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Foreword

We welcome you to Volume 28 Issue 1.4 February 2021 of the journal which is a collection of 18 researches from diverse areas of English as a Second Language and English Language Teaching.

In the first paper, Rasib Mahmood, Akhter Habib Shah and Iftikhar Alam investigated the complexity of teaching literature because of code-switching and code-mixing. The research found out the importance of understanding the culture of the source language as meanings can get lost during the translation process.

The second paper talks about discursive practices of political activists and media people on Twitter. Muhammad Rashid Hafeez, Shouket Ahmad Tilwani, Muhammad Asif and Prodhan Mahbub Ibna Seraj found out that activists resort to abusive language and pun as discursive strategies in criticizing political leaders.

Muhammad Usman Ghani, Ismat Jabeen and Ansa Hameed explored how communicative skills is considered a problematic area in EFL teaching and learning in Saudi Arabia. The study further noted limited use of relevant expressions and politeness strategies.

In the fourth paper, Clarinda C. Galiza conducted the study to assess the writing proficiency level of freshmen students of Isabela State University. It was found out that students have weak organization and idea development that resulted in weak written outputs.

In the paper, Saudi Vision 2030 in Western Media: An Investigation on the Basis of Corpus, Ansa Hameed, Ismat Jabeen and Naeem Afzal analyzed the representation of events, activities and plans made for Saudi Vision 2030 in British and American media. The study highlighted the differences in corpus and how Saudi is still represented using older aspects.

The sixth paper by Sadq Almaged investigated whether the Security Council has securitized threats through textual analysis of sample resolutions. The study revealed limited discursive means available in sample resolutions.

Ismat Jabeen, Ansa Hameed and Naeem Afzal in their paper, Gender Beliefs in Academic Settings: An Exploratory Study in Saudi Context, explored on how male and female Saudi students perceive their gender groups in the academic setting. The study further revealed biases by both sexes, and it was recommended to incorporate gender-neutral discourse in the classroom topromote gender impartiality.

Mahmood K. Ibrahim in the paper, The Application of English Stylistics to Kurdish with Reference to English, investigated the use of stylistics to analyse the Kurdish language. It was further noted the importance of the use of articles and articles placement and enclitics in Kurdish.

In the paper, Rethinking Abraham Lincoln's Gettysburg Address, Yongming Luo anchored the analysis of the Gettysburg Address on Jolliffe and Aristotle's frameworks. The speech conveyed strong message on patriotism, respect and the allegiance of the American people.

In the tenth paper, Dadang Solihat, Emzir and Zainal Rafli conducted an action research that focused on the use of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) Approach in developing the skills of students in writing business letters. The same approach was found to be instrumental in the increase in the level of writing of students.

The next paper, Comparative Analysis on the Usage of Ilocano Dialect Among the Ilocanos and Tabukenos in Tabuk City, Paulino P. Reyes II

compared the use of a dialect in the Philippines among its users. It was found that these speakers share similarities in some words and even if translations are different, they have the same meaning.

In the paper, EFL Thesis Writing: Revealing the Supervisor’s and Supervisee’s Attitudes toward the Written Feedback, Lailatul Musyarofah, Slamet Setiawan and Mister Gideon Maru explored theses supervisee and supervisors' attitudes toward written feedback. The study revealed that supervisees are all accepting of supervisors' attitude and that they are passive on even critical opinions.

Odette Campos-Pannogan in her paper, Communicative Strategies and Linguistic Competence of ESL Learners, investigated the common communicative strategies utilized by students of Kalinga State University. It was revealed that there is a significant relationship of students' communicative strategies and their level of linguistic competence.

In the paper, Verbal Disability in Indonesia Children with Speech Delay and the Therapy, Gusdi Sastra, Arbain and Al Hafiz investigated on verbal disabilities of Indonesian children suffering from speech delay. The researchers found that verbal abilities affected phonological processes of these children.

Rosalie C. Leal, Orpha S. Saguibo and Reynaldo M. Brutas investigated the teaching of civic education as perceived by language educators. It was known that most language teachers are new in the field of teaching civic so specialized training should be provided.

In the paper, Developing Sociopragmatic Competence of Pakistani EFL Speakers: A Case of Apology Speech Act, Tahir Saleem, Uzma Unjum, Munawar Iqbal Ahmed, Ayaz Qadeer and Wasima Shehzad explored how English-speaking Pakistanis transfer their L1 sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic resources in discourse. The study revealed that English-using Pakistanis are being influenced by sociocultural constraints concerning social distance, social status and severity of the offence.

In Jihene Beji's Critical analysis of information in electronic media discourse: "neutrality" or manipulation?, she explored the diversity of voices reporting information whether it guarantees truth or lie from the original source.

In the last paper, Adel Refaat Mahfouz provided a formal description and a social treatment for phonetic variation in the Cairene slum speech to describe the phonetic characteristics that distinguish this vernacular from the prestigious variety and trace the correlation between the different social factors and that variation.

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Effectiveness of Code-Switching and Code-Mixing while Teaching Literature in Second Language

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Abstract

The teaching of literature in a second language (L2) becomes complex in the sense that it largely depends on code-switching and code-mixing. In a bi-lingual and multi-lingual society mixing a foreign language with the native one is a matter of daily routine. The research is aimed at finding that while teaching English literature in an ESL classroom, how the act of code-switching and code-mixing hybridizes and transforms the learner's mind. The present research proposes that code-switching and code-mixing pose a serious challenge to the learners' understanding of culturally determined meanings. Moreover, it provides an opportunity to get the knowledge of foreign culture through language. A multi-lingual mind is enriched with different languages and cultures. Code-Mixing and code-switching are used in a multi-lingual society where the speaker can switch from one language to another language just to convey the message properly. The teaching style in multi-lingual societies differs completely from monolingual societies because in multi or bi-lingual societies the teacher switches from one language to another language according to the learners' demand. It is argued that code-switching and code-mixing in a literature class is a more complex phenomenon as compared to code-switching and code-mixing in other disciplines of sciences and social sciences. This research paper is an investigation that how code-switching and code-mixing take place in literature class. Moreover, it will be also under examination that what are positive and negative effects of teaching literature through code-switching and code-mixing approach? The classroom observation method has been used to collect data. The data has been collected from The University of Lahore and Education University Lahore.

Keywords: *Teaching Literature, Effectiveness, Code Switching, Second Language*

Introduction

Due to tremendous progress in technology, English language has gained a lot of attention worldwide as a global tool of communication among people belonging to different cultural and linguistic background. Code-switching and code-mixing are the techniques and requirements of the developing countries of the world because the natives of these countries have to encounter different languages and cultures for their survival in the global world (Ariffin & Susanti Husin, 2011). Their regional, national languages are quite different from foreign languages of the developed countries (Fishman, 1969). It becomes compulsory for the natives of developing countries to learn the language of science and technology for survival in the postmodern world (McKinley, 2005). One can argue that English language learning has become the requirement of the countries because it is the international language (McKay, 2002). Moreover, it is the main source of the connectivity of different countries. The learning of this language is a very complex phenomenon for developing countries of the world (Liu, et al, 2018).

To learn the English language, the natives of the developing countries learn English literature in the form of drama, poetry, and fiction (Hişmanoğlu, 2005). While learning different genres they consciously or unconsciously mix their native and national languages while interpreting different genres of English literature (Pewewardy, 2002). Sometimes, it seems the hybridized interpretation of the English literature (Watkhaolarm, 2005). The students as well as teachers switch from one language to another language while learning and teaching English literature (Cook, V2001). Along with the translation of literary chunks the students/teachers start interpretation of the English literature through their native cultural codes (Lazar, 1993). This leads to the hybridized academic environment.

Pakistan is a multi-lingual and multicultural society where every graduate knows three languages (mother tongue, the national language, and English language) (Madmood, et al, 2020). He uses the three languages in his practical life. The use of so many languages hybridizes human thinking, on one hand, and on the other hand, it provides information about other languages and their culture (Pegrum, 2008). Multi-lingual society encompasses with versatile knowledge of many cultures. It has positive as well as negatives effects on the natives.

Media-literature has transformed the language learning process to a large extent through the direct explanation of cultural codes and western literature through action and performance, but even then the developing countries have a lack of resources to compete with the world (Ngai, et al, 2015). The natives analyze and comprehend the English language and culture in the comparison with their own culture (Johnson, 1981).

Literature being the product of a foreign society becomes difficult for the instructor and students of L2 to interpret its foregrounded meanings (Paran, 2008). Therefore, teaching English Literature as an academic subject became a challenge for ESL teachers (Hammond, 2006). To remove the gap between the literatures being taught and understanding the deeper meanings of the text while connecting it in their context, the mentors usually rely on the wealth of their own literature.

The perception of code-switching in ESL classes while teaching literature varies with the established aims of the course as well as with the subjective style of the individual teaching literature (Moodley & Kamwangamalu, 2004). Code-switching and code-mixing in a bi-lingual or multi-lingual classroom have their peculiar pros and cons (Zabrodskaja, 2007; Thi Vu & Nguyen, 2020). It is assumed that being lenient to fluctuate between the target language and a native language while delivering a lecture in literature is justified for the L2 teachers and learners to understand the essence of foreign terms. For instance, to understand the concept of Self-Reliance, a prose work of Ralph Waldo Emerson, the teachers usually refer to the concept of 'Khudi' in the works of Allama Muhammad Iqbal with whom the audience is to some extent familiar. Teaching lengthier works of literature in a controlled classroom environment loses the very purpose of obtaining pleasure that damages its aesthetic beauty. Therefore, the code-switching works a handy trick for the teachers to grasp the attention of their students while struggling to enliven their enthusiasm by mesmerizing them with the enticing literature of their own. Not only do they create a link between the two diverse works of literature to understand one with another, but they also explain the content of English literature in their own mother tongue as it is sometimes difficult to be expressed in a foreign language. They fear to lose its aesthetic beauty in explaining the text by simply paraphrasing its content. Thus, to avoid such complexity they switch the language to convey the meanings in the best possible way.

On the contrary, some believe code-switching is the incompetency of the instructors to use English fluently, and thus to avoid embarrassment, they use it as their hideout. Persistent use of code-mixing in ESL classrooms damages unique linguistic identities (Farr & Song, 2011). Students being exposed to code-mixing in literature class gradually becomes hybridized. They fail to maintain their own identity by seeping their cultural and linguistic identity with the identities of foreigners. Today if we observe an individual mixing multiple languages in their speech at the same time it is the result of code-switching in their learning. Hybridization of a language, where it is a threat to the standard dialect of a language, there it also helps in bringing out the creativity to bring distinct cultures together (Sanchez-Stockhammer, 2012).

The theories of language teaching and the trends in language acquisition have changed over the last hundred years, influenced by linguistics, psychological, educational, and political perspectives derived from "a mixture of assertion, theory, observation, and experiment" (Hall & Cook, 2012, p. 272). Literature is considered as an influential tool in learning any foreign language (Babaee & Yahya, 2014).

Since the publication of the first teaching methods by Latin and Greeks, it has been noticed that sometimes the effective teaching of any language via literature could not be achieved successfully (Celce-Murcia & UCLA, 2013). It is mostly due to the interruption of different language barriers which resultantly affects learning proficiency in any foreign language. Language barriers range from internal barriers (such as pronunciation and lack of familiarity with language) to external barriers (environment and setting etc.). One of the most important and pivotal barriers, while teaching a foreign language through literature by code-switching and code-mixing (Ugot, 2008). During teaching a second language, effective learning can only be achieved if the target language is used strictly inside the classroom. The desired objective of learning L2 is paced by effectively listening to the target language. If the learner is given first-hand exposure to the correct sound pattern, pronunciation, and spellings of the target language the learning process successfully accomplished (Mroz, 2018). The choosing of appropriate types of literary texts also plays an important role in learning a new language. However, the lack of seriousness and focus lead to code-switching and code-mixing, which consequently affects the desired objective of the learning process.

Code-switch is a shift, in teaching the second language, from the target language to the native language (Sert, 2005). The instructor during teaching a foreign language turns away from L2 and uses L1 to convey his message. The use of the second language is influenced by the native language and a shift takes place which is termed as code-switching. Sometimes, the instructor/teacher uses the native language deliberately to convey the meaning effectively. However, sometimes code-switching could be an unintentional act due to the lack of use of the second language. It has been seen in various second language teaching institutes that the teacher uses L1 to convey the meaning of any word/sentence/passage of L2 (Huang, 2009). This switch in language happens automatically when an instructor feels the inconvenience among the students while listening to a new concept or idea. Every language class starts with the introduction of all those objects, to the amateur learner, which has familiarity with the learner's native language. Similarly, the teacher adopts a native language in teaching the foreign language to translate the meanings of a given passage to the students. In this way, students learn quickly and effectively. However, it adversely affects the student's creative process to acquire proficiency in pronunciation as well as to learn the appropriate structure of L2. Furthermore, sometimes due to a lack of familiarity with the target language the teacher uses the native language. Teachers translate words and write the meanings of difficult words which weakens the word-association process of students as well, and students feel difficulty in using words and vocabulary (Mollaei, et al, 2017).

