015).

The first book ever published in Ilokano was the Ilokano version of Cardinal Bellarmine’s **Doctrina Christiana**, printed in 1621. Translated by the Augustinian Spanish Friar, Fr. Francisco Lopez, with the help of Pedro Bucaneg, the book contained the earliest recorded poems in Ilokano as well as a portion written in the ancient Ilokano script (Duque, 2015). The book also reduced the ancient Ilokano alphabet into the Latin alphabet. Fray Lopez also wrote, again with the help of Pedro Bucaneg, the first book on Ilokano grammar, **Arte de lengua yloca**, published in 1627 which laid
down the rules for the writing of poetry in Ilokano (Duque, 2015).

On the other hand, though born blind, Bucaneg was the first known Ilokano poet. Considered by many as the Father of Ilokano Literature, he was the first to put down into writing the Lam-ang epic (Duque, 2015). In his honor, the Ilokanos have indulged in a literary joust delivered extemporaneously which they call the bucanegan, similar to the balagtasan of the Tagalogs and to the crissotan of the Pampangos (Duque, 2015).

One other significant Ilokano poet in the 17th century was Pablo Inis, who found solace in the Catholic faith and wrote poems and prayers in honor of the Virgin Mary (Duque, 2015). In the 18th century, the only notable Ilokano writer and poet was Jacinto Kawili. The 19th century saw the publication of Antonio Megía’s Ilokano translation of the passion (Duque, 2015). While published only in 1845, Megía’s Ilokano pasion was written in 1621, and thus, as Wenceslao Retana pointed out, was the very first Philippine “pasyon” (Duque, 2015). The 19th century also produced the first internationally famous Filipino poetess, Leona F. Florentino, whose poems like Naangawan A Kablaaw and Nalpay A Namnama, were among the earliest lyrical and satirical verses in Ilokano (Duque, 2015). Some of her works were exhibited in the Exposicion General de Filipinas in Madrid in 1887 and in the Exposition Internationale in Paris in 1889; she was represented in Mme. Andzia Wolska’s anthology, Bibliothèque Internationale des Œuvres de Femmes, edited in 1889 (Duque, 2015).

The last two decades of the 19th century also witnessed the unprecedented growth of Ilokano literature (Duque, 2015). Isabela de los Reyes, Leona Florentino’s illustrious son and recognized as the Father of Philippine Folklore, founded in 1889 the El Ilocano, the first regional newspaper in the Philippines which published fiction and poetry (Duque, 2015). De los Reyes wrote the first short story in Ilokano, Ti Langit Ti Inanamatayo (The Glory of our Hopes), published in El Ilocano while Fr. Rufino Redondo, an Augustinian, wrote the first Ilokano novel, Matilde de Sinapangan, published in 1892 (Duque, 2015).

The 20th century, which brought intense political changes in the country, witnessed the blossoming of Ilokano literature during the peace time under American tutelage, the Commonwealth era, the World War II and after the restoration of independence (Duque, 2015).


The period also witnessed the publication of the Ilokano magazine Bannawag (Dawn) by the Ramon Roces Publications (now the Liwayway Publishing, Inc.) which played a great role in the development of Ilokano literature, especially after the World War II (Duque, 2015). While it ceased to come out during the war years, it resumed publications in 1947, and serialized the novels which are now considered modern classics in Ilokano Literature (Duque, 2015). The works of named Ilokano writers, poets and essayists one time or another, like Trinidad A. Benito, Pacifico Pe. Benito, Luz Flores Bello, Vicente Llanes, Leandro Ablang, Magdaleno Abaya, Jose Resurreccion Calip, Benjam etc., appeared also in the pages of the Bannawag (Duque, 2015). The first decades saw the publication of important Ilokano novels (Duque, 2015). Ilokano writers have also published their works not only in the Philippines but also in foreign countries.

Perhaps worth mentioning also is the presence of a very powerful association of Ilokano Writers, the Gunglo Dagiti Mannurat nga Ilokano iti Filipinas (GUMIL Filipinas) which was first organized in 1961 from its lowly beginnings at the barangay level, the association now has chapters not only in the Philippines but also abroad (Duque, 2015). The GUMIL contributes a lot to the advancement of Ilokano literature; aside from sponsoring annual...
literary workshops, it has also ventured into book publishing (Duque, 2015).

Another group that is worth mentioning is Nakem Conferences. It contributes to advancement of Ilokano language, literature and culture. Nakem Conferences is founded in 2006; it is a cultural advocacy groups of academics, creative writers, philologists, linguists, and advocates of emancipatory education. Hence, this is a forum of intellectual engagement of anything related to cultural diversity, cultural nationalism, linguistic democracy, linguistic justice and emancipatory education (nakemconferences, 2010).

Finally, Ilokano literature is here to stay; the Ilokano writer continues to write, expressing the sentiments of his race, thus enriching further the literary traditions of his region in particular and of his country in general (Duque, 2015).

**Related Studies**

Zainul (2009) made a study on five stories written by Lemony Snicket using the Russian Formalism framework. The study analyzed the plot of the texts in relation to the characters found in the texts. The findings reveal that the plots and characters of the texts studied still conform to the framework which was first used by Vladimir Propp on fairy tales even if spheres were found in texts studied suggesting that not all spheres can work in any story. The plot identified was also consistent throughout the series of texts whereby each of them followed the same pattern described in the framework.

On one hand, Bohrn, Altmann, Lubrich, Menninghaus, & Jacobs (2012) stated in their study old proverbs that defamiliarization is an effective way of guiding attention, but that the degree of affective involvement depends on the type of defamiliarization: enhanced activation in affect-related regions was found only if defamiliarization altered the content of the original proverb; defamiliarization on the level of wording was associated with attention processes and error monitoring; although proverb-variants evoked activation in affect-related regions, familiar proverbs received the highest beauty ratings.

Cronjé (1986) found out also in his study on the defamiliarization in the letter of Paul to the Galatians that a great number of devices have been applied which can all be described as devices of estrangement. This is the dominant feature of the letter from a stylistic point of view; these devices all effectuate retardation in the reading process and consequently an intensified perception. In general, the devices have been skillfully applied in such a way that the subject-matter is highlighted (Cronjé, 1986). In other words, the retardation and consequent intensified perception occur on occasions when the writer really wants his readers to pay attention to what he has to say... most of these devices were regarded as forceful by Hellenistic rhetoricians and are thus most suitable for communicating the subject-matter of this emotional letter (Cronjé, 1986).

Furthermore, Yau-hauTse (2011) analyzed two different types of texts—Martin Luther King’s speech and the other is a visitor’s guide to Greece. He determined which one is more literary. The findings revealed that the speech is dependent on itself and contains examples of stylistic and lexical features, words of contrast at text and sound level, parallelism, evocative descriptive language and cross-sentential repetition. The Greece tourist guide is medium independent and carries examples of archaic and syntactic features, emotive action verbs, evocative descriptive language, polysemy and displaced interaction.

In an attempt to reconceptualize literariness in literature, Miall & Kuiken (2001) conducted a study that focused on the analysis of 30 readers’ views on two Coleridge poems. They reveal that literariness is constituted when stylistic or narrative variations strikingly defamiliarize conventionally understood referents and prompt reinterpretable transformations of a conventional concept or feeling. Each component of literariness (stylistic or narrative variations, defamiliarization, and reinterpretable transformations) may occur separately: advertising copy, for example, often makes use of arresting stylistic features; traumatic events may precipitate the transformation of conventional concepts and feelings. However, they suggest that the key to literariness is the interaction of these component processes. Rather than any special content, contextual conditions (e.g.,
In the Philippines, Evasco-Pernia (2002) tackled Fernando Buyser’s poetry, his influence on his fellow poets and writers, and his contribution to the development of the Cebuano Balak. Evasco-Pernia (2002) discussed that Buyser’s poetry leaned towards the tradition of pastoral and romantic poetry which celebrated nature and the lives of ordinary people; he also wrote about human sentiments or emotions using the techniques of the illustrative metaphor and the argument of the later English Renaissance period; the approach he utilized in his secular and sacred themes gave his ballads the musical techniques of the Cebuano language (rhyme, rhythm, and flow); his mastery of the music of the Cebuano language enabled him to experiment with the form of the balak, adopting the song-like poem into the intellectually challenging sonanoy, coined from the phrase sona nanoy (harmonious melody); Buyser’s works arose from the cross-fertilization between Cebuano and Western literary forms; this trend influenced the development of the balak in free verse form that became popular among Cebuano writers and poets belonging to the generation of the 1970s-1990s.

Taking another subject of study, Tee (2007) studied seven prose poems from Conchitina Cruz’s collection Dark Hours using Catherine Belsey’s synthesis of the articulation of the theory of desire by Sigmund Freud, Jacques Lacan, and Jacques Derrida from her book Desire : Love Stories in Western Culture. The study shows how the proposed reading paradigm helps in understanding Cruz’s prose poems through the identification of the features that aid in the blurring of the two genres. Applying the theory of desire, the study reads the prose poems with careful respect to their form, not privileging their content over it, examines their different subject positions, and determines whether they are postmodern texts that foreground the implications of differance. The features identified in the prose poems - the use of disjointed scenes, double narratives, materiality of sounds, meta-narratives, the pronoun “you,” intertextuality, and footnotes - lend the prose poems open-endedness, self-reflexive tendencies and writerly roles for the reader. In this manner, the texts subvert the boundaries of prose and poetry, and highlight the role of the reader in the construction of meaning in the texts.

In a close reading of selected poems by Filipino-American (FilAm) poet Vince Gotera by Castro (2015), she underscored that as a Filipino thoroughly and consistently immersed in American diaspora, the FilAm poet seems to be a being consistently aware of the fluid nature of his or her sensibility; the theme of witnessing found in Vince Gotera’s personae demonstrates the complexities behind this multi-angled reflexivity; FilAm poetry is perhaps even more “contaminated” by American sensibility, in contrast to native writers writing in English who have spent most of their lives in the Philippines; the influence the poet’s background has on his or her poetry, especially when it comes to poetry that seems to lack a coherent identity, must not be neglected.

In 1934, Yabes made a survey of Ilokano literature and found out that Ilokano literature began with Pedro Bukaneg. Also, Alexander Lippay (1934) as cited by Yabes (1936) underscored that the folk-songs of Ilocandia as a whole are more expressive of joy, vigor, activity, and optimism.... They are expressive of the true spirit of Ilokanos.... Evidently the Ilokanos, despite their centuries of subjection, have not lost the vigorous and optimistic spirit of their forbears.

In the study also of Alcid (n.d) on Ilokano prose fiction, he found out that Ilokano short stories and novels were still young and needed improvement; however, Guerrero’s study on Ilokano short stories published in Bannawag from 1918 to 1952 revealed that Ilokano short stories are after a mine of information about the ideals and customs of Filipino people.

Moreover, Guayco & Macasaet (2014) conducted a study that focused on the analysis of Ilokano between American English and Manila Tagalog Wedding Songs. The study revealed that a song’s meaning is the most important aspect of the song. The musicality of the song, which means the
Formalist Criticism: Critique on Reynaldo A. Doque’s Selected Ilokano Poems

quality or condition of the song being “musical” are secondary to its main epistle, which the listener adheres to. They also revealed that the Ilokanos integrate their songs with their dances to their rituals, meaning the declaration being delivered in those songs is strengthened by their dances and the music that envelop the environment. Thus, “Dungdungoen Canto” (Lullaby of Love) the selected song to represent the Ilokano language is an excellent piece of oral literature that promotes the preservation of the given people’s culture and heritage through the overall performance of the art during the required event, specifically that of marriage.

The study of Velasco (2015) on Ilokano women writers of Nueva Vizcaya showed that the four Ilokano women writers who are unknown and neglected in the region and in Philippine literature have significant sociocultural impact and contributed to the refinement, enrichment, and general development of their language and literature; literature being the grandeur of language and language the carrier of culture. Her study not only revealed that the short stories of the Ilokano women writers present the unique Ilokano ways, traditions and cultures and the concepts of Ilokano woman and womanhood imbedded with their traditional images and representations but also claim the idea of equality between man and woman. It might be construed that Ilokano women and the women writers were not fully contaminated at all with the patriarchal ideology and do not adhere and have bent and even dismantled patriarchy, or even the attempt to overcome and change this ideology (Velasco, 2015). Hence, the Ilokano women writers showed through their short stories, that they have sustained their unique cultural identity despite the impact of colonization (Velasco, 2015).

In addition to researches conducted in the Philippines, Cuilan (2013) conducted a study on Bokod Ibaloi ba’diw, chants of Ibaloi in Bokod, Benguet, using formalism as an approach to literary criticism. His study revealed that Bokod Ibaloi ba’diw is accented with literary conventions; each type use figurative languages, different themes and tone; anent to rhyme scheme, similarly each has no fixed pattern observed; the subject matter of the chant, in connection to occasion, is determinant as to how the chants the chants may be categorized; subjects treated as anchored on the chanter’s profile do not vary. However, through the language, it may rather reveal that chanter’s age, social standing and role in the occasion. Ibaloi ba’diw speaks of life, culture and history of the Ibaloi people. Last, the values contained with the insights reflected such chants are those which are the norm in the Ibaloi society.

The literatures and studies reviewed above reveal a dearth of critical studies on Ilokano literature. Therefore, the study was formulated to describe Ilokano literature specifically the Ilokano poetry of Reynaldo A. Duque using Formalism as an approach to literary criticism. The study was formulated to serve as a reference material in the study of Ilokano literature which in return promote and preserve Ilokano identity and literature. Finally, this study introduces Mr. Reynaldo A. Duque to those individuals who are not familiar with him, his literary pieces and his style as a writer.

3. METHODOLOGY
3.1. Design
In the conduct of the study, descriptive content analysis technique will be utilized. The descriptive content analysis is a technique in which previous research on a given subject are systematically examined to define general tendencies or results (Çalık & Sözbilir, 2014). The descriptive content analysis performed on data, consists of deep processing of the collected data and presenting them under certain notions and themes in a descriptive approach (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2013). In as much as the objective of the study was to content analyze the selected contemporary Ilokano poems of Reynaldo A. Duque using the three features of formalism namely literariness, defamiliarization and organic whole, the researcher found the design most appropriate for the study.

3.2. Sources of Data
This study focuses on the poems of Mr. Duque because the researcher finds his poems as the best source of data for a pioneering study of Ilokano poetry using Formalism. Being one of the pillars of Ilokano literature and who is a native of the second district of Ilocos Sur, many do not know Mr. Duque; hence, it is the humble intention of the researcher to introduce him to those who do not know him through this study. Addressing therefore the problems of this study, the researcher focused only on the selected contemporary Ilokano poems of Mr. Duque specifically his poems that are published in Bannawag during the above mentioned years.

3.3. Method and Treatment of Data

In the collection of data, the researcher looked first for the poems of Reynaldo A. Duque which were published from 2000 to 2012 in Bannawag. Then, the researcher discovered that there were no available published poems in 2000-2003, 2005-2006, and 2010-2011. Since there is one poem each for 2000 and 2012, the researcher automatically considered the poems to represent those years. However, the researcher subjected the poems published in 2004, 2007, 2008 and 2009 to pure random sampling technique for all the years to be equally represented. In using the sampling technique for the mentioned years, the poems were grouped according to year of publication. Then, the researcher got the 20% of the total number of poems per year employing the sampling technique. After the sampling, the researcher used close reading in collecting the data. Close reading is done through choosing a passage—poem in this study—and analyzing it in fine detail (Wheeler, 2015); it is also a rigorous analysis of a literary work which pays meticulous attention to all significant parts of the work (Tolentino, 1997); it also seeks to interpret each part in relation to the whole work (Tolentino, 1997); the focus is the text itself.

Related to close reading, the research employed autotellic approach in gathering data. This approach is text-based and thus focusing also on the selected poems; thus, the researcher utilized formalism as an approach to literary criticism since it is an approach that treats literary text as it is. In gathering also of data, the researcher did library research. After the data were gathered from the selected poems of Mr. Duque, content analysis using the different frameworks of formalism was done addressing the problems posted. These frameworks are literariness and defamiliarization of Russian Formalism and organic whole of New Criticism. These frameworks of Formalism were used to treat the selected contemporary Ilokano poems of Mr. Duque.

Finally, the researcher asked the opinions of some experts in the field of study, specifically his adviser and the external expert, to verify and support some claims with regard the analysis of the poems. Then, the researcher presented the analyses of the poems to Mr. Solomon Benitez, Mr. Vicente R. Raras, Mrs. Lilia Angela G. Bambico and Mrs. Florita Dasalla (see Appendix H for their short background) for validation and suggestions; their suggestions were also incorporated in the analyses of the poems.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Literariness

Literariness is one of the frameworks of formalism that is used in the analysis of the poems. Using the literariness as the framework of the study, the researcher analyzed the different literary devices in the selected contemporary Ilokano poems of Reynaldo A. Duque. The identified literary elements are: persona, tone and mood, rhyme and rhythm, figures of speech, symbolism, imagery, theme, and syntax.
**Ti Nalipatan a Mannaniw**

**Persona.** The poem starts with the line *agtuloyka latta, gangganaet*, and ends with the same line. In that line, the persona’s act of addressing the *gangganaet* gives a picture that the persona is either a man or a woman who is near the setting of the poem. The persona poem allows a great deal of control over the distance between a speaker and the audience (Hazelton, 2014). The lines given below that give an image of the place where the *gangganaet* is located suggest that the persona is not far from *gangganaet*. Hence, the persona is observing and addressing the *gangganaet* from a place where the message of the persona is not audible.

Based on the description of the persona which was made above, the *gangganaet* is a farmer. Based also on the descriptions, the poet’s presentation of his persona is through a one-way communication. This means that the persona is synonymous to a television viewer who reacts on the matter before him without any feedback. However, the poet speaks directly to readers through the persona (as the lines below suggest) and, in doing so, forges an almost interpersonal relationship with them (Hazelton, 2014). It seems that the persona is whispering in their ears or grabs them by the shoulders (Hazelton, 2014) which make the poem more engaging.

**Tone and Mood.** The poem begins with the image of someone (*gangganaet*) under the rain and on a narrow and wet land as indicated by the lines *uray no kasta a nalutlot ti nailet a bit-ang iti saplit ti nepnep*. Then, the line was followed by lines below telling the description of poem’s setting which is understood to be a rice field being plowed by the *gangganaet*.

---

**Panurnorem dagiti agiwes-ives a tambak, naserregan nga annayangan iti lubnak; saepem ti alingasaw ti daga a nabato; riknaem ti darang iti saklot ti bangkag takuatam ti pangta iti nalukot a dakulap.**

---

The images created in the poem through the poet’s language suggest the lyrical tone of the poem which means that the poet’s inner feelings are reflected in each stanza through those images.

The fifth and sixth stanzas set also the feeling of pity that is the general tone of the poem. The lines below express the poet’s pity towards the subject of the poem. The feeling of pity is also intensified and supported by word *piman* which suggests sympathy to someone who is or was in a bad situation.

Furthermore, *daga a nabato* referring to rocky land is understood to be where *padapan ti arado* (plow) is. Thus, the picture of the *gangganaet* cultivating the rocky land intensifies the pitiful condition of the *gangganaet*.

Meanwhile, the presence of the word *nepnep* intensifies the tone and the sad mood of the poem. When it is *nepnep* or rainy reason, the environment is dark and wet; hence implying the poem’s tone and mood.

Despite the pitiful tone and sad mood in the poem, the poet in the poem, through the persona, is defending and cheering the *gangganaet* who is being referred to by the title of the poem which is *Ti Nalipatan a Mannaniw*. The persona’s act of cheering the *gangganaet* is manifested in the first and last stanzas of the poem:

---

**agtuloyka latta, gangganaet: uray no kasta a nalutlot ti nailet a bit-ang iti saplit ti nepnep.**

---

From the discussions above, the tone and mood of the poem are created by the writer using specific setting,
structure and diction (Prudchenko, 2016). The poem’s tone evokes a certain mood in the reader (Prudchenko, 2016).

**Rhyme and Rhythm.** The poem is composed of two tercets and five quatrains. The poem starts and ends with a tercet while the stanza type of the middle stanzas of the poem is quatrains. Each of the two tercets has an aaa rhyme scheme as shown in the stanzas below.

O

On one hand, each of the quatrains except the third stanza has aaaa rhyme scheme. The third stanza has aabb rhyme scheme. Third and the sixth stanzas are used to show the mentioned difference in the rhyme schemes of the quatrains as shown the following stanzas:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Third Stanza</th>
<th>Sixth Stanza</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>surotem ti uges ti padapan ti arado(a)</td>
<td>no dagiti binatogna namilatan man iti dara,(a)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>saepem ti alingasaw ti daga a nabato;(a)</td>
<td>gapu ta adda sugat ti puso ken kararuana;(a)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>riknaem ti darang iti saklot ti bangkag(h)</td>
<td>imbalud ti kagimongan iti lubong a nadamka,(a)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tukuatam ti pangta iti nalukot a dakulap,(b)</td>
<td>imparaut ti kinaawan adlina iti daga!(a)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nevertheless, scanning the poem’s general rhyme scheme gives an aaaa bbbb cccb cccc bbbb aab rhyme scheme.

Meanwhile, the poem is also composed of different feet with accented and unaccented syllables which form different types of meter. However, the most used foot and meter, as illustrated in the line below, are iambic and tetrameter respectively; thus, iambic tetrameter is the pervading kind of verse in the poem.

```
^   ^   ^   ^   ^   ^   ^   ^
agtuloyka latta, ganggannaet
```

Given the discussions above, the poem cannot be categorized as free verse since it follows a unique form: tercets and quatrains having respective rhyme scheme; iambic tetrameter as the pervading verse. Nonetheless, the rhyme schemes present in the poem and so as the rhythm help create connection between the readers and the poem; the poem’s rhyme and rhythm also help manifest the poem’s tone and mood.

Hence, discerning the rhyme scheme is important because the pattern brings the poem to life and helps the audience feel connected (Bradesca, 2016); rhyme likewise is used to deepen meaning; rhyming two or more words draws attention to them and connects them in the reader’s mind (Bradesca, 2016).

**Figures of Speech.** The three figures of speech that the poet mostly used are assonance, metaphor and personification.

**Assonance.** The very obvious figure of speech that can be seen in the poem is assonance specifically the repetition of [a] sound in most of the lines in the poems. The use of assonance is easily recognized because [a] sound is one of the most commonly present sounds in Ilokano language. This is exemplified in the following lines:

```
agtuloyka latta, ganggannaet: (a)
uray no kasta a nalulot ti nailet(a)
uray no kasta a nalulot ti nailet (a)
```

**Metaphor.** Methaphor is also clearly visible in the poem specifically in the lines below. Sinilong is compared to papel while tudo is compared to tintna. Then, pluma is compared to arado. The use of metaphors in the poem helps the poet in establishing the tone and mood of the poem. Finally, it helps in intensifying the message of the poem.

```
sinilong ti papelna, tudo ti tintana piman;
ti pluma, arado nga inalop ti karigatan,
```

**Personification.** The poet used personification in the poem. Saklot ti bangkag and pangta ti nalukot a dakulap ta are the visible examples of personification in the poem. Bangkag is personified in the poem through the word saklot whereas dakulap is
personified by \textit{pangta}. These figures of speech like symbolisms, as Thomas (2016) said, are used when an author wants to create a certain mood or emotion in a work of literature.

\textbf{Symbolism.} The poet used symbolisms, but two main symbolisms are identified to illustrate the pitiful and sad tone and mood of the poem. The first symbolism is \textit{nalutlot} and \textit{nai\textit{let a bit-ang}. This symbolism stands for the hardships (\textit{nalutlot a bit-ang}) and limited opportunity (\textit{nai\textit{let a bit-ang}) in life that one may face. The second and last symbol is \textit{ne\textit{pne\textit{p}. For farmers, \textit{ne\textit{pne\textit{p} is a blessing before planting of crops. \textit{Ne\textit{pne\textit{p} brings water and allows the farmers to till their lands easily because the soil is wet. However, as the soil becomes wetter, the harder it is to step your feet. Hence, \textit{ne\textit{pne\textit{p} stands for the things that make life harder. Nevertheless, the two identified symbolisms in the poem help the readers ascertain the message, tone and mood of the poem. This conforms to Thomas’ (2016) manifestation that symbolism … is used when an author wants to create a certain mood or emotion in a work of literature. Those symbolisms maybe differently interpreted by the readers based on the lines used by the poet. The symbolisms in the poem are also presented by the poet through imagery or descriptions. Thus, readers need to use the words describing the symbolisms like in \textit{nalutlot ti nai\textit{let a bit-ang} to decipher the meaning of the symbolism.

\textbf{Imagery.} Imagery is a descriptive element of poetry that stimulates the reader’s imagination. This is used by the poet in shaping his poem because the poem is full of descriptions which lead to the creation of various images in the reader’s mind.

The line \textit{nalutlot ti nai\textit{let a bit-ang} is the first imagery in the poem. It gives a visual image of the setting of the poem. The line also gives a hint of what the poem’s tone and mood are. Then, the line is followed by the line \textit{sap\textit{lit ti ne\textit{pne\textit{p} that gives a tactile imagery. Reading this line makes the reader to imagine a cold weather that the \textit{gang\textit{gan\textit{et is feeling in the poem. The two opening imagery are symbolisms in the poem which were interpreted as limited opportunity and hardships.

Further, visual imagery is the most used kind of imagery in the poem. Most if not all of the stanzas are made out of visual images. For example, the second stanza is composed of the the lines \textit{pan\textit{u\textit{ro\textit{renem dagiti agives-ives a tam\textit{bak, naser\textit{regan nga ann\textit{ayangan iti lubnak and \textit{kuripaspas ti bay\textit{ek nga agtungla} that stimulate visual images that can be seen in rice field.

Other visual images can be pictured in the lines, \textit{su\textit{rote\textit{m ti uges ti pad\textit{apan ti arado and \textit{no dagiti linia ta awanan man iti rakod. The former line can be interpreted as following the ambition that could lead one person to a better future or continuing life no matter how hard it may be. The latter line may tell that life is not perfect.

The poet also used olfactory, auditory and tactile imageries. The lines below are examples of these imageries.

\begin{itemize}
\item \textbf{Olfactory: } \textit{Saepe ti aling\textit{asaw ti daga a nabato}
\item \textbf{Auditory: } \textit{kumpasam ti musika dagiti kur\textit{iat}
\item \textbf{Tactile: } \textit{rik\textit{naem ti darang iti sak\textit{lot ti bangkag}
\end{itemize}

Last, other images are also illustrated by the different figures of speech like \textit{rik\textit{naem ti sak\textit{lot ti bangkag}. Often, in fact, images are conveyed through figurative language (Tanis, 2014).

\textbf{Theme.} Enforced by the description of the situation of the \textit{gang\textit{gan\textit{et in the poem, the poem talks about the hardships of life or effects of poor economic condition. The poem is also trying to tell that people should not insult or ridicule a person because of his or her situation. People may know a person’s situation, but they know nothing about his or her capabilities and stories. Therefore, the poem articulates that even the unrecognized, unfamiliar and forgotten man in the society has stories to tell and can survive despite the cruelty that life may offer. All these thoughts are manifested by the experiences of the poem’s subject which are clearly stated by the persona because experiences of the main character in the course of a literary work give readers an idea about its theme (literarydevices.net, 2016).