The class observation was used as a method to collect data that revealed that English as an L2 was utilized as a medium of instruction but to fulfil the needs of their students a fluctuation in classroom discussion by using L1 was also utilized. It was observed that the codeswitching was used favourably by both the teachers and the students. The teacher was observed to rephrase the complex ideas sometimes for the clarity of their students' understanding. Though the repetition of the lecture was time-consuming but explained the subject matter with ease. Other times the students who used code-mixing were observed not to be fluent in English as L2 therefore, to reach out to the instructors they either used certain words from L1 or complete sentences to convey their thoughts feasibly.

Literature Review

Code-switching and code-mixing have become the part and parcel of the global world because it is very difficult for a postmodern man to memorize all the languages of the world (Bertens & Fokkema, 1997). Whenever the speaker faces the problem of memory or the lack of word equivalence, he/she definitely start code-mixing or to switch to the other language (Muysken & Muysken, 2000). Sometimes it happens unconsciously because the speaker has become habitual of speaking some sentences unconsciously. Most of the scholars are of the view that most of the time the speaker switches from one language to another language because of the transformation from the formal language to informal language. The first language of the speaker is called Matrix language and the language in which he/she switches is called embedded language. The embedded language is considered an easy zone for the speakers and listeners to learn about new concepts. Sometimes lack of memory becomes the reason for code-switching and code-mixing (Myers-Scotton, 1998).

Code-switching is unpredictable which totally based upon the situation as well as the requirements of the speaker and listener. It depends upon the complexity of the topic and knowledge of the speaker and listener which types of code-switching is taking place (intra sentential, inter sentential, and extra sentential) (Gumperz, 1977). All with the requirement of the situation, it is considered beneficial to develop a global culture. The appropriation of the English language has also developed the notion of code-mixing in a different language. Most of the English words have become parts of the vocabulary of the developing countries. The development in the field of science and technology-enriched the English language and promoted it across the world (Guilherme, 2007). The developing nations are not buying the technology from the West but they are also the language from the West as well.

Pakistan is a multi-lingual society where at least code-switching takes place among three languages (native language, the national language, Arabic language, and English Language). A Pakistani learner knows these languages. It has become the two-way traffic in developing countries that their speakers speak the native language and English language side by side. The native language is the symbol of their identity while the English language is the requirement of the time to compete with the world (Mahmood, et al, 2020).

It is a dilemma of multi-lingual Pakistan that the natives have religious teachings and preaching in Arabic language, cultural norms and traditions in the native language (Punjabi, Sindhi, Balochi, and Pashto), the national language is Urdu and official language in practical form is English(Mahmood, et al, 2020). The phenomenon of code-switching and code-mixing also differ in various classes of Pakistani society. The upper class is very much inclined towards the English language but the middle class has a religious affiliation with Arabic. Middle also focuses on native, national, and international as per the requirement and situation. It is a fact that the middle class is speaking more languages as compared to the lower class and upper class. They are more hybridized just because of the multi-lingual environment.

Multi-lingual environment affects the mentality of the natives and develops hybrid thinking. The culture becomes the amalgamation of different ideologies and languages which create different classes in the countries. Capital decides the preferences of the natives towards culture and ideologies in developing countries.

A lot has been written and composed of code-switching and code-mixing while learning English as a second language. Aisha Bhatti (2018) is of the view that Pakistani teachers use code-switching as a tool to teach the students. She has highlighted the functions of code-switching and its types. The researcher has diagnosed teachers consciously switch from one language to the other language just for the facilitation of the teaching-learning process. The crux of her study is to diagnose that code-switching facilitates the learning process in Pakistan (Bhatti, et al, 2018). Malik, Muhammad Yousaf (2014) has also highlighted that code-switching is effective while learning English at the intermediate level, especially for the students of rural areas. He has portrayed that the code-switching strategy is equally beneficial as the direct method. Most importantly that it motivates the learners towards language learning. The students of all levels get benefits from this (Malik, 2014).

LiswaniSimasiku (2015) has highlighted that code-switching enhances the performance of learners in academic achievements. She is of the view that it overall improves the learning and teaching process of second language learning. The code-switching enhances the understanding of the learners and they actively involve in all the activities of language learning. It has been observed that they understand the questions properly and answers in an adequate way. Moreover, it helps in understanding the difficult concepts of English and their interpretation in an appropriate way (Simasiku, et al, 2015).

Alaa Al-Adnani (2016) portray that code-switching from the English language to the Arabic language directly affects the speaking skill of the students. Instead of getting expertise in speaking the learners remain busy in the interpretation of different concepts into their mother tongue. When the teacher gives them space the learner starts revising the concepts of their mother tongue instead of EFL learning (Al-Adnani & Elyas, 2016).

Memory has highlighted that code-switching helps the teacher to manage the class, on one hand, and on the other hand, it is equally helpful in understanding the difficult concepts which cannot be easily interpreted in the target language. It also helps the teacher in understanding the mental capabilities of the students who feel hesitant in the English language. Moreover, it is helpful for students in saying some things which they cannot say in English (Jingxia, 2010).

Jiang, Belinda and Yih-Lin (2014) presented that code-mixing of mother tongue in the L2 learning impact or performs the following functions. It promotes bilingual learning, it helps in trans-culture language transfer and understanding two cultures. He is of the view that the code-mixing of a bilingual environment resultantly develops and enhances the capacity of the learners. The students become more efficient as a result of code-mixing.

Spice (2018) observed that Code Mixing (CM) has become the dilemma of the multi-lingual world. She is of the view that CM helps in developing a second language. It is also debatable whether CM facilitates or constrains the learning process of the second language. She presents that in beginning it is useful but when the learners got mature then it affects their speaking.

Analysis

The researchers intended to observe the significance of code-mixing and code-switching in ESL classrooms. Resource person in the classroom used the tool of code-switching and code-mixing to deliver the lecture and to make the learners comprehend the meaning of the text in its true spirit.

For classroom observation, the researchers chose the class of English prose in which the resource person was teaching the essays of Francis Bacon (1561). Bacon is a renaissance philosopher, scholar, mathematician, statesman, lawyer, and prose writer. His prose writing style is considered to be the most famous style among his contemporaries as well as in the present age. Bacon is famous for his pragmatic (practical) approach towards life as depicted in his essays. So far as his personality is concerned, he is taken as a person of mediocre character. It is said that he was intellectually great but morally corrupt. If we have a look at all the above-stated characteristics of Francis Bacon, it can be judged that he possesses the qualities which can be found in any person of the same caliber. Moreover, the topics he chose to write in prose are of every human being's interest. Some of his famous topics on which he wrote are truth, friendship, studies, relationships (parents, children, and siblings), social interaction, etc.

The rationale behind selecting the class of prose for classroom observation was that the themes in the question of Bacon's essays can be observed universally. When he talks about friendship, truth, good and bad, profit, and loss; all these topics attract the attention of readers in any part of the world. Therefore, it was noted in prose class that teacher-initiated her lecture in the second language, to describe Bacon's life, his achievements, and his writing style. Later on when she began with the interpretation of one of his essays 'Of Truth', she took the support of the act of code-mixing. She used some words of Urdu language to translate a few words in her native language and also interpret the overall meaning of the text in the Urdu language.

Example 1. "But I cannot tell this same <u>truth is a naked</u> and <u>open daylight</u> that <u>doth</u> not show the <u>masks and mummeries</u> and triumphs of the world, half so <u>daintily and stately as candlelight</u>," (Bacon,2010) The quotation has been taken from Bacon's essay Of Truth. The quote was interpreted by the teacher in prose class. The underlined parts of the texts are those which were interpreted by the teacher with help of code-mixing as well as code-switching.

Observations: 'truth is naked '____To interpret the phrase the resource person used the method of code-mixing. As the two words 'truth' and 'naked' are easy to understand in isolation even in a second language but how the truth can be considered naked; this question demanded an explanation. As it can be seen that it is a metaphorical use of language in this phrase where truth is supposed to be naked. So the teacher explains this phenomenon using both Urdu and English language to interpret metaphorical usage of language in the phrase.

'open day light'_____ In this phrase the teacher adopted the method of code-switching to make the meaning clear. The reason behind was that learners although could understand the meaning of all three words independently yet they could not comprehend the context of the phrase. The phrase was in continuation of the previous one: 'truth is naked'. So the teacher connected this previous phrase with the next one ‘open day light’ and then explain this interconnectedness in the native language L1.

‘Doth’, ‘masks and mummeries’_____, were explained with the help of code-mixing. Whereas ‘daintily and ‘stately’ as candle light’ was also interpreted with the help of both code-switching and code-mixing.

To emphasize the importance of truth, the speaker took the support of the sayings of the Holy Prophet PBUH and some Qur’anic verses.

Allah k Nabi k nazdeek sb sy na-pasandeeda cheez jhoot hei

Example 2. The other text chosen for classroom observation was a short story titled “The Red Shoes”. The story is written by Hans Christian Andersen. It is a folktale written in the Christian religious context. Folktales have been an effective source to teach morality to the young generation. Although the stories keep on shifting from culture to culture according to the geographical location yet they always remain an important childhood experience. In an ESL classroom when a western moral story was taught, it was required that students may understand the theme and context of the story in its real context. Therefore, the teacher adopted the method of code-switching and code-mixing as well as implemented inter-textually to clear the meaning. The story “The Red Shoes” is based upon the concept of temptation and subsequent redemption. The story is of Christian morality that offers insight into nineteenth-century European culture. The teacher while explaining the tale made the learners understand the idea of temptation using the Urdu phrase “lalach buri bala hei”.

--- لالچ بُری بلا ہے

The story shows a clear influence of Christianity. In order to make the idea of religious influence clear to the learners, the teacher used the methods of code-switching and code-mixing. She took examples from native cultural and religious influences using L1. The method was found quite effective in conveying the message.

Example 3. The third chosen example was taken from the novel class. The novel teacher chose for teaching was *The Old Man and the Sea* (1952). In the story protagonist, Santiago reminds himself of the young boy time again during hardships he faced while in the sea. The teacher wanted to convey the idea that the young boy is actually the symbol of Santiago’s young age memories which will never come back. To make the message effective the teacher adopted the method of code-switching. She uses the Urdu phrase

---گیا وقت پھر ہاتھ نہیں آتا

---جوانی پھر نہیں آنی

Example 4. Researchers found different types of code-switching being used by the teacher in the classroom. The speaker switched between two codes (Urdu and English) within a single sentence. This type of code-switching is known as intra-sentential code-switching or code-mixing. For instance, the speaker (teacher) asked the pupils to open their books while utilizing intra-sentential code-switching.

All of you please *apni kitabien kholein*

Intra-sentential code-switching is a change from one code to another code across clauses. The teacher also used such sentences during the conversation in which the first clause was in English and the second one was in Urdu.

Today we are going to read the novel *aur hamara pehla novelist hoga* Charles Dickens. In such cases, a hybridized form of the linguistic result is achieved where the linguistic elements of two languages are merged together within the same sentence. Moreover, it was also noticed that when the teacher entered the classroom she greeted the class in a cultural-specific way and said *Assalam-o-Alikum* instead of a good day or good morning. Similarly, while leaving the class she said *Allah Hafiz* instead of goodbye.

Example 5. In the prose class, another chosen text for teaching was the short story Necklace (2007) written by Guy De Maupassant. The story narrates the life of a middle-class woman who wished to have a wealthy lifestyle. She borrowed a diamond necklace from a rich lady to wear at a party but unfortunately lost it. She and her husband spent ten years of their lives to earn so they could buy the same necklace and return it. But it was later revealed that the necklace was not the real diamond necklace. Although the story is written by a French author yet the theme of the story is a common one that can be found in any society. The teacher used the method of code-mixing and code-switching for an effective understanding of the story. She translated a few parts of the story in L2. For example:

"She felt she was made for them alone." (*Us ko laga wo sb cheezein us kyliye bani hei*n)

Intra-sentential code-switching was also employed.

> "Instead of being delighted, as her husband had hoped, she threw the invitation on the table resentfully, and muttered: "What do you want me to do with that?"

Khush hone kibjaye, as her husband had hoped, she threw the invitation on the table resentfully, and muttered: *Tum mujh sy kia chahty ho k kmei ab iss k saath kia karu*

Moreover, the teacher used Urdu proverb to deliver the moral lesson of the story.

Chader dekh kr paon phaelao

Conclusion/Effects of Code-Mixing and Code-Switching

The method has both positive and negative effects on the learning process in the ESL classroom. Code- mixing and code-switching have become a global culture and phenomenon. In all the cases of code-switching and code-mixing, the English language is prevailing across the world. The language is enlightening the natives of the developing countries, on one hand; it creates the identity crises of the natives, on the other hand. Code-switching and code-mixing enhance the picking power of the learners and develop their interests. It develops the element of trans-cultural learning in the learners. They try to trace out the commonalities and differences between the foreign culture and the native culture. These strategies enhance the learning process on one hand, but on the other hand, they affect the speaking capability of the learners.

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Challenging So-called Fake Media's Power Abuse with Social Media Verbal Abuse: Analysis of Twitter Interactions

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Abstract

The present research focuses on discursive practices of political activists and media persons on Twitter by drawing on the discourse-centred online ethnography for critical discourse analysis of the interactions. Studying these interactions, we argue that political activists' resistance against mainstream media persons' commentary serves to discredit these media persons and poses a challenge to their authority in their field of opinion-making. The study explores how the unknown political activists react to the political commentary of media persons and what referential and predicational strategies the two practices for representing each other. The study finds that in their political resistance against media persons' power, the activists not only resort to abusive language but also humour and pun as discursive strategies in response to media persons' critique of their political leadership and party. Allegations of misuse of media power, lobbying, and being sold out to political parties in addition to criticism on media persons based on gender, ethnicity, and facial features also resonate on Twitter.

Keywords: *Social Media Abuse, Media, Political Activism on Twitter, Representation Strategies*

Introduction

Nowadays, English has become a globalized language spoken by people from different cultural and linguistic background particularly after the tremendous advances in technology (Alzeebaree & Yavuz, 2017, as cited in Alzeebaree & Hasan, 2020). The influence of media in shaping different spheres of society can hardly be overemphasized (Stromback and Esser 2014). Politics is no exception as far as news media is concerned. Like everything else under the sky, there are two dichotomous views regarding the role that media plays in politics. One of the views suggests that it plays a significant role in shaping public opinion and informing the masses about the policies and manifestoes of political parties so that the voters make informed choices (Strömberg 2015). On the other hand, there is a view that the more powerful the media organization, the more it will have the ability to influence the election results in favour of or against a candidate "through its biased reporting" (Prat 2014:5). News media presents a plethora of reports and huge amounts of images that force people to form opinions about politicians (Krosnickand Kinder 1990). Hence, there have been calls for debate on how "media are controlled, structured and subsidized" (McChesney 1999:6).

Critical Discourse Analysis, Power, Politics and Social Media

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) is concerned with the discursive practices that relate to the relationship between language and power. In methodological terms, CDA is interdisciplinary in nature as it dovetails with other disciplines and theories that address the current issues concerned with social change (Fairclough 2013). Being an explanatory and interpretative approach, CDA mediates the link between society and discourse and is based on the premise that the nature of power relations is discursive (Van Dijk 2013). Hence, power, ideology, dominance, race, and class are common themes in CDA, and it analyses the language used for the development and maintenance of structural relationships of power, dominance, discrimination, and control (Wodak 2001). "Critical discourse analysis is specifically interested in power abuse, that is, in breaches of laws, rules, and principles of democracy, equality, and justice by those who wield power" (Dijk 1993:255).

A natural corollary of power is resistance (Eamonn, 2004). It is quite natural for people to react whenever there is a real or perceived threat to any of their fundamental rights. US President Donald Trump is not the only one who has reacted against mass media, terming it as "fake news". The real or perceived media angling invites similar kinds of attacks from politicians and political activists from all over the world. One of the reported reasons behind that is the ambiguity created due to confusion between media logic and political logic because newsworthiness is more important for media than the needs of, and standards set by, the politicians (Stromback & Esser 2014). As a result, political actors come up with counter-narratives in different forms. These narratives and counter-narratives are not confined to mainstream news media; these are, rather, spread to social media as well. The political actors' reaction can be quite damning if it slights the credibility of the newsperson since credibility is the most important attribute of any political journalist (McNair, 2011).

In addition to the traditional and unidirectional mass media, the dominant source of news and views during the last century, social media has emerged as an alternative interface for discursive practice during the last decade. To some, it poses the greatest challenge to mainstream media in our times (Crilley & Gillespie, 2019). Through the introduction of social media, the internet has decentralized the power of media to some extent during the last couple of decades. Hence, we have reached a point of hybridity in which there is an evident connection between the traditional media and digital media as far as concentration and diffusion of power with regard to politics are concerned (Chadwick et al. 2016; Al-Shammari, 2020).

Since social media platforms are widely used for political campaigning now, the masses have more say in that they can make political comments on tweets and posts. This was unavailable to them at such a mass scale during the TV-dominated era (Medina & Munoz, 2014). To some, social media has emerged as a substitute media with its "many-to-many dynamic of discursive practice" (KhosraviNik, 2017:582). Although some researchers believe that the participatory web has not delivered on its utilitarian promises (Morris & Ogan 2002) yet social media is challenging the mass media's longstanding monopoly by opening up newer vistas of real-time two-way mass communication, resulting in an inversion of elite control (Meraz 2009; Medriano & Bautista, 2020). This has led to a democratization of media to a great extent since the masses are now engaged in discursive practices that they hitherto did not enjoy.

Social media is more democratic, liberal, and freer than the mass media because for the most time, "national regulations on the political content of broadcasting do not, of course, apply to online media" (McNair, 2011:46). The masses have got more chances now to indulge in the discourse on politics with political journalists and commentators on social media platforms (McNair, 2011). In Pakistan, there are certain checks on social media in the form of cybercrime laws; however, these are confined to blasphemy and undue criticism of the institutions of armed forces and judiciary. Despite that, one comes across a plethora of material on these subjects as well since the very participatory nature of social media allows people from all parts of the world to engage in discursive practices, and national laws do not apply to aliens.

Throughout the world, political parties spend a lot of time and effort in developing their social media teams, which flood the social media platforms with political campaign messages (Bright, et al. 2017). Facebook and Twitter are two of the most popular platforms in this regard. In fact, these have become a part of the socio-political landscape (Irawanto, 2019).

Twitter

Twitter is a platform that provides its users with great opportunities to communicate with each other. In addition, it affords the users chances to view and share information from all over the world (Gaffney and Puschmann, 2014). In fact, with its constantly updated streams of information from all over the world, Twitter has emerged as a public platform that helps in sharing information at rapid speed while also promoting democratic exchanges among the users (Sharma, et al., 2017). Twitter has been relevant not only during uprisings in the dictatorships, as was the case in the Arab Spring but also in the democratic setups where the focus has been on the political use of Twitter by politicians (Larsson and Moe 2013). Politicians as well as political activists use Twitter for political campaigning and canvassing (Small, 2011). Documentation of political activities, debates on political parties' manifestoes, and discussion on the party policies and plans are all documented on Twitter (Enli, 2017).

Although several studies have been undertaken on journalists' use of social media (McGregor, 2019; Enli and Simonson, 2018; Hedman, 2019; Mourão and Harlow, 2020), no significant research has been conducted till date on the interactions between journalists and political activists and the resulting discursive practices. The present study aims to fill the mentioned gap.

Method

Since social media presupposes interaction with no passivity or receptivity on anyone's end. Discursive practice emerges as a key term in this domain. Interaction, in Gee's (2015) words, is the "essence of discourse analysis" (p.1).

The technologically determinist approaches to CDA on social media rely mostly on the huge amount of data that has to be processed through the software. Such a practice deprives the researcher of the ability to view language as a part of a larger social context. Though these approaches are easy in terms of collecting large amounts of data from social media platforms, they run the risk of taking this data out of context (Varis 2015).

As against the technologically determinist approaches, the socially-oriented approach is based on the premise that discourse is independent of the medium, in this case, social media platform on the web, and it is concerned not so much with what happens on social media but with how it influences and affects the political and social sphere (KhosraviNik & Sarkhoh 2017).

In this regard, discourse-centred online ethnography has recently emerged as means of systematic observation of linguistic and other semiotic material used in online platforms over a period of time, coupled with online actors' interviews (Androutsopoulos 2008). Ethnography is a way of learning and discovery through experience with the social actors in the field (Blommaert & Jie 2010). In online ethnography, the researcher is a member of the web platform under study.

An important aspect of CDA in social media research is the realization that it is not in the virtual world but the physical world that the researcher is interested in. However, this also comes with an acknowledgment that our analyses might be affected due to the availability of specific features of digitally mediated contexts (KhosraviNik & Unger 2016). Varis (2015) states, "From an ethnographic perspective, studying language means studying society and larger-scale sociocultural processes, and making a distinction between the linguistic and the non-linguistic is seen as a fundamentally artificial one" (p. 57).

In this backdrop, we continuously monitored tweets by 10 media persons and their interactions with political activists for four months. All these media persons had confirmed Twitter accounts, and each had at least 100,000 followers. The tweets were categorized in terms of their relevance to various themes. These themes included personal lives and ideas of the major political leaders, i.e. PTI chief Imran Khan and PML-N chief Nawaz Sharif, their political parties' policies in the past, parties' latent and manifest agendas, their promises to the electorate, selection of candidates for various constituencies, reported good governance and alleged bad governance during the last five years, and their attitude towards major issues like terrorism, human rights, women rights, education, health, and infrastructure. We documented these media persons' interactions with the political activists emerging from these tweets. Some of these tweets were in Urdu. These tweets were translated and back-translated to ensure validity.

This was followed by interviews with eight political activists, four each belonging to PTI and PML-N. We chose those political activists who tweeted, or responded to tweets of media persons, at least ten (10) times every day during the data collection period. Semi-structured interviews were conducted in Urdu and English as per the preference of the participants.

The names of the participants have been replaced with pseudonyms to ensure confidentiality and anonymity. The pseudonyms of the media persons and political activists are presented in the tables below.

Table 1

Pseudonyms of Media Persons

Sr. No.	Pseudonyms	Sr. No.	Pseudonyms
1	Anna	6	Francis
2	Brian	7	Gloria
3	Christopher	8	Henry
4	David	9	Ian
5	Emma	10	Jessica

Table 2

Pseudonyms of Political Activists

Sr. No.	Pseudonyms	Sr. No.	Pseudonyms
1	Alan	5	Eric
2	Betty	6	Farrell
3	Caroline	7	Garcia
4	Dorothy	8	Helen

Results and Discussion

A massive amount of data was available to us. However, our primary concern was the conflict of identities between the political activists and media persons emanating from their discursive orientations. More than anything else, we have been concerned with how the unknown political activists react to the political commentary of media persons and what referential and predicational strategies the two practices for representing each other. Although the social media teams of the PML-N and PTI have been engaged in these conflicts and identity-making at the institutional level, there are a few tweeps who represent their political identity but challenge the identities claimed by the media persons at an individual level.

Nomination Strategies

Reisigl and Wodak's (2009) discourse-historical approach (DHA) helps in identifying the discursive strategies used for naming and describing social actors. Reisigl (2017) terms of these strategies as nomination strategies. Such nominations serve not only as representative depicters for these actors but also as windows into the minds of the discourse producers. The discourse in question is replete with such strategies mostly by the political activists and sometimes by the media persons as well.

There was a marked difference in the use of nomination strategies not only between the media persons and the political activists but also between PTI activists and PML-N activists.

Nominations Strategies by Political Activists for Media Persons in General

The most frequent nomination strategy qualified media persons as *lifafa* journalists (pejorative for journalists who get money for promoting political parties or leaders). Interestingly, the term is used both as an adjective as well as a noun. *Watan firosh sahafi* (treacherous media person), *qalam firosh* (mercenary), b*ezamir sahafi* (a media person with no conscience), traitors, dirty journalism, paid journalism, *dalal*(pimp/s), media mafia, rogue media. *landy k sahafi* (fake media persons)**.** **"***Sahafi*? He is a Sell-out". Third-class, blackmailer, presstitute, *bayghrats (dishonourable and ignoble),* media thugs, *katoory* (puppies), *chootiya* (stupid), *ic beghrt ko bs jotay marny chahy* (This *ignoble* fellow deserves a good beating). Terms like *lifafa* bracket all the media persons as a sell-out. Not only the activists belonging to the two political parties use it for the media persons but the media persons also use it for each other. Hence, it appears to be the most widely used delegitimizing term for journalists.