\textbf{Syntax.} In the poem, repetition of words can be observed specifically in the first and last stanzas of the poem. The same words are seen in each line, but the
arrangement of lines is the only difference of the two stanzas.

First Stanza  
**agtuloyka latta, ganggannaet:**  
uray no kasta a nalutlot ti nailet  
a bit-ang iti saplit ti nepnep.  

Last Stanza  
uray no kasta a nalutlot ti nailet  
a bit-ang iti saplit ti nepnep.  

The repetition of the line *agtuloyka latta, ganggannaet* in the two stanzas reinforces the persona’s intention of encouraging the *ganggannaet* to go on given the circumstances described by the last two lines and the first two lines of the first and last stanzas, respectively. *Agtuloyka latta* is used to reiterate that people must continue living, dreaming and making life better despite the hardships and limited opportunity in life. The last two lines and first two lines of the first and last stanzas respectively emphasize the difficult situation that encompasses the *ganggannaet*.

On one hand, the poet also used words that are related if not synonymous. The words *nailet-bit-ang* and *piman-karigatan* are the words to support the claim of using synonymous words. These words help the poet to reinforce the message of the poem.

*Bit-ang* is narrow land area or a road while *nailet* means narrow. Using *nailet* to modify *bit-ang* makes the *bit-ang* narrower. Since *bit-ang* is interpreted as opportunity, one may clearly view the very limited opportunities in the *ganggannaet*’s life or people’s lives.

*Piman* and *karigatan* is said to be synonymous because they suggest unfavorable condition. *Piman* is an expression associated to a person’s unfavorable situation like being uneducated or wearing filthy clothes. *Karigatan* is obviously deciphered as being in a disadvantageous situation. Hence, these words reinforce the pitiful and sad tone of the poem.

Using repetition and reinforcing words in poem is not only to reinforce the message of the poem but also to manifest the imperative role of playing words. Hence, this style of the poet, though with limited words, helps readers to easily ascertain their interpretation. From this, it is visible that in poetry, however, the word order may be shifted to achieve certain artistic effects such as producing rhythm or melody in the lines, achieving emphasis, heightening connection between two words etc. (literarydevices.net, 2016).

Moreover, punctuation marks are also used in the poem. The punctuation marks in the poem are colon, period, comma, semi-colon, and exclamation point. The colons in the first, sixth and seventh stanzas are not used in a narrative sense such that it is not used to recount dialogue or tell an account of something that happened. This punctuation does not speak of pauses but rather signals that something imperative is coming (WW, Aeras, & Jeremiah, 2011).

In the lines below, the lines that follow the colon, tell the situation that could be the reason why the persona tells or justification of the line, *agtuloyka latta, ganggannaet*. After reading that line, the readers seem to question the poet about the reason of telling the line. As a result, the readers expect to know the reasons in the succeeding lines.

**agtuloyka latta, ganggannaet:**  
uray no kasta a nalutlot ti nailet  
a bit-ang iti saplit ti nepnep.  

In contrast to the structure of the first stanza, the first stanza’s first line is placed last, and the first stanza’s last two lines are placed in the first two lines of the concluding stanzas. This variation made together with the colon makes the reader wait for what the persona will tell given the situations mentioned in previous stanzas.

In the fourth stanza, the line *dimokomaaisen* is placed before the colon, and it is an imperative sentence. With the colon after that line, the readers expect that the succeeding lines are interesting for those lines tell the reason why the poet used that imperative statement. This conforms to WW, Aeras, & Jeremiah (2011) who underscored that colon… announces that there is something important or pivotal coming.

In the fifth stanza, colon is used to enumerate the things used by the manusinw who is described as awanan nagan. Those things are metaphorically enumerated with respect to the *ganggannaet*’s life. The same use of colon can be gleaned in the sixth stanza. The lines following the line where *sugat ti pusona* is located enumerate the thoughts that refer to *sugat ti pusona* (referring to the heart of the *ganggannaet*).
Another punctuation used in the poem is period. This punctuation is the easiest punctuation to understand. Period is used to separate the thoughts of the first, second, third, sixth and seventh stanzas. This means that the thought of each stanza should be understood one after the other. This implication of period supports WW, Aeras & Jeremiah’s (2011) claim that periods should be used to separate thoughts that are meant to be digested one at a time.

Additionally, semi-colon is used to separate two related parallel thoughts in the poem. Specifically, semi-colon is used in the second, third and fifth stanzas. The verbs panurnurem, kumpasam, surutem saepem, riknaem and takuatam show the connection among the sentences in the second and third stanzas. These verbs are used in the beginning of each line in the two mentioned stanzas. Semi-colon also shows the relationship of the fifth stanza’s second line to the succeeding lines of the stanza. Hence, semicolon signifies cautionary pause and a distinct separation with the following thoughts or lines (WW, Aeras, & Jeremiah, 2011).

Furthermore, the poet also used comma in his poem. This punctuation appears in the first, second, fifth, sixth and seventh stanzas. Generally, the use of comma in the mentioned stanzas signals the reader for a brief pause for they are not meant to directly read the succeeding lines. Comma is also used to separate thoughts that are related. Like in the sixth stanza, the line imbalud ti kagimongan iti lubong a nadamka is directly related to the imparaam ti kinaawan adna iti dago because they are understood to be referring to the line they follow. The same use of comma is shown in the line sinilong ti papelna, tudo ti tintina piman. Simply put, the use of comma in the mentioned lines shows the relationship if not parallelism of thoughts.

The last punctuation used in the poem is exclamation point. This punctuation is commonly used to express strong emotions, so it is expected to function as such in the poem. This punctuation does not signify a pause in the poem, but the pause is so fleeting because of the emotion that the readers progress (WW, Aeras, & Jeremiah, 2011).

In the fourth to sixth stanza, the thoughts ended by exclamation point suggest anger or any strong emotion associated to pity in the poem because of the circumstances encompassing the gangganaet. The line “dimon koma laisen” followed by “isu pay laeng ti dios dagiti kinelleng nga ayat ti nainukunok!” gives a feeling of sympathy to gangganaet. The presence of exclamation point in the latter line as if tells the readers that no one really has the right to insult or ridicule the gangganaet. Nevertheless, exclamation point suggests an emotional outburst in the poem.

The analysis of the punctuations under syntax helps to read beyond line endings to search for the completion of phrase or clause in the next lines (enjambment); it helps to look at punctuation, both what is there and what is omitted as clues to syntax (cod.edu, 2000) and to the message of the poem.

Finally, it can also be observed that the poet did not observe capitalization. This is perhaps the style that the poet wants readers to remember in his poems. Nonetheless, the lack of capitalization in the poem maybe an indicative of...humility (Knox, 2011) of the poem’s subject.

3 (Santa Maria; Suso ni Aran; Kurditan Iluko)

The poem is entitled 3, but it has three subtitles which mean that the poem is composed of three poems. Hence, each of the three poems was analyzed.

Santa Maria

Persona. After reading the poem, one can tell that the persona is a person who is perhaps a religious person. The descriptions or images discussed under imagery, and tone and mood make the reader ascertain that the persona is indeed a religious person. The words punganay and tuodian suggest that the persona is a religious old person.

In presenting his persona, the poet also used words that suggest the sex of the persona. These words are lubid, bato and kampanario. Lubid is a thing that is used mostly by men farmers to tie their animals. Bato is a heavy thing that men usually used in building something. Most of the tasks that involve stones are done by men. Kampanario may also be associated with men because it is operated by men specifically the sacristans of priests. Thus, the persona is a man given the fact that the three words can be related to male sex.
Tone and Mood
The lines, agkayabyab ti payak a di malpay and iti agetk ti angin nga agpa-templo, suggest a way going in upright direction. Then, the lines are followed by marukod ti agdan a napnuan lingay and iti addang a nabattuonan iti bato. The two lines clearly suggest that the way being suggested by agpa-templo is a stairway. After those two lines, malkab ti kararag a nadarisay and iti ayab ti tuodan a kampanario follow. These lines suggest that the templo in the fourth line of the poem is an old church. Since the title of the poem is Santa Maria, it can be inferred that the poet is describing the beautiful landscape of Santa Maria Church in Santa Maria, Ilocos Sur.

The calm and peaceful feelings—the poem’s tone—being suggested by the images created in the poem set the idyllic and sedated mood of the poem. The poem is idyllic since it describes a natural setting which is Santa Maria church. It is likewise sedated because of the calmness or serenity that the lines in the poems through the images created suggest. Nevertheless, the tone comes through from the poem’s syntax and vocabulary, and helps evoke the mood or establish the atmosphere of the poem (Prudchenko, 2016).

Rhyme and Rhythm. The poem is composed of eight lines; thus, forming an octave kind of stanza. Unlike the most frequently used rhyme scheme for octave which is ababcdcd, the poem has aaabab rhyme scheme.

The poem’s rhyme likewise is used to deepen meaning; rhyming two or more words draws attention to them and connects them in the reader’s mind (Victor, 2015).

Meanwhile, the poem has different kinds of verse according to feet and meter of each line. However, the pervading kind of verse in the poem is iambic trimeter.

The internal rhyme created through assonance manifests the rhythm of the poem. Rhythm is quite literally the heartbeat of a poem and serves as the backdrop from which the ideas and imagery can flow (Victor, 2015). The rhyme scheme of the poem further creates the musicality of the poem. It adds a musical element to the poem, and creates a feeling of “rightness,” of pieces fitting together; it also makes a poem easier to memorize, since the rhyme echoes in the reader’s mind afterward, like a melody (Victor, 2015).

Figures of Speech. The poet used assonance and personification in iguratively conveying his thoughts.

Assonance. In the lines of the poem, [a] and [e] sounds are the dominating sounds. Therefore, the poem uses assonance that creates the internal rhyming scheme of the poem. This internal rhyme keeps the poem in harmony, and helps the audience to understand what is coming (Bradesca, 2016).

Personification. Personification also is used in most of the lines in the poem. In the line masiglot ti lubid ti punganay iti dangan ti dakulap agkayabyab ti payak a di malpay iti agetk ti angin nga agpa-templo marukod ti agdan a napnuan lingay iti addang a nabattuonan iti bato malkab ti kararag a nadarisay iti ayab ti tuodan a kampanario iti ayab ti tuodan a kampanario

Kampanario referring to the bell, in that phrase,
seem to have the ability to speak. Nevertheless, the ayab in that phrase is possible through the sound created by kampanario.

From the examples mentioned above, images are also created; hence figurative language is, in general, a way to compare the thing one wants to talk about to another thing, one that might not seem at first very similar, to help illustrate some idea about the thing one really is concerned with (Tanis, 2014).

**Symbolism.** The symbolisms in the poems are lubid, dakulap, agdan and kampanario.

Lubid may refer to the connection or relationship of people from different walks and ages of life. Hence, the phrase, masiglot ti lubid, means coming together of people with one purpose. On one hand, dangan ti dakulap may refer to individuality and diversity among people. Thus, the lines, masiglot ti lubid ti punganay and iti dangan ti dakulap, may be interpreted as the coming together of diverse people as result of one purpose. Just imagine people going to mass; they may be attending the mass by group or individually, but they are joined by one goal; that is to pray.

If a place is elevated, people need agdan to reach it. It is the thing that connects the place to its lower part. Therefore, agdan is the connector which refers to prayer and relationship to God since the poem is referring to Santa Maria church. The phrase, marukod ti agdan, may mean that climbing the stairway is easy. In deeper sense, the phrase means that connecting to God through prayer is easy.

The last symbolism is kampanario. This refers to bell tower which is being rung because of varied reasons. People hear it ringing every Sunday. Its sound signals the celebration of Holy Eucharist of Roman Catholics. In some circumstances, it may mean death or it serves as reminder for the time of the day. Nevertheless, kampanario may be referring to the call of God since the poem is referring to Santa Maria church.

The identified symbolisms, together with imagery, are closely related to the identified figures of speech; in fact, images are conveyed through figurative language (Tanis, 2014).

**Imagery.** The poem is composed of visual and auditory images. However, most of the images created in the poem are visual images.

The line, masiglot ti lubid ti punganay, creates an image of the punganay being tied by the lubid. A bird that continues to fly amidst the strong wind can be visualized in the lines, agkayabyab ti payak adi malpay and iti agek ti angin nga agpa-templo. A stairway made out of stones is pictured in the lines, marukod ti agdan a napnuan lingay and iti addang a nabattuonan iti bato. An old bell tower is also created in the line, iti ayab ti tuodan a kampanario. The images that are described fall under visual imagery.

Meanwhile, auditory images are created in the last two lines of the poem. First, malkab ti kararag a nadarisay creates a solemn sound or perhaps silence because of kararag or prayer. Second and last, iti ayab ti tuodan a kampanario suggests a sound produced by kampanario.

Above all, the images that are discussed above help picture the subject of the poem. The images also make it easier for the readers to decipher the subject being described by lines of the poem. Using descriptions in the poem is the essential element that the poet used in shaping the subject of his poem. Hence, the mentioned ideas conform to Tanis’ (2014) idea that if the poet can make readers see what he or she is writing about, then the idea is that much more effective; readers will feel it more intensely and remember it more vividly.

**Theme.** Through the images described under imagery, tone and mood, it can be stated that the poem is just talking about Santa Maria church which is one of Santa Maria, Ilocos Sur’s landmarks. The interrelationships of the mentioned elements conform to the manifestation of Cotiw-an (2012) that all elements of a literary work contribute to the development of its theme.

However, the discussions of symbolisms lucidly state the deeper meaning of the poem. The poem therefore is telling that people, with one mission in
life and with God, can still unite despite diversity and uniqueness among them. Nonetheless, the symbols used in the poem are, as Cotiw-an (2012) manifested, emotionally powerful symbols that suggest meanings and mood.

**Syntax.** The lines of the poem start with a verb and preposition alternately. Specifically, the first, third, fifth, and seventh lines of the poem start with a verb; the second, fourth, sixth and eighth lines of the poem starts with the preposition *iti*. *Masiglot, agkayabyab, marukod,* and *malkab* are the verbs in first, third, fifth, and seventh lines respectively. Therefore, the lines have consistent structure. Furthermore, the poem’s lines also end with adjectives and nouns alternately. Specifically, lines one, three, five and seven of the poem end with adjectives: *punganay, malpay, lingay,* and *nadarisay* respectively; lines two, four, six and eight of the poem end with nouns: *dakulap, templo, bato,* and *kampanario* respectively.

Based on the discussions above, the use of same parts of speech in the start and end of each line creates a consistent structure of lines. Hence, this unique and creative technique of the poet makes the poem manifest parallelism of ideas and lines. Parallelism is a highly effective poetic device for deepening thematic meanings (Stratford, 2016).

Meanwhile, period is the only visible punctuation mark as can be gleaned from the poem’s structure. Period is located in the last line of the poem. The location of the period suggests that the thoughts in each line belong to one single thought, and should be understood as one. Since the poem is considered as one stanza, specifically an octave stanza, the period is used to wrap up the stanza’s central thought.

The poet’s technique of using one punctuation suggests the continuous flow of idea in the stanza; thus, the readers are suggested to read the poem as one statement not as a poem composed of individual lines.

Finally, capitalization is not also observed in the poem. This perhaps manifest that each line is as important as the other. It also suggests the tone and mood of the poem.

**Suso ni Aran**

**Persona.** The first four lines of the poem suggest the setting of the poem. Words such as *tangrib, darat, tarukoy* and *kappo* also tell that the setting is a beach, along the seashore or near the sea. Given the setting of the poem, the persona is maybe a fisherman or someone living or who is near the sea. Thus, the persona is narrating what he is seeing which means that he is observing the scenery; the persona in the poem is presented by the poet through a third person point of view. This point of view of the persona suggests also the tone of the poem. This underscores the statement of Prudchenko (2016) that the tone tends to be associated with the poem’s voice.

**Tone and Mood.** The first four (4) lines of the poem tell the setting of the poem which is seashore or near a sea as reinforced by the line, *agdalloh ti tangrib iti siplay ti allon nga iti tarukoy agkamat.* This image of seashore with the two characters in the poem namely *Aran* and *Angalo* who are understood to be lovers suggests that romance pervades in the poem. Hence, elements of a poem such as its setting…evoke certain feelings and emotions in readers (Prudchenko, 2016).

Furthermore, romance is manifested in the last two lines of the poem. At the same time, the lines below suggest the temptation of Angalo because of Aran. In some perspective, the persona is talking about lust since the poet used words that can be understood as words of lust such as *mangappupo sabong-puli a singdat.* This again brings the reader into confusion because of the persona. Moments like these encourage readers to rethink their initial assumptions, and upon rereading, they notice other instances in which the speaker points out the potential for first impressions to be false (Hazelton, 2014). Thus, symbolic meaning of an object or an action is understood by when, where and how it is used; it also depends on who reads them (literarydevices.net, 2016).

**alimbasagen ni angalo iti aqpatnag a mangappupo sabong-puli a singdat**

The romance and temptation that exist in the poem can also be identified in the line, *maitugkel ti raya ti tikag.* In fact, the line suggests a hot weather which can be a clue to knowing the poem’s content and two characters’ role. Therefore, the
experiences of the main character in the course of a literary work give the readers an idea about its theme (literarydevices.net, 2016).

**Rhyme and Rhythm.** Like the previous poem, the poem is also octave. It is composed of eight lines with aaaaaaa rhyme scheme. With the different kinds of feet and meters in the poem, anapestic and trimeter are the common feet and meter respectively. Thus, the poem has anapestic trimeter verse. This means that three feet with three syllables in which the first two are unaccented and the last is accented can be formed in most lines of the poem.

*maitugkel ti raya ti tikag (a)*
*iti kappo nga inukap ti darat (a)*
*agdallot ti tangrib iti siplag (a)*
*ti allon nga iti tarukoy agkamat (a)*
*alimbasagen ni angalo iti agpatnag (a)*
*a mangappupo sabong-puli a singdat (a)*
*idinto a malmes ni aran, agsung-ab (a)*
*iti kayaw pakabuklanna kas dayag. (a)*

The pervading kind of verse and rhyme scheme of the poem add a musical element to the poem, and creates a feeling of "rightness," of pieces fitting together; it also makes a poem easier to memorize, since the rhyme echoes in the reader's mind afterward, like a melody (Victor, 2015). The melody is further supported by the internal rhyme of the poem created through assonance.

**Figures of Speech.** The poet managed to write the poem by using assonance, personification and simile.

**Assonance.** Like the poem *Santa Maria*, assonance is also used in the poem. The most common sound is the [a] sound. The use of assonance also creates an internal rhyme in the poem. This rhyming two or more words draws attention to them and connects them in the reader's mind (Victor, 2015). Finally, rhyme strengthens form (Victor, 2015).

*maitugkel ti raya ti tikag*
*iti kappo nga inukap ti darat*
*agdallot ti tangrib iti siplag*
*ti allon nga iti tarukoy agkamat*
*alimbasagen ni angalo iti agpatnag*

A mangappupo sabong-puli a singdat
Idinto a malmes ni aran, agsung-ab
Iti kayaw pakabuklanna kas dayag.

**Personification.** Personification is also used in the poem. The examples of personification are iti kappo nga inukap ti darat and agdallot ti tangrib. In the first example, darat is personified by performing the act inukap. Though literally a sound is created every time allon hit the tangrib, tangrib is still personified by the word agdallot.

**Simile.** The last visible figure of speech in the poem is simile. This is illustrated in the last line of the poem. In the line, the poet used *kas* to indicate the direct comparison between *pakabuklanna* and *dayag*.

**Symbolism.** Given the fact that the poem is a pure description of romance, finding symbolisms in the poem is difficult. The words used are seemingly used for description's sake only. However, the other meaning of the poem suggests some symbolisms which give sense to the deeper thought of the poem; hence, the identification of the symbolisms in the poem. With that, symbolism in literature evokes interest in readers as they find an opportunity to get an insight of the writer's mind on how he views the world and how he thinks of common objects and actions, having broader implications (literarydevices.net, 2016).

*Kappo* and *tarukoy* may refer to the people facing many temptations in their lives. On one hand, *raya ti tikag* and *allon* may refer to the temptations in life. With these symbolisms, the deeper meaning, tone and mood of the poem can be inferred.

Therefore, symbolism exists whenever something is meant to represent something else (Thomas, 2016). Symbolism...is used when an author—Mr. Duque in this study—wants to create a certain mood or emotion in a work of literature (Thomas, 2016).

**Imagery.** The poem starts with the line, *maitugkel ti raya ti tikag* and followed by *iti kappo nga inukap ti darat*. The first line pictures a dry land or place while the second line pictures an open...
seashell. The lines tell a seashell which was opened because of the hot weather.

The next two lines, agdallot ti tangrib iti siplag and ti allon nga iti tarukoy agkamat, picture the sound produced by impact of the allon to the tangrib. The latter line also depicts a crab (tarukoy) being followed by the waves (allon).

The next lines after the mentioned lines tell a picture of a man (Angalo) who cannot sleep. The last two lines of the poem also tell a picture of Aran who has difficulty in breathing. The last four lines of the poem suggest the romantic scene of Aran and Angalo.

From the discussions above, it can be gleaned that the poet used more visual images. The images aid in the poet’s creation of the detailed descriptions in the poem. The poet wants readers to see or visualize in their mind’s eye (Tanis, 2014) these images.

**Theme.** The descriptions or images that are identified in the poem clearly state what the poem is all about. The poem describes the romance between Angalo and Aran who are fictional characters of Ilokano literature. The poem is also describing the two mountains of Suso, Santa Maria, Ilocos Sur which is fictionally believed to be the breasts of Aran. Disregarding the place being described by the poem, the poem is also telling us to observe temperance amidst the temptations that surround us. These manifest that the experiences of the main character in the course of a literary work, poem in this study, give readers an idea about its theme (literarydevices.net, 2016).

**Syntax.** Tikag and darat are the words used in the first two lines of the poem. Tikag is a condition during which there is very little or no rain or water while darat refers to the very tiny, loose piece of rocks covering beaches or desserts. Darat especially the dry ones are used in construction. In fact the dry darat is most visible in beaches. Thus, the poet used the words tikag and darat to emphasize the hot weather, the dryness of the place; the words are also used to suggest the romance in the poem. This in return manifests that diction help writers develop tone, mood and atmosphere in a text along with evoking interest of the readers (literarydevices.net, 2016).

Other related words in the poem are agdallot and siplag; alimbasagen and agpatnag; malmes and agsung-ab. The first two words are used to reinforce the auditory image created by allon (sea waves) as it hits the tangrib. Alimbasagen and agpatnag are also used to emphasize the sleepless night of Angalo because Aran. Finally, malmes and agsung-ab are words used to emphasize difficulty in breathing as romance and temptation imply.

The structure of Santa Maria and Suso ni Aran is similar. Like the former, period ends the latter. However, one major difference is observed; comma is used in the seventh stanza of Suso ni Aran while Santa Maria does not. Using comma in the poem is an additional factor to portray the difficulty in breathing when one is drowning (malmes). Last, the presence of comma provides a very brief pause (WW, Aeras, & Jeremiah, 2011).

Finally, the poet did not observe capitalization in the poem. This again manifests the significance of each line and every word in all the lines. Lack of capitalization is also indicative of a metaphysical expression of humility or "ordinariness" even when such ordinariness seems incongruent with the lofty words a poet may use or the subtext of a poem (Knox, 2011). Such incongruency may have a heightened dramatic effect by jarring the reader's brain in such a way that makes them really take notice of the words and their meaning (Knox, 2011).

**Kurditan Iluko**

**Persona.** The title of the poem and the last line of the poem suggest two possible descriptions of the persona. The first possibility is that the persona is an Ilokano writer or the poet himself since Mr. Duque is one of the pillars of Ilokano literature. This possibility is because the poem is seemingly talking about his emotions. When the persona said the line, “di marigatan ti pluma a sumagpat!” it can be said that line talks about the persona’s own pluma. The line makes emphasis to the title of the poem by the word pluma.

The second possibility is that the persona is Ilokano literature itself. Ilokano literature or Kurditan Iluko in the poem is personified by expressing its sentiments. This personification brings an intimate relationship between the reader and the poem. Nevertheless, the recognition of the persona’s two possible identifications may not be possible to some for this is the puzzling technique of the poet in presenting his persona. One reader may recognize the first persona’s identity while others may recognize the second.
Moments like these encourage readers to rethink their initial assumptions, and upon rereading, they notice other instances in which the speaker points out the potential for first impressions to be false (Hazelton, 2014).

**Tone and Mood.** The lines, *adda dungngo a yagek ti kappo, adda talged nga ipitik kampanario, and adda imnas a yallatiw ni angalo* suggest a picture of a silent and safe atmosphere surrounding the poem. Thus, serenity can be felt in the poem just like the poem *Santa Maria.*

Meanwhile, the word *insenso* in the seventh line of the poem is associated to formal occasions like ritual and mass. Since one formal occasion like ritual requires a quite if not serious environment, it can be understood that solemnity also pervades in the poem.

Finally, the line, *iti asep ti mapuoran nga insenso,* can be associated to difficulty in breathing because of the smoke of the *insenso* despite its smoke’s good smell. That situation associated to *mapuoran nga insenso,* is defied by the line “di marigatan ti pluma a sumagpat!” The latter line means that *pluma* (Kurditan Iluko or Ilokano literature) will continue despite the circumstances it may face. Hence, the last two lines of the poem suggest a hopeful and positive feeling. Nonetheless, the tone and mood of the poem are created by the writer using specific setting, structure and diction (Prudchenko, 2016). This style contributes to the overall impact of the poem (Prudchenko, 2016).

**Rhyme and Rhythm.** Like the two poems, the poem also consists of eight lines, so the poem is octave. The rhyme scheme of the poem is abababab. Most of the lines have four feet with two syllables, the first is unaccented; the last is accented. Therefore, most verses are iambic tetrameter.

\[
\begin{align*}
  \text{adda dungngo a yagek ti kappo} & \quad (a) \\
  \text{a nagukap iti natikag a darag} & \quad (b) \\
  \text{adda talged nga ipitik kampanario} & \quad (a) \\
  \text{a tuodan iti addang ti agpatnag} & \quad (b) \\
  \text{adda imnas a yallatiw ni angalo} & \quad (a) \\
  \text{iti tarukoy ni aran ngaagsung-ab} & \quad (b) \\
  \text{iti asep ti mapuoran nga insenso} & \quad (a) \\
  \text{di marigatan ti pluma a sumagpat!} & \quad (b)
\end{align*}
\]

The rhyme scheme of the poem adds a musical element to the poem, and creates a feeling of “rightness,” of pieces fitting together; rhyme strengthens form (Victor, 2015). Rhyme likewise is used to deepen meaning; rhyming two or more words draws attention to them and connects them in the reader’s mind (Victor, 2015).

The rhythm—as indicated by the pervading kind of verse and pervading vowel sound in the poem—creates the pattern of language in a line of a poem, marked by the stressed and unstressed syllables in the words (Bradesca, 2016). These two elements represent the framework of poem(s) and the techniques that set poetry (poem) apart from other prose writing (Victor, 2015).