Activists across the party lines suggest that cash plays a major role in the media industry. "You pay them and you thrive; you refuse them and they start blackmailing you", said David, a PTI activist. Similarly, PML-N's Henry is of the view that "powerful forces, which work behind the scenes, pay some of the journalists to paint some of the politicians as anti-state and corrupt".

Nominations at Individual Level

In addition to the above nomination strategies employed to frame media persons as a group, certain nomination strategies are employed at the individual level as well. For instance, Anna, one of the media person that is quite critical of the PTI is labelled as *sarkari hajan (*a term used for a woman journalist who performed the obligatory pilgrimage to Makkah on government's expenses). Alan, one of the PTI activists says about her, "I have not seen a person who is more shameless, barefaced, impolite, uncivil, miscreant, treacherous, disloyal, tainted, corrupt and ugly than you." This statement shows Alan's immense hatred for the media person who is critical of PTI.

When asked why he resorted to such invective against that particular media person, Alan replied, "These representatives of fake media deserve the same treatment as they have sold their conscience in exchange for monetary gains." Alan's comments should not be seen as an isolated viewpoint. In fact, other PTI activists shared his views as one of them, Betty, remarked, "Corruption is written all over their faces. These media persons deserve nothing less than that because they serve the corrupt politicians and mafias. They focus on the personal lives of our political leaders and try to project them as morally bankrupt. They should be treated in the same manner. They are big names with small mouths."

Another nomination strategy used to qualify media persons at an individual level is distorting the names. The political activists use a variety of distorted names for journalists expressing opposing or dissenting viewpoints. These nominations usually replace either the first or given name or the surname of the media persons with a word that rhymes with that name but amounts to slandering, or allegation, to say the least. Hence, terms like *lefafi*, referring to the claim that the media person sells his views to promote the payers' cause, dollar, riyal, dirham, *naqd* (cash), rishwat (bribe), *badnam* (infamous), and plot are used as alternatives to the real names of the media persons. The references to currency and money are the most recurrent ones.

PTI activists were not the only ones to employ such nomination strategies. The PML-N activists also came out scathing against the media persons that criticized their party. An example in this regard is the following tweet by Eric.

"The traitors like you should be stripped naked and burnt in the fire. You are a shameless person. You sell your soul. You are a womanizer, corrupt and bastard". Quite interestingly, both the PML-N and the PTI activists exploit patriotism and label the dissenting voices as unpatriotic and agents of the other party.

Predication Strategies

Predication strategies are used to attribute positive or negative characteristics to the social actors (Reisigl 2017). Hence, these can be termed as discursive characterization. Several instances were found in the tweets by activists across the political divide. There were allegations that the media persons use their power to form a public opinion against democracy, religion, army, judiciary, and state. These were coupled with allegations of treason, corruption, and moral turpitude.

One of the PML-N activists, Garcia, employed a predication strategy against a media person in a harsh term saying, “Keep on barking against powerless politicians and keep on licking the boots of powerful people in the uniform.”

In fact, there is a clear pattern in the use of such strategies by the followers of both parties. If followers of one party are lashing at one set of media persons, the followers of the other party are also using these predictive strategies against the media persons on the opposing side. It seems that the political parties promote such a culture of abuse to control the media persons. Hence tweets a PTI activist, Betty, directing her pejorative on one of the media persons: “You are the epitome of shamelessness. The more the people abuse you the more shameless you get. No doubt, some people fall into the ditch of ignorance.” This tweet not only highlights Betty's anger at the media persons but also reflects her disappointment that the verbal onslaught is not stopping the media person from criticizing her political party. A renowned journalist, says, “Media cells teach them not only to use abusive terms but also to take pride in that. God have mercy on them!”

A tweet by Farrell titled “pimps’ journalism” not only draws comparisons between the media persons and pimps but also between media on the whole and a brothel. The activist wrote, “They say when a prostitute’s brothel gets deserted, it directly affects the pimps. This is precisely what has happened to media and media parsons after the ouster of the PML-N government.”

In addition to deprecatorily labelling the social actors (Wodak & Meyer 2001) in individual terms, political tweeps also employ predicative strategies against media as an institution. The resentment and hatred against media appear to be so immense that there are calls for exterminating the media persons as is evident in Alan's tweet: “Forget about all the other stories. Ask for your price. When will they kill these journalists who like scruffy dogs are wagging their tales?”

However, media persons have also taken to these disparaging predicative strategies for framing political activists. Reminding a media person, Brian, how he "freely and unfairly" criticized the previous government of PML-N, and how he is condemned and trolled now for criticizing the incumbent PTI government, another media person, i.e. Emma, comments, “You are justified in your criticism today but dogs have been let loose on you now.” This reaction to trolling comes from a media person whose interaction with the PTI activists has always been marred by pejoratives. The predicative strategy adopted by her is meant to give vent to her own feelings about the PTI activists.

Though there are complaints by most of the media persons and analysts that the political activists indulge in verbal abuse, there are a few who do not respond in kind. These media persons simply make comments like the one made by Gloria: “Swearing, swearing and nothing but swearing; taunts and sneering…… This is what the PTI and PML-N media cells stand for”. Gloria's tweet suggests that the political parties' media cells promote the culture of swearing and taunts, meaning thereby that there is institutional support to the trolls. It also shows that the political parties, not isolated activists, are challenging the media person's authority in their field.

However, there is another media person Henry, who says “A civilized person does not indulge in abusive language. If an uncultured person hurls abuses, one should turn a deaf ear to him/her. An ignorant person is inferior to even an animal because such a person is dominated by passions. An animal is deprived of reason. An ignorant person does not use his brain. He should be left to God.”

Conclusion

It is quite clear that both the major political parties are very active in ‘information warfare’ on Twitter, and are quite vocal to occupy this online platform. There are marked similarities in the discursive strategies employed by these parties’ social media teams as far as their interactions with the media persons are concerned. Since there is a realization that media persons have the power to shape public opinion, there appears to be more focus demonizing the media persons to discredit them. This is achieved not only through direct abuse but also through the use of metaphors and neologisms. Political activists with no political office or stake can easily get away with verbal abuse. However, such consistent verbal attacks, abuses, and allegations of financial corruption against media persons ultimately discredit not only the individual media persons but also the community because these attacks are made across the political divide and are directed against the entire media per se. It has been found that the political activists adulate the media persons who write in their favour but they lash at those who criticize their party or political leader. Hence, the only authentic report or tweet is the one that favours one’s political party or leader. This leads researchers to a new direction. Politicians often accuse that the media discredits them. Are the discursive strategies employed by the political activists on Twitter an attempt by the political parties to discredit media? Although neither of the two mainstream parties owns such verbal onslaughts against the media persons, yet one can discern not only a clear pattern but also cooperation among the tweeps of these parties against targeted media persons.

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Appropriate Use of English: An Exploratory Study of EFL Learners' Use of Pragmatic Competence in Saudi Universities

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Abstract

In line with the Saudi Vision 2030 and National Transformation Program (NTP) regarding higher education for better employment, the present study is an attempt to focus on one of the problematic areas in English as Foreign Language (EFL). It is believed that better communicative skills would help more Saudi locals to get employed in national and international organizations. However, despite studying English since Grade 6, a majority of the students struggle with expressing themselves during the most common situations such as making requests, complaints and apologies. The current study intends to explore the level of pragmatic competence of EFL students enrolled in Functional English Courses in public sector universities in Saudi Arabia. It also endeavors to focus on deficient pragmatic competence and address the issues through classroom teaching. To achieve the said objectives, the study employs a mixed-method research design including questionnaires and pre and post-experimental tests. Both male and female students from selected public sector universities served as the participants of the study. The initial findings of the study reveal that the learners lacked pragmatic competence in terms of the selected speech acts, i.e apologies, requests, and complaints. Not only their responses reflected minimum use of relevant expressions, but also their statements contradicted the face-saving and politeness strategies. After the experimental teaching, a significant improvement was demonstrated by the experimental groups in using appropriate, and relevant responses while making requests, complaints, and offering apologies. Based on the findings of the study, relevant and context-appropriate remedies are suggested, which can be effectively used in future teaching EFL programs.

***Keywords*:** Pragmatic competence; EFL learners; Arab context; Experimental study;

Introduction

The huge advances that technology has seen today granted English language a high status and made it a globalized means of communication among people among people all over the world (Alzeebaree & Yavuz, 2017, as cited in Alzeebaree & Hasan, 2020). Knowing a language is important but more important is to know how to use it appropriately according to the situation in the lead, the issue in hand, level of formality, the status of the addressee, etc. This is technically termed pragmatic competence, i.e. the knowledge of using language concerning the context. In the twenty-first century, a language is not learned just for the sake of learning but most often for any expedient purpose like to procure knowledge of the world, to compete in the job market, to understand business opportunities, to travel around the globe, to communicate with the intercontinental community, and above all, to stay in touch with the external world. All of these are important survival skills. To meet the purpose, English has attained the status of lingua franca - an international language of communication. Thus knowing and learning English is crucial for any individual as well as the community interested to enter the job market.

In a competitive progressive state in the world, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia has also introduced English language in the core curriculum of academia as EFL. In fact, EFL has become an important area of the education sector at almost all levels from secondary to higher education. With respect to higher education, many universities in the kingdom offer a variety of English language courses and diplomas besides using it as a medium of instruction. In this regard, an important development is the availability of bachelor's and master’s degrees exclusively in English language and literature. Thus, English has become an important requirement in academic settings.

The English language has four skills that are particularly emphasized in EFL, i.e. reading, writing, listening, and speaking. However, as the world is drastically changing, having structural and formulaic knowledge of a language is one thing but more important is the competence of functional usage. EFL learners must be equipped with and trained for pragmatic competence to exhibit their skills in more contextually relevant ways. According to Saville-Troike (2006), pragmatics is what a speaker must know in order to interpret and convey meaning in communication. In short, it is knowledge of what to say, when, to whom, and in what ways.

Keeping in view the significance of pragmatic competence for EFL learners, it can be anticipated that effective EFL learning and teaching is not possible without it. An EFL learner must be equipped with this type of knowledge to make the best use of his/her knowledge of

English language. As universities in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia have a significant historical background in the EFL context, students are expected to be well-equipped with the knowledge of apposite contextual use of English. However, few studies have suggested just the opposite. Thus, there is a dire need to conduct an in-depth exploratory study of the level of pragmatic competence in Saudi EFL learners. Besides, the study intends to use multiple tools to assess EFL learners' competence in the usage of various pragmatic strategies. This would in turn help to recommend some useful remedies for developing the pragmatics competence of the participants of the study. The study also employs an experimental approach to study the effectiveness of the proposed strategies.

The study aims:

- to assess pragmatic competence levels of EFL learners in selected Saudi universities
- to highlight the problematic areas in pragmatic competence
- to design a sample module for teaching pragmatic competence to EFL learners
- to experiment with the effectiveness of the designed module with a selected population sample, and
- to suggest useful remedies to improve levels of pragmatic competence in learners.

The research is significant in multiple ways. Firstly, it aims to assess the pragmatic competence of EFL learners in Saudi universities which will help the researchers to propose effective strategies for improvement. Thus, it is quite relevant to English Language Teaching reforms needed to improve competency, efficiency, and relevancy among English speakers in the Kingdom. Secondly, the study would offer strategies to improve the curriculum related to EFL in order to produce more effective users of the English language than mere knowers of English language. Thirdly, enhancing pragmatic competence can help students comprehend English language and the inherent functions related to it. This can help them indoctrinate a habit of learning the language with understanding. Resultantly, students' communicative competence can be improved which is an important part of personality grooming in a global world. Fourthly, as a speedily emerging state of commerce and travel, the Saudi government needs effective English speakers to boost its image on a global scale. Hence, the present study would assist in the process by focusing on weak areas in the EFL learning context. Moreover, English speakers with better pragmatic competence can work effectively in international organizations as well as government sector institutes. In local companies, they can work as brand ambassadors to communicate with international organizations. In the tourism industry, speakers with good pragmatic competence can effectively communicate with tourists to guide them. Finally, the study is an effective contribution to the body of knowledge in Linguistics in general and ELT in particular at international forums.

Literature Review

Language as a tool of communication has much more to do than just communication. Therefore, language learning is an integral part of human living. In the contemporary global village, where distances have been shortened and communities have been shrunken, the need for the English language is more than just a requirement to cope up with the world. Crystal (2003) opines that English has emerged as a global language because it "has penetrated deeply into the international domains of political life, business, safety, communication, entertainment, the media and education" (pg. 30). Because of this dominance, acceptance, and requirement, the need to learn and teach English has been espoused in the educational policies of various countries around the globe, including Saudi Arabia. Despite the strong religious and cultural resistance that English faces in the country (Al-Saraj, 2014), its prominence cannot be ignored. She further comments that globalization has made an additional demand for English language skills in the Saudi marketplace, and as a result, academia in Saudi Arabia has transformed radically to meet this demand. With the passage of time, educational policies in Saudi Arabia have included English in curricula at various levels. Mitchell and Alfuraih (2017) have explicated a comprehensive orientation on how English has flourished eventually to make its role protuberant in the Saudi context. El-Dakhs, Rahman, Muhammad, and Amroun (2019) narrate that the domain of English language teaching and learning is getting a huge scope with every single day. In the contemporary situation, EFL is an integral part of educational policies, curriculum, and contexts.

However, many studies have reported that Saudi EFL learners cannot perform well in many areas of linguistic competence (Al-Khairy, 2013a; Alrahaili, 2013; Alrashidi & Phan, 2015; Rahman & Alhaisoni, 2013; Al-Ghamdi, Almansoob, & Alrefaeem, 2019; Salayo, 2021; Medriano Jr & Bautista, 2020 etc.) These researchers report that besides the Saudi government's efforts, EFL standards among students need improvement. One of the researchers has also highlighted some problem areas where improvements are suggested and they include mainly in them linguistic competence (see Alrabai, 2016). In contrast, pragmatic competence which is an important part of language learning has often been given less attention.

For functional use of English, pragmatic competence is an important area to consider besides linguistic competence. More often pragmatic competence is defined as ability than mere knowledge. As Thomas (1983) defines, it is the ability for operative use of language in order to attain an explicit purpose and moreover to comprehend language in real-life contexts. It is about the functional use of language, without which learners cannot perform well in actual situations while communicating. Kasper and Rose (1999) argue that to converse efficaciously in a target language, pragmatic competence in L2 must be practically well developed. According to Hu (2007), pragmatic awareness is the "conscious perception and sensitivity to the stipulations of appropriateness which are restricted by specific communication contexts". Many researchers have outlined the effectiveness of pragmatic competence in learning and teaching English (Bardovi-Harlig 1996; Rose and Kasper 2001; Bardovi-Harlig & Griffin 2005).

Pragmatic competence is quite a broad area; however, the most important aspect of it is its contextual usage. In this area, speech acts are of primary importance. Bialystok (1993) comments that speech acts are directly related to pragmatic competence as lack of performing not well in speech acts results in pragmatic failure. Further, he identifies three main categories of speech acts related to pragmatic competence, which are making a request, making an apology, and making a complaint. Koran and Koran (2017) assert that language teaching is incomplete until and unless teachers do not focus on pragmatic competence in their curriculum. They further assert that these include the speech acts related to refusal, complaint, request, acceptance, etc. Canagarajah (2011) states that expertise for language learners does not lie in constructing aptitudes and skills, but in building repertoire i.e. in developing consciousness of the various functions of the languages they know and in developing the abilities to know when to use which repertoire. This is actually the concept of pragmatic competence which enables the learners to understand when to speak what and how.

With respect to pragmatic competence, many studies have been conducted in various contexts. For example, SIU (2008) researched Cantonese EFL learners to consider request strategies as employed by learners in both spoken and written versions of the English language. Deveci (2015) steered research in the UAE context to identify the lack of pragmatic competence among EFL learners. Wijayanto, Laila, Prasetyrini, and Susiati (2013) conducted a study to probe the level of EFL learners' pragmatic competence in the Indonesian context. Mofidi and Shoushtari (2012) worked with the Iranian students' sample and identified a lack of pragmatic competence. Umar (2006) explored the pragmatic competence of advanced Sudanese EFL learners who were all graduate students at Sudanese universities.

In contrast, there have been comparatively fewer studies in the Saudi context. Al Falasy (2007) worked on complement strategies employed by Saudi students and suggested that this area needs improvement. Altheeby (2017) carried out an exploratory study to compare the pragmatic competence level of Saudi EFL and ESL learners. He identified that almost all level learners of English, as both foreign and second language learners, lack the ability to perform various speech acts related to the request, complaint, etc. El-Dakhs, Rahman, Muhammad, and Amroun (2019) conducted an exploratory study to investigate Saudi EFL learners' complaint behaviors and found many discrepancies in the ways these learners make use of various complaint strategies. Saud (2019) worked on the refusal strategies of Saudi leaners and identified areas of concern. It is anticipated that lacking pragmatic competence serves to be one fundamental reason for the communicative incompetence of the Saudi English speaking community. The present study aims to focus on this area in order to recognize problematic areas of various speech acts, as well as to experiment and suggest some useful aspects for improvement. The study aims to promote English language learning with better contextual outputs, to help Saudi nationals emerge as a globalized nation.

Research Methodology

The current research is conducted in three main phases. The first phase, exploratory in nature, aims to assess the level of pragmatic competence of the learners enrolled in multiple universities of Suadi Arabia. Based on the analysis of the data collected in the first phase, the teaching module is designed in the second phase of the study, to address the deficient areas in pragmatics competence of the learners, delimited to speech acts. The last phase is primarily the experimental phase, implementing the designed teaching module in the parent university of the investigators.

Keeping in view the aforementioned objectives of the study, the mixed-method research model is employed consisting of both quantitative and qualitative research tools. An ever-increasing number of research studies implementing mixed-method research speak for its merits specifically with reference to research in social sciences (Ramlo, 2016). To suit the needs of the study, the following research tools are devised and implemented: To gauge the pragmatics competence of the participants of the study, a tailored questionnaire is implemented including discourse completion tasks. The questionnaire focuses on participants' use of English speech acts requests, apologies, and complaints. The questionnaire is divided into three parts: demographics, choosing appropriate responses for the given situations, and lastly; giving their responses to different pragmatic strategies given.

Considering the previous research conducted in the same field as well as the nature of the deficiencies highlighted in the first phase of the study, a relevant and focused lesson plan was designed to improve the pragmatic competence of the students, addressing existing issues the students face while communicating in English for day-to-day conversation. The experimental teaching was intended to continue for 12 weeks. Two additional weeks were assigned to pre and post-tests administered to comparatively assess students' performance in the use of pragmatic strategies. Pre and post-experimental tests were designed to experimentally understand the effectiveness of the implemented module. The pre-test was administered to assess the existing competence of the students at the beginning of the experiment. After the treatment period, a post-test was administered to reassess the students' speech acts competence and comparatively analyze the improvement in their performance.

For the first survey-based part, the population of the study was all the male and female students enrolled in Functional English Courses in Public Universities of Saudi Arabia. Following the convenience sampling as the investigators couldn't include all the universities and their population (Etikan et al., 2016) the students from five public universities were selected as a sample.

The participants, both male, and female were given the survey questionnaire to be responded through online Google form (due to epidemic situation). Almost 170 responses were received. The demographic factors of the sample population are as following: gender ratio of the respondents is 88.8 % males and 11.2% females; age grouping 18-22+ (with a mean age of participants is 19.8); and, education level undergraduate. All the participants were included from the same study level, age group, and enrolled in the same courses so that the data collected can be the true representative of the concerned population.

The second phase of the study was related to experimental research design. Due to the contextual and implementation constraints, the experimental teaching was conducted at one university, i.e. Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz University including students from both male and female sections. The students were randomly divided into control and experimental groups. At the beginning of the study, the pre-test was conducted to evaluate the level of pragmatic competence of the learners, followed by the experimental teaching phase. At the end of the study, the post-test was conducted and the results of both pre and post-tests were comparatively analyzed to find out the difference in the performance of the learners.

Results and Discussion

This section presents the important findings of the study in two phases. In the first phase, the results of the questionnaire are provided to get an insight into the pragmatic competence level of the selected population. As mentioned above, three speech acts were chosen for the purpose: apologies, requests, and complaints. Each act was given five situations (three close-ended which means students had to choose from a set of given responses and two open-ended that needed students to write a response on their own). Analysis of each set of speech acts is presented one by one. The first set was the responses related to apology strategies.

Apologies are often essential to build good relationships and to avoid face-threatening acts. For the present study, Yuan (2012) framework is used to analyze apologies. According to it, there are three components of an apology: a regret statement, a responsibility acknowledgment, and a remedial offer. The findings reveal the following patterns of apologies by the participants (given in Table 1). The findings reveal that majority of the population uses the simple pattern of apology, i.e. making a regret. Whereas, there are a few instances involving responsibility and very little of the offering of a remedy. Interestingly, in open-ended questions, a few patterns of denial of the action are also visible, where the respondents do not admit the wrongdoing.

Table 1

Patterns of apologies by the participants

Apologies patterns	Sample statements	Percentages
Regret	I am sorry……. I apologize……	61%
Responsibility	It’s my fault……. I did it…….	21%
Remedy	I won’t do it again…. I offer …….	11%
No apologies	It’s not my fault…. I didn’t ……..	7%

The next speech act was related to requests, which are essential to build human social relationships and to carry out business. For the present study, the aspect of “making requests” was focused on and analyzed using Suh (1999) model. According to it, there are six parts of a request act: acknowledgment of burden, gratitude, rhetorical questions, a promise for the future, preparedness, and urgency. Two more components “direct request’ and “giving a reason” were added based on the findings of the study. Based on the framework, table two below represents how the students made use of request strategies in the present study. Gratitude was the highest factor to be observed while making requests. However, there were also several instances noted where a student used a direct request strategy thus ignoring the face-saving acts in the conversation.

Table 2

Patterns of requests by the participants

Request patterns	Sample statements	Percentage
Acknowledgment	I understand…. I know you can…….	7%
Gratitude	I will be grateful…. I am really thankful….	43%
Rhetorical questions	Could you….. Would you……	4%
Promise	If you…… I promise…..	7%
Preparedness	I am ready to…..	4%
Urgency	It's really urgent…. I don't have time left…..	11%
Direct request	I need you to… You have to….. Give me…..	21%
Giving reasons	I was not well….. I am in need because….	10%

The final speech act was related to making complaints. Complaints are necessary for smooth communication though if not used in the right way can lead to face-threatening. Tanck (2002) opines that complaints are speech acts of displeasure or annoyance which can have serious impacts on the communication as well as the connection between speaker and listener. Thus, indirect strategies more often suit the purpose. To analyze the data in the present research, the approach offered by Murthy and Neu (1996) was used. According to them, complaints can be coded for four main aspects: no explicit criticism, expression of annoyance, allegation, and blame. Inline, the data collected was analyzed and presented in Table 3 below. The findings indicate that students express their annoyance more often while making complaints. Moreover, they also tend to accuse the other person directly for their fault. The data shows that their use of complaint strategies involved more face-threatening acts.

Table 3

Complaints patterns used by the participants in the questionnaire

Complaint patterns	Sample statements	Percentage
No explicit criticism	I don't see it as your fault…. I know you didn't mean to but…..	19%
Expression of annoyance	Because of you, ….. If you are not here, it….. Now, you have to……	41%
Allegation	Would you mind being helpful…. You are disturbing	29%
Blame	You have to…. I will not favor…..	11%

Overall, the findings of this section reveal that students are not much aware of using indirect speech acts in order to save faces as proposed by Politeness Theory (by Brown & Levinson, 1987). They mostly preferred direct strategies to make complaints, requests, and apologies in most of the given situations. The study confirms Altheeby's (2017) and Saud's (2019) research findings that Saudi leaners lack pragmatic competence which needs to be addressed. Koran and Koran (2017) asserts that language teaching is incomplete without making students comprehend and use speech acts communicative strategies according to the context. This lack of pragmatic competence among Saudi EFL learners was addressed in the second phase of the study to find out which activities and material would be suitable for the purpose. An experimental study was conducted in this regard and its findings are presented in succeeding paragraphs.

Pre-test Data Analysis

To implement the study the pre & post-tests were administered in both male and female campuses. Two groups of students were randomly selected from each campus being control and experimental groups. Each group consisted of 30 students. The following tables represent the performance of the male and female students in the pre-test activities.