**Figures of Speech.** In shaping the poem, the poet mostly used assonance and personification.

**Assonance.** Through assonance, the poet was able to create internal rhyme in the poem. The most repeated vowel sound is [a] sound. Other vowel sounds are also, but for illustration [a] sound is used. The rhyming two or more words in the poem draws attention to them and connects them in the reader’s mind (Victor, 2015).

\[
\begin{align*}
  \text{adda dungngo a yagek ti kappo} \\
  \text{a nagukap iti natikag a darat} \\
  \text{adda talged nga ipitik kampanario} \\
  \text{a tuodan iti addang ti agpatnag} \\
  \text{adda imnas a yallatiw ni angalo} \\
  \text{iti tarukoy ni aran ngaagsung-ab} \\
  \text{iti asep ti mapuoran nga insenso} \\
  \text{di marigatan ti pluma a sumagpat!}
\end{align*}
\]

**Personification.** Personification can be seen in almost all of the lines in the poem. Kappo, as indicated by dunggo, is presented in the first line as something that can display affection. Another example of personification also is *addang ti agpatnag.* Agpatnag personified by *addang.* In this example, agpatnag is depicted as something that has *step* (*addang*). This example is referring to the time of the whole night. To give a last example of personification, the last line is taken. Pluma is the personified word in the line because it was presented as a person who can perform the action sumagpat.

The figurative languages mentioned above are, in general, a way to compare the thing the poet want to talk about to another thing, one that might not seem at
first very similar, to help illustrate some idea about the thing he really is concerned with (Tanis, 2014).

**Symbolism.** Kurditan Iluko, the title of the poem, is referring to Ilokano Literature. Because the poem refers to Ilokano literature, the symbolisms identified below and their respective interpretations are based on the title of the poem.

The first two symbolisms in the poem are natikag a darat and kappo. The first symbolism may refer to the challenges being faced by Ilokano literature in the light of modernization and other languages’ prominence. Since the poem refers to Ilokano literature, kappo may refer to Ilokano writers who continuously write literary pieces that combat the challenges of Ilokano literature. Thus, the lines containing the two symbolisms means that Ilocano writers will continue to write their literary pieces more beautiful as Ilokano literature face the challenges of the modern era.

Furthermore, kampanario and addang ti agpatnag are another identified symbolisms. Kampanario is used to remind people like the Roman Catholics about an event or celebration that is happening or will happen. Hence, people’s attentions through their sense of hearing are caught when the kampanario has sounded. The symbolism therefore refers to the groups who continuously recognize and support Ilokano literature and its writers. On the other hand, addang ti agpatnag refers to the time and series of metamorphoses that Ilokano literature is facing. Therefore, the lines containing these two symbolisms discuss the security of Ilokano literature as time goes by because of the people who recognize and support it.

Moreover, angalo and tamkoy ni aran are other symbolism on the poem. Angalo may refer to the established Ilokano writers and the respected pillars of Ilokano literature; tamkoy ni aran refers to those neophyte writers who are still crafting their style and literary pieces. Nevertheless, the lines containing these symbolisms tell the support of established Ilokano writers and the respected pillars of Ilokano literature that serve as comfort and motivation for the neophyte writers to strive harder.

Finally, the last two lines contain the last three symbolisms: insenso, asep ti insenso, and pluma. Since insenso is an important thing in some sacred events like mass and ritual, it therefore symbolizes the significance of Ilokano literature to Ilokano culture and identity. When insenso is burnt, people smell the smoke during the process of burning. Thus, the asep ti insenso produced by the burning of insenso symbolizes the society’s recognition and acceptance of Ilokano literature. Further, pluma stands for Ilokano literature that is being referred to by the poem’s title. Hence, the last two lines tell the importance of the Ilokanos’ recognition, support and patronization of their literature.

From the discussions above, symbolism therefore is the use of symbols to signify ideas and qualities by giving them symbolic meanings that are different from their literal sense (literarydevices.net, 2016). Symbolism can take different forms (literarydevices.net, 2016). It is the use of an object, person, situation or word to represent something else, like an idea, in literature (Thomas, 2016).

**Imagery.** The first two lines of the poem show an image of the kappo which is stocked in a dry sand or darat. The word nagukap, as reinforced by adjective natikag, makes it clear that the kappo is thirsty or dying.

In the succeeding two lines, kampanario and agpatnag suggest an auditory image. Both words suggest sound, but they differ in terms of loudness and composition of the sound. Kampanario is louder and is composed of one sound that is the long ringing of the bell; agpatnag is composed of various sounds like sounds of cars, crickets and animals but these are not too long and loud to cause disturbance.

Furthermore, an image of a drowning crab (tarukoy) is also formed in the fifth and sixth stanzas. An image of a burning insenso is also formed in the seventh stanza. At the same time, the smell of insenso also creates an olfactory image.

Succinctly, the poet used more visual imageries than olfactory and auditory. From those individual words, the poet is able to shape his poem’s theme, tone and mood; hence, this conforms to the proposition saying that diction or choice of words helps writers develop tone, mood and atmosphere in a text along with evoking interest of the readers (literarydevices.net, 2016).

**Theme.** The discussions on symbolisms clearly reveal the message of the poem. Those symbolisms evoke
interest in readers as they find an opportunity to get an insight of the poet’s mind on how he views the world and how he thinks of common objects and actions, having broader implications (literarydevices.net, 2016).

The symbolisms signify ideas and qualities by giving them symbolic meanings that are different from their literal sense (literarydevices.net, 2016). In the case of the poems, the symbolism together with the images and figures of speech signify the recognition, support and patronization of one’s literature and identity. In the case of the poem, Ilokanos are called to recognize, support and patronize their literature not only for regional identity but also for cultural preservation. Nonetheless, using other devices to convey the message of the poem manifests that the writer (poet in this study) presents themes in a literary work through several ways (literarydevices.net, 2016).

Syntax. As can be observed in the poem, adda starts the first, third and fifth stanzas. The last words of the same lines including the seventh stanza end with nouns namely kappo, kampanario, angalo and insenso respectively. These words in the start or end of the lines suggest the parallelism and relationship of the lines and the thoughts they contain. Lines one and two, three and four, and five and six manifest the same structure. Each pair of lines starts with adda followed by the subject of the line and its description. In contrast to these first six lines, the last pair of lines starts with iti. The pair of lines therefore starts with a dependent clause which is the line, iti asep ti mapuoran nga insenso.

Further, words that are used in the first two poems are used in the poem. At first glance, one may say that the same lines from the first two poems are used in the poem. However, the lines are changed if not modified. The words that are used are kappo, darat, tuodan, kampanario, tarukoy, aran and angalo. Despite the fact that the words are reused, their meaning changes because of how they are used by the poet in order to convey the poem’s message.

Last, one punctuation ends the poem like the last two poems. Each pair of lines or each line except the last line is not punctuated. Exclamation point is the punctuation that ends the whole poem. The structure of the poem which is devoid of any punctuation until the final exclamation point makes the reader to reread the poem with proper emotion. Except for the thought of the poem, the emotion of the poet is not conveyed if the poem is also punctuated with period. Therefore, using exclamation point at the end of the poem displays not only the strong emotion that pervades in the poem but also the message of the poem.

Ayt: 7 a Talukatik

Persona. The first line of the last couplet tells the identity of the persona. Specifically, the word Ayatek implies that the persona is a lover. However, the sex of the persona cannot be identified at first glance because there are limited cue words in the poem. To identify the persona’s sex, the subject of the poem should be identified first. To cut the discussion short, the fifth couplet through the phrase babassit a pidilmo and kuddot mo tells that the subject of the poem is a lady or female. Between two lovers, the one who is fond of kuddot is the female lover. Another word that suggests the female sex of the poem’s subject is dinungdung-awam in the third couplet. Nonetheless, the persona is a male lover.

Tone and Mood. Through the first couplet of the poem, one can already tell the painful tone of the poem. The couplet gives the readers a description of pain being felt by the persona. The words sinugatnak, panangum-umbim, intanemnak ken tagilipat, dinungdung-awam and inluod are also some of the words that tell that the persona’s heart is aching.

The couplets also tell the sarcasm accompanying the painful tone of the poem and surrounding the poem’s atmosphere. The sarcasm in the poem is also intensified by the contradicting words. For example, dinungdung-awam is a term contradicting rayray-aw and katkatawa. In the fourth couplet where the words are used, the persona is telling his lover to count how many times she cries by counting the frequency of her laughter. The last citation to support the claim towards the poem’s tone and mood is the last couplet of the poem. In this couplet, two contradicting terms are used: impusaynak and panagungarko.

Through the words of the persona, the tone and mood of the poem are manifested. This affirms the statement of Prudchenko (2016) that the tone comes through from the poem’s syntax and vocabulary and helps evoke the mood or establish the atmosphere of the poem; different elements of a poem such as its setting,
Rhyme and Rhythm. The poem is composed of seven couplets. All except the fifth couplet has aa rhyme scheme since the fifth couplet’s rhyme scheme is bb. As one, the poem has aa aa aa bb aa aa rhyme scheme. Finally, the poem also is mostly composed of iambic tetrameter verses. The first couplet is used to illustrate the rhyme scheme, meter and feet that mainly comprise the poem.

(i) 

Namin-ano kadin a gundaway a sinugatnak? (a) 
Bilangem amin kadagiti panangum-umbim kaniak.(a)

Nonetheless, the rhyme scheme and internal rhyme of the poem add a musical element to the poem, and creates a feeling of “rightness,” of pieces fitting together; it also makes a poem easier to memorize, since the rhyme echoes in the reader’s mind afterward, like a melody (Victor, 2015); discerning the rhyme scheme is important because the pattern brings the poem to life and helps the audience feel connected (Bradesca, 2016).

Figures of Speech. Anaphora, antithesis, cataphora, hypophora, hyperbole and assonance are the figures of speech that can be found in the poem.

Anaphora. The poet used anaphora to give emphasis to the message of the poem. The poet repeatedly used the words namin-ano and bilangem in the beginning of each couplet which in return illustrates anaphora.

Antithesis. The poet also used antithesis which is evidently shown in his use of juxtaposition of contrasting ideas as in the lines:

Namin-ano kadin a siak ti dinungdung-awam? 
Bilangem iti kaadu rayray-awmo ken katkatawam.

The words dinungdung-awam (cry) and katkatawam (laughter) are two opposing ideas. The latter has affirmative impact and the former has negative impact. Further, antithesis is used in fourth, sixth and seventh stanzas. In stanza 4, the poet used the two contrasting words ginuranak and kinadungngom; stanza 6 manifests the same figure of speech with its linemmesnak and nangtunlabak; stanza 7 as indicated by the words impusaynak and panagungarko manifests the same figure of speech.

Cataphora. Another figure of speech used in the poem is cataphora. This figure of speech is manifested by the poet’s usage of word ay-ayatek in the first line of the poem’s seventh couplet. The second line of every stanza is a cataphoric reference to ay-ayatek, the person being addressed by the persona; thus using forward expression.

Hypophora. Hypophora is likewise used in the poem as seen in the seventh stanzas’ first lines and second lines; the persona asks questions in the first line, and answers them in the second lines.

Hyperbole. The poet also used hyperbole in the line, A, bilangem iti rinibu a panagungarko dita arpad. Specifically, the poet manifests hyperbole through the phrase rinibu a panagungarko in which panagungar (rising from death) is exaggerated by rinibu (thousand times).

Assonance. Of all the mentioned figures of speech, assonance is the common figure of speech that each couplet has. The sound [a] is the most prominent sound that creates internal rhyme in the poem. The first two couplets below are used to illustrate the internal rhyme produced by [a] sound.

(i) 

Namin-ano kadin a gundaway a sinugatnak? 
Bilangem amin kadagiti panangum-umbim kaniak.

(ii) 

Namin-ano kadin nga intanemnak ken ni tagilipat? 
Bilangem iti padeppa dagiti lagipmo a di nar saak.

Nonetheless, assonance together with the pervading kind of verse creates the internal rhyme of the poem which add effect to the readers’ perception of the poem’s tone and mood. This means that rhythm is quite literally the heartbeat of a poem and serves as the backdrop from which the ideas and imagery (through the figures of speech) can flow (Victor, 2015); rhyme is the musicality behind the words and the way the phrases come together (Victor, 2015).

Symbolism. The author did not use many symbolisms in the poem. Perhaps readers would say that they
cannot identify any because the words are so simple that enables the message of the poem to be easily decoded. However, the images created through the words in the poem like *linenmesnak, impusaynak* and *sinugatnak* can be taken as symbolisms of pain. These words do not only signify something but also intensify the theme of the poem. Hence, symbolism is a figure of speech that is used when an author wants to create a certain mood or emotion in a work of literature (Thomas, 2016).

**Imagery.** The first image that can be pictured in the beginning of the poem is tactile as suggested by the first line of the first couplet. Though the line talks more of the pain of the persona brought by his lover, a wound can be literally imagined from the line. The second line of the fifth couplet suggests another tactile image because of the words *pidilimo* and *kuddot*.

On one hand, a sad image of the persona can also be pictured by the line *Bilangem amin kadagiti panangum-umbim kaniak*. Image of a crying lady is likewise suggested by the first line of the poem’s third couplet; a happy lady can be pictured in the second line of the same couplet.

Nevertheless, the lines of the poem suggest an image of a sulking or sad persona and an image of an insensitive persona’s lover. Hence, visual imagery together with tactile imagery comprises the poem which in return helps the poet to convey the pervading emotion of the poem.

**Theme.** To understand the message of the poem, the major words in the title must be defined first. *Ayat* and *talukatik* are the two major words from the poem’s title. *Ayat* means love while *Talukatik* is a means message or sentiment.

Given those definitions, it can be said that the poem is basically talking about the seven messages or sentiments of a lover. Readers can also guess that the poem is all about love; however, they cannot tell whether the love is sweet or not. Thus, they need to decode the poem through its lines and stanzas.

Through the images created by the seven couplets of the poem which talk about the experience or feeling of the persona, readers can tell that the poem is talking about a love full of misery and pain. The experiences of the main character in the course of a literary work give readers an idea about its theme (literarydevices.net, 2016). Nevertheless, the complete message of the poem is that loving is not always sweet.

**Syntax.** Scanning the poems allows the readers to notice the noticeable features of the poem. Repetition of words, punctuations and the structure of the couplets are some of the features that are noticeable in the poem. Hence, the discussions below are made.

First, the poet repeatedly used *naming-an* and *bilangem* in the poem. Specifically, these words are the starting words of the first and second lines of the couplets respectively. The poet repeatedly used the two words to emphasize the tone and mood of the poem. The repetition of those words also helps the readers to feel the degree of pain, accompanied by sarcasm, being conveyed by the persona. Hence, these two words make the poem more emotional; repetition of words is a unifying device that adds commentary … solidifies and … meaning; it thereby adds change, development and meaning to a poem’s theme (Stratford, 2016).

Second, question mark, period and comma are the only visible punctuations in the poem. However, the poet used more question marks and periods compared to comma. As can be observed, the couplets’ first lines and second lines end with a question mark and a period respectively. The first lines of the couplets are interrogative sentences while the second lines are imperative sentences. The second lines of the couplets are said to be imperative rather than declarative because of the word *bilangem*.

The word gives an impression that the persona is commanding or ordering his lover to do something with respect to the query of the couplets’ first lines. Hence, the second lines are the answers to the first lines of the couplets.

Additionally, readers may question the poet because of using period in the second lines of the couplets instead of exclamation point given the fact that poem talks about pain of loving. The reason maybe is that the poet is giving an impression that despite the pain being felt by the persona, the persona still loves his lover. Another reason maybe is that the poet is telling that the persona is still calm and is not bitter amidst the pain he is feeling. Finally, the poet is perhaps emphasizing that good memories have the power to turn miseries and pains into smile.

The last discussion under punctuations is using comma in the last couplet of the poem. Generally, using
comma in the lines of the couplet suggests a brief pause. Specifically, the poet used comma in the last couplet’s first line to give an impression that the poem is addressed alone to the persona’s lover; the comma after Ay-ayatek in the last line is a brief pause which may mean that the persona’s emotion is not as intense as the emotions presented in the first couplets. Nevertheless, the punctuations used in the poem especially period and question mark tell the reader that each couplet contains one single thought; the punctuations give an impression that the lines in each couplet ends there and are not continued in the next couplets.

The third and noticeable feature of the poem is its structure. The first lines of the couplets end with verbs and a verb phrase. The verbs sinugatak, dimungdung-awam, ginurakan, inlanod, and impusaynak end the first lines of the first, third, fourth, fifth, sixth and seventh couplets. The phrase intanemnak ken ni tagilipat ends the second couplet. These words together with the starting words of the couplets show that there is parallelism of ideas in the poem. This is just saying that parallelism is a highly effective poetic device for deepening thematic meanings (Stratford, 2016). The poet consistently used the same structure of couplets. Thus, the poet managed to maintain the relationship of the couplets to each other or the first line to the second line of each couplet.

Finally, capitalization is also observed in the poem. All the lines start with capital letter. The capitalization of the beginning letters of the starting words of the poem’s lines is not odd because the lines in each couplet are sentences; hence, it is understood that the beginning letter of the first words in the lines should start with a capital letter. The odd capitalization is the A in Ay-ayatek. This is to show its importance in the poem and to take the reader's attention for a moment away from the point of the writing to the emphasis on (Knox, 2011) the persona’s subject. This adherence of the poet to rule makes the poet and the poem unique since punctuation, capitalization and other grammar rules are not necessary in poetry.

Malem: Iti Uksob a Kadaratan
Persona. In the lines, a, maawatam itan a sika ni eva and idinto a siak, siak pay laeng ni adan, the persona’s description can be identified already. Another hint that tells the persona’s description is the line, inakbay ti kinasutil dagiti takaw a darikmat. Therefore, the persona in the poem is a man who is involved in a forbidden relationship as indicated by the persona’s pronouncements in the mentioned lines.

Tone and Mood. The poem’s tone and mood is melancholic. This is manifested by the title itself and by the setting of the poem. The first line of the poem, umadanin ti tangep, connotes ending or parting. Same is manifested in the lines in the lines below. Hence, the different elements of a poem such as its setting... help establish this atmosphere (Prudchenko, 2016).

In the lines above, the persona is telling to let the pain, as indicated by the word lemma, remained in that place. Adda inalam and adda inawotko are lines that suggest the difficulty being felt by the persona. There is an impression that the persona is left with no choice. Nonetheless, the words imply seriousness that pervades in the poem.

Rhyme and Rhythm. The poem is composed of five (5) tercets. The poem is mostly composed of iambic hexameter verses as shown in the first line of the first tercet below.

umadanin ti tangep. iti naglaga a dakulapta (a)

Generally, the rhyme scheme of the poem is abc baa ade caa aaaa. However, the tercets have different rhyme scheme if taken individually. Specifically, the first and third stanzas have abc rhyme scheme; second and fifth stanzas have aaaa rhyme scheme; fourth stanza has aabb rhyme scheme. The mentioned rhyme schemes are based on the respective end sounds of each tercet.

The rhyme together with rhythm adds a musical element to the poem, and creates a feeling of "rightness," of pieces fitting together; it also makes a poem easier to memorize, since the rhyme echoes in the reader's mind afterward, like a melody (Victor, 2015). Rhyme likewise is used to deepen meaning; rhyming two or more words draws attention to them and connects them in the reader's mind (Victor, 2015). Finally, rhyme strengthens form (Victor, 2015).

Figures of Speech. The figures of speech that are used in the poem are personification, allusion, metaphor and assonance.
Personification. The poet used personification in the poem as in the lines:

\[ \text{iti pingping ti langit iti laud, adda rosas: inakbay ti kinasutil dagiti tinakaw a darikmat} \]

The poet personifies *langit* (sky) as if it were a person who has a *ping-ping* or cheeks. The poet also personifies *kinasutil* through the use of the word *inakbay*. The same figure of speech was used in the phrase *uksob a kadaratan* because of the adjective *uksob* modifying *kadaratan*.

Allusion. The poet used allusion in the lines below. This figure of speech is used when the poet used two biblical characters: *Eva* and *Adan*. They are found in the Old Testament in which *Eva* is believed to be the one who persuaded *Adan* in eating the forbidden fruit that gave them knowledge of what is good and what is bad.

The second and fourth stanzas tell the readers that the persona is engaged in a forbidden relationship as the line “tinakaw a darikmat” suggests. It is also intensified by the use of *Eva* and *Adan* in which *Eva* connotes temptation that the persona cannot resist.

Metaphor. The poet also used metaphor as shown in the line, *iti taaw 'toy barukong, imnas, maysakanga isla*. The poet compared *imnas* to an *isla*. The term *isla* connotes being only one in the persona’s heart.

Assonance. Assonance is also used in the poem, actually in all the poems, specifically the repetition of the sound [a]. Through assonance, an internal rhyme is created. This internal rhyme specifically through sound [a] adds to the degree of the poem’s tone and mood.

\[ \text{umadatin ti tangep, iti naslaga a dakulapta adda lubong a naappupo: timek babassit nga anghel iti tapliak dagiti dalluyon.} \]

Symbolism. The different symbolisms that can be identified in the poem help in understanding the theme of the poem. The symbolisms also are anchored on the belief that the poem talks about two lovers as suggested by the persona’s description. The different symbolisms are identified and described below.

From the title of the poem, two symbolisms can be identified; those are *uksob a kadaratan* and *malem*. *Uksob a kadaratan* refer to the innocent environment of the persona and his lover; their environment includes the people who are not aware of the status of their relationship. *Malem* together with *tangep* stands for the parting of the two lovers or perhaps end of their relationship. When the persona tells that *umadatin ti tangep* and *wen, agtangepen*, he is telling his lover that their limited or stolen time (*tinakaw a darikmat*) is ending.

Another symbolism that also supports the claim about the lovers’ relationship end is *lema*. In the line, *bayanta a nabati lemma a di mapunas, lemma* may actually refer to the pain of breaking up. The persona is telling his lover to live the painful memory that cannot be forgotten to where they are; they will separately start a new life. In relation to this, the persona is telling his lover in the line, *inta, imnas, sakbay a masipngetan ti dalan* the negative circumstance that may happen should they continue their love affair.

Meanwhile, *timek babassit nga anghel* and *tapliak dagiti dalluyon* are two symbolisms that describe the lovers’ status. *Timek babassit nga anghel* implies the married life of the lovers; the lines related to this symbolism together with *anghel* are telling that the two lovers have children. On one hand, *tapliak dagiti dalluyon* symbolizes the strong love that binds and brings them to their situation. Hence, it can be said that the two lovers feel guilty and sorry for what they are doing when the persona tells, *iti naslaga a dakulapta adda lubong a naappupo: timek babassit nga anghel iti tapliak dagiti dalluyon."

*Rosas, eva and adan* are last of the identified symbolisms from the poem. In the line, *iti pingping ti langit iti laud adda rosas, rosas* is referring to the sun during sunset. Last, the poet used *eva* to stand for temptation while *adan* is for the persona’s sex and susceptibility to temptation.

As can be observed the symbolisms are associated with imagery and figures of speech. This manifests that symbolism is a figure of speech that is used when an author wants to create a certain mood or emotion in a work of literature (Thomas, 2016); symbolism can take different forms (literarydevices.net, 2016). Generally, it is an object representing another to give it an entirely different meaning that is much deeper and more significant; sometimes, however, an action, an event or a word spoken by someone may have a
symbolic value (literarydevices.net, 2016). Nevertheless, symbolism in literature evokes interest in readers as they find an opportunity to get an insight of the writer’s mind on how he views the world and how he thinks of common objects and actions, having broader implications (literarydevices.net, 2016).

**Imagery.** Visual imagery is mostly used in the poem. The examples of visual imagery from the poem are *umadin ti tangep, iti pingping ti langit adda rosas* and *sakboy a masipgetan ti dalan* that picture a landscape of the setting sun and a darkening surrounding; *naglaga a dakulap ta* pictures a couple holding each other’s hand; *agapon manen dagiti tarukoy* pictures a scene of crabs that are seeking shelter. These imageries create a melancholic or sad atmosphere in the poem.

Auditory imagery is likewise used in the poem. Two examples of auditory imagery can be identified in the poem: *timek ti babassit nga anghel* and *tapliak dagiti dalluyon*. The former suggests a sound of small voices while the latter suggests sound of sea waves.

All these images suggest the situation that the persona and his love are in, the tone and the mood of the poem. Most importantly, they also help the readers visualize the scene of the poem and decipher the meaning of the poem.

**Theme.** The poem is talking about love specifically the parting of two lovers who are involved in a forbidden relationship. The symbolisms related to the lovers’ love affair suggest that the lovers have separate married lives. Therefore, the marital status of the lovers makes it clear that the poem is talking about the complexity and consequences of a forbidden love. Last, the poem is also about parting with someone dear to you.

**Syntax.** A darkening surrounding as an effect of sunset is illustrated from the poem’s title *Malem: Iti Uksob a Kadaratan*. This environment in the poem is reinforced by the poet’s choice of word. He used *tangep* or *agtangepen*, *agapon manen dagiti tarukoy*, *iti langit iti laud adda rosas* and *masipgetan*. These words are discussed in the next paragraph.

First, *tangep* or *agtangepen* is a synonym for *malem* because it also depicts the darkening of surrounding. Second, *agapon manen dagiti tarukoy* is synonymous also to *malem*. This second synonym of *malem* can be compared to the usual practice of people in which they go home if their work is done or if it is already evening. Third, *iti langit iti laud adda rosas* is another poetic way of telling sunset or *malem*. Last, *masipgetan* tells the effect of going home late before or after sunset. These synonyms of *malem* or reinforcing words reinforce not only the mood of the poem but also its tone. Most importantly, they add commentary to... solidify .... add change, development and meaning to a poem’s theme (Stratford, 2016).

On one hand, punctuations are also used in the poem though some say punctuations are not requisites of poem. In this poem, the poet used six end punctuations: five periods one of which is enclosed by open and close parentheses, and a question mark. The poet also used 13 punctuations in the middle of the lines: three periods, four colons, one semi-colon, and six commas. Hence, line breaks are used in the poem. The first line break is end-stopped lines which put a clear break at the end of lines and stanza. The periods and question mark indicate these end-stopped lines. In the first tercet, the first two lines have no end punctuation while the last has. This structure of the tercet tells that the first two lines together with the last form a single thought and are independent of the other tercets.

The third tercet is enclosed by open and closed parentheses. The tercet is also a separate thought, but it is related to the second and third tercets because of the parentheses. The relationships of the second, third and fourth tercets are made possible through enjambment; hence, another line break used in the poem. Therefore, the three tercets are said to be enjambed because they conversely run into each other and make meaning in conjunction with each other. The enclosed third tercet seemingly is a soliloquy of the persona which reveals his inner feeling.

Furthermore, the question mark in the first line of the fourth tercet marks the end of the thought for the second and third tercets. Therefore, the last two lines of the fourth tercet are another independent thought because of the period in the last line of the tercet. The last tercet used two periods. The absence of end punctuation in the first line clearly implies that it is related to the next lines. However, the first line completed its thought with the second line not until the last line because of the second line’s period. Hence,
the last line contains another independent thought because of its end punctuation.

Another line break in the poem is caesura as indicated by the middle punctuations of the lines: period, colon, semi-colon, and comma. Since most of the lines contain middle punctuations, strong caesuras are used in the poem, but weak caesuras are also present in the lines that do not end with any punctuation. The first punctuation that indicate strong caesura is period. In the first lines of the first and second tercets and the last line of the last tercet, the periods suggest full-stop aside from the fact that they indicate that the lines they ended are independent thoughts not fragments of thoughts.

In addition, the colons are not used to imply independence of the lines where they are used. They imply that something imperative is coming; hence, requiring the readers to pay attention. Semi-colon on one hand signifies the relationship between *adda inalam* and *adda inawatko* that are both independent clauses. Last, the commas signifies brief pause and are used to fragment the thoughts within the tercets.

The poet also used lowercase letters in his poem. Aside from the fact that this is the distinguishing style of the poet, the style can be interpreted as the poet’s way to heighten dramatic effect by jarring the readers’ brain in such a way that makes them really take notice of the words and their meaning (Knox, 2011).

In conclusion, the synonyms of *malem* or reinforcing words reinforce and set not only the mood of the poem but also its tone. The line breaks used in the poem allow the blending of the lines yet holding their identity. Specifically, end-stopped lines as reinforced by periods and question mark makes the line or lines independent from but are related to each other; the enjambment in the poem makes the meaning of the poem flows from one line to the other and thus prompts the readers to continue reading until the end of the poem (Chakravarthula, 2015); caesuras suggest brief pause providing a clear break in thought or slowing the pace of the poem(Camy, 2011); they also underscore the sincerity of the persona and the difficulty he feels because of parting with *imnas*.

**Dulang ti Konsensia**

**Persona.** At first, readers will tell that the poet used third person point of view in presenting the persona. However, they will tell that the poet actually used the first person point of view because of the word *malagipko* in the seventh couplet. The shift in the point of view makes it clear the persona is the poet himself. Moments like these encourage readers to rethink our initial assumptions, and upon rereading, we notice other instances in which the speaker points out the potential for first impressions to be false (Hazelton, 2014). The poet also used his home address in Ilocos Sur in the line *sadiay bagani ubbog. ti laeng adatna*. Bagani Ubbog supports the claim that the persona is Mr. Duque himself.

**Tone and Mood.** The first five couplets of the poem depict an occasion in which there are hungry people who get food that is more than what they can eat. They are compared to piranha in the aquarium as the couplets below suggest. The piranha, representing an aggressive action once given chance, further emphasizes the anger of the persona. *kadagiti lamisaan. nakapila dagiti mabisin awan nakaidumaanda kadagiti nakapupok iti aquarium a piranha nga agu-uray iti batangda a sumakrab: napissuol*

Then, the first five couplets are followed by other couplets which make the readers ascertain that the persona is condemning an unpleasant action. When the persona said the lines, *adda gatilio ti pungtot a maikasa nga agpisipis iti pispis: a makaparasuk iti dara daytoy,* the anger that encompasses the poem is again strongly manifested and felt.

Last, the persona’s statement saying *isuda dagiti rumbeng a pagpiestaan dagiti piranha: ipissuol ida a kas kadagiti taraon iti dulang ti konsensia a maibelleng iti basuraan ti historia makes the serious tone and mood of the poem lucid. Hence, it can be said that the poems’ tone and mood are created by the writer using specific setting, structure and diction (Prudchenko, 2016). This style contributes to the overall impact of the poem (Prudchenko, 2016).

**Rhyme and Rhythm.** The poem is composed of 11 couplets having different rhyme schemes. The poem has general rhyme scheme of ab cb db dd dd ab eb dd
Simile. Simile is the figure of speech that is mostly used in the poem. Hence, direct comparisons dominate the poem. The presence of the word kas made it easier to identify the examples of simile in the poem. Most importantly, the poet presented an analogy of concepts through the direct comparisons he made.

The following are examples of simile with their interpretation:

a. amakalmes, kas mangliwenliweng a taaw, ti nakadasar a taraon- With the help of the expression kas, the comparison between taaw and taraon is made. The comparison made means an abundance of food. Deeply, the simile talks about the richness of the mentioned first country in the poem.

b. maibelleng laeng dagitoy (referred to the food on the plates) a kas basura. In reality, the amount of basura in the present society is increasing every day. It is one of the major societal problems. It is also meant to be thrown away or put in the garbage. Hence, the simile describes the bountiful resources of the first country that are being wasted.

c. ipissuol ida (referred to the first countries) a kas kadagiti taraon iti dulang ti konsensia a maibelleng iti basuraan ti historia- In this example, taraon which is described as maibelleng iti basuraan ti historia is compared to the first countries. The poet also used basuraan ti historia to mean forgetting those first countries. Hence, the persona is telling in the example that these first countries should be thrown away just like the taraon. Nevertheless, this example of simile describes the anger of the persona to the first countries, and helps surface the tone and mood of the poem.

Assonance. Assonance is heavily used in this poem to give the poem a softer and serious sound. The vowel sound [a] is the dominating sound that gives a manly sound when read aloud; thus, adding to the serious tone of the poem.

dagiti platoda, saan a mabarawidan kas pagsasao dagiti duduogan

Symbolism. The comparisons made in the poem surface the three major symbolisms in the poem: taraon, dulang or lamisaan and piranha.

Taraon symbolizes prosperity, abundance or richness. It likewise refers to the resources of the first and third countries. On one hand, dulang or lamisaan is used in the poem as the thing that holds the taraon. In effect, it refers to those countries along with their people that own those taraon or food.

When the poet presented dulang as full of food, the poet is trying to tell the readers about economic and societal stability. However, nakapila dagiti mabisin suggests a threat to that stability and a prelude to instability. When the persona tells the lines, nakapila dagiti mabisin awan nakaidumaanda kadagiti nakapupok iti aquarium a piranha nga agu-uray iti batangda a sumakrab, he is describing the discontentment and selfishness of those hungry people.

On the other hand, piranha symbolizes greediness, abuse and exploitiation. It also stands for those
exploitive people who act promptly if they have seen a chance. These people being represented by piranha get the very last piece of the available resources (taraon); thus, leaving nothing behind as the empty dulang signifies once the taraon are taken. That is why the persona tells the line, isuda (first countries) dagiti rumbeng a pagpiestaan dagiti piranha, to manifest that the so called third world countries should not be the one to be exploited rather it should be those first world countries; this manifestation is made because the third world countries have no more to give.

**Imagery.** The imageries present in the poem are divided based on the two groups of subjects of the poem. The first six couplets talk about the first group while the next couplets talk about the second group.

An image of a deep wide ocean is the first depicted image in the poem. It is compared to an image of copious servings of food. Then, an image of hungry people lining up for food followed. These hungry people are likened to the wild piranhas in the aquarium. The next lines picture the mountain-like plates of those people.

After the visual images about the first group of subject, the poet shifted to next groups that further intensify the anger of the persona. Specifically, the seventh stanza to the 10th stanza tackles the second group. These subjects are described as beggars and people who belong to the third world country. They are also described as people who experience hunger as they work and because of the insensitiveness of the first world country.

In short, the poem is composed mainly of visual imagery. The visual images created are tools that the poet used to illustrate clearly the situation and stand of the poet. Most specifically, the images lucidly surface the meaning of the comparison made among the people lining up for food, piranhas and third and first world country people. These images are set of visual information that the poet wants readers to see or visualize in their mind’s eye (Tanis, 2014).

**Theme.** The poem is actually an eye-opener to readers. The poet is exposing the reality of life between those who can (first country) and those who cannot (third country). The poet does not only critique the first country’s behavior but also that of the third country’s. The poet clearly condemns the third country’s behavior in the lines, dagiti platoda, saan a mabarawidan kas pagsasao dagiti duduoagan sadiay bagani ubbog, ti laeng adatma, dida maibus uray kaygudua la koma and nakapila dagiti mabisin awan nakaidumaanda kadaagit kacakupok iti aquirum a piranha nga agu-uray iti batangda a sumakrab. The third country’s behaviors are also condemned in the following lines:

*dagiti agpalpalama, ubing ken nataengan dagiti mangurkuranges kadagit aiabiliang a third country: isuda a mabhisin nan ganu iti panaglablaban, kinaawan iti riikna

dagtoy a first country. isuda dagiti rumbeng a pagpiestaan dagiti piranha: ipissuol ida

Finally, the first six couplets of the poem talk about the behavior of people towards the foods on the dulang. The succeeding couplets also tell the existing conditions of the third country. Through these topics of the couplets, the imageries and symbolisms that are discussed, it can be said that the poem is talking lucidly about the exploitive, abusive, insensitive and selfish nature of people.

**Syntax.** Reinforcing and synonymous words, clause or phrases are used in the poem. These include nakapila dagiti mabisin and nakapupok a piranha; napissuol and saan a mabarawidan; dida maibus and maibelleng; pungtot, makaparasuk and rumbeng; agpalpalama, mangurkuranges and third country. Nakapila dagiti mabisin and nakapupok a piranha complement each other because both of them create an image of someone who eagerly waits to do something and then acts without hesitation once he or she is given the chance. Dida maibus and maibelleng reinforce the greediness of people being referred to by the persona. Pungtot, makaparasuk and rumbeng reinforce and describe the persona’s anger and the poem’s tone and mood. Finally, apalpalama, mangurkuranges and third country are words that imply poor economic condition.

The discussions above supports the claim of Stratford, 2016 that repetition of words together with reinforcing words gives drive to poetry; it is a unifying device that adds commentary…solidifies…meaning; it thereby adds change, development and meaning to a poem’s theme. Parallelism is a highly effective poetic device for deepening thematic meanings (Stratford, 2016).
In addition, punctuations are also used in the poem. The different punctuations help in identifying the structure of the lines and the flow of ideas of the poem. Most importantly, the punctuations indicate lines breaks in the poem.

Furthermore, the poem has three end punctuations indicating end-stopped lines; 15 punctuations within the lines which indicate caesura and enjambments. The three end punctuations are one comma, two hyphens, and a period. Four commas, five periods and six colons are the punctuations used within the lines.

Moreover, the three end punctuations imply that most lines in the poem end with weak caesura. Since the poem is enjambed, the readers’ eyes are pulled forward which means that the enjambments make the poem more interesting.

With the enjambments techniques used by the poem, suspense is also created in the readers’ minds. The suspense refers to the suspense of thoughts or idea especially when the poet successively used two hyphens in seventh couplet. The long pause created by the successive hyphens suggests that the persona is controlling his anger, or it may imply an outburst of his anger.

Finally, the periods also within the lines suggest not only strong caesura but also end of the enjambed lines. Through the periods, the readers are given the hint that the thoughts of the related lines stop there and that the lines are independent of the other lines. The commas also indicate brief pauses or another strong caesuras, and fragmented thoughts or idea. Last, the colons add effect to the suspense or anticipation created by the enjambments.

Kayumanggi a Babai Dagiti Siglo

Persona. The poet presented the persona using third person point of view. This makes it difficult to identify the sex of the persona. Nonetheless, the persona is either a man or a woman. He or she is talking about an old lady as suggested by the first, third and sixth stanzas. Through the persona, the poet is able to speak directly to readers and, in doing so, forges an almost interpersonal relationship with them (Hazelton, 2014).

Tone and Mood. The couplets below describe the subject of the poem. The descriptions of poem’s subject bring a feeling of pity, and such is the tone that pervade in the poem. Piman is also the expression that adds to the pitiful tone of the poem. Nonetheless, the poem’s tone is pervading in every line of the poem. nakaul-ulimek, kubbo piman a nakatugaw iti maudi a pangal ti agdan a tumapaw

iti umel, napno iti mensahe a ruangan,
 sipupuso nga aw-awaganna iti pagaengan.

kuretret a rupa, karenkenen nga ima, mapurar a mata a nalanay iti dupag dagiti simanar

ti agpakpakada nga init, sabong pan-aw a buok:---
langa ti nabessag a kinatudio iti pannubok

Readers can tell a serious mood of the poem through the help of some lines together with the poem’s tone. The following lines suggest a serious mood for the poem:

a, nakapannimid dita: di agkutkuti, di am-ammo ti sungsungkaen ti isipna, awan ti makapugo—

adda kadi naulimek nga dallangna, aqsururat iti pusona kadagitit duayya nga awanan balikas

wenno sangsangitanna dagiti naglumen a deggang,
 mangbirbirok iti nabayagen a nagpukaw a radiosan?

As evidently shown from the lines of the couplets, the poet used specific setting, structure and diction (Prudchenko, 2016). The poem’s tone evokes a certain mood in the reader (Prudchenko, 2016). The tone comes through from the poem’s syntax and vocabulary and helps evoke the mood or establish the atmosphere of the poem (Prudchenko, 2016).

Rhyme and Rhythm. The poem is composed of 17 couplets. All the couplets except the 15th stanza have aa rhyme scheme; the rhyme scheme of the 15th stanza is ab. However, the poem has a general rhyme scheme which is aa aa aa bb aa aa cc aa dd aa aa bb aa dc bb aa. Finally, most of the verses are iambic pentameter.

Nonetheless, the rhyme scheme that each couplet has along with pervading kind of verse adds a musical element to the poem, and creates a feeling of "rightness" of pieces fitting together (Victor, 2015). It also strengthens form (Victor, 2015) of the poem.
Sample Couplets:

First Couplet

nákál·úlmek, kuño pímná a náklátagwín (a) 
iti maudi a pangal ti agdan a tumpaw (a)

Second Couplet

iti umel, napno iti mensahe a ruangan, (a) 
sipupuso nga aw-agwaganna iti pagtaengan. (a)

Figures of Speech

Personification, antithesis, paradox and simile are the figures of speech that are used in the poem.

Personification. Personification is the mostly used figure of speech in the poem. In the phrase agpakpakada nga iniit the poet personifies the iniit through the use of agpakpakada. The phrase is describing the setting sun. Duko ti panagmaymaysa is also personified when the poet used isaplit. This example talks about the effects of panagmaymaysa or being alone. Other personifications in the poem are found in the lines below.

a. “ballikog kadi nga isem ti naghatay iti bibigna”. Isem is personified when it was made to step on the lips of the poem’s subject. This example talks about a fake smile.

b. “adda kadi nauimatek nga dailangna, agsururat iti pusona kadagiti duayya nga awaan balikas”. Personification is illustrated when the pusona was personified by the word agsururat; it talks about the sentiments or silent cries of the poem’s subject.

Antithesis. Antithesis is also used in the poem as shown in the lines below. The word umel (mute) is used in the lines together with awawaganna (the act of calling for someone) which are two contradictory words.

iti umel, napno iti mensahe a ruangan, sipupuso nga aw-agwaganna iti pagtaengan.

Paradox and Simile. The last two figures of speech used in the poem are paradox and simile. As shown by the poet’s use of the nauimatek a protesta, paradox is used and is describing inem-eman a saning-i (silent cries or sentiments). On one hand, simile is seen in the line below in which kas is used to show the comparison between dapo or ash and ti lagip dagiti nakuspag nga annak or memories of the children of the poem’s subject. This simile is telling that those memories of the children of the poem’s subject are just like those untraceable dapo once blown by air.

kas maiwaris a dapo iti rabaw dagiti tanem ti lagip dagiti nakuspag nga annak a nanglipaten?

Symbolism. The symbolisms in the poem convey the poem’s mood, tone and deeper meaning. The symbols used are object, lines or phrase of the poem, and a person. These symbols include maudi a pangal ti agdan a tumpaw, ruangan, pagtaengan and kayumanggi a babai ti siglo. Nonetheless, these symbols are identified based on their significance in suggesting the meaning of the poem.

Stairs or agdan are composed of steps. Its purpose is to allow people to go from one level to another. Before one gets to the top, one must begin from the lower steps; one must start from the upper steps if he or she wants to get to the lower level. In the poem, the poet used the latter way of using the stair as indicated by maudi a pangal ti agdan a tumpaw. This symbolizes old age or aging. That symbolism is also another clue to the description of poem’s subject. Hence, it can already be said the poem’s age can already be identified in the first couplet. Then, the first couplet’s implication is supported by the next descriptions about the poem’s subject.

Meanwhile, the call and coming of people to one’s house or pagtaengan means they need something or they will tell you something. Hence, pagtaengan or house is place where one finds comfort, love, care and belongingness. In the case of the poem, pagtaengan stands for those people who can be someone’s comfort, benefactor or refuge.

Furthermore, ruangan in the second couplet can be said as closed door because of sipupuso nga awawaganna. Ruangan also reinforces the word umel that stands for those beneficial sentiments and ideas to the society, and those who need help. Since the ruangan is closed, it therefore symbolizes people’s or society’s insensitivity to umel. Thus, the second couplet speaks of the reality that most people ignore opportunities and the needy.
Finally, *kayumanggi a babai ti siglo* represents all the unrecognized and forgotten people who made great impact to peoples’ and societies’ lives in their earnest, honest, silent and simple ways. Nevertheless, the symbolisms evoke interest in readers as they find an opportunity to get an insight of the writer’s mind on how he views the world and how he thinks of common objects and actions, having broader implications (literarydevices.net, 2016).

**Imagery.** The poem is composed of descriptions which are manifested by the different imageries present in the poem. The first picture that can be visualized from the first couplet is a hunchback sitting on a step of a stair. The second couplet suggests a silent auditory image as the lines, *iti umel, napno iti mensae a ruangan, sipupuso nga aw-awaganna iti pagaetaengan* suggest. Then the physical attributes of the hunchback is described from the third to the sixth couplet. The descriptions like wrinkled hands and face together with the hunchbacked description in the first couplet tell that the poem’s subject is an old person. Using also those descriptions together with the *nagnutnotan* (making reference to mother’s breasts) *iti biag ti eternidad* makes it clear that the poem’s subject is actually an old lady. The poem’s title suggests the same sex of the poem’s subject.

In addition, the old lady’s seemingly fake smile is illustrated in the seventh stanza. Then, a sob is pictured in the second line of the same couplet. The picture of the crying and sad old lady is shown in the eighth couplet. She is also captured staring at something in the ninth couplet. Then, an image of scattered ash on a cemetery, coffin or any final resting place as *tanem* indicates is shown in the 10th couplet.

Moreover, the personification in 11th couplet makes a silent auditory imagery about the sentiments of the old lady. She is also pictured crying and thinking deeply in the 12th, 13th and 14th couplets. Finally, the last couplets picture an image of a lady perhaps an old lady sitting alone in the midst of the darkening surrounding.

The images appealing more to visual sense allow the portrayal of the poem’s subject. The poet used the images to give more justification to his title because the title makes readers think of what the title is all about. At the same time, readers are left thinking about the relationship of image of a *kayumanggi a babae to siglo* (century). Perhaps, they would say that the lady is an immortal, a god, an old lady or divine entity. Perhaps, they would think about something supernatural. At the end, they will read the poem to satisfy their mind.

Finally, the poet’s description of the lady is presented in a thrilling manner which means readers need to put all the pieces of descriptions together. After joining all the description, readers can already decipher the poem’s subject and meaning. More importantly, they can already answer their queries about the poem’s title.

**Theme.** The title of the poem *Kayumanggi a Babai Dagiti Siglo—kayumanggi* refers to the complexion of Filipinos—gives a hint to the content of the poem. In the surface level, the title tells the readers that the poem is about a *kayumanggi* lady of many centuries. The discussions on imagery also reveal that the poem is talking about a forgotten, sad and old lady. However, the words *dagiti and siglo* from the title make the poem intriguing because these words imply that the poem is not merely talking about a lady. Hence, readers need to confront their understanding of the poem in order to identify the deeper meaning of the poem.

Based on the discussion in the previous subheadings, the poem portrays ungratefulness nature of man. The writer (poet in this study) presents the theme…through several ways (literarydevices.net, 2016). In this poem, the experiences of the main character in the course of a literary work (poem) give readers an idea about its theme (literarydevices.net, 2016). Nonetheless, the poem reflects the people’s or society’s inability to recognize those unfamous and nameless yet significant people.

**Syntax.** The poet used words or phrases that reinforce each other and the poem’s tone and mood. Those words are also used to emphasize the situation of the poem’s subject. The poet also reinforces the poem’s message, tone and mood through punctuations. Most importantly, the poet used punctuations to help readers decipher the poem. These statements support the statement of Stratford (2016) and Chakravarthula (2015).
Specifcally, Stratford (2016) manifested that repetition is a unifying device that adds commentary to..., solidifies ...; thereby adds change, development and meaning to a poem's theme (Stratford, 2016); Chakravarthula (2015) articulated that punctuation is the modulation of a written thought.

In the poem, panagmaymaysa and agmaymaysa are the words that tell the same meaning. The occurrence of these words suggests the poem’s tone and mood. In relation to these words, the poet used also words that describe the poem’s subject which in return surfaces the meaning of the poem and intensifies the poem’s tone and mood.

The words and phrases like kubbo, maudi a pangal ti agdan a tumanapaw, kuretret a rupa, eppes a barukongna and mapurar a mata reinforce each other to illustrate the description of the poem’s subject. The poet also used lines that reinforce each other and that manifest the situation of the subject and the poem’s tone and mood. The following lines are examples:

dayta a mulengleng, maid-iddip kadi a beggang ti agnanayon a tagainep nga itan nakraayan
kas maiwaris a dap a i
ti i
ti lagip dagiti nakuspag nga annak a nanglipaten?
adda kadi naulimek nga dailangna, agsursurat iti pusona kadagiti duayya nga awanan balikas
wenno sangsangitanna dagiti naglumen a deggang, mangbirbirok iti nabayagen a nagpukaw a nadiosan?

On the other hand, the poem has 13 punctuations and 18 punctuations at the end and within the lines respectively. With its 17 couplets or 34 lines and 13 end punctuations, the poem is said to be enjambed. The last lines of the second, sixth, eighth, 10th, 12th, 16th and 17th couplets; first lines of the fifth and 15th couplets are end-stopped lines as indicated by period and question mark. These identified end-stopped lines mark the end of the ideas for all the lines they are connected. Other end-stopped lines are also indicated by the three successive hyphens (indicating long pause and suspense) and commas.

Finally, the commas within the lines indicate brief pauses and such are strong caesuras. The commas also indicate fragmented thought with related lines. The commas also add dramatic effect to the poet which makes the tone and mood of the poem easier to ascertain. The colons, though another indication of caesura, do not only suggest pauses but also suspense of ideas. Last, the poet did not use any capital letters in any of the lines of his poem. This perhaps, aside from it is his style, manifests that equal significance of every line in conveying the message of the poem.

Essem

Persona. The first two lines of the first stanza create confusion in identifying the persona; this makes it difficult to identify the persona. Moments like these encourage readers to rethink our initial assumptions, and upon rereading, they notice other instances in which the speaker points out the potential for first impressions to be false (Hazelton, 2014). Hence, to indentify the persona, readers need to decipher two things.

First is to know for whom the lines are addressed to. Given the persona’s statement, ti sabong (symbolically referring to a lady) saan nga agukrad, it can be said that the lines are addressed to a lady. Second is to know where the lines are coming from or whose perspective the lines are. Since the lines are pieces of advice, it can be said that the persona is mature. Again, the age of the persona is questionable. Since the lines are full of symbolisms and figurative languages, the persona is old but not too old to be called elderly. Using symbolisms and figurative language is not common among the younger generation. It is common among parents or people with parent image.

Further, to tell whether the persona is a father or mother is difficult because of the fact that any of the parents can give advice. The remaining action is to know the sex of the parent that most children approach in times of problem. Most of the time, most children approach their mothers. Hence, the persona is a mother and the person she is talking to is her daughter as sabong symbolizes. Nevertheless, telling that the persona is a mother may be debatable, but the only consolation is to tell that the persona is a parent.
**Tone and Mood.** The poem starts with the word *dimo* which suggests an order or command. However, the lines, *dimo timuden pay pasidumri ti kulibangbang*, sounds like a request not an order with the word *koma*. Given this perspective, the serious tone and mood of the poem can be felt.

As one continues to read the poem, he or she will come across the more serious lines such as *nasken ti kanta kas ibit a mamagungar iti nagleppes a langit* and *nasken sugat a mangtignay iti kidser ti lasag*. The word *nasken* implies necessity; thus, suggesting seriousness.

In conclusion, the poet creates the tone using particular syntax, setting and structure (Prudchenko, 2016). Though tone and mood are closely related, the tone tends to be associated with the poem’s voice (Prudchenko, 2016).

**Rhyme and Rhythm.** The poem is composed of two stanzas with eleven lines each. The first stanza has aabccdaaadd rhyme scheme while the second stanza has abccaaaaa rhyme scheme. If the general rhyme scheme of the poem is gotten, the poem’s rhyme scheme is aabccdaaadd aabccdaadd adccca. Further, the lines in each stanza have no consistent number of words or the lengths of the lines are different. As a result, the poem has no consistent feet and meter. Nevertheless, the poet managed to write this poem in a way that it cannot be classified as free verse since the poem has rhyme scheme.

**Figures of Speech.** The three figures of speech that are perceivable in the poem are simile, personification and assonance.

**Simile.** Simile is identified through the expression *kas* for example *iti saklot ti ngatangata nasken ti kanta kas ibit a mamagungar iti nagleppes a langit*. The example makes a direct comparison between *kanta* and *ibit*. In the example, the persona is telling the necessity to accept explanation (*kanta*) in times of doubt (*ngatangata*) which in return regains trust; thus, the daughter will give second chance to her lover.

**Personification.** Most of the personifications are found in the second stanza. These include *adda dagiti sugat a di mapaglunnit ti panawen*, *sugat a mangtignay iti kidser ti lasag*, *mangkimay ti narmeke n a resga*, and *maipasngay nga agsapa*. The first example personifies *panawen*, as if it has the power to heal, through *mapaglunnit*. The second and third examples personify *sugat* through *mangtignay* and *mangkimay*. The last example personifies *agsapa*, as if it can be born, through *maipasngay*. Briefly, the persona is talking about the pain brought about by love problem and is telling the necessity of experiencing pain in order to become stronger for the next chapter of life.

**Assonance.** Last figure of speech in the poem is assonance. The poet may not be aware of the repetition of the vowel sounds in the different lines because Ilocano words compared to English language seem to have consistent vowel sounds, and they sound similarly with each other. Ilokano speakers may not be aware of this consistency or similarity of sound among Ilokano words. Nonetheless, just like the other poems of the Mr. Duque, he used assonance to create an internal rhyme in the poem which in return helps in establishing the poem’s tone and mood. Hence, rhyme is used to deepen meaning; rhyming two or more words draws attention to them and connects them in the reader's mind (Vctor, 2015).

(i)

*dimo kona timuden pay pasidumri ti kulibangbang ti sabong saan nga agukrad iti malem: saan a rosas, wen ti maris dagiti kuko ti agpatag iti saklot ti ngatangata nasken ti kanta kas ibit a mamagungar iti nagleppes a langit.*

**Symbolism.** Most of the symbolisms are found in the first stanza. In fact, the first stanza indicates two major symbolisms: *sabong* and *kulibangbang*. The former stands for lady specifically the persona’s daughter while the latter stands for man. Other symbolisms from the first stanza are *malem, rosas, rosas a maris, kanta, and nagleppes langit*. The last symbolism in the poem is located in the last stanza and this is *maipasngay nga agsapa*.

*Malem* symbolizes problem, silence and ending. *Rosas* means love. *Kanta* is explanation or something that helps ease pain. On one hand, *nagleppes a langit* stands for lost trust and hope. Last, *maipasngay nga agsapa* stands for new beginning or hope.
The symbolisms used give the poet freedom to add double levels of meanings to his work: a literal one that is self-evident and the symbolic one whose meaning is far more profound than the literal one (literarydevices.net, 2016). The symbolisms evoke interest in readers as they find an opportunity to get an insight of the writer’s mind on how he views the world and how he thinks of common objects and actions, having broader implications (literarydevices.net, 2016).