Table 4

Performance of males in the pre-test

Pragmatic Patterns	Completion of pre-test %	Experimental Group	Control Group
Apologies	01-20	33%	30%
	21-40	27%	23%
	41-60	27%	30%
	61-80	23%	13%
	81-100	0%	3%
Requests	01-20	23%	20%
	21-40	17%	17%
	41-60	33%	30%
	61-80	17%	23%
	81-100	10%	10%
Complaints	01-20	37%	33%
	21-40	20%	23%
	41-60	27%	30%
	61-80	17%	13%
	81-100	0%	0%

Pre-test performance analysis of male respondents demonstrates noticeably unsatisfactory results in all the three pragmatic strategies. The majority of the participants appeared to be unfamiliar with the appropriate responses to the given situations and scenarios. For instance, none of the participants attempted the whole test. As far as apology strategies are concerned, in both experimental and control groups, the participants' performance remained less than 50 percent. Similarly, the students found it difficult to produce responses to complaints scenarios as well with only 17% & 13% performing above 60 percent of the task in both experimental and control groups respectively. However, the respondents performed comparatively better in the request patterns where 10% of the respondents were able to attempt more than 80 percent of the required task. Overall, the performance of male participants highlights that they lacked the knowledge of responding appropriately and adequately to the apology, requests, and complaints patterns.

Table 5

Performance of females in the pre-test

Pragmatic Patterns	Performance %	Experimental Group	Control Group
Apology	01-20	27%	30%
	21-40	27%	27%
	41-60	30%	37%
	61-80	13%	10%
	81-100	3%	0%
Request	01-20	20%	23%
	21-40	17%	23%
	41-60	27%	27%
	61-80	27%	20%
	81-100	13%	7%
Complaint	01-20	33%	33%
	21-40	37%	33%
	41-60	20%	30%
	61-80	10%	3%
	81-100	10%	0%

Female participants of the study perform slightly better than their counterparts, however, their performance too, remained overall inadequate. Like male participants, the female students found it difficult to generate suitable and adequate responses to different scenarios presented. For example, in both experimental and control groups, only 16% & 10% of participants were able to respond to apology situations above 80 percent. The same can be observed in complaints strategies too. A significant number of students in the experimental as well as control group could not produce the required complaint expressions and responses. Like male students, interestingly, the females also seemed comparatively familiar with request patterns and performed slightly better in this category.

Table 6

Patterns of apologies by the participants in the pre-test

Apologies patterns	**Sample statements**	**Experimental**	**Control**	**Experimental**	**Control**
		Male		Female	
Regret	I am sorry……. I apologize……	70%	73%	77%	73%
Responsibility	It's my fault……. I did it…….	10%	13%	3%	10%
Remedy	I won't do it again…. I offer …….	13%	10%	10%	10%
No apologies	It's not my fault…. I didn't ……..	6%	3%	10%	7%

The responses of both male and female participants to three situations given to offer an apology pinpointed a crucial lack of pragmatic competence. Most of the students attempted the task partially with either incomplete or inaccurate expressions. Similarly, the majority of the responses included 'regret' stating only the expression "I am sorry" without giving any further explanation. Very few responses offered a sense of responsibility or remedy. The responses did not address the issue of the level of formality as well such as interacting with a stranger or a family member. Comparatively female participants appeared to employ slightly more apologetic and less responsible strategies than their counterparts.

Table 7

Patterns of requests by the participants in the pre-test

Request patterns	**Sample statements**	**Experimental**	**Control**	**Experimental**	**Control**
		Males		Females	
Acknowledgment	I understand…. You explained…….	3%	6%	10%	6%
Gratitude	I will be grateful…. I am really thankful….	40%	37%	43%	47%

	Please ……				
Rhetorical questions	Could you….. Would you…… Can you…..	3%	6%	6%	10%
Promise	If you……..	0%	0%	3%	6%
Preparedness	I am ready to…..	6%	10%	3%	3%
Urgency	It's really urgent…. I don't have time left…..	0%	0%	3%	0%
Direct request	I need you to… You have to….. Give me…..	27%	23%	6%	10%
Giving reasons	I was not well….. I am in need because….	20%	20%	23%	20%

Even though there are a variety of expressions available to make requests, the male participants offered very limited expressions whereas, female participants employed more variety of expressions to some extent. The scenarios given required the participants to respond according to the level of formality and face-saving strategies. Most of the time, the participants used the same expressions "please…" in all the situations. Noticeably, the direct requests were made mostly in the situation where interacting with the coffee-shop attendant, without indicating any politeness. However, when requesting the professor, both male and female respondents presented 'gratitude' as well as 'justification' for their requests.

Table 8

Patterns of complaints by the participants in the pre-test

Request patterns	**Sample statements**	**Experimental**	**Control**	**Experimental**	**Control**
		Males		Females	
No explicit criticism	It's not your fault…. I know you didn't mean to but….. It's ok No problem	57%	43%	60%	53%
Expression of annoyance	You need to/be more careful... If you don't … I need…… Will you please…	33%	37%	30%	40%
Allegation	Would you mind …. You are not….	3%	10%	0%	6%
Blame	You have caused…. You spoiled ….. You are causing problem	6%	10%	10%	10%

For both male and female participants, complaining meant either a direct complaint that showed annoyance or no explicit criticism specifically when interacting with a stranger. Even where the respondents were supposed to make a direct complaint, they used expressions such as "It's ok/It's fine.." which shows the lack of knowledge in using English while expressing complaints. In the same way, the annoyance or dissatisfaction was presented with common expressions like "You need to/I need you..". Importantly, very few participants attempted all the three situations given. They either left it empty or attempted it inappropriately or insufficiently.

The overall performance of the participants irrespective of their gender demonstrated that they were unaware of the relevant and context-appropriate knowledge of using English to apologize, make requests, or complain.

Post-test Analysis:

After the experimental teaching, the post-test was conducted to comparatively analyze the difference in the performance of the learners.

Table 9

Patterns of apologies by the participants in the post-test

Apologies patterns	**Sample statements**	**Experimental**	**Control**	**Experimental**	**Control**
		Male		Female	
Regret	I am sorry……. I apologize…… I really apologize… My apologies….	80%	73%	83%	73%
Responsibility	It's my fault……. I did it……. I did not mean to…	10%	10%	7%	13%
Remedy	I won't do it again…. I offer ……. I will do ….	10%	10%	10%	7%
No apologies	It's not my fault…. I didn't …….. I got busy….	0%	7%	0%	7%

It was observed that in the post-test, the participants of the experimental group not only attempted the whole test, the sentences, and expressions used by them were also complete and contextually appropriate. Both male and female participants offered a variety of expressions such as 'Oh, I am so sorry, my sincere apology, I am terribly sorry" with a clear indication of apology followed by an explanation. Where needed the respondents took the responsibility and offered a remedy. The conformity to the appropriate use of language issue as per the level of formality as a friend and a stranger, formal or informal situations was also almost satisfactorily addressed. Comparatively the performance of the control group remained almost the same and did not reflect any visible difference.

Table 10

Patterns of requests by the participants in the pre-test

Request patterns	**Sample statements**	**Experimental**	**Control**	**Experimental**	**Control**
		Males		Females	
Acknowledgment	I understand…. You explained…….	0%	5%	0%	3%
Gratitude	I will be grateful…. I am really thankful…. Please …… I am sorry to bother…	53%	33%	57%	43%
Rhetorical questions	Could you….. Would you…… Can you…..	30%	7%	33%	13%
Promise	If you……..	0%	0%	0%	3%
Preparedness	I am ready to…..	3%	8%	0%	3%
Urgency	It's really urgent…. I don't have time left…..	0%	0%	0%	0%
Direct request	I need you to… You have to….. Give me…..	6%	20%	6%	17%
Giving reasons	I was not well….. I am in need because….	10%	20%	6%	17%

As per the data given in the table above, it is evident that the participants of experimental male and female groups had a noticeable improvement in using the language pragmatically. The majority of them made requests more politely, gratefully, and less directly. Similarly, their skill of using rhetorical question words such as “can, would, could” also improved. The expressions starting with ‘please’ or ‘sorry’ were frequently applied irrespective of the difference in the level, i.e. interacting with the attendant at the coffee shop or with the professor in the classroom. The direct requests with informal expressions such as ‘hey, dude’ was made when speaking with a friend. This reflects that the participants were able to differentiate between the formal and informal use of language according to the level of familiarity and social distance. On the other hand, no significant difference was observed in the performance of the control group.

Table 11

Patterns of complaints by the participants in the post-test

Request patterns	**Sample statements**	**Experimental Control**		**Experimental Control**	
		Males		Females	
No explicit criticism	It’s not your fault…. I know you didn’t mean to but….. It’s ok No problem	23%	47%	20%	53%
Expression of annoyance	You need to/be more careful... If you don’t … I need…… Will you please…	40%	33%	37%	40%
Allegation	Would you mind …. You are not….	6%	10%	10%	6%
Blame	You needed to be…. You should have ….. You wasted… You never take care…	30%	10%	33%	10%

Like apology and request strategies, the experimental group participants demonstrated an enhanced understanding and usage of complaint strategies too. Unlike, the pre-test, the post-test displayed an informed and contextually appropriate use of pragmatic expressions. Such as, the learners showed annoyance and explicit criticism in the situations which required them to do so. "I thought you were responsible, you never take care, if you don't fix, I asked you many times' are a few examples from the participants' responses. Interestingly, though not very significant, female participants used more expressions of allegation and blame, whereas, the males tended to use more expressions of annoyance. Again, the performance of the control group did not vary greatly from their performance in the pre-test.

Conclusion and Suggestions

The study was conceived with the sole objective of assessing the pragmatic competence levels of EFL learners in the selected Saudi universities to bring to light the problematic areas and come up with a workable pragmatic module for EFL learners. For this purpose, a questionnaire among 170 students (male and female) was administered to assess the level of pragmatic competence of the undergraduate learners enrolled (in the functional English classes) in five public sector universities of Saudi Arabia. Later, in the second phase, a pre-test was conducted in the parent university of the researchers. Based on the data of the second phase, a teaching module was designed to address the deficient areas in pragmatics competence of the learners, delimited to speech acts pertaining to the apology, complaint, and request strategies. The third phase, i.e. experimental one entailed implementation of the designed teaching module in the control as well as experimental groups (both male and female). The mixed-method-consisting of both qualitative and quantitative research tools research model was employed. After the successful and rigorous implementation of the module, the students were given a post-test in order to assess their speech acts competence. The pre and post-test data (of the control and excremental groups) were comparatively analyzed to evaluate the advancement in their performance.

The findings of the pre-test in all the three categories (apology, complaints, and requests) revealed that the majority of the participants faced difficulty using suitable expressions. For example, most of them used very basic apology responses such as making a regret. However, there was a scarce of occurrences concerning responsibility and even fewer offering a remedy. Amazingly, in open-ended questions, some patterns of disavowal of the action could also be observed where the respondents did not even admit any offense. Similarly, while making requests, gratitude was the most frequently notable factor. However, there were also multiple notable instances where a respondent used a direct request strategy, ignoring the tactical face-saving acts in the talk. The same was found in the data concerning complaints where the students expressed their anger. Moreover, they were also inclined to blame the other directly for the fault of their own. The results demonstrated that their use of complaint strategies involved more face-threatening acts. Therefore, the students were not aware of using indirect speech acts in order to save faces as suggested by the politeness theory. They frequently resorted to direct strategies for making complaints, requests, and apologies. The study endorses Altheeby's (2017) and Saud's (2019) research results that Saudi EFL learners lack pragmatic competence that needs to be looked into and addressed.

In all, the responses of participants of both genders to offer an apology, make a request or complain pointed to a critical want of pragmatic competence. Most of the students attempted the task partially with partial or imprecise expressions. The general performance of both male and female participants indicated that they were unmindful of the applicable and context-appropriate EFL knowledge to apologize, make requests, or complain. The above findings quite conveniently paved the way to conduct an experimental study through a customized lesson plan in the experimental group.

After twelve weeks of the implementation of the ready module in the experimental group, it was observed in the post-test that the participants not only attempted the whole test, but their expressions and sentences were also complete and appropriate contextually. Participants of both the genders used an assortment of expressions such as ‘Oh, I am so sorry, my sincere apology, I am terribly sorry” with a strong sign of apology and a subsequent explanation. The respondents held themselves responsible wherever needed offering a remedy. They demonstrated conformity to the appropriate use of language use keeping in view the level of formality as a friend or a stranger. They even fully considered the formality or informality of situations which was totally absent in the pre-test. Most of the participants made requests more courteously, appreciatively, and inadvertently. Similarly, their skill of using rhetorical question words such as “can, would could” also improved. Like apology and request strategies, the participants demonstrated a greater understanding and usage of complaint strategies. Unlike the pre-test, the post-test displayed an informed and contextually appropriate use of pragmatic expressions. On the other hand, the performance of the control group remained more or less the same and did not echo any notable difference.

Based on the above findings, observations, and analysis, it is strongly recommended that a serious thought should be given to the methods of teaching as well as the contents of EFL courses in Saudi universities. The teaching method should be made more interactive, fully involving the oral and writing skills of students. The EFL courses must include and implement pragmatic contents concerning day-to-day conversations in all the undergraduate EFL courses taught throughout the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia which are consistent with its Vision 2030.