**Imagery.** In this poem, the poet symbolically used the imageries. In the first stanza, a sulking butterfly which is referring to man or a lover, a flower referring to a lady or the persona’s daughter, someone who is hurt and doubting and dark surrounding (nagleppes a langit) are symbolically illustrated. In the second stanza, a wound is also illustrated and symbolically illustrated as something that can make one stronger. Nevertheless, the poet did not present the imageries like the imageries in his previous poems, but this deviation of style makes the poem puzzling.

**Theme.** Using the discussions under the previous subheadings, the poem’s meaning or message is discussed in the succeeding sentences or paragraph. The first two lines of the first stanza talk about the sulking of the man and also imply the persona’s request for her daughter to forget about her pride. Then, the persona is telling her daughter, in the third and fourth lines, that she will not be okay in the midst of her problem.

Further, the persona is saying in the fifth, sixth and seventh lines that her daughter will feel pain instead of love in her silence and if she continues with her pride. The last four lines of the first stanza talk about the persona’s advice for her daughter to ask for and listen to her lover’s explanation in order to remove her doubt and for the man to regain her trust. The last stanza discusses the pain that time cannot heal and the significance of pain in becoming a better and stronger person towards new beginning. In conclusion, the poem talks about the persona’s desire (essem) to cheer up her daughter and to expose to her the reality behind pain and relationship.

Based on the above discussions, the poet expresses his theme, which love and forgiveness, through the feelings of his main character about the subject he has chosen to write about (literarydevices.net, 2016). The experiences of the main character in the course of… the poem give readers an idea about its theme (literarydevices.net, 2016).

**Syntax.** In shaping the poem, the poet, through the persona, used words that reinforce and oppose each other. First of these words are agpatnag and nagleppes a langit. They both illustrate the absence of light which in return connotes the persona’s point about the consequence of doubting and misunderstanding. The second words that reinforce each other are saem and sugat. Sugat is used in the poem twice. Using sugat and saem together in one stanza makes an impression that the poet wants to emphasize the pain and its positive effect. The positive effects of these words are the focus of the second stanza. Last, the poet used two opposing phrases at the end of the stanzas: nagleppes a langit and maipasngay nga agsapa. These opposing phrases are used to emphasize the persona’s point about moving on from the pains of yesterday. Hence, syntax aims to affect the readers as well as express the writer’s attitude (literarydevices.net, 2016).

The poet again used lowercase letters in his poem. Using lowercase letter again is another support to the distinguishing style of the poet. However, it may also add effect to the tone and mood of the poet; it may also mean that each line should be taken with equal significance. Finally, it speaks of the calmness of the persona in talking to the poem’s subject.

In addition, the first and second stanzas contain two similar end punctuations: colon and period. Both stanzas also contain similar middle punctuation, and that is comma. The periods at the end of both stanzas imply that the whole stanzas have independent thoughts and that the poem is enjambed. The colons also imply a strong caesura and enjambment, but more than those they imply that significant ideas are coming next.

Finally, the commas in both stanzas suggest again a brief pause and give dramatic effect to the lines. Nonetheless, the limited end punctuations in each line suggest fast pace and limited pauses, and give an impression that the readers are compelled to read the poem without stopping. The thoughts affirm the manifestation of WW, Aeras, & Jeremiah (2011) that not using punctuation on a line end or in an entire poem often speaks of a fast pace and limited pause; that comma provides a very brief pause.
Defamiliarization refers to making objects unfamiliar to make forms difficult and to increase the difficulty and length of perception because the process of perception is an aesthetic end in itself and must be prolonged (Victor Shklovsky, 1916). Simply put, it talks about the techniques used by the poet in making his poems suitable for the taste of the contemporary readers. It can be done by giving new flavor to literary devices; hence, modifying if not deviating from the conventions of poem writing. Nevertheless, the discussions below tackle how the poet defamiliarized his selected contemporary poems.

In the case of personae of the selected poems, the poet defamiliarized those by presenting most of them using the third person point of view which makes it difficult to determine the personae’s descriptions. By identifying some symbolisms and clues only then one can decipher the personae’s descriptions. This means that the poet used words, descriptions and symbolisms to indirectly tell the personae’s descriptions.

Furthermore, the lines of the poems do not give immediate reference for the readers to identify the personae. For example, eva and adan in the second to the last stanza of the poem Malem: Iti Uksob a Kadaratan help the readers decode the persona’s description, but these hints are not found in the very beginning of the poem. The other stanzas of the poems prolong the perception of the persona’s description.

In the poem Essem the first two lines of the poem’s first stanza which were written below also create confusion with regard the point of the persona. At first, readers may tell that the persona is speaking from a third person perspective but actually it is in the first person point of view because the lines are indirect address from a first person’s perspective. In this way, a work is created “artistically” so that its perception is impeded and the greatest possible effect is produced through the slowness of the perception (Shklovsky, 1965).

dimo koma rimuden pay
pasidamri ti kulibbangbang

The poet’s choice of words, focus of attention and attitudes also indicate the age, perspective and identity not only of the persona but also the identity of the poems’ subjects. Like in the poem Kayumanggi a Babae Dagiti Siglo, the persona’s perspective and poem’s subject identity are emphasized through the poet’s use of words that gives focus to them. In the lines taken from the poem, the poet used kubbo, kuretret a rupa, karenkenen nga ima, mapurar a mata and eppes a barukong that emphasize subject of the poem.

nakaug-uimek, kubbo piman a nakatugaw
iti maudi a pangal ti agdan a tumapaw
kuretret a rupa, karenkenen nga ima, mapurar a mata a nalanay iti dupag dagiti simanar nga impalay ti panawan iti eppes a barukong a nagnutnotan iti biag ti eternidad kenkuana?

In addition, the poet also used descriptions and images through the series of imageary and figures of speech not to prolong—in some case, they prolong— but to guide the readers in decoding the meaning of the poem; thus, making the readers approach the text in different perspective. The poet use words and images new to readers and create a sense of surprise and freshness (Manqiong, 2008).

adda dungeno a yagek ti kappo
a nagukap iti natikag a darat
adda uleg nga ipitik kampanario
a tuodan iti addang ti agpatnag
adda imnas a yallatiw ni angalo
iti tarukoy ni aran nga agsun-ub
iti asep ti mapuoran nga insenso
di marigatan ti pluma a sumagpat!

The stanza from the poem Kursitan Iluko, personification can be seen in almost all of the lines in the poem. Kapo, as indicated by dunggo, is presented in the first line as something that can display affection. Another example of personification also is addang ti agpatnag. Agpatnag personified by addang. In this example, agpatnag is depicted as something that has step (addang). The images used in the poem like natikag a darat and mapuoran nga insenso provoke imagination which compels the readers to confront their schema of the images created. However, if they have limited knowledge of the images, their understanding of the meaning of the images and the poems’ themes are impeded. Hence, readers must be familiar with the images for them to understand the poems in not much long period of time; since the purpose of image is to remind us, by approximation, of those meanings for which the image stands, and since, apart form this imagery is unnecessary for
thought, we must be familiar with the image than with what it clarifies (Lenon & Reis, 1965).

Furthermore, using the different figures of speech and deep Ilokano vocabulary in the poems is by nature an act defamiliarizing the text because readers are extracted from the usual languages of communication and are exposed to difficult language that are not meant to be interpreted literally. In fact, the pioneer of defamiliarization who is Shlovsky (1965) underscored the same idea by manifesting that defamiliarization can be achieved through the used of difficult language. This in return forces the reader to become a more active participant in the process by having to make an extra effort to decode the strange and exotic words in order to understand the poem (Shlovsky, 1965).

Moreover, the readers need to confront and decipher the symbolisms as these are imperative in understanding the poems’ themes. The symbolisms again like the poems’ figures of speech and imageries are indirect ways of the poet in presenting the poems’ tones, moods and themes. For example, from the title of the poem Malem: Iti Uksob a Kadaratan, two symbolisms can be identified: uksob a kadaratan and malem. Uksob a kadaratan refer to the innocent environment of the persona and his lover; their environment includes the people who are not aware of the status of their relationship. Malem together with tangep stands for the parting of the two lovers or perhaps end of their relationship.

Another example of symbolism is those found in the poem Essem. The first stanza indicates two major symbolisms: sabong and kulibangbang. The former stands for lady specifically the persona’s daughter while the latter stands for man. Other symbolisms from the first stanza are malem, rosas, rosas a maris, kanta, and nagleppes langit. The last symbolism in the poem is located in the last stanza and this is maipasngay nga agsapa. Malem symbolizes problem, silence and ending. Rosas means love. Kanta is explanation or something that helps ease pain. On one hand, nagleppes a langit stands for lost trust and hope. Last, maipasngay nga agsapa stands for new beginning or hope.

The symbolisms in the different poems extract also the readers from the environment of ordinary language and thus impeding the immediate understanding of the poem. This act of defamiliarization causes the audience to confront the object on a different level, elevating and transforming it from something ordinary or practical into work that is considered art… and does not only forces the audience to see a work of literature as an art but also allows the author and audience to distance themselves from the seriousness of the message so that the piece can be enjoyed as art and does not become just another political rant (Torabi, 2010).

On the other hand, the poems of Mr. Duque are also defamiliarized because of the poems’ meters, rhymes, rhythms, stanza, verses and feet. His style in writing the poems are unpredictable since one poem is different from the other when it comes to the mentioned literary devices. For example, in his poem he was able to put the three subtitles namely Santa Maria, Suso ni Aran and Kuditan Iluko that featurize Ilokano culture specifically that of Santa Maria, Ilocos Sur. Another example is his style in shaping the poem Ti Nalipatan a Mannaniw. He presented a new flavor too poetry through the two tercets in the first and last stanzas; by the quatrains in the poem. These presentations of the stanzas are new and far from the conventional and most common forms of poems.

The poems of Mr. Duque also cannot be classified as free verse or any form of poetry because of his unique presentation of the devices mentioned above. For example, his poems have no consistent kinds of verses but there are dominating kinds as shown in the lines below; there are also rhyme schemes that are different from the conventional rhyme schemes as shown in the lines after this paragraph. These are also ways to make the object strange and unfamiliar so that the piece is transformed … to extraordinary art (Torabi, 2010). Nonetheless, the poems manifest the fact that Mr. Duque explored all the possibilities and thus experimented on the different conventions of poetry writing in order to make his poems different from other writers of his age.
**Dulang ti Konsensia**

First Couplet

\[
makalmes, \text{ kas iti mangliwengliweng (a) } \\
a taw. \text{ ti nakadasar a taraon (b)}
\]

Fourth Couplet

\[
dagiti platoda, \text{ saan a mabarawidan (a) } \\
kas pagsasao dagiti duduogan (a)
\]

Malem: Iti Uksob a Kadaratan

\[
\text{umadanin ti tangep. iti naglaga a dakulapta (a) } \\
\text{adda labong a naappupo: timek babassit (b) } \\
\text{nga anghel iti tapliak dagiti dalluyon. (c)}
\]

When it comes to the syntax of the poem, the reinforcing, repeated or synonymous words together with the similar ending and starting words of the poems that belong to the same categories manifest the poet’s observance of parallelsism of ideas in the poem. For example, in the poem Ayat: 7 a Talukatik, the first lines of the couplets end with verbs and a verb phrase. The verbs sinugatak, dinungdung-awam, ginuranak, inlunod, and impusaynak end the first lines of the first, third, fourth, fifth, sixth and seventh couplets. The phrase intanemnak ken ni tagilipat ends the second couplet. These words together with the starting words of the couplets show that there is parallelism of ideas in the poem.

(i) Namin-ano kadin a gundaway a sinugatnak?
   Bilangem amin kadagiti panangum-umbim kaniak.

(ii) Namin-ano kadin a siak ti dinungdung-awam?
    Bilangem iti kaadu rayray-awmo ken katkatawam.

(iv) Namin-ano kadin a gundaway a ginuranak?
    Bilangem iti dagup amin a kinadungngom kaniak.

(v) Namin-ano kadin a daras a siak ti inka inlunod?
    Bilangem kadagiti babassit a pidilmo ken kuddot.

The purpose of parallelism, like the general purpose of imagery, is to transfer the usual perception of an object into the sphere of new perception - that is, to make a unique semantic modification (Shklovsky, 1965). The enjambments though the punctuations is another way which allows the ideas of the poem to flow smoothly; hence, increasing the length of perception (Shklovsky, 1965). For example, the series of enjambments used in the poem *Dulang ti Konsensia* and as illustrated below lengthen the process of understanding of the poem since the readers need to see where the stanzas end. In the lines from the poem, the thought of first stanza ends in the first line of the second stanza while the second stanza’s thought ends in the fifth stanza.

makalmes, kas iti mangliwengliweng
a taw; ti nakadasar a taraon

kadagiti lamisaan. nakapila dagiti mabisin
awan nakaidumaanda kadagiti nakapupok

iti aquarium a piranha nga agu-uray
iti batangda a sumakrab: napissuol

dagiti platoda, saan a mabarawidan
kas pagsasao dagiti duduogan

sadiay bagani ubbog. ti laeng adatna,
dida maibus uray kagudua la koma

Above all, the devices all effectuate retardation in the reading process and consequently an intensified perception (Cronjé, 1986). In general, the devices have been skillfully applied in such a way that the subject-matter is highlighted (Cronjé, 1986). In other words, the retardation and consequent intensified perception occur on occasions when the writer really wants his readers to pay attention to what he has to say... (Cronjé, 1986). Poetry therefore is recognized ... by its ability to make man look with an exceptionally high level of awareness (Lemon & Reis, 1965). Therefore, defamiliarization, as manifested by the devices discussed above, is an effective way of guiding attention (Bohrn, Altmann, Lubrich, Menninghaus & Jacobs 2012); defamiliarization occurs in many guises: it may refer to the content or to the form of a work of art (Webster, 2001).

**Organic Whole**

In the selected contemporary Ilokano poems, eight literary devices were identified: persona; tone and mood; rhyme and rhythm; figures of speech; symbolism; imagery; theme; syntax. Using the framework of organic whole, the interrelationship of the literary devices and how these devices surface the meaning of the poem are discussed below.
**Ti Nalipatan a Mannaniw.** The persona is presented in a way that he or she is describing the gangganaet's situation. The way by which the persona is presented makes the readers feel that the persona is seemingly whispering in their ears or grabs them by the shoulders (Hazelton, 2014). The persona’s direct and detailed descriptions of the gangganaet cultivate the emotions that pervade in the poem; hence, helping the readers in establishing the tone and mood of the poem. The tone and mood of poem are also intensified by the poem’s assonance that creates the poem’s internal rhyme and by the poem’s rhyme scheme. Discerning the rhyme scheme is important because the pattern brings the poem to life and helps the audience feel connected (Bradesca, 2016); rhyme likewise is used to deepen meaning; rhyming two or more words draws attention to them and connects them in the reader’s mind (Bradesca, 2016).

On the other hand, the use of metaphors in the poem helps the poet in establishing the tone and mood of the poem. It helps in intensifying the message of the poem. For example, in the metaphor, sinilong ti papelna, the poet makes a direct comparison between sinilong and papel. When the poet compared sinilong to papel, the poem tells the readers about the educational background of the gangganaet: the gangganaet maybe is an illiterate person or unable to finish his schooling; thus, creating the pitiful tone and mood of the poem as the present condition of the gangganaet suggests.

Meanwhile, the personifications like saklot ti bangkag, which signifies a seemingly permanent condition of being a farmer that the gangganaet cannot defy, are used when an author wants to create a certain mood or emotion in a work of literature (Thomas, 2016).

Moreover, the two identified main symbolisms in the poem which are also imageries illustrate the pitiful and sad tone and mood of the poem: nalutlot and nailet a bit-ang (the first imageries that can be identified in the poem) and nepnep. These symbolisms stand for the hardships (nalutlot a bit-ang), limited opportunity (nailet a bit-ang) in life that one may face, and nepnep stands for the things that make life harder.

Additionally, the repetition of the line agtuloyka latta, ganggannaet in the two stanzas of the poem reinforces the persona’s intention of encouraging the ganggannaet to go on given his difficult circumstances. Together with the words piman and karigatan, the hardship being faced and is described by the persona is emphasized. Further, the poet’s style of using lowercase letters in his poems signifies that every line in the poem is of equal significance; thus, must be interpreted in relation to each other. The poet is trying to emphasize that each line or word contributes to the functions of the other devices. The tone, mood, figures of speech and imageries, rhyme and rhythm, symbolisms and syntax reinforce the theme of the poem which is hardship of life or effects of poor economic condition. Nonetheless, the poem articulates that even the unrecognized, unfaomous and forgotten man in the society has stories to tell and can survive despite the cruelty that life may offer.

**Santa Maria.** The words used by the poet which are lubid, bato and kampanario are perceived to be associated with male sex. The poet’s choice of word suggests that the persona is a man. The persona is also identified as an old religious person because of the association made between him and the words punganay and tuodan which are perceived to be referring to old age. Since the persona is identified as an old religious man, it can be inferred that poem is something that talks about something holy or related to spiritual life.

In the line, ayab ti tuodan a kampanario, kampanario referring to the bell tower seems to have the ability to speak as indicated by the word ayab or call. The ayab in that phrase is made possible through the sound created by kampanario. The examples of figurative languages in the poem also create the imageries in the poem. Together with the figurative languages, the different imageries create the picture of what is being referred to by the poem; that is the Santa Maria church in Santa Maria, Ilocos Sur. The persona’s way of describing the poem’s subject through the imageries and personifications illuminates the calm and peaceful tone and mood that pervade in the poem. The internal rhyme created by assonance, the pervading kind of verse and the poem’s rhyme scheme further intensify the sedateness of the poem.

Furthermore, the symbolisms as enforced by the figures of speech, imageries, tone and mood are derived from the poem’s subject, the Santa Maria church. The poem’s imageries and personifications being mentioned through the persona symbolically suggest deeper meaning of the poem aside from
merely describing Santa Maria church. For example, *Lubid* may refer to the connection or relationship of people from different walks and ages of life. Hence, the phrase, *masiglot ti lubid*, means coming together of people with one purpose. On one hand, *dangan ti dakulap* may refer to individuality and diversity among people. Thus, the lines, *masiglot ti lubid ti punganay* and *iti dangan ti dakulap*, may be interpreted as the coming together of diverse people as result of one purpose.

The message of the poem is also reinforced by the only punctuation in the poem. Period is the only visible punctuation mark which is located in the last line of the poem. Since the poem is considered as one stanza, specifically an octave stanza, the period is used to wrap up the stanza’s central thought. This gives the impression that the persona is emphasizing one message to the reader especially that the poem is written using lowercase letters. The lowercase letters give equal emphasis to all the lines in the poem.

Aside from using lowercase letters and one punctuation, the poet through the persona is able to emphasize the theme or message of the poem through parallelism. The unique and creative technique of the poet in manifesting parallelism of ideas and lines—in lines one, three, five and seven of the poem end with adjectives: *punganay, malpay, lingay, and nadarisay* respectively; lines two, four, six and eight of the poem end with nouns: *dakulap, templo, bato, and kampanario* respectively—is a highly effective poetic device for deepening thematic meanings (meaning of the poem in this study) (Stratford, 2016).

As a result, joining together all the elements manifests the theme and message of the poem. Therefore, the poem articulates that people, with one mission in life and with God, can still unite despite diversity and uniqueness among them.

**Suso ni Aran.** The images created in the lines, *maitugkel ti raya ti tikag* and *iti kappo nga inukap ti darat*, which illustrate a seashell which was opened because of the hot weather manifest the setting of the poem and its persona. The persona portrays the romance and temptation (the poem’s tone and mood) between *aran* and *angalo*. The temptation and romance being told by the persona are intensified by the symbolisms. For example, *raya ti tikag* depicts hot weather. When temptation and romance are being talk about, an intense feeling or emotion related to feeling of hotness is manifested.

Furthermore, the figurative languages through imageries portray the poem’s tone and mood. For example, the lines, *agdallot ti tangrib iti siplag and ti allon nga iti tarukoy agkamat*, picture the sound produced by the impact of the *allon* to the *tangrib*. The latter line also depicts a crab (*tarukoy*) being followed by the waves (*allon*). The lines can be interpreted as a picture of someone who is being tempted.

Symbolisms in the poem also reinforce the poem’s tone and mood. *Kappo* and *tarukoy* may refer to the people facing many temptations in their lives. On one hand, *raya ti tikag* and *allon* may refer to the temptations and romance. With these symbolisms, the deeper meaning, tone and mood of the poem can be inferred.

Moreover, the internal rhyme through assonance, pervading kind of verse and rhyme scheme create a melody that jive with the situation of the two fictional characters in the poem. The period in the last line of the poem dictates the readers to read the poem without stopping which in turn makes the readers gasp especially when the poem is read aloud. Using comma in the poem is an additional factor to portray the difficulty in breathing when one is drowning (*malmes*). The gasping effect of reading is one way by which the poet conveys the poem’s tone and mood. Reinforcing words like *alimbasagen, malmes* and *agsung-ab* intensify the romance and temptation in the poem.

Nevertheless, the poem is telling, more than merely describing the Suso Mountain or situations of the two fictional characters, that people must observe temperance amidst the temptations that surround them.

**Kurditan Iluko.** In the poem, two possible descriptions of the persona can be extracted: Mr. Duque and Ilokano literature. Despite these two identities of the persona, a strong connection between the reader and the poem through the persona can still be felt. Persona is seemingly reciting the poem loudly, as if delivering a speech. The presence of the exclamation point in the last line of the poem suggests the intensity of emotion in the poem; it gives hopeful and positive feeling. The lowercase letters together with the exclamation point suggest the need for the poem without stopping and with a degree of seriousness; it also tells the readers to read every line
with the same degree of significance. These feelings contradict the feelings or emotions illustrated in the line, _iti asep ti mapuoran nga insenso_. The line can also be associated with difficulty in breathing because of the smoke of the _insenso_.

Additionally, the poem’s tone and mood are also exemplified through personification. In the example of personification which is _addang ti agpatnag_, _agpatnag_ is depicted as something that has _step (addang)_. This example is referring to the time of the whole night; hence, implying a silent and safe atmosphere surrounding the poem. The silent atmosphere can also be associated to solemnity.

Furthermore, the rhyme and rhythm created by assonance, the poem’s rhyme scheme and the pervading kind of verse maintain the poem’s tone and mood. The melody of the poem intensifies the tone and mood as being manifested by the persona.

Considering also the different imageries and the poem’s title which gives a clue that the poem is about Ilokano literature, different symbolisms are identified. Meanings of these symbolisms can be identified if the images, tone and mood are uncovered. The symbolisms are _natikag a darat_, _kappo_; _kampanario_ and _addang ti agpatnag_; _angalo_ and _tarukoy ni aran_; _insenso_, _asep ti insenso_, and _pluma_.

Finally, the poem calls the Ilokanos to recognize, support and patronize their literature not only for regional identity but also for cultural preservation.

**Ayar: 7 a Talukatik.** When the poet emphasized _Ay-ayatek_ in the line, _Naming-anon kadin, Ay-ayatek, nga impusaynak_, readers are given the idea that the persona is a lover. However, the sex of the persona cannot be identified with that line alone. The readers need to look for clues. The imageries created by _babassit a pidilmo and kuddot mo_ which are usually acts of a lady lover make the readers ascertain that the persona is a male lover.

When the persona speaks in the poem and use the words _sinugatnak_, _panangum-umbim_, _intanenmak ken tagilipat_, _dinungdung-awam_ and _inlunod_, readers can already feel the pain of the persona. The pain being felt by the persona is also intensified by his repition of the words _namin-anon_ and _bilangem_ in the beginning of the couplets and which illustrate anaphora. The repetition of those words also helps the readers to feel the degree of pain being conveyed by the persona. When the poet used juxtaposition of contrasting ideas, the pain accompanied by sarcasm can also be felt. The cataphoric reference to _ay-ayatek_ specifies the only person being referred to by the persona. This cataphora directs the readers to the one who caused persona’s pain.

Additionally, the images of a happy lady and a loving lady in the lines, _Bilangem iti kaadu rayray-awmo ken karkatawam_ and _Bilangem iti dagup amin a kinadungngom kaniak_, support the pain and sarcasm that are pervading in the poem. The sarcasm is made when the lines picturing pleasant conditions are followed by unpleasant conditions. The sarcasm is also discernable because the poet used more question marks and periods compared to comma in the first and second lines of every couplet respectively. The persona is giving an impression that he is commanding the _ay-ayatek_ to do immediately what he says.

- a. _Namin-anon kadin a siak ti dinungdung-awam?_- This depicts a crying lady.
- b. _Namin-anon kadin a gundaway a ginuranak?-_ This depicts the lady who hates the persona.

Moreover, the internal rhyme through assonance, pervading verse and rhyme scheme of the poem create a melody that jives with the tone and mood of the poem. As this melody plays in every line, the symbolisms expressed figuratively are understood in relation to the tone and mood of the poem; then, the poem’s theme which is love, specifically the pain of loving, is surfaced.

Through the images, —as reinforced by the other seven devices and are created by the seven couplets of the poem which talk about the experience or feeling of the persona— readers can tell that the poem is talking about a love full of misery and pain; the poem also highlights that sweet memories have the power to turn pains and miseries into smile.

**Malem: Iti Uksob a Kadaratan.** In the poem, the poet used two biblical characters: _Eva_ and _Adan_. This allusion directs the readers to the identity of the persona who is a lover and a man. The line, _inakbay ti kinasutil dagiti takaw a darikmat_, gives further description of the persona that is a man who is involved in a forbidden relationship. The line, _adda innalam_; _adda inawatko_, also shows that the persona is portrayed in the first person point of view. This point
of view creates a more intimate tone and mood of the poem and relationship between the persona and his lover.

The first line of the poem, umadanin ti tangep, connotes ending or parting. The connotation made in the first line manifests that sad and melancholic tone and mood of the poem. The internal rhyme through assonance, rhyme schemes of the tercets and the pervading verse give melody that supports the poem’s tone and mood.

Furthermore, the imageries from the poem and which are also identified as reinforcing words like umadin ti tangep, iti pingping ti langit adda rosas and sakhay a masipngetan ti dalan that picture a landscape of the setting sun and a darkening surrounding suggest the melancholic or sad tone and mood of the poem. The different line breaks indicated by the different punctuation marks create suspense to the flow of thoughts in the poem. These line breaks seemingly give the readers the feeling that something significant is coming after every line or stanza.

Additionally, different symbolisms surfaced by the poem’s tone, mood and imageries manifest the theme of the poem. For example, when the persona tells that umadanin ti tangep and wen, agtangepen, he is telling his lover that their limited or stolen time (tinakaw a darikmat) is ending. The mentioned lines, for example, tell that the poem is about forbidden relationship or love. Another symbolism that also supports the claim about the end of the lovers’ relationship is lemma. In the line, bay-anta a mabati lemma a di mapunas, lemma may actually refer to the pain of breaking up. The persona is telling his lover to live the painful memory that cannot be forgotten to where they are; they will separately start a new life. In relation to this, the persona is telling his lover in the line, inta, imnas. sakhay a masipngetan ti dalan, the negative circumstance that may happen should they continue their love affair.

Nevertheless, the poem tells the readers about the consequences of being a forbidden relationship. The consequence of the relationship maybe favorable or unfavorable to both parties, but the relationship must end.