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Needs to Survive in Writing: A Comparative Analysis

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Abstract

This research study was prioritized to be conducted to assess the writing proficiency level of 197 first year college students of the Isabela State University, San Mariano Campus enrolled for SY 2019 – 2020. Frequency count, percentage and ranking were used to analyze the data. The findings are as follows. Out of the 197 respondents, more than half of them showed poor understanding of the topic. Confusion was then evident in their outputs. On organization of ideas, most of them had weak performance in organizing and developing ideas. Supporting details were not also part of their outputs. For their performance on applying conventions which deal about grammar, correct usage, and mechanics, more than half of the respondents' outputs were erroneous. These affected the meaning of their outputs. As to style of writing, majority of them had serious problems particularly on word choice and sentence structures.

Keywords: *writing proficiency, organization of ideas, conventions, writing style*

Introduction

In today's situation, tertiary institutions need to consider writing as an important area to be given primordial attention through quality academic services. Administrators and faculty members need to seriously identify needs of students. Developing writing as a macro-skill in English requires students' determination, patience and most of all high level of positivity in order to guarantee a satisfying writing performance. Its advantages are too many especially in the lives of graduates who will be searching for employment here and abroad. This skill can facilitate job absorption and it can even be considered as an edge over other graduates.

It is also an accepted fact that writing demands commitment among students and once this is carried – out, it can lead to academic performance difference. It is a complicated process for it requires higher order thinking skill to produce quality outputs. The writer generates, organizes and patiently reviews ideas using the rules of the written language, correct grammar and vocabulary. It is a mental activity requiring students to generate ideas from their own memory.

Writing, then is counted as a big academic challenge. On the part of college students, they need to stay highly motivated. High level of inspiration must be drawn by them from their own mentors. In this way, they can respond to even the most difficult writing activities in the classroom and outside the classroom. It is disgusting to know that ISU, San Mariano Campus students still fall short of English mentors' expectations as to writing performance. They belong to tertiary category but could hardly manifest the desired writing performance to be able to perform well classroom challenges. This is a condition that is disturbing because in various workplaces today, writing project proposals, memoranda, feasibility studies , letters, abstracts, manuscripts, periodic reports, journals, instruction manuals and other forms of writing are the expected challenges to be performed in order to truly facilitate organizations' vision and mission realization. Defazio, Jones, Tennant and Hook [2010] stressed that effective writing is a skill grounded in the cognitive domain. It involves learning, comprehension application and synthesis of new knowledge. From a faculty member's perspective writing well entails more than adhering to writing conventions. Writing also encompasses creative inspiration, problem-solving, reflection and revision that results in a completed manuscript. They also pointed out that from a student's perspective, writing may instead be a laborious and even dreaded exercise of attempting to place thoughts on paper while developing mastery over the rules of writing, such as spelling ang grammar.

Relevant and effective interventions are ideal solutions to students' writing weaknesses. Providing them the most needed resources and academic services through reinforcements is a best move in order to truly address writing problems of college students.

Research Objectives

This study aimed to assess the writing proficiency level of the respondents. Specifically, it sought to

1. characterize their writing proficiency level in the following areas:
    - Content
    - Organization of ideas

- Conventions (grammar, usage, mechanics); and
- Writing style

2. ascertain the weaknesses of the students in relation to writing; and
3. devise extension activities that will strengthen the writing performance of the respondents.
4.

Methodology

Research Design

In this study, descriptive statistics was applied to discover the writing proficiency level of the respondents as far as content, organization of ideas, conventions and style of writing are concerned.

Research Participants

There were 197 first year college students of the Isabela State University, San Mariano Campus for SY 2019 – 2020 who became respondents. Thirty [30] from the BSIT, 54 from the BAT, 77 from the BSEd and 36 from the BSHM cooperated as respondents.

Instrumentation

The essay outputs of the respondents were obtained with the use of questionnaires. In every questionnaire, a strict reminder was stressed that in writing their essays, they must see to it that observance of content relevance, proper organization of ideas, conventions and writing style are given weight.

Data Gathering

Proper coordination was done first through sending request letters to the concerned officials and faculty of the campus to ensure their cooperation. For the retrieval aspect of the questionnaires, this was done systematically through the most helpful and trusted colleagues of the researcher.

Data Analysis

Frequency count, percentage and ranking were applied to be able to accurately determine the writing proficiency level of the respondents. In addition, rubric was used to assess their writing proficiency level .

Results and Discussions

Table I. Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the Respondents' Writing Proficiency Level as to Content

Content and Focus	BSEd			BSHM			BAT			BSIT			
	F	%	Rank	F	%	Rank	F	%	Rank	F	%	Rank	
Demonstrates a thorough and clear understanding of the topic. An insightful response was given.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Demonstrates a sound understanding of the topic. Addresses the topic clearly, but a more effective response can be	2	2.59	4	1	2.77	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	

Demonstrates a general understanding of the topic. It is well explained, though some aspects may have been developed into a more sensible response.	5	6.49	3	5	13.88	3	4	7.40	3	1	3.33	3
Demonstrates some understanding of the topic given, but some aspects were not clearly stated that resulted into developing a weak response.	30	38.96	2	9	25	2	13	24.07	2	10	33.33	2
Demonstrates poor understanding of the topic. Confusion is fairly evident.	40	51.95	1	21	58.33	1	37	68.52	1	19	63.33	1
Total	**77**	**100**		**36**	**100**		**54**	**100**		**30**	**100**	

0ut of the 197 respondents involved in this study, 2 or 2.59 percent of the first year BSEd respondents demonstrated a sound understanding of the topic; 1 or 2.77 percent from the BSHM respondents'; while none from the BAT and BSIT respondents' outputs was classified to qualify for this criterion.

Also, there were 5 or 6.49 percent of the BSEd respondents who demonstrated a general understanding of the topic with proper explanations although some aspects can be developed into a more sensible responses, 5 or 13.88 percent from the BSHM respondents; 4 or 7.40 percent from the BAT respondents while only 1 or 3.33 percent from the BSIT respondents.
There were 30 or 38.96 percent of the BSEd respondents who showed some understanding of

the topic, but some aspects were not clearly stated that ended into developing a weak response; 9 or 25 percent from the BSHM; 13 or 24.07 percent from the BAT and 10 or 33.33 percent from the BSIT.

There were also 40 or 51.95 percent of the BSEd respondents who demonstrated poor understanding of the common essay topic given which resulted to confusion; 21 or 58.33 percent from the BSHM; 37 or 68.52 percent from the BAT while 19 or 63.33 percent from the BSIT. The data revealed that in the area of content, the respondents' outputs were unsatisfying having not expressed well in writing the essence of the topic.

Table 2. Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the Respondents' Writing Proficiency Level as to Organization

Organization	BSEd	BSHM	BAT	BSIT

	f	%	Rank	f	%	Rank	f	%	Rank	F	%	Rank
The response is coherently organized and developed, with ideas supported by reasons.	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -
It is well organized and developed, with ideas supported by appropriate reasons.	-	-	-	1	2.77	4	-	-	-	-	-	-
It is adequately organized and developed, with generally supporting ideas with reasons.	5	6.49	3	2	5.55	3	-	-	-	-	-	-
The response is poorly organized and developed, presenting generalizations without adequate and appropriate supporting ideas.	20	25.97	2	5	13.88	2	12	22.22	2	3	10	2

It has a fairly weak organization and development, providing basic generalizations without supporting ideas.	50	64.94	1	26	72.22	1	42	77.78	1	25	83.33	1
The answer lacks organization.	2	2.60	4	2	5.55	-	-	-	-	2	6.66	3
Total	**77**	**100**		**36**	**100**		**54**	**100**		**30**	**100**	

The data on the table show that out of 197 respondents, there was no output from the BSEd respondents that was well organized and developed with ideas supported by appropriate reasons; there was 1 or 2.77 percent from the BSHM; while none from the BAT and the BSIT respondents.

There were 5 or 6.49 percent of the BSEd respondents whose outputs were adequately organized and developed, with supporting ideas; 2 or 5.55 from the BSHM; and none from the BAT and the BSIT respondents.

There were 20 or 25.97 percent of the BSEd respondents whose responses were poorly organized and developed, presenting generalizations without adequate and appropriate supporting ideas; 5 or 13.88 percent from the BSHM; 12 or 22.22 percent from the BAT; and 3 or 10 percent from the BSIT respondents.

There were also 50 or 64.94 percent of the BSEd respondents who had a fairly weak organization and development, providing basic generalizations without supporting ideas; 26 or 72.22 percent from the BSHM; 42 or 77.78 percent from the BAT; and 25 or 83.33 percent from the BSIT respondents.

About the number of respondents who had outputs that lacked organization, there were 2 or 2.60 percent from the BSEd; 2 or 5.55 percent from the BSHM; none from the BAT; and 2 or 6.66 from the BSIT respondents.

The data implied that most of the outputs of the 197 respondents did not manifest correct organization of ideas, hence it can be said that unity which is one of the basic principles in writing was not applied.

Table 3. Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the Respondents' Writing Proficiency Level as to Conventions (Grammar, Correct Usage and Mechanics)

Conventions (Grammar, Usage, and Mechanics)	BSEd			BSHM			BAT			BSIT		
	f	**%**	**Rank**	**F**	**%**	**Rank**	**F**	**%**	**Rank**	**F**	**%**	**Rank**
The response is generally free from errors in grammar usage, and mechanics (spelling, capitalization, punctuation).	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Makes few errors in grammar, usage, and mechanics.	2	2.59	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Makes some errors, but mostly demonstrates control of grammar, usage, and mechanics.	3	3.89	3.5	1	2.77	4	-	-	-	2	6.66	4
It has an accumulation of errors in grammar, usage, and mechanics, but minimally affects the meaning of the response.	15	19.48	2	3	8.33	2	11	20.37	2	8	26.66	2
The response is marked with numerous errors in grammar, usage, and mechanics that significantly interfere with the meaning.	54	70.12	1	30	83.33	1	43	79.63	1	17	56.66	1
The activity has serious and recurrent errors in grammar, usage, and mechanics that greatly interfere with the overall meaning of the answer.	3	3.89	3.5	2	5.55	3	-	-	-	3	10	3
Total	**77**	**100**		**36**	**100**		**54**	**100**		**30**	**100**	

Table 3 shows the frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents writing proficiency level as to conventions. Out of 197 respondents, there were 2 or 2.59 percent of the BSEd respondents who made few errors in grammar, usage and mechanics; while none from the BSHM, BAT and BSIT respondents.

For the number of respondents who made some errors, but mostly demonstrated control of grammar, usage and mechanics, there were 3 or 3.89 percent of the BSEd respondents whose outputs were categorized under the said criterion; 1 or 2.77 percent from the BSHM; none from the BAT; and 2 or 2.66 percent from the BSIT.

About manifestation of errors in grammar, usage and mechanics, but minimally affected the meaning of the outputs, 15 or 19.48 percent of the BSEd respondents' outputs were classified under this criterion; 3 or 8.33 percent from the BSHM; 11 or 20.37 from the BAT; and 8 or 26.6 percent from the BSIT.

In relation to respondents' outputs marked with numerous errors in grammar, usage and mechanics that significantly interfered with the meaning of the outputs, 54 or 70.12 percent of the BSEd respondents' outputs were under this criterion; 30 or 83.33 percent from the BSHM; 43 or 79.63 percent from the BAT; and 17 or 56.66 percent from the BSIT.

For the number of respondents' outputs with serious and recurrent errors in grammar, usage and mechanics that greatly interfered with the overall meaning of their outputs, there were 3 or 3.89 percent from the BSEd respondents whose outputs were counted under this criterion; 2 or 5.55 percent from the BSHM; none from the BAT; and 3 or 10 percent from the BSIT.

The data revealed that in terms of application of correct grammar, usage and mechanics, most of the respondents' outputs need serious attention through reinforcement activities to be conducted among the respondents.

Table 4. Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the Respondents' Writing Proficiency Level as to Writing Style

Writing Style	**BSEd**			**BSHM**			**BAT**			**BSIT**		
	f	**%**	**Rank**	**F**	**%**	**Rank**	**F**	**%**	**Rank**	**F**	**%**	**Rank**

Use a wide variety of sentence structures that show a superior control of word choice with a clear concise style.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
There is a minimal variety in sentence structure but control of word choice with a clear style is evident.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
There is a deliberate sentence variety showing an	4	5.19	3									

adequate control of word choice with inconsistently clear style.				2	5.55	3	-	-	-	-	-	-
Rudimentary sentenc e variety is shown though appropriate vocabulary is evident in the output.	16	20.78	2	1	2.77	4	3	5.55	3	8	26.66	2
Serious and frequent problems with word choice and sentence structure is evident, thus lack of style is shown.	56	72.73	1	30	83.33	1	47	87.03	1	16	53.33	1
Many run-ons and fragments are shown. Limited vocabulary is established and sentence variety is not evident.	1	1.30	4	3	8.33	2	4	7.40	2	6	20	3
Total	77	100		**36**	**100**		**54**	**100**		**30**	**100**	

The data in Table 4 show the frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents' proficiency level as to writing style.