Dulang ti Konsensia. The persona in the poem is the poet himself as supported by the words used by the poet like bagani ubbog referring to his place of origin and malagipko. The persona creates an idea of the poet having an emotional attachment to the topic of the poem. The images created based on the persona’s subjects in the poem suggest the serious tone and mood of the poem. The first six couplets, through the persona, illustrate the images in an occasion in which there are hungry people who get food that is more than what they can eat and who are compared to piranha in the aquarium. Then, the first six couplets are followed by other couplets which make the readers ascertain that the persona is condemning an unpleasant action. Pungtot, makaparasuk and rumbeng also reinforce and describe the persona’s anger and also reinforce the poem’s tone and mood. Hence, the images created which are based on the persona’s subjects in the poem suggest the serious tone and mood of the poem.

In addition, the examples of simile support the tone and mood of the poem. For example, the persona talks about bountiful resources of the first country that are being wasted in the simile, maibelleng laeng dagitoy (referring to the food on the plates) a kas basura. The internal rhyme through assonance, rhyme schemes of the tercets and the pervading verse produce a melody that also supports the poem’s tone and mood. The identified symbolisms, as interpreted in the light of the imageries and similes, surface the theme of the poem. For example, the poet is trying to tell the readers about economic and societal stability which is a prelude to instability when the persona presented dulang as full of food then illustrated lines of hungry people as the line nakapila dagiti mabisin suggests. The images in the poem lucidly surfaced the meaning of the comparison made among the people lining up for food, piranhas and third and first world countries’ people. The symbolisms and the words apalpalama, mangurkuranges and third country are words that imply poor economic condition.

Succinctly, the discussions above reveal that the poem is talking lucidly about the exploitive, abusive, insensitive and selfish nature of people as a result of economic stability or instability of people.

Kayumanggi a Babai Dagiti Siglo. The persona is describing the subject of the poem through the personifications and imageries used. The persona’s act of narrating pictures clearly the poem’s subject. The first picture that can be visualized from the first couplet is a hunchback sitting on a step of a stair. The second couplet suggests a silent auditory image as the lines, iti umel, napno iti mensahe a ruangan and sipupuso nga aw-awaganna iti pagtaengan suggest.
Then the physical attributes of the hunchback is described from the third to the sixth couplet. The descriptions like wrinkled hands and face together with the hunchbacked description in the first couplet tell that the poem’s subject is an old person.

Using also those descriptions together with the nagnutnotan (making reference to mother’s breasts) iti biag ti eternidad makes it clear that the poem’s subject is actually an old lady. In the phrase agpakakada nga init the poet personifies the init through the use of agpakakada that further surfaces the age of the lady. The poem’s title suggests the same sex of the poem’s subject.

Further, the words and phrases like kubbo, maudi a pangal ti aqdan a tumapaw, kuretret a rupa, eppes a barukongna and mapurar a mata reinforce each other to illustrate the description of the poem’s subject. Panagmaymaysa and agmaymaysa together with the mentioned words manifest also the pitiful condition of poem’s subject given her age. This supports the claim on the tone and mood of the poem. The different line breaks indicated by the punctuation marks also add to the atmosphere in the poem. The internal rhymes, rhyme and rhythm likewise enforce the tone and mood.

In addition, the tone and mood of the poem are also suggested by the imageries, antithesis, paradox and simile. The old lady’s seemingly fake smile in the seventh stanza, a sob pictured in the second line of the same couplet; the picture of the crying and sad old lady in the eighth couplet; the poem’s subject pictured as someone staring at something in the ninth couplet suggest that serious tone and mood encompassing the poem. As shown by the poet’s use of the naulimek a protesta, paradox is used and is describing inem-eman a saning-i (silent cries or sentiments). On one hand, simile is manifested by the word kas to show the comparison between dapo or ash and ti laqip dagiti nakuspag nga annak or memories of the old lady’s children. This simile is telling that those memories of the children of the poem’s subject are just like those untraceable dapo once blown by air. Both figures of speech suggest the pitiful environment surrounding the poem.

Moreover, the situation and condition of the poem’s subject are enforced by the symbolisms used in the poem. These symbolisms are understood in the light of the poem’s mood, tone, figures of speech and imageries. The following symbolisms illustrate the claim:

a. Maudi a pangal ti agdan a tumapaw symbolizes old age or aging.
b. Pagtaengan (house) stands for those people who can be someone’s comfort, benefactor or refuge. The act of the old lady’s calling for someone from pagtaengan or house means that she longs for affection. This is also reinforced by the closed ruangan or door in the second couplet which speaks of the reality that most people ignore opportunities and the needy.

With the discussions above, the poet clearly manifests the pitiful condition of the old lady. This condition tells that the society’s nature, specifically the people, of forgetting those who in one way or the other helped them. This does not only talk about gratitude indebtedness but also about society’s inability to recognize those unfamous and nameless people who contributed something for the society’s benefit; thus, they can be considered venerable.

Essem. Through the persona, words that reinforce and oppose each other and figuratively and symbolically create imageries are used. First of these words are agpatnag and nagleppes a langit that illustrate the absence of light which in return connotes the persona’s point about the consequence of doubting and misunderstanding. The second words that reinforce each other are saem and sugat to emphasize the pain and its positive effect. Last, the poet used two opposing phrases at the end of the stanzas—nagleppes a langit and maipasngay nga agsapa— to emphasize the persona’s point about moving on from the pains of yesterday.

The discussions above create the serious tone and mood of the poem. The melody created by the rhyme scheme and internal rhyme through assonance intensifies the seriousness in the poem. The enjambments in the poem as manifested by 11 lines in the two stanzas also make the readers feel every line of the poem with the same degree of seriousness.

Further, the seriousness in the poem is manifested by the persona in the identified simile in the line, iti saklot ti ngatangata nasken ti kanta kas ibit a mamagungar iti nagleppes a langit, which speaks of necessity to
accept explanation (*kanta*) in times of doubt (ngatangata) which in return regains trust. The personifications in the poem create also the serious tone and mood of the poem; these include *adda dagiti sugat a di mapaglunnit ti panaven, sugat a mangtignay iti kidser ti lasag, mangkimmay ti narnaekan a resga,* and *maipasngay nga agsapa;* briefly, the persona is talking about the pain brought about by love problem and is telling the necessity of experiencing pain in order to become stronger for the next chapter of life. With these discussions, the poem’s theme which is love is manifested.

Therefore, the poem is telling—through the indirect address of the persona to her daughter that *sabong* implies—that people need someone who will make them realize their mistakes. Most importantly, the poem is telling the significance of listening, understanding, and moving on in the light of misunderstanding and problem.

From the discussions of the organic whole of every poem, the poems’ meanings develop and surface from the discussions of all the devices. This means that the poems’ themes or meaning gradually surfaces as the devices are discussed one after the other. The meaning of the poem progresses as the eight devices are being decoded. Each device gives a clue to the meaning of the poems. This means that the eight devices must be understood in relation to each other; hence, the devices do not mean anything if taken separately. This asserts the proposition that all parts of a poem are interrelated and interconnected, with each part reflecting and helping to support the poem’s central idea. ...allows for the harmonization of conflicting ideas, feelings, and attitudes (Liu, n.d); thus, gives the work a feeling of completeness (Liu, n.d).

5. CONCLUSION
The objectives of the study are to determine the literary devices employed by the poet in his selected contemporary Ilokano poems; to determine how the poet defamiliarized the poems; to determine how each literary device helped each other in conveying the message of the poem. With those objectives of the study, the following conclusions are forwarded:

1. The personae of the poem were presented using the third person point of view; the tones and moods are serious; the poems have rhyme schemes, are shaped using couplet, tercet, quatrains and octave; the pervading kind of verse is iambic tetrameter; the poet used figures of speech and imagery; the poet also used different symbolisms; the themes of the poems are centered on love, effect of poor economic condition and societal attitude and behaviors; the poet also used repetition and punctuations to indicate different line breaks; last, the poems lack capitalization.

2. Using figures of speech and symbolisms, joining different kinds of stanzas in a poem; using stanzas with distinct rhyme schemes; using repetition and parallelism; applying enjambments; writing using lowercase letters are the ways that the poet used to defamiliarize his poems.

3. In the deciphering the meaning of each poem, requisites must be observed. First, they need to know whose perspective the poem is (persona). Second, they need to identify the figurative languages and imageries in the poems that help surface the poem’s tone and mood. Third, they need to decipher the symbolisms and their meanings. Fourth, they need to identify words that reinforce each other by means of repetition, synonym, and opposition. Fifth, they need to determine the rhyme and rhythm of the poem as they accentuate the poem’s tone and mood. Sixth, they need to decode the interrelationships of the previous requisites in identifying the poem’s theme. Finally, they need to know how the punctuation marks and capitalization or lack of capitalization function in relation to the previous requisites.

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Ranec Asuncion Azarias was born on January 1, 1993 in Cervantes, Ilocos Sur, Philippines. He finished his elementary education at Cervantes Central School, Cervantes, Ilocos Sur, Philippines in 2005. He also finished his secondary education at Saint Agnes School Inc., Concepcion, Cervantes, Ilocos Sur, Philippines in 2009. He pursued his tertiary education at Benguet State University, La Trinidad, Benguet, and successfully graduated with the degree Bachelor of Secondary Education major in English in 2013. Then, he graduated from the
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REFERENCES


Evaluating the Acceptance and Descriptive Usability of the Swahili Coined Terminologies: an Investigation of the ICT Terminologies

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ARTICLE INFO

Received: September 25, 2019
Accepted: October 27, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.45

ABSTRACT

This study aimed at evaluating the acceptance and descriptive usability of the Swahili ICT coined terminologies. Questionnaire, interview and focus group discussion are the tools used in collecting data for this study. The results show that the rate of acceptance and usability of the Swahili ICT coined terms is low where most of the respondents justified that they do not use the Swahili ICT coined terms/words in their daily communication. The study also found that there are different factors for acceptance and usability of the Swahili ICT coined terms which include: lack of community involvement, lack of best strategies to promote the coined terms, coining process for Swahili ICT terms takes long time, presence of competing neologisms which confuse language users, complexity for the coined terms etc. With these findings, deliberate effort should be made to ensure that different factors should be considered in the process of coining different terms in order to avoid having many words which are not used in the daily communication.

KEYWORDS

Information and Communication Technology (ICT), acceptance, usability, coining, terminologies

1. INTRODUCTION

Information and Communication Technology (ICT) has permeated peoples’ daily life for example ICT in financial services, ICT in business sector, ICT in entertainment issues, ICT in education, ICT in government activities and ICT in transportation sector. The integration of ICT in peoples’ daily life has led to the introduction of different new ICT terms in different languages. Mazrui & Mazrui (1995) pointed out that most of the modern science and technology have reached Africa through different European languages. This rapid advancement in science and technology has led to emergence of new concepts that require coining of new terms (neologisms) to the target Languages in Africa. For example, in Tanzania institutions like BAKITA (Baraza la Kiswahili Tanzania), TUKI (Taasisi ya Uchunguzi wa Kiswahili) and Taasisi ya Elimu Tanzania together with individual terminologists have played a great role in the process of coining different Swahili ICT terminologies. In Kenya one of the research institutions Baraza la Kiswahili Kenya (BAKIKE) has also played a great role in coining different terminologies. Some of the Swahili coined words are exemplified in table 1 below:

Table 1: Example of Swahili ICT coined terminologies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Kiswahili</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Download</td>
<td>Kupakua</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Password</td>
<td>nywila</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upload</td>
<td>kupakia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-mail</td>
<td>barua pepe</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Despite these efforts, most of the speakers do not tolerate these coinages. The rate of acceptance and usability for these Swahili coined terms is still questionable as it is not related to the effort that has deliberately been made to coin those terms. Mazrui & Mazrui (1995) contend that there is a general tendency for terminology users to have a preference for borrowed terminology over neologisms which to them appears strange and unfamiliar. Furthermore, Petzel (2005) asserts that the English version of the terms is the most frequently used even though a coined Swahili equivalent exists.

The integration of ICT in education sector is very common nowadays where in different learning institutions people always use different terms related to ICT. Things such as phone and its accessories,
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computer and its accessories, terms related to internet, terms related to software (e.g. Microsoft office such as excel, word, outlook, PowerPoint also Windows XP) are very common in different educational institutions in Tanzania. Although the medium of instruction in secondary and higher learning institutions in Tanzania is English language, still the language used for daily communication is Kiswahili. Therefore, the need to coin different Swahili words for these English new terms used in ICT is very obvious. Thus, scholars have coined different Swahili terms but the challenge is on the acceptability and usability of these Swahili coined terms. This impressed the researcher to conduct the study to evaluate the acceptance and descriptive usability of the Swahili ICT coined terms and find out factors for the acceptance and usability of the Swahili ICT coined terms.

1.1. Statement of the problem

Despite the deliberate effort of coining different Swahili ICT terminologies made by different research institutes (BAKITA, TUKI, and BAKIKE) and different renowned terminologists such as Nabhan, Kapinga, Kahigi etc, still there is a challenge on the acceptability and descriptive usability of the coined terms in the daily communication. The effort made to coin those terms is not related to the speakers’ response where there is a question on the acceptability and usability of most of the coined terms for daily communication. Therefore, the current study is aimed at evaluating the acceptability and descriptive usability of the Swahili ICT coined terms also finding out factors influencing acceptance and usability of these terms.

1.2 Objective of the study

The current is guided by both general objective and specific objectives;

1.2.1 General objective

To evaluate the acceptability and descriptive usability of the Swahili ICT coined terminologies.

1.2.1 Specific objectives

1. To evaluate the extent to which the Swahili ICT coined terminologies are accepted and used in daily communication.
2. To find out factors influencing the acceptance and usability of the Swahili ICT coined terminologies.

1.3. Research questions

1. To what extent the Swahili ICT coined terminologies are accepted and used in daily communication?
2. What are the factors that influence acceptance and usability of the Swahili ICT coined terminologies?

1.4. Significance of the study

The findings from this study can be significant in different angles. One of the significances is to get the feedback of the acceptability and usability of the ICT coined terminologies specifically in SUA community which in turn is to some extent can be useful to different scholars and research institutions.

Also, findings on the factors influencing acceptance and usability of the Swahili ICT coined terms are presented in this study, these factors are useful to terminologists (word coiners) and to those research institutions in the whole process of coining different words. According to the findings from this study, different factors are to be considered in the coining process in order to ensure acceptance and usability of those terms.

2. LITRATURE REVIEW

Different sources related to the current study are reviewed and presented in this section which consists of the following subsections.

2.1 Kiswahili in the Information and Communication Technology (ICT).

In Tanzania since 1967 Kiswahili has been given a role to be used as a language of instruction in primary schools and as an official language (Charles, 2012). It is also one of the languages used in different activities in African Union and East African Community. Therefore, these responsibilities increased the importance of promoting its terminologies including coining different terminologies related to science and technology (Sewangi, 2007). As Mazrui & Mazrui (1995) showed that the modern science and technology from the west has reached Africa through European languages, therefore advancement in Information and Communication Technology has triggered the development of new terms in most of the African languages including Kiswahili. Therefore, there is a deliberate effort made to coin different new terminologies in order to fulfill the need of Swahili terms in the ICT and other roles that it has been given.

Moshi (2006) asserts that efforts that have been made to enable the use of Kiswahili in ICT. Some of the efforts include promoting the growing use of Kiswahili in world media such as the voice of America, Radio Deutsche Welle, BBC radio and Television, Asia radio and TV and in different TV programmes. Kamau (2007) (as cited in Wandera
2015) further contends that Kiswahili language is the only African language that is used by international media houses for broadcasting and publishing. Kiswahili is also used in different advertisements by Vodacom and Celtel (Moshi 2006) and in different versions of programmes (Akinyi and Matu 2011) which also increased pressure on a need to coin different Swahili terms instead of using the borrowed ones.

Furthermore, Kamau (2007) (as cited in Wandera 2015) also shows that two renowned computer software developers, Linux and Microsoft, localised their software to Kiswahili language. Mazrui and Mazrui (1999) (as cited in Wandera 2015) argue that Kiswahili is a language which handles technological terminologies much easier through the method of coinage. Also, Ryanga (2002) reports that some Universities and companies have made efforts to develop Kiswahili glossaries for the ICT sector. Thus, these efforts justify the increase of integration of Kiswahili in ICT.

Moreover, there is a project entitled Ujabinishaji wa office 2003 na Windows XP kwa Kiswahili sanifu (Kahigi 2011) which was implemented in 2004-2005 and the objectives of this project were (1) to prepare computer terms from English to Kiswahili (2) to translate four Microsoft office programmes into Kiswahili (outlook, excel word and Power point) also to translate Windows XP.

Kiswahili is also used in Google where there is an option which allows users to use either English language or Kiswahili. Similarly, there is a localized phone menu and apps from English to Kiswahili. Mpesa Kiswahili app which is a mobile money application (Wandera 2015) is one of the efforts made to integrate Kiswahili language to ICT. Wandera (2015) also reported that Safaricom Company is said to have altered the Kiswahili menu with the aim of making it less complex and hoping that it could in turn attract more acceptability and usability among its users.

Therefore, these studies justify that there are deliberate efforts that have been made to enable the use of Kiswahili in ICT. After the efforts made to coin these different Swahili ICT terms, it is obvious that acceptability and usability of the concerned terms in daily communication is very crucial. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to evaluate the acceptance and usability of these Swahili coined terms.

2.2 Coinages and word formation process
According to Cambridge dictionary, to coin is to invent a new word or expression, or to use one in a particular way for the first time. Also, according to Kinyanjui (2014), coinage is the creation of a totally new word. Therefore, coinage is a word formation process that involves creation of a new word or attaching a new meaning to already existing word and coinages are those formed words. Table 2 presents examples of the coined terms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Swahili coined word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Laptop</td>
<td>Kipakatilishi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Password</td>
<td>Nywila</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>Surupwenye</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Camera</td>
<td>Nyakaso</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Different studies unveiled different criteria that should be used in word coinage for the purpose of depicting the appropriateness, acceptability or rejection of a terminology. For example, a theory of Scientific Terminology which was initiated by Kiingi (1989) has got different criteria that should be considered in a process of coining different words. It includes PEGITOSCA which is acronym of Precision (P), Economy (E), Generativity (G), Internationality (I), Transparency (T), anti-Obscenity (O), Systemicity (S), Consistency (C), and language relative Acceptability (A). Scholars argue that these criteria are used in depicting whether words are formed following scientific methods in order to allow acceptance and usability. The founders of this theory are of the view that if a coinage did not adhere to these criteria (in this case, a word get below 12 marks) it is regarded as not accepted.

However, these procedures fall under the traditional model of coining different terms which is called “expert-out model” where in this model linguists sit in a room and come out with different words following the proposed criteria, this model often results in orphan terminologies (Benjamin, n.d). Also, Benjamin (n.d) pointed out that the real test of a terminology set is not whether the terms are elegant or clever but it is on whether they are adopted by their intended use communities. Therefore, the focus of the current study was to evaluate the acceptance and usability of the coined terms.

1 http://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary.english/coin
3. METHODOLOGY
The current study was conducted at Morogoro, Tanzania in Sokoine University of Agriculture community specifically in Solomon Mahlangu College of Science and Education campus. It adopted mixed-methods research design. Mixed-methods research design is the collection and analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study, in which data are collected or analyzed concurrently or sequentially (Creswell and Clark 2007) as cited in (Wandera, 2015). This study brings together quantitative data in the case of examining the acceptance and usability of the Swahili ICT coined terminologies and qualitative data in examining the factors influencing the acceptance and descriptive usability of those terms. It involved 50 respondents as illustrated in the table below.

Table 3: Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents’ information</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employees Administrative staff</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lectures Department of Language studies</td>
<td>07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other departments</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students Bsc. Informatics</td>
<td>07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other programmes</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The study involved both primary data and secondary data. The primary data were collected by using the following methods; Questionnaire, in the questionnaire respondents were asked to tick the sentences that contain an ICT word which he/she always use in daily communication. The questionnaire consisted of 80 sentences with 40 Swahili ICT coined words. Respondents were asked to show whether they prefer to use Swahili ICT coined words or they prefer the borrowed terms. Also questions on the factors influencing acceptance and usability of the Swahili coined terms were given to respondents.

After administering the questionnaire, a face to face interview was conducted. The researcher asked different questions related to the area of study. One of the questions focused on the factors influencing acceptance and usability of the Swahili ICT coined terms.

Under the focus group discussion respondents discussed about the acceptance and usability of the Swahili ICT coined terms as researcher asked different questions related to the topic. Different English ICT terms were given and respondents were asked to translate those words to Kiswahili. Also, respondents were given Swahili ICT coined word and asked to say whether they use those Swahili coined terms in their day to day communication. This provided room for a researcher to ask the question on the factors influencing the acceptance and usability of the Swahili ICT coined terminologies.

Secondary data for the current study were collected from different sources (Kinyanjui, 2014; Kahigi, 2011; Akinyi, 2010) which helped the researcher to get different Swahili ICT coined terminologies.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
The current study sought to answer two research questions; first, to what extent the Swahili ICT coined terminologies are accepted and used in daily communication? Second, what are the factors that influencing acceptance and usability of the Swahili ICT coined terminologies? Therefore, this section presents findings in relation to these questions.

4.1 Acceptance and descriptive Usability of Swahili ICT coined terms
The study aimed at examining the acceptability and usability of Swahili coined terms and in order to achieve this objective in the questionnaire the researcher used 80 sentences. A total of 40 Swahili coined words were presented in those sentences; where these sentences were in pairs, each pair had the same sentences but one with the English language borrowed term (bolded) and the second sentence with the Swahili coined term (bolded). Respondents were required to tick the sentence with the term which they always use in their daily communication. Results show that 57.5%, 65% and 67.5% of the Swahili ICT coined words (among 40 Swahili coined terms) were not accepted/not mostly used in daily communication. Results show that 57.5%, 65% and 67.5% of the Swahili ICT coined words (among 40 Swahili coined terms) were not accepted/not mostly used in daily communication by employees from department of Language studies, employees from other departments and employees who are the administrative staff respectively. Also 62.5 % and 67.5% of the Swahili coined terms were not accepted by students from Bsc informatics degree programme and students from other degree programmes respectively. Therefore, findings justify that most of the Swahili coined terms are not
preferred by most of the Swahili speakers. Table 4 below summarizes the findings on the acceptance and usability of the Swahili coined terms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>No. of respondents involved</th>
<th>No. of Swahili ICT coined words involved</th>
<th>No. of Swahili ICT coined words mostly used/accepted</th>
<th>Percent age</th>
<th>No. of Swahili ICT coined words not accepted</th>
<th>Percent age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employees</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Lecturers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. Department of Language studies</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>42.5%</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>57.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii. Other departments</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>65%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Administrative staff</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>32.5%</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>67.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Bsc. Informatics</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>37.5%</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>62.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Other programmes</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>32.5%</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>67.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Current study

Table 4 above shows the rate of acceptance and usability of the Swahili ICT coined terms which seems to be low. Generally, 64% of the ICT coined words were not accepted/not mostly used and the accepted words constitute 36%. The percentages of the accepted words in different groups of respondents are also low. The lowest percentage is 32.5% from two groups; namely administrative staff group and the group of students from different degree programmes.

Furthermore, the findings show that most of the Swahili coined terms were not known by majority of the respondents. In the focus group discussion, the respondents reported that it was their first time to see some of the Swahili ICT coined words. For example, the following Swahili ICT words in Table 5 were reported to be unfamiliar to most of the respondents.

Table 5: Examples of unfamiliar Swahili coined ICT words

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Swahili ICT word</th>
<th>English word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kidhulishi</td>
<td>highlighter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanidua</td>
<td>uninstall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanidi</td>
<td>install</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sasaisha</td>
<td>update</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kiwaa</td>
<td>monitor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zinzo</td>
<td>display</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Despite low acceptance and usability of Swahili ICT coined words, there are some few words which were accepted by almost all groups. Table 6 below provides some of the Swahili ICT coined terms that are mostly accepted as per the findings of this study:

Table 6: Examples of the mostly acceptable Swahili ICT coined words

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Swahili ICT term</th>
<th>English word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Barua pepe</td>
<td>e-mail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakua</td>
<td>download</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakia</td>
<td>upload</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tovuti</td>
<td>internet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Runinga</td>
<td>television</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Most of the respondents pointed out that most of these terms are common because they find them used in different situations including in the media. Therefore, according to the findings, this is one of the major reasons which made these terms to be adopted and used in daily communication.

4.2 Factors influencing acceptability and usability of the Swahili ICT coined terms

Most of the respondent (64%) showed that they do not prefer to use Swahili ICT coined terminologies in their daily communication. Moreover, findings show that most of the people are not aware of some of those terms. Respondents provided different reasons...
to why most of the coined ICT Swahili terminologies fail to be adopted/used or not accepted;

4.2.1 Lack of community involvement
While providing factors that influence acceptance and usability of Swahili ICT coined terminologies one of the respondents had the following to say:

………….most of the language experts sit in the rooms and form different terms without involving different language users as if the only consumers of those terms are language experts as a result we get terms that we cannot use in our daily communication… (ELL1)

This assertion shows that most of these terms are coined without involving community members for soliciting their views. It is possible to open a forum through internet or any other way in order to allow other members to contribute through that platform, for example giving them time to suggest the suitable terms. These findings concur with the study by Benjamin (n.d) which also revealed that community participation in terminologies development is very crucial. Although is absolutely clear that sometimes the process of forming different terminologies is governed by different rules in lexicography (so it needs language experts terminologists), findings in the current study show that to involve community members is equally important.

4.2.2 Lack of best strategies for promoting ICT coined terms
Findings show that most of the respondents are not aware of most of the Swahili ICT coined terminologies. In the focus group discussion respondents reported that it was their first time to see some of the Swahili ICT coined terms. One of the respondents said:

Although language users are supposed to read different sources for widening their knowledge about the formed words, there is a need to promote those formed terms by using different media like newspaper, radio, television etc. (ELO 6)

When explaining about the same point another respondent had the following to say:

……..you know what! Sometimes we use few Kiswahili ICT words because we find them used in different media…..but most of the media instead of using the formed terms they also use borrowed ones…….(ELO 3)

These findings show that the promotion of the coined terms is questionable where media are not used to promote the coined terms. Also, a situation of not being aware of different Swahili coined ICT terms for most of the respondents is one of the indicators of lack of best strategies for promoting ICT coined terms.

4.2.3 Coining process for Swahili ICT terms takes Long time
It is also found in this study that most of the terminologists take long time to coin different Swahili ICT terms after the introduction of new concepts and ideas which calls for new terms. This leads to adoption of the terms borrowed from English language therefore when those Swahili coined ICT terms are introduced, it becomes difficult to be adopted because the earlier terms (borrowed one) have already been put into use (adopted). When commenting on this factor one of the respondents said;

…………most of the formed terms are introduced when we have already adopted the English terms, therefore it is very difficult to shift to other term while we already have the term denoting the same concept which is still in use……. (SI 4)

This is common to different speech communities where there is no need to shift to another term which refers to a same concept while there is another term which is already adopted. Therefore, people prefer to use the borrowed terms because they have adopted it and the coined one appears to be new to them. These findings concur with the study by Mazrui (1995) and King’ei (1999) which also revealed that the most accepted/adopted words are the borrowed one instead of the coined one as exemplified in table 7 below.
Table 7: Suggested Swahili ICT coined terms vs. accepted/adopted terms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Kiswahili (Suggested)</th>
<th>Accepted/adopted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Computer</td>
<td>Ngamizi/tarakilishi</td>
<td>kompyuta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telephone</td>
<td>Rununu</td>
<td>simu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Television</td>
<td>runinga</td>
<td>televisheni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio</td>
<td>mwengoya</td>
<td>redio</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 7 shows clearly that borrowed terms are mostly adopted than the coined terms; as per the findings of this study, the adoption of the borrowed terms is done because of the long time taken to coin Swahili terms.

4.2.4 Lack of harmonization among terminologists/research institutions

Findings show that there is a competing neologism where there are different Swahili terms which represent the same concept in English (different terms coined for one concept). Competing neologisms refer to a presence of the multiple technical terms that refer to the same concept which are a result of uncoordinated creation of neologisms (Kinyanjui, 2014). In relation to competing neologisms the respondents had the following to say:

Sometimes I fail to understand the correct term to use for the formed Swahili ICT words because a same thing in English can have multiple neologisms (SI 2)

Sometimes the word mouse is used as kipanya sometimes it is used as puku………it is confusing (SO 5)

I am confused by the formed words for password, whether is nywila or nenosiri…….I cannot tell which is the most appropriate……therefore I always use the term pasiwedi instead of these coinages (ELO 6)

This is also evident from literature where there are different Swahili ICT coined terminologies which focus on the same concept. Table 8 bellow is illustrative;

Table 8: Swahili ICT competing neologisms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English ICT terms</th>
<th>Swahili ICT competing neologisms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Monitor</td>
<td>Kiwaa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kiwambo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recycle bin</td>
<td>Kisuduru</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kijalala</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urejelezaji</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Printer</td>
<td>Kichapishi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chapishiyo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inbox</td>
<td>Kisanduku pokezi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>kikasha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>kikasha pokezi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source (Kinyanjui, 2014)

In table 8 above examples of competing neologisms are clearly presented, these examples justify that there is a great confusion caused by these word coiners. There must be a harmonization in coining these terms that is they should agree on one concept/entity, one term instead of different terms for the same concept/entity.

4.2.5 Complexity

It is also found that some of the Swahili coined terms are more complex compared to the English terms. The argument in this factor is that some of the coined terms are complex compared to the English terms

which make it difficult to be used. There are some simple English words with few syllables that are translated into complex Swahili ICT words. One of the respondents commented:

Sometimes it is difficult to use the a complex word while we have simple word to use……therefore we normally opt for the word which is somehow simple to pronounce (ELL 5)

There are different Swahili coined terms that are complex compared to English language terms. Table 9 below exemplifies such terms
Table 9: Examples of Swahili ICT coined terms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Swahili ICT word</th>
<th>English word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mubashara</td>
<td>live</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safu ulalo</td>
<td>row</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safu wima</td>
<td>column</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kibonye epuka</td>
<td>ESC key</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tarakili</td>
<td>computer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kichapishi</td>
<td>printer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Language users prefer simple words which are articulated easily compared to compound words. A word with few syllables can be preferred for speech simplification compared to a word with many syllables. Speakers may prefer to use row or live which are words with one syllable instead of safu wima and mubashara respectively which have four syllables. Therefore, findings also show that complex words are not normally used for daily communication.

5. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION FOR FURTHER STUDIES

The aim of coining different Swahili ICT terms is to make sure that those words should be adopted and used in the Kiswahili speech community. Findings in this study have shown that the rate of acceptance and usability of the Swahili ICT coined terms is low where people do not always use the Swahili ICT coined terms in their daily communication. The study also has provided different factors for low acceptance and usability of those terms. The study has made a contribution in the aspect of morphology and word coining by revealing the rate of acceptance and usability of the Swahili ICT coined terms and provided the pertinent examples. With these findings, deliberate effort should be made to ensure that different factors should be considered in coining different terms in order to avoid having many words which are not adopted and used in the daily communication. The researcher recommends further studies to be done to explore the Swahili ICT terms borrowed from English and finding out the rationale of including them into formal Kiswahili.

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the 36th Annual Conference on African Linguistics: Shifting the Center of Africanism in Language Politics and Economic Globalization


Choice of Reading Tools: Hardcopy or Softcopy
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ARTICLE INFO

Received: September 22, 2019
Accepted: October 27, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.46

ABSTRACT

Due to technological innovations, nowadays, reading tools are being changed drastically. This study reports on a small-scale research study conducted to investigate that a large number of readers are switching their reading tools from hard copies to soft copies. This study has been conducted upon the readers of different ages and professions mostly students. The respondents are mainly students of a private university and two colleges in Bangladesh. A pre-tested questionnaire was prepared to conduct the survey. The results show that nearly 60% people read Word File in computer or in other devices. There are people who read in printed documents and they are around 40%. It also shows that 34% people use computer for reading, most of the people access reading through their smart phones and the percentage of it is 56. Majority of our surveyed people read their academic texts that are in percent 60. In response to questions, whether has social media affected reading habit greatly or not, the majority of our participants responded “Strongly Agree” and its rate is nearly 70%. Among the young generation tendency of soft copy is higher.

KEYWORDS

Softcopy, Hardcopy, Smartphone, Health Hazard, Reading Tools

1. INTRODUCTION

Reading is the second most ancient media that enables human head towards the civilization. Even before the invention of printed books or other staffs people used to read from different sources. Writing shows us the way of civilization and reading helps to make it happen. For the time being, like other human behaviors reading habit has also gone through huge changes. Against the emergence of rapidly changing technology and human needs, reading however introduces us with different habits or ways. Research around the world shows the importance of reading as a means foster curious minds; therefore, students should not only be trained in the professional field but also as thinking and reflective beings (Rodriguez, 2007). The evolution of reading habits is a process of socialization, based on different learning contexts (school, college, university, corporate or in job field).

1.1 READING

Reading in general is a function of being able to comprehend, understand, make sense and finally to interpret written letters and symbols. Aina Et Al. (2011) commented that reading can be described as a process of perceiving the representation of symbols that are printed and written by looking at them, identifying them and usually verbalization of these ocular signs. It includes a mental formulation of communication that creates sounds in human speech. Similarly, Shen (2006) describes reading habits, as how much, how often and what people read actually. Again, reading is a number of interactive processes between the reader and the text, in which readers use their knowledge to build, to create, and to construct meaning.

1.2. READING TOOLS

1.2. a. SOFTCOPY

A soft copy (sometimes spelled "softcopy") is an electronic copy of some type of data, such as a file viewed on a computer's display or transmitted as an e-mail attachment. Such as PDF, E-book, Word file etc. To buy a new book one needs to go to the market then to search for it shop to shop. But the modern technological advancement has lessened this hassle with the help of multiple digital tools. Readers nowadays spend much of their time on screens like computer, smartphone, tablet etc. All they seek get within a moment by a single click. There are numerous reasons for why the use softcopy is widely spreading. It is more expedient to read on screens than to carry a printed book in this 21st century. Bookstores are now getting closed in European...
countries. In this way in near future the world will reduce the use of printed materials.

1.2. b. HARDCOPY
In information handling, the U.S. Federal Standard 1037C (Glossary of Telecommunication Terms) defines a hard copy as a permanent reproduction, or copy, in the form of a physical object, of any media suitable for direct use by a person (in particular paper), of displayed or transmitted data. Examples of hard copy include teleprinter pages, continuous printed tapes, computer printouts, and radio photo prints.

It is not so many years when people had no other choice but to look for printed books. Library was then the only richest information gem of mankind’s knowledge and cultural wealth. Now that library is also making difference in its accession as people can access them with a single click only. This is simply a touch how technology is bringing changes in our reading habits. The worldwide use of computers, smart phones and internet as well as different kinds of databases have furnished sound opportunities for the survival and evolution of traditional libraries of various types. For instance, instead of searching the shelves, we can firmly reserve the book we want online, before picking it up in person. This clinically saves a lot of time. The digital libraries nowadays provide their members with opportunities to borrow e-books and get online access to their database. So, libraries that deny adapting the emerging technology face the risk of being outdated. Digitalization at the same time brought a huge dimension in the classroom activities. Smart boards are replacing the traditional blackboards which are allowing the use of virtual materials too.

Using physical books, pens and paper are nowadays losing their importance. People now prefer carrying tablets, mobile phones or laptops to printed books and notebooks by what they are much more privileged of having hundreds of books and also allowing them to take notes at the same time. Besides, devices are also helping them to watch instructive videos which are extremely effective in learning their respective issues.

Apart from the academic sectors, free reading activities are also being affected by the advanced technology. Pew Research Center reported, the number of e-reader users in the U.S. has jumped to 28 percent in 2016 which was only 17 percent in 2011. Reading is an indivisible and comprehensive process (Sole, 2006; 19) as well as strategic (Carlino, 2006: 68). Number of authors opine that reading is an important tool for knowledge transfer. In this regard, the habit of reading is an academic activity that enhances skills in reading techniques. A study in Mexico recently finds that people read more during their school life than in other levels (e.g Sep, 2008:8).

2. RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS
The hypotheses to be tested under this study are as following:

a) Readers are switching from traditional hard copy to soft copy as a reading tool.
b) Technology is the sole agent to transform change of reading tool
c) Young generation is more interested to soft copy comparison to soft copy.

3. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY
Advancement of technology is reshaping our lifestyle our reading habit and reading tools as well. This interests me to make an in-depth study on this field. The objectives of this study are as follows:

a) To determine that a majority of people have changed their reading tools.
b) To determine that modern technology has led readers’ choice to soft copy.
c) To determine that young generation is more interested to soft copy.
d) To determine that people think of health hazard while they use digital tools.
e) To determine that social media has a major role play in reading habit.
f) To add new insight to the existing literature on readers choice on reading tools.

4. LITERATURE REVIEW
Reading is always a sustaining medium of acquisition. Mostly it is needed in learning a second language. It won’t be unwise saying the modern civilization were beyond imagination if we couldn’t read. Reading directs us towards civilization. Francis Bacon thus asserts “Reading maketh a full man.”(1597:1612)

For students to pass their courses with success, they must invest at least three hours a week in each course, but findings show that students invest less than expected of them; they consider reading “a luxury.” Brief texts are popular (“It was too long didn’t read it”). Students feel that they don’t have enough time to read, and reading is slow (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 1994).

Web-based resources are the main sources used for study – and students generally do not apply any skills of discretion or judge the quality of the materials (Yaakov & Shor, 2010). In a study on reading habits by Pundak, Hershkovitz, and Shacham (2010), the authors find that students in basic science courses in
colleges and universities rarely read their textbooks before the lectures. Students find it difficult to cope with their numerous academic assignments. This study displayed that most students are not interested in reading their textbooks to expand the horizon of their knowledge of the theories that underlie their studies; Textbooks are used mainly to assist them in solving exercises and problems.

Findings of a study in Bangladesh (Akanda, Hoq, & Hasan, 2013) indicate that reading is related to learning and learning leads to mental, professional, and human development in general. Collins and Cheek (1999) portray reading as a process that requires the use of complex thought processes to interpret printed symbols as meaningful units and comprehend them as thought unit for the understanding of a printed message. Just a decade ago, students had no other choice but to carry books or other printed documents with them. It was usually seen then people reading printed newspaper at bus stops, railway stations or at working places. This is to keep themselves up to date with the current trends, knowledge and for awareness. Besides it helps them develop the reading skill. However, for the time being, there have been an alarming observation regarding the reading habits of the emerging youths across the world.

Children, who miss the opportunity of getting in touch with books in their early stages of life, find it hard to acquire good reading habits in their later years (Deavers, 2000). Reading habits, therefore, play a very crucial role in enabling a person to achieve practical efficiency. “Laws die but books never.” Indeed, books are the most suitable medium through which knowledge is transmitted from generation to generation (Issa et al, 2012).

Gallo (2007) said “books, yield their best to you, if you read them at the age at which each particular masterpiece can ideally be chewed and digested”. There is little knowledge about the everyday reading practices of tertiary education students and how these practices affect their academic achievement.

Everyday reading consists of individuals’ reading activities for a variety of purposes, such as for relaxation or information (Issa, et al. 2012). Guthrie, Benneth & McGough, (2007) believe that “reading” is the act of getting meaning from printed or written words, which is the basis for learning and one of the most important skills in everyday life. Comprehension skills help the learner to understand the meaning of words in isolation and in context (Palani, 2012). He believes reading is a process of thinking, evaluating, judging, imagining, reasoning and problem solving.

In a similar study by Molina (2005: 6) it was concluded that there is a close relationship between student achievement and the love of reading, judged on the basis of reading habits. While doing an investigation Bobda (2011) finds the reading habits of some postgraduate high school student-teachers in Yaounde stated that the lack of reading in Africa and specifically in Cameroun is a phenomenon often decried in popular opinion. John P Robinson (1980) presents a study of adult reading habits based on time use that indicates a decline in daily newspaper readership, most significantly in the past 10 years.

5. METHODOLOGY
5.1 The Subjects
This survey covers 100 participants, among them 56 females and 44 males. Majority of the participants were between age 15 and 40; 70% were between age 15 and 30 and the rest were older than 35 years. The participating students were from a private university, a college and school. Some officials were also included in this survey.

5.2 Methods and Procedure:
Survey was conducted during class time going to different institutions; university, college and school. 10 minutes were requested from their teacher on duty for the completion of the survey. At first, the purpose, objective and application method were explained, then a selection was done to whom the questionnaire and instructions were provided on how to fill it in. At the second step, participants were given time to answer the questions, after which the data was collected and finally all the participants were thanked for their honest feedback and cooperation.

6. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS
The very first research question confirms participants’ age. It shows the percentage of the participants’ age as followed:

**Figure-1** shows the percentage that most of the participants 55% were aged between 15 to 30 years and they are marked here “young aged”. The middle-aged people’s engagement rate is 30%. And the least were the older people who were 15% of the total participants. Based on the age categories later in the research work there we will get a vivid idea on the particular group of people.

**Figure-2** marks the time respondents usually spend on reading. There are some people who read less than
1 hour—here 7.5% students read less than 1 hour, 50% of the professionals are in less than 1 hour reading category and 60% of the others who are aged over 40 are higher in this number. Later in 1-4 hours, the students are top in number, it is 35.75%. Again the 3rd chart displays people who read 5 to 8 hours and here the students again are much in number. 30% students spend 5-8 hours in reading. Lastly there are 37% students they read more than 9 hours a day. So, according to the results above students in general spend much time on reading.

Figure-3 displays the ratio of the tools that are used by the participants. Nearly 60% people read Word File in computer or in other devices. There are people who read in printed documents and they are around 40%. Then the number of PDF readers in screen is slightly much 65%. Some people do print that PDF to read and its rate is nearly 35%. However, the number of Printed Material users is about 67% as the survey covers a good number of students from below the tertiary level. Besides the number of soft copy readers are seen significantly in the HTML view. This is mainly web page readers and their number are more than 60%. So, Softcopy readers are higher in number.

In figure 4, the pie chart shows the devices that are used mostly by the surveyed people. It tells 34% people use computer for reading. Next most of the people access reading through their smart phones and the percentage of it is 56. At the same time 8% people read on their Tablet PC. And rest 2% read through other devices.

This information indicates that the availability of Smart Phone has highly influenced the generation to switch their reading tool from hard copy to softcopy. After that 5% people like to read different fictions. And rest of the persons are involved in other readings. In the meantime, people who are in between 40 or up they are much slow in switching them towards modern devices. Technologies they often find difficult or not actually willing to accept. Rather they prefer reading in printed paper.

In figure 5, there is a clear indication what people do choose to read? There we find 30% people read newspaper. Majority of our surveyed people read their academic texts that are in percent 60.

This is because earlier in our first graph we have showed that most of our attendants were students. Therefore, the reading issue has vastly covered by the reading of Academic Texts. Next to it the number of Newspaper Readers are much in number and the middle-aged people participated in our survey mostly spend their time in reading Newspaper. Here we get a social image on readers’ interest based on their ages.

Figure-6 portrays a social picture by answering the question; have social media affected reading habit greatly? There were four options to choose their answer. Here the majority of our participants responded “Strongly Agree” and its rate is nearly 70%. Then 15% participants marked it “Somewhat Agree”. About 6% mentioned it “Strongly Disagree” and the rest 9% took it as “Somewhat Disagree”. Therefore, no doubt social media have greatly affected our reading habit as we find in this question.

In figure-7, a question regarding readers’ consideration of softcopy as problematic thinking of health hazard was asked for response. There we find almost the same answer “Strongly Agree” that is about 75% of the participants. 15% of the participants argued it “Somewhat Agree” and the rest of the people remained themselves neutral. The chart above however displays the scenario to its proportionate rate.

At last the paper included an open space for the participants’ individual opinion on how to improve reading tools or if they have any comments regarding this survey. In comparison to the older people, the young participants argued for the availability of the smart technologies. On the contrary, older people refused to do that as it consumes much time by deviating its users. They rather insisted on making texts and other documents more user-friendly.

In response to the last question regarding their opinion for the improvement of reading tools most of them left the space blank. Few commented that there should be technology which will not be harmful for health, especially eyes. Some also desired for more user-friendly technology for educational purpose. Moreover, there were a couple of comments regarding the availability of devices in their classrooms or working places.

6. CONCLUSION

The study sought to ascertain readers’ choice of reading tools, the shifting nature from hardcopy to softcopy. The respondents were of different age groups, mostly students of colleges and university. The study reveals that most of the surveyed people use softcopy and their percentage is 60%, and 40% people use hardcopy. Among the older respondents aged between 40 and 60, 7.5% persons read less than one hour daily. Besides, 50% of them just go through the major points of their particular issue. Then between 1 to 4 hours 7.5% people read extensively whereas 35.75% are strategic in their reading. Among the softcopy users nearly 60% people read Word File in computer or in other devices. There are
people who read in printed documents and they are around 40%. Then the number of PDF readers in screen is slightly much 65%. Next most of the people access reading through their smart phones and the percentage of it is 56. At the same time 8% people read on their Tablet PC. And rest 2% read through other devices. 70% people “strongly Agree” that social media has a strong role for changing reading tools.

ABOUT THE AUTHORS

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Figure 1: Attendants’ Age

Figure 2: Time Spent on Reading

Figure 3: Frequently Used Tools
Figure 4: Devices for Reading

Figure 5: Reading Interests

Figure 6: Participants’ Opinion
Figure 7: Health Hazard of Softcopy
Genre-based Discourse Analysis of Wedding Invitation Cards in Nigeria: A Comparison between Hausa and Igbo
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1. INTRODUCTION
A wedding invitation occupies a very important place in the wedding arena. It is the first thing that family and friends see for remembrance. It presents good news to family and well-wishers and it will inform the attendants when the marriage will take place (Momani & Al Refaei, 2010). Wedding invitations usually contain date, time and venue of the marriage and the names of bride and their groom. The main purpose of the wedding invitation is to serve as directory to those who wish to attend the marriage ceremony. It tells the attendants about the appropriate time to attend; that they should not attend the marriage too late or too early. A wedding invitation is flexible in many cultures. There is no a strict rule regarding designing or arranging it, but there is essential information that the invitation card must contain such as the bride and groom family name, names of bride and groom, date, time and where the reception takes place. (Momani & Al Refaei, 2010).

Nigeria with a population of 180 million mostly adopts written invitation as a form of information dissemination for the marriage. Wedding invitation or wedding card is a commemorative social action that serves the purpose of informing requesting well-wishers to attend the wedding ceremony of a friend or family members (Faramarzi, Elekaei, & Tabrizi, 2015). Al-Ali (2006) stated that there are two types of wedding invitations namely: written and spoken invitations. Relatively, printed invitations are more acceptable because they are formal in nature and they contain the basic information one needs to remember. Wedding invitation come in different forms.

Depending on financial and cultural background of the bride and groom, some invitation cards are highly expensive and they contain generic information such as the status of the bride or the groom while other are just plain cards (Faramarzi et al, 2015). Nigeria with almost 400 different tribes most of these tribes adopts written invitation card as a means of invitation to marriage and other ceremonies except in places where they crudely practice primitive and traditional means of invitation such as the messengers and town cryers. Dominant among these tribes are: Hausa, Yoruba, Igbo and Fulani. There are several studies on almost all aspects of human activities such as languages and traditions but studies on genres of invitations card is scarcely available. These studies were carried out in some cultures such as the analysis of wedding invitation cards in Iran by Faramarzi et al, (2015), the analysis of written wedding invitations in Jordan society (Momani & AL-Refaei 2010;
Sawalmeh (2014, 2015, 2018) and the analysis of wedding invitation cards in Malaysia as a comparison between Malay and Chinese (2015). This study therefore seeks to contribute to the scarcely existing literature in this field.

1.1 Aims and objectives of the study

This study analyses the moves in two culturally different invitation cards: Hausa and Igbo. Specifically, it seeks to realize the following objectives:

1. To determine the main moves present in the Hausa invitation cards.
2. To identify the main moves, present in Igbo wedding invitation cards.
3. To compare and contrast between the two wedding invitation cards.

1.2 Research question

With the above objectives in mind, the study attempts to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the main moves in Hausa marriage invitation cards?
2. What are the main moves in Igbo marriage invitation cards?
3. What are the similarities or differences in terms of moves in two marriage invitation cards?

1.3 Theoretical framework

This study adopts move analysis which was established by Swales (1990) and developed by Dudley – Evans and St John (1998). A move is a unit that seeks to present the intention of the writer and his purpose in his attempt to communicate. A step on the other hand is a sub-unit that gives more details on the move. Swales & Feak (2003) in Nodoushan and Montazeran (2012) state that a move can be viewed as a ‘Schematic unit’ that is attached to communicative act that is designed to realise one basic communicative role. Henry and Roseberry (1997) in Nodoushan & Montazera (2012) present three rationale for any move study. They are:

1. Introducing the overall organization of text.
2. Clarifying the linguistic features for specific communicative purpose.
3. Connectivity the organization of text and the linguistic features of social content.

The move has the following schematic structures:

1. Communicative goals
2. Sub-relational components (moves)
3. Lexico-grammatical features

In this study, Swales’ ‘Moves Analysis will be used as the basis to highlight the findings of the study.

The following are eleven moves proposed by Swale:

1. The opening
2. Stating names
3. Invitation message
4. Stating marriage
5. Stating names
6. Stating the date of the ceremony
7. Stating the location
8. Stating the time of the ceremony, Phone No.
9. Closing
10. Stating the map of the ceremony
11. Stating the card make.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Genre

Genres serve different purposes in different domains. They vary from discipline to discipline. Some genres serve social function (Millen 1984), some serve communicative functions (Swales 1990) and others serve social purposes (Martin, 1997). Text that falls under any of these genres will differ from the others in its prototopicality (paltidge, 1997).

Scholars conducted researches on various areas of interest and they found that students have various genre knowledge and acquisition. Their knowledge on genre varies not only limited to literary or rhetorical study (Holand 2010, 2012). According to Miller (1984), genre refers to a usual category of discourse that placed itself in large scale sort of rhetorical action; as action it needs to highlights the meaning and social context it belongs. This will be the actual situation that the genre seeks to portray. This new approach was practiced by scholars like Bazerman (1988) who studied 100 experimental scientific articles, BarkenKotter and Hackin (1995) studied 350 research articles in biology, physics, and general science. All these studies have shown that genre is being studied as a new rhetorical field or approach.

Similarly, Rukayya Hassan and Jim Martin (1985) come up with a framework which was based on Hollidays (1978) systematic functional linguistic (SFL) Approach. The model focused with social context with the analysis of field, tenor, and mode. Hassan (1985) presents her model of genre through introducing the term generic structure potential. In this category, there is a set of obligatory and optional
elements in texts while Marin (1985) gives the term schematic structure to refer to different segments of text. From the forgoing, it will be suitable to place the genre of marriage invitation cards under Hassan’s category as it involves both obligatory and optional elements in text.

However, Paltridge (1997) noted that the former approach i.e. New Approach, focuses more on socio-contextual aspects of text rather than formal characteristics and thus would be more appropriate for studies of genres from a social or sociolinguistic perspective than linguistics (Flower Dew, 2002 a; Bi Hyland, 2002 d; Hyon 1996). SFL framework of Genre, considered it as a staged, oriented, purposeful activity in which participants engage as members of a certain culture. According to Martin (1984) genres range from literary to non-literary categories these include making appointment expositions lectures narratives seminars manuals, recipes news broadcasting, poems wedding cards etc. in the idea of Hassan (1985) and Ventola’s (1987) genres can also be explored through various linguistic features of text such as grammatical megaphones as well as nominalization, thematic structure & Cohesion (pho, 2013).

2.2 Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis studies the patterns of language across text and explores the relationship between language and social and cultural context in which it is applied. It also looks at the patterns of the use of language and it shows different views of the world and different perceptions. Participants in a certain context use language, it explores how the use of language by them will influence relationships between them (Munday & Zhang, 2015). Discourse as seen from linguistic perspective is seen to express and extended strings of language far beyond the sentence boundary. Although the has sentence subject, verb, object or complement, there are other internal structures that the sentence may contain so discourse analysis is not only restricted to understanding of string of words form a sentence but also the way they exhibit properties which affect the organization and coherence of a piece of conversation written text inclusive. In the same vein crystal () describes discourse as existing “stretch of language larger than a sentence often constituting a coherent unit”.

Ionesco (2014) states that conversation, interviews, commentaries and speeches are natural discourse and these are the main focus of discourse analysis while text analysis directs its focus on items such as essay, notice, chapters and road signs which are called written language. This variance is not clear-cut and there have been numerous uses of these labels. Mainly, ‘discourse and ‘text’ can be used broadly to mean all language units with a certain communicative function either spoken or written (Ionesco 2014).

2.3 What counts as evidence?

This section presents the preliminary findings of the study. As stated above this study will take on the theory of Genre Move Analysis established by Dudley – Evans and St. John (1998) developed from Swale’s model (1990). The theory has eleven moves some are compulsory and some are optional. For the sake of clarity, the research question of the study will be restated below:

2.4 What are the main moves in Hausa marriage wedding invitation card as?

2.4.1 Hausa Wedding Invitation card

1. Opening: 1-10 None
2. Stating the surname of the Bride & Groom 1 – 10 e.g.: The families of Dr… Mr. … etc.
3. Invitation messages 1 – 10 ❖ e.g.: Specially, cordially invites: … invites … Mal, Alh. Mr. Hon. … To attend the wedding Fatiha of their children 1 – 10
4. Stating the marriage None 1 – 10
5. Stating the full names of the Bride & Groom ……&……
❖ State the Bride alone – 5, 6 & 7
6. Stating the date of the ceremony 1 – 10 ❖ e.g.: Day, Time, Year
7. Stating the date of the location of the ceremony 1 – 10 ❖ Address (compulsory)
8. Stating the time of the ceremony and phone No. 1- 10
9. Stating the appeal for invitee’s prayer if absent.
10. Stating the map of the ceremony 1- 10 None
11. Stating the card maker none ❖ name of the company Etc.