Regarding the use of a deliberate sentence variety showing an adequate control of word choice with inconsistently clear style, there were 4 or 5.19 percent of the BSEd respondents' outputs that were classified under this criterion; 2 or 5.55 percent from the BSHM; while none from the BAT and the BSIT submitted outputs which satisfied this parameter.

For the number of respondents' outputs that showed rudimentary sentence variety although appropriate vocabulary was evident in the output, 16 or 20.77 percent from the BSEd respondents' outputs fell under this criterion; 1 or 2.77 from the BSHM; 3 or 5.55 percent from the BAT; and 8 or 26.66 percent from the BSIT respondents.

In relation to evidence of serious and frequent problems with word choice and sentence structure; there were 56 or 72.72 percent of the BSEd respondents' outputs that were counted under the said criterion; 30 or 83.33 percent from the BSHM; 47 or 87.03 from the BAT; and 16 or 53.33 from the BSIT.

The data disclosed that majority of the respondents failed to show manifestation of readiness in line to good writing style which can be attributed to their low level of interest in writing.

Conclusions

These conclusions were drawn from the data gathered.

1. The respondents have poor comprehension level .
2. Their essay outputs did not satisfy correct organization of ideas. In short, the writing principles were not applied resulting to disorganized outputs.
3. Correct usage was not observed.
4. Majority of the respondents' outputs did not manifest correct application of the grammar rules as evidenced by the submission of erroneous essay works.
5. Misplaced punctuation marks were also noticed which changed the meaning of some included supporting details.
6. Good writing style was not evident in most of the respondents outputs

Recommendations

1. Reinforcement activities need to be conducted among the respondents to strengthen their writing skill.
2. Strong cooperation of the respondents' parents or guardians must be fully guaranteed through closer monitoring of their sons and daughters during off – school hours seeing to it that all assignments related to writing are well responded.
3. Concerned campus officials must continue to require submission of appropriate instructional materials to facilitate the teaching -learning process.
4. The administration of ISU, San Mariano Campus must provide a conducive venue for the conduct of capability building activities in order to ensure an inspiring learing atmosphere.
5. More easy to learn writing reference materials must be acquired by the campus to motivate students .
6. Highly conducive venue to conduct reinforcement activities must be provided by the Administration.
7. The commitment level of the respondents in responding to writing requirements needs to

be improved through faculty members strong motivation..

Pedagogical Implications

During this challenging time, improving students' writing skill is needed. Its significance in many aspects of our lives cannot be taken for granted. Employers these days are choosy, hence putting prime importance in developing college students' ability to write is in order. In short, writing skill is now a criterion of some entities in hiring employees recognizing its impact to operation.

In educational institutions, every student is required to come up with quality outputs in writing. This is part of the academic challenges. It is considered as an academic obligation which cannot be underestimated as learnings here can make a difference. It is also a school concern which demands quality attention to produce expected results that will redound to the welfare of college students particularly the employment aspect of their lives.

In the area of writing, students of ISU, San Mariano Campus need strong assistance through the implementation of reinforcement activities. They need more time from their mentors through delivery of tutorial sessions and conduct of trainings that can truly metamorphosize them and become readier to accept academic challenges in the classroom. Improving them will turn them better graduates. Graduates who will soon contribute to the high employment rate of the campus due to responsible and dedicated faculty members to respond to the weaknesses of. Students. Activities such as the ones mentioned when well accomplished can turn their weaknesses into strengths particularly application of content relevance, organization of ideas, conventions [grammar, usage and mechanics] and writing style.

Espoused by Bangayan-Manera (2020),positive changes in the academic lives of students are not impossible to happen It is , therefore proper and fitting that all concerned faculty members teaching English subjects become more focused in performing their duties and responsibilities for turning the writing problems of students into strengths is a great help to them upon reaching the employment stage of their lives.

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Saudi Vision 2030 in Western Media: An Investigation on the Basis of Corpus

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Abstract

A country is known by an image it crafts, in the eyes of global spectators. With its reformative and transformative Vision 2030, Saudi Arabia has strived to construct a new image to appeal to more investors and visitors. Thus, it is substantial to review its contemporary reflection in the influential world media. The present research endeavours to analyze the representation of events, activities, and plans made in line with Saudi Vision 2030, in British and American media (newspapers). It also aims to highlight the differences in their representation, if any. The research is based on the corpus-driven approach for comparison of the two selected media. For the said purpose, specialized corpora for both British and American newspapers are built based on their e-versions. Various corpus tools are used to compare the ways the new Saudi image has been built for the audience. The results expose that Vision 2030 is given not much representation in the selected world media. Both the American and British media focus on old aspects of the Kingdom more often than any transformation held in line with Vision 2030. In this regard, the British media comparatively presents a better image of the Kingdom than the American media concerning various components. The study suggests the promotion of the new Kingdom image in order to charm the Western audience and present a comprehensive view of the Vision worldwide.

Keywords: *Saudi Vision 2030; Media discourse; British newspapers; American newspapers; Corpus- driven approach*

Introduction

Since 2016, Saudi Arabia entered a new phase of evolution and restoration, mainly focused to revive the economy, as articulated in Saudi Vision 2030, and thus also bringing changes to the societal structures (as economic policies directly affect the general population). This Vision primarily focuses to provide directions and goals for enhancement in various domains of life ultimately focused to achieve a status quo as an economic-political hub in the future world. Nurunnabi (2017) comments that Vision acts as a roadmap for the country to achieve an oil-independent economy along with some societal changes. Barnawi and Le Ha (2020) consider it as a shock to conventional Saudi society and a blueprint for a modern Arab country. According to Barnawi and Le Ha , this economic plan has also brought revolutionary changes in a society bound by traditional laws. From 2016 to 2020, some of the society related changes that can be observed are empowerment of women in some domains (like the right to drive, right to travel without a relative, etc.), abridged restrictions for travelers from the outside world, reduced constraints with respect to dress codes, shared eating places, etc. According to Nurruzzaman (2018), these developments are may not be much dramatic but bringing an unhurried, evident change in society. The economy-related aspects like an investment, employment, tourism are also the key factors that are helping the Kingdom to bring transformation and reformation. As a celebration of the new transformed version, the taken actions and policies devised are often highly appreciated in the local as well as the intercontinental media. Mohammad and Alshahrani (2019) have effectively highlighted that Arab media reports on elevating the various aspects of the country taken following Vision 2030.

Media has the irrefutable power to construct, reconstruct, and deconstruct images as claimed to have influential power (Kress, 1983). Radford (1996) romanticizes it as a "Scheherazade" (p. 1534) whose life depends on the art of weaving new stories every day (mostly false ones and fabricated ones). Following the lines, many other researchers (Jones, 2004; Tsfati & Cohen, 2013; Putri, 2018) have highlighted the ways media can form or deform a story, lead or mislead an action, make or break a viewpoint, etc. Thus, media discourse is said to have control over the audience's minds, to some extent. It can regulate and channelize the masses' opinions and actions. To further probe into the matter, who controls the media discourse, it has been often underlined that the producers or institutions in power control such discourses. Van Dijk (1995) asserted that "news media generally adopt the perspective and legitimate the dominance of the elites, even in an international perspective of relations between states and world regions" (p. 27). Thus, media always has some agenda behind its creation of stories. In this way, it also can play its part in endorsing or humbling a country's image.

As stated above, Saudi Arabia is in a new phase to build its image as a more welcoming country for investors and travellers around the world. One of the active stimulators behind this evolution is the Vision 2030. Thus, how the world media presents its image to its viewers can be an imperative apprehension for the Kingdom. In this regard, the present research intends to analyze Western media portrayals, in particular the British and American newspapers, through a corpus-driven approach. Corpus is a reliable way to make sense of a large set of data and is used in the present research from both theoretical and methodological perspectives. The present research is also an extension of a previous study conducted by Hameed, Jabeen, and Afzal (2020). They have explored and analyzed the American media corpus for this depiction and found various disproportions. However, in this regard, the British media cannot be ignored as well for its world-wide representations of contemporary issues. This research mainly focuses on the Vision 2030 representations by the selected British and American newspapers, from a comparative perspective. This, in turn, can help the policymakers to understand the contemporary appearance of the vision in the world and suggest some ways to review the image if needed.

The research aims:

- To examine the British and American media reports on the representations of events, policies, and actions taken place after Saudi Vision 2030
- To compare the ways each media has represented the events, policies, and actions through the corpus-driven approach

The next sections explicate some central concepts and theories pertinent to the study.

Literature Review

Following the huge development in technology and communication technology, English language is becoming one of the most dominating language worldwide (Alzeebaree & Yavuz, 2017, as cited in Alzeebaree & Hasan, 2020) The nucleus of this study is the ‘media discourse’ with reference to presenting and visualizing Saudi Vision 2030. The vitality of media is indisputably highly significant as “…individuals we all are influenced, our opinions shaped, reinforced and altered by our exposure to media” (Macarro, 2002). ‘Media’ as an umbrella term encompasses all the forms of communication including broadcasting, internet and publishing means. Similarly, the way some issues are taken up, presented or framed linguistically can be referred as to as ‘media discourse’. This discourse can be written or spoken text carefully analyzed and developed pertaining to specific needs and beliefs of the writer or speaker. It is no surprise then that media discourse has been the focus of research for past few decades now for the fact that it is crucial to analyze how, why and by whom a particular discourse is created and disseminated (O'Keeffe, 2011).

Discursive use of language is by no means neutral (Fairclough cited in Moreno, 2008) rather it carries the ideologies, subjective perceptions and agendas of the producers of the discourse. Owing to mass media production, the manipulated ideologies and perceptions of media discourse reach to masses very rapidly and conveniently (Wimmer & Dominick, 2013; Razak, 2020) influencing the very ideologies and perceptions of the receivers silently yet significantly. Through lexical, syntactic and discoursal choices (Munday, 2009) media discourses manipulate the opinions, perceptions and beliefs of the masses. As promulgated by many (Brown, 2005, Van Dijk, 2009 & Hamuddin, 2015; Alrefaee, Mudkanna, & Almansoob, 2020; Reyes, De Vera & Medriano Jr, 2018) media are controlled by socially, economically, politically and culturally powerful groups who exercise their ideologies and power over the others. Keeping in view the complex and intricate role of media discourse in shaping and crafting the desired perception and ideologies in the target receivers, it becomes inevitable to critically analyze the discourse to unearth and beware of the hidden agendas.

The researchers have employed numerous approaches, methods and tools to effectively and comprehensively analyze the media discourses. Depending on the nature of the text i.e. written or spoken, qualitative, quantitative or mixed methods tools and frameworks are commonly incorporated. Fairclough's three dimensional framework, for example, has extensively been employed in sociocultural studies (Bayram, 2010; Abdalaal, 2015; Rachman & Yunainti 2017) to "investigate (issue) in a social-theoretically informed way, as a form of social practice" (Fairclough, 1995, p.131). Similarly, the newspaper and advertisement discourse was analyzed by some researchers through socio-semantic inventory proposed by Van Leeuwen (2008) to critically examine the hegemonic, marginalized, unequal representation of specific genders, races or people (Kabgani, 2013; Amer, 2016; Bernard, 2018). Halliday's Systemic Functional Linguistic (2014) framework also provides an effective foundation for scrutinizing the power oriented use of language (de Oliveira & Smith, 2019; Martin, 2014;).

Besides all the approaches and frameworks mentioned above, with continuing advancement in technology, corpus based approaches of analyzing large corpora have gained distinctive focus in the corpus linguistics (Barker, 2010, 2014; Park, 2014; Weigle & Goodwin, 2016). Corpus, as defined by McEnery and Wilson (2001), denotes to "finite collection of machine-readable texts" which represents a language or variety of a specified area or field (cited in Hameed, Jabeen & Afzal, 2020). Correspondingly, 'corpus linguistics' implies the study of "language based on large collections of "real life" language use stored in *corpora* (or *corpuses*)—computerized databases created for linguistic research" (Nordquist, 2019). Fundamentally, the corpus approach empirically analyses a large body of electronically