The second research question asks:

2.5 What are the main moves in Igbo marriage invitation cards?

The result reveals the following:
2.5.1 IGBO'S WEDDING INVITATION CARDS

1. Stating the last name of the bride and groom (3)
2. Invitation message (10)
   ❖ Request the guests’ participation for the celebration. Dinner (4)
3. Stating the location of the ceremony
   ❖ Address (compulsory) (5)
   ❖ Hotel
   ❖ Summit hotel
4. Stating the time and date of the ceremony
5. Stating the name of the bride and groom with title Mr & Ms None.
6. Stating the date of the traditional wedding ceremony before church marriage.
7. Colour of dress for different occasion. (5)
8. Stating question from the holy Bible (1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Moves</th>
<th>Hausa</th>
<th>Igbo</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Opening</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stating last name of bride and groom</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Invitation message</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stating the marriage</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name of the bride and groom</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stating the date of the ceremony</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stating the location of the ceremony</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stating the time of the ceremony and phone number of house and family member.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Closing stating the appeal for invitees</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stating card maker</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stating the place where the bride and groom register the manage.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. METHODOLOGY

A sample of 20 wedding invitation cards was randomly selected from two different cultures. After collecting the data, similarities and differences in generic components were considered. As mentioned earlier, the present study focuses on Swales’ (1990) genre move analysis method within which the schematic structures of wedding invitation genre including communicative goals, sub-rhetorical components (moves), lexico-grammatical features and content were investigated.

4. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

This study looks critically at the eleven genre moves analysis established by Swales (1990). From the study, it was found that there are significant differences between Hausa and Igbo marriage invitation cards. In Hausa cards, there are six compulsory moves. These are stating the surname of the bride and groom, invitation message, starting the marriage, starting the full names of the Bride and Groom, stating location, of the ceremony. The Igbo’s invitation card, however has a total of eight moves, seven of which are compulsory. The compulsory moves are stating the last name of bride and groom. Invitation message, Stating the location of the ceremony, stating the time and date of the ceremony, stating the name of the bride and groom, stating the date of traditional marriage and colour of dress for the occasion. There are sub-moves or subgenres that were identified in the IVC that are highly optional and they, are not included in this study. In this study moves 2, 3, 4, and 5 are considered mandatory while moves 1, 9, 10, and 11 are optional. The differences noticed may be as a result of the sample size. In this study, it was observed that there are ranging features from the two sets of marriage invitation cards.

Firstly, the linguistic features are almost the same and this may be due to the fact that English is a second language in Nigeria as viewed by Ezenma-ohacto and Akujob (2013) who state that English language has no doubt been accepted as the official language in Nigeria. It is used in schools; teaching and instruction in legislatures and governance. For this reason, almost all the samples of the invitation cards are carrying the same linguistic feature. Conversely, the information found in most Igbo’s invitation cards are too dense than that of Hausa cards. The cultural differences between Hausa and Igbo is quite dissimilar, hence the differences. Some of the differences were in the sub-moves; for example, the titles in names. The Hausas do not attach importance to issues titles in their cards, list of ceremonies name of company or the address of the company that produces the cards, dinner luncheon, traditional marriages, and registration.
Mohammed Noor and Abdulghani (2015) analysed wedding invitation cards in Malaysia between Malay and Chinese and they found out the Chinese invitation cards carry more information and linguistic features than those of Malay. This finding is in line with the finding of this study where the Igbo have similar linguistic features with that of Chinese.

Shariff and Yar Mohammadi (2013) analysed 70 Persian wedding invitation cards and they came up with interesting findings. The result in their study was quite different from this study. They observed the non-linguistic features of the invitation cards among which are custom designs, light card bounds of unique colours such as cream, white silver, golden, beige pink, blue, red, and their cards are usually decorated with ribbons flowers (pressed) embossed image of wedding rings, roses, heart bouquets of mixed flowers, a portrait of the bride and groom. In short, the wedding invitation cards of Persian has beautiful art and calligraphy on it. Similarly, the Igbos have almost the same non-linguistic features such as hearts, bouquets, mixed flour and rings. In some instances, both the Hausa and Igbo’s wedding invitation use the same non-linguistic features such as decorative borders, including floral and traditional borders. As well as the colour of the envelope which they normally select to go with the design of the invitation card. This finding, although not discussed in this study, is similar with the findings of Sahriff and Yar Mohammadi (2013). In addition, the Igbos wedding cards usually end with a quotation from their holy bible. However, the opening move in most Persian invitation cards is compulsory as observed in most of their invitation cards and the first move is usually a quotation from their holy Qur’an (Al-Ali 2006) Camasji Katrak (1965) Shariff and Yar Mohammadi (2013).

5. CONCLUSION
This study analysed 20 marriage invitations cards. Ten cards were obtained from Hausa dominant in North-Western, North-central, and North-eastern Nigeria and ten wedding invitation cards were got from Igbo’s who are dominantly from south-south, and south-eastern Nigeria. The study adopted Swales (1990) theoretical framework of genre move analysis. The findings of the study revealed that there are differences in both Hausa and Igbo’s wedding invitation cards especially in the non-linguistic elements where the details contained in the wedding card of Hausa are very precise and direct compared to the Igbo’s importantly, the moves found in Hausa’s invitation cards are seven while that of Igbo’s are eight. Almost all the cards are monolingual, meaning, none of the cards used any language. However, the organization of the details on the cards were kindly influenced by cultural beliefs and social values of the society in question. Owing to this socio-cultural norms and dynamic culture of Nigeria cultural setting, it would be great to compare and contrast marriage invitation cards genres across different cultures.

ABOUT THE AUTHORS
Abdullahi Kaigama was born in Nigeria on the 27th September, 1980. He attended College of Education Gashua, Yobe state, Nigeria, and graduated in the year 2000. He also attended University of Maiduguri where he had his first degree, BA English language in 2009 and earned his Master in Applied Linguistics from the University Putra, Malaysia in 2016. He was a part time lecturer at Yobe College of Nursing, Damaturu, Yobe state, Nigeria 2010-2011. Part time lecturer at Yobe State University, Yobe state, Nigeria, 2013-2014 Yobe state Nigeria and now a lecturer at the Federal Polytechnic, Damaturu, Yobe State, Nigeria. He teaches Communication skills and English language studies. He Published two books. The first one is First Language Interference in Learning English Plosive and Fricative Sounds, published by Lampard Academic Publishers, Germany and Technical Report Writing for Science and Engineering Students, Published by University of Jos Printing Press. He also published one journal article titled: Analyzing Linguistic Metaphors in the Political Speeches of President Muhammadu Buhari in the International Journal of Research and Innovation in Social Science. Mr Kaigama is a member of English Language Teachers Association of Nigeria (ELTAN), English Scholars Association of Nigeria (ESAN) and Teachers’ Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN). Mr Kaigama was a Coordinator for Diploma in Public Administration, Law, Social Development, Library Science and Mass Communication Students at the Federal Polytechnic Damaturu and he is the present coordinator of the Polytechnic’s Debate Team. Finally, he received recommendation from school management for leading his debate to be the best in Yobe State Inter-tertiary debate competition organised by NERI in 2017. He is also a member of the Polytechnic’s library development committee. His hobbies are Expedition, travelling and reading. He similarly has great passion for football, basketball and boxing.
Ali Mohammed Also was born in Mbamnga, a village in Sardauna Local Government Area of Taraba State, on the 6th of May, 1979. After obtaining his Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE) in the year 2002 from the Federal College of Education Yola, he further obtained a degree in Linguistics/English from the University of Maiduguri in 2009. He has been a LECTURER with the Federal Polytechnic Damaturu, Yobe State since 2011 and a RESOURCE PERSON with the Consultancy Programme of the same institution since then. He is a member of Linguistic Association of Nigeria (LAN), English Scholars’ Association of Nigeria (ESAN), Literary Society of Nigeria (LSN), English Language Teachers Association of Nigeria (ELTAN) and Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN).

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Survey into the Causes of Consistent Failure in SSCE in English Language in Yobe State: A Study of Yobe, Zamfara, Abia and Edo States’ Secondary School

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ARTICLE INFO

ABSTRACT

Received: September 15, 2019
Accepted: October 11, 2019
Published: November 30, 2019
Volume: 2
Issue: 6
DOI: 10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.6.48

This study surveys the causes of massive failure in Senior School Certificate Examination. (SSCE). It investigates the causes of students’ massive failure in English language in 47 Secondary Schools in Yobe state. It seeks to find out the major elements that bring about persistent and consistent setback to students’ success in their final year of examination. The study uses mixed methods as a means of data collection which include both qualitative and quantitative sets of data. The study was conducted for a period of seven months. Where some selected secondary schools were visited to administer questionnaires in Zamfara, Edo and Abia States. The findings of the study revealed that among other things, lack of qualified language teachers, poor state of infrastructure, curricular, and students’ attitudes toward learning generally are the main causes of heavy failure in Yobe State. The study finally suggests that the government should set up very strong supervisory team that will look after truant teachers.

KEYWORDS

Survey, Students’ failure, SSCE, English Language, Comparative study, Yobe state.

1. BACKGROUND

There have been so many outcries on the woeful performance of secondary school students in senior certificate examinations with special focus on English language. In fact, government, education bodies, institutions, and concerned parents bemoan yearly on the weak performances of their students in these examinations. Poor performances especially in English language become extremely disturbing to stakeholders giving the importance of English language in educational development. As an example, admission into higher institutions in most countries Nigeria is not an exception and impossible without a pass in English (Khabyr, Amadi, 2015). Poor performance in English language and mathematics occupies the dominant hours in the curriculum of Nigeria. They are normally the first courses to be taught in almost all government secondary schools (National Policy on Education, 2014). Although it is an official language in Gambia, students in the country often fail English language and this may be as a result of poor attention given to it, lack of reading and writing English with the negative notion students have on the subject (Nijie, 2013). Lack of qualified teachers, the assured nature of the environment speaking vernacular in schools. (Nijie 2013) in this regard. In Ghana, for instance, based on West African examination result (WAEC) 2018, 193,882 candidates, representing 61.67% sat for the exams but 99,402 which represents (31%) obtained D7 – E8 in the English language while 21.61% obtained F9 in English language. Their failure was mostly attributed to negative impact of modern-day technology, that “everybody is busy on WhatsApp” instead of the students to spend more time reading very good books, textbooks, literature and English books, which will improve their command of English language (Wahab, 2018).

Scholars and researchers in Nigeria have taken the same course in lamenting the sad performances of Nigeria students in English Language (Adegbile 2006, Orlureni 2012, NJemanze, 2012). These disturbing trends have been chasing our students into and out of tertiary institutions as can be obviously seen, that a lot of graduates find it very difficult to express themselves in English. Some scholars suggest that if English is the language of job, education and other potential opportunities it will be taught or handled with great caution (NJemanze, 2012). In this light, this study sets out to look into this ugly trend and suggest ways to improve teaching and learning of English in Yobe state secondary schools so as to improve students’ performance in senior school certificate exam.
1.1 Statement of the problem

English language is the instrument of communication in primary, secondary and higher institutions as well as the official language of Yobe state. If these students can pass through these stages of learning there is no justification whatsoever for students’ performance to be so woeful consistently. Going by the annual budget, Yobe state has been increasing the percentage of education budget with at least 2% annually from 2007 to 2012 (EFU & FSU 2013).

Secondary school students need effective knowledge of English language to function properly or perform better and importantly to get admitted into institutions of higher learning which is the utmost aim. Fema (2003) States that a functional person is someone who is literate, that is, someone who acquires the knowledge and skills in reading and writing which enables him to engage effectively in all those activities in which literacy is normally assumed significant in his culture or group. English language normally has four basic skills, namely listening, speaking, reading and writing. It is assumed that Yobe state students would be able to demonstrate these skills in their SSCE but what was observed in the last five years was totally the opposite. It is disheartening to note that the poor performance of students in English language at public examinations in recent times has been explained as a major cause of decline in the general academic performance and standard of education in Yobe state. Oluwole (2008) was of the view that having difficulty in grasping the full contents of English language can lead to failure in other subjects that are taught in English as medium of instruction. Daily Trust of Wednesday, August 25, 2010 reported that “seventy-five per cent of candidates who sat for May/June WAEC 2010 examinations failed to meet the minimum entry requirement into tertiary institutions, Yobe state was at the bottom. When WAEC released its May/June 2014 WASSCE results, the result shows mass failure in mathematics and English language in Yobe state while Edo and Abia were rated as the top performers. In 2012 and 2013 May/June WASSCE there was marginal decline in the performance of candidates in English language. It was learnt that Yobe State government has expressed displeasure over the massive failure of students who sat for the 2016 SSCE and NECO examinations especially in English language and Mathematics. Edo State came third with 38, 052 of it 62, 327 candidates got Five credits and above and it was the first in ranking in 2015. Yobe state came last with just 646 candidates obtaining five credits and above including English language. This came at a time where Yobe state voted 17.3 percent of its 2016 budget in order to improve the situation. Seven other northern states took rear positions as follows: They are Zamfara (36th), Jigawa (3 5th), Gombe (34th), Katsina (33rd), Kebbi (32nd), Bauchi (31st) and Sokoto state (3011.) (Daily Trust, 3th June, 2016). This study therefore will seek to investigate this trend of steady failure in English language by senior secondary school students in Yobe State and to contribute to the existing knowledge.

1.2 Purpose of the study

This study investigates the causes of massive and consistent failure in English language in SSCE in Yobe state. Specifically, it sets out to achieve the following objectives:

1. To identify the problems that cause these massive failures in English language in Yobe State.
2. To ascertain the differences if any in the English language curriculum, use in Yobe state Secondary Schools and the one provided by the SSCE bodies.
3. To examine the level of commitments of the stakeholders towards the success of English language in Yobe state.

1.3 Research Questions

In order to explore the possibility that the above trends are related, this study poses the following inquiries:

1. What are the problems that cause massive failure in English language in SSCE in Yobe state?
2. Are there differences between the curriculum used in Yobe state secondary schools and the one provided by SSCE bodies?
3. To what extent are the stakeholders in secondary schools committed towards the success of English language in SSCE in Yobe state?

1.4 Theoretical framework

This study adopts the theory of learning style founded by David Kolb (1984). This approach to learning stresses that individuals have different ways of processing and understanding things. It implies that how much individuals have more to do with whether the educational experience is geared towards their particular learning style. The learning styles theory is rooted in the research demonstrating as a result of some factors such as heredity, upbringing and some environmental demands. Different individuals have a tendency to both perceive and process information differently. These unique ways are classified into concrete and abstract perceivers. Concrete perceiver draw information through direct experience, by doing, practicing, acting sensing and
feeling. Abstract perceivers on the other hand take in information through analysis and thinking.

1.5 Significance of the Study
Numerous important outcomes can be envisaged from this research. Firstly, to the knowledge of the researchers, study of this nature was never carried out in Yobe state. So this study will provide a holistic picture of what is happening with teaching and learning English language in Yobe state secondary schools. Secondly, since the study is a comparative study, it will provide framework work that can be adopted form other states to minimize the rate of failure in English language in SSCE. Thirdly, and importantly, the rate of dropouts in the higher institutions of learning in Yobe state will be reduced as the number of failure in English language will be minimized. In addition, this study will also foster greater understanding on the part of the government regarding challenges towards teaching and learning English language in secondary schools. Finally, the study will also force the teachers to study and work hard to prove their competences in their chosen aspects. After all, they now have the freedom to choose which aspects they love to teach. Students too will now have the unique advantage of being taught English Language by more than one teacher and, this will expose the students to the various teaching strategies that the different teachers may utilize just as the different attitudes and personalities of the teachers would rub off on the students. Similarly, students would easily escape being wrongly taught since they only need to pose questions on grey areas to the next teacher of English. The above views have presented different viewpoints each with its justification. This study therefore will vindicate the actual picture of existing trends in Yobe state secondary schools.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW
A huge number of researches have been continuously examining the causes of mass failures in secondary schools and proffering ways of reversing the ugly trend. There are so many buck passing that result to this lackluster performance (Fasasi Alowonle, Amadi 2013). According to Odusina and Makilekwe (1992, 1993) a major challenge that causes problem in the area of teaching and learning English language is the shortage of foreign textbooks as available Nigerian books are beyond the readability and level of the students hence, students read at frustration levels. Ogunleye (1999) on his part put it that incessant strikes by the Nigerian Union of Teachers (NUT) and unprepared closure of schools are some of the factors that affects performance of students in English language. In his arguments Adegbile (2006) cites a reason for student’s useful performances in examinations that the English language teachers in themselves lack communicative competence. If this is the case, according to him with many teachers our expectations from the learners, then should be negative and poor performances in the examination is going to be an order of the day. The instructive position of the Federal Government as stated in the National Policy on Education (2004) that no education system may rise above the quality of its teachers. Faleke and Ibrahim (2011) add that other factors that negatively affects our student’s orthography or writing is one of the major skills in English language. GSM text messaging has invariably adulterated the Standard English usage in Nigeria.

Similarly, Oluremi (2012), subscribes to the view that infrastructure which include save learning environment, language lab etc. play a substantial role in the teaching and learning English language and their insufficiency. Oluremi concludes that providing basic school infrastructure should be part of any plan to improve student’s performances at all levels. In the same vein, Njemanze (2012) highlights that one of the major determinants of learner performance as poor teacher performance affects learners’ performance’. Some additional problems identified are inconsistency on the part of government, the emergence of Nigerian English (NE), mother tongue interference, (Maduekwe 2017) poverty (Lacour & Tissington, 2011) imbalance in learner/teacher ratio, learner readiness/maturity, poor teacher/learner motivation, indiscipline among learners and teachers as well as examination malpractice (Njemanze, 2012).

Wiriyachitra, (2002) in her study, came up with the causes of difficulties in English language teaching and learning in Thailand especially in primary and secondary schools. Some of these problems according to her are teachers’ heavy teaching loads, inadequately furnished classrooms and educational technology, the university entrance examination system, teachers’ insufficiency English language skills and cultural and socio-cultural knowledge. Other problems that hinder students’ fluency in English include: lack of opportunity to use English in their daily lives, unchallenging English lessons, being passive learners, shyness to speak English with their classmates, being poorly motivated and lack of responsibility for their own learning. These problems and many more have been the stumbling blocks towards students’ positive performance in English language as mentioned earlier.
3. METHODOLOGY
This study employed a mixed method research design. This design refers to collecting, analysing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative methods in a single study or a series of studies to understand a research problem (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The rationale behind this assumption is that the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods, in combination, provide a better understanding of the research problem and question than either method by itself (Creswell, 2014). Under this research design, the study specifically employed the Convergent Parallel design. The basic assumption behind this approach is that it will give the researchers the opportunity to simultaneously collect both quantitative and qualitative data, merge the data, and use the result to understand a research problem. A basic rationale for this design is that one data collection form supplies strength to offset the weaknesses of the other form and that a more complete understanding of a research problem results from collecting both quantitative and qualitative data (Creswell, 2014).

3.1 Methods of data collection
Owing to the nature of the research questions of this study, data were collected through various methods namely, questionnaire, interviews, and content analysis. A questionnaire is a form used in survey design that participants in a study complete and return to the researcher (Creswell 2014). Questionnaires were used in this research to obtain information for research questions 1, 2, and 4. In the same instance, because the study used both open-ended and closed-ended questions during the interview, the use of both quantitative and qualitative interviews become necessary and they were used to answer questions 1 and 3. In addition, content analysis which deals with analysis of documents which consist of government and private records of participants and/or sites were also employed to get information for research question 2.

3.1.1 Research Site
The research sites are Yobe state, the main focus of the research, Zamfara state which has similar problem with Yobe state. These two states interchange position at the national ranking in terms of failure in SSCE. Selecting Zamfara state will also contribute towards justifying the research problem. Edo and Abia states like Yobe and Zamfara states often swap position at the highest position in the national ranking which is between first and third positions. So, the comparison of these states as observed by the researchers will contribute towards addressing the research problem.

3.1.2 Population of the study
The population of the study are all senior secondary schools both government and private schools. There are 47 government secondary schools in where 40 secondary schools are conventional secondary schools, and 7 science-based secondary schools in Yobe state, 2 Federal government secondary schools, and 23 Private secondary schools making 72 secondary schools in total.

3.1.3 Sample of the Study
The primary target of this study government secondary schools, hence majority of the sample is going to be selected from them. The researchers are going to take a sample of 4 government secondary schools from the 3 zones that Yobe state has; Zone A, B and C and 1 Private school from each Zone and finally one Federal secondary school from Zone B only. The total number of the sample for the research is going to be 16 secondary schools in Yobe state and 4 four secondary schools two (2) from Abia state and two (2) from Edo state respectively.

3.1.4 Steps in Data Collection
The selection of the sampled schools involved three steps First, the secondary schools that are performing above the average criteria set by the researchers will be identified based on the records available at the state Ministry of Education and those that are performing below average four government secondary schools and one private school will be identified in each zone in Yobe state. Second, a survey will begin to identify the problems based on the focus of the research questions. Third, potential problems identified will be examined in comparison with that of the least performing state. This means that the process of data collection will be carried out simultaneously in Yobe and Zamfara states. The same procedure will be applied to identify the schools in two performing states and later the findings will be compared and analysed.

4. FINDINGS

Table 1
Teaching English Language problems in Nigeria

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Government</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Infrastructure</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>Other factors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Table 2

The research questions of the study will be restated for more clarification towards answering them.

1. What are the problems that cause massive failure in English language in SSCE in Yobe state?

Findings from this research question can be presented below.

As can be seen from figure 1, the main cause of failure in English language in Yobe state is government while other factors such as the quality of teachers, infrastructure, students and other factors follow. Problem involving government has to do with paying great attention to teachers and students, provision of quality reading and writing materials and effective supervision.

On the part of teachers, questions raised in the questionnaire generated these response, that most of the teachers are incompetent, they lack the basic skills of teaching. Teachers here constitute the large number according to the study. Similarly, students have problems peculiar to them. For instance, they do not spend time practicing what they were taught. They spend most of their time on Social Media websites. The students lack exposure practicing communicating in English in their classes with their colleagues. They have problem with writing which is one of the basic skills which is one of the basic skills when in learning English language. They have a problem with the history and they have to engage in tasks that will develop their vocabulary.

Another factor that is significant is the infrastructure. It contributes positively towards total well-being of the students and provide avenue for effective learning. The infrastructure includes security of the learning environment, lighting of the classes, seats, desks, educational technology, writing boards teaching aids etc. it receives high number of response in the category. Other factors may include, bullying among students, which is psychological in nature, curricular and textbooks. The problematic areas comprise the rigidity of the textbooks, curricular, having too much to cover under limited time, teachers not understanding the details of the curricular, teachers training and workshop on current teaching and learning, problems assessing students in dynamic computers, internet service, functional language laboratories, lack of teacher who are native speakers or interacting with them from time to time, drills.

Research Question 2

1. Are there differences between the curriculum used in Yobe state secondary schools and the one provided by SSCE bodies?

Based on the responses under this research question, there is no difference in the curricular provided by the examination bodies and the one used in Yobe state Secondary schools. The problem realised was that the teachers are not adhering to the curricular provided to them in addition to that, that the curricular provided by the schools are outdated. In this case, the government on its side, need to provide the update curricular and ensure strict compliance of it. Items under this research question receives quite high number of responses.

1. To what extent are the stakeholders in secondary schools committed towards the success of English language in SSCE in Yobe state?

When ask the major stakeholders in this category such as parents education officials and government officials, they all assured with dismay and most of them suggested the way forward as can be seen in the chart above.

4.1 Discussion (Abridged)

From the results above, it is clear that some of the problems that cause massive failure in the English language in Yobe state. Senior Secondly school are numerous are similar. This study is similar in its findings with the one conducted by Noopon (2002). The finding in Noopon’s study also vindicated that the problems particular to the teachers, curricular and text books are of the causes of failure in English language among students. Akbar (2005) adds that one of the problems of learning English is the weak learning system
5. CONCLUSION

This study investigates the causes of massive failure in SSCE in English Language. It surveys almost 56 secondary schools. From this number, 47 are in Yobe state while the remaining 6 secondary schools are from the other states. A mixed method of data collection was employed and the results of the study revealed an interesting finding. Some of the problems that cause these failures in Yobe state despite the huge amount that are consistently been injecting into education sector are: problems involving themselves, curricula and textbooks, assessment, and other factors supporting teaching success at a moderate level. They see a high level of problems resulting from students’ lack of exposure to English and insufficient background of the language. Students’ lack of perseverance in practicing or seeking more opportunities to practice the language also contributes to their lack of confidence in using language for communication. Both teachers and students need to show a high level of interest and value to all areas contributing to their career success: their own English proficiency, and instructional/pedagogical strategies for teaching and assessing productive skills such as listening-speaking and writing skills in particular.

ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Abdullahi Kaigama was born in Nigeria on the 27th September, 1980. He attended College of Education Gashua, Yobe state, Nigeria, and graduated in the year 2000, he also attended University of Maiduguri where he had his first degree, BA English language in 2009 and earned his Master in Applied Linguistics from the University Putra, Malaysia in 2016. He was a part time lecturer at Yobe College of Nursing, Damaturu, Yobe state, Nigeria 2010-2011. Part time lecturer at Yobe State University, Yobe state, Nigeria, 2013-2014 Yobe state Nigeria and now a lecturer at the Federal Polytechnic, Damaturu, Yobe State, Nigeria. He teaches Communication skills and English language studies. He Published two books. The first one is First Language Interference in Learning English Plosive and Fricative Sounds, published by Lampard Academic Publishers, Germany and Technical Report Writing for Science and Engineering Students, Published by University of Jos Printing Press. He also published one journal article titled: Analysing Linguistic Metaphors in the Political Speeches of President Muhammadu Buhari in the International Journal of Research and Innovation in Social Science. Mr Kaigama is a member of English Language Teachers Association of Nigeria (ELTAN), English Scholars Association of Nigeria (ESAN) and Teachers’ Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN). Mr Kaigama was a Coordinator for Diploma in Public Administration, Law, Social Development, Library Science and Mass Communication Students at the Federal Polytechnic Damaturu and he is the present coordinator of the Polytechnic’s Debate Team. Finally, he received recommendation from school management for leading his debate to be the best in Yobe State Inter-tertiary debate competition organised by NERI in 2017. He is also a member of the Polytechnic’s library development committee. His hobbies are Expedition, travelling and reading. He similarly has great passion for football, basketball and boxing.

I was born on the 12th of November, 1976 at Nursing home in Maiduguri. I graduated from the university of Maiduguri with B.A English (literature) and M.A (African literature). She has and supervised undergraduate students at the Open University, Damaturu branch. She is currently a part-time staff with Yobe State University, English Department. She teaches courses like Introduction drama, Basic Theories of Drama, European Poetry (Romantic Era), Literary Movement, Creative Writing, English Composition and Advanced Writing Skills. She was a research assistant for the abolishment of local government election by state independent electoral commission. She has been a resource person for a workshop organized by NTI (National Teachers Institute) for NTI/ MDG at Damaturu and Potiskum for primary/secondary teachers and Diploma holders in Yobe State. She has published in AJIS, Vol.3No 7.
Nov.2014 “Learning Barriers: Challenges and Concerns”. “Idoma Proverbial names as a vehicle of expression: A Literary and Sociolinguistic view”.proverbium, 36 (2019), and “ICT and Education” in MJSS,Vol. 5.No 26, Nov.2014. Mrs Ibrahim is a registered member of English Scholars Association of Nigeria (ESAN), English Language Teachers Association of Nigeria (ELTAN), Teacher Registration Council (TRC), Literary Society of Nigeria (LSN), Member National Institute of Management(MNIM). She has also been a member of various committees; member staff development, pre-n and management coordinator, member committee on school newsletter, member, committee on curriculum development for pre-n and remedial program, and departmental examination officer.

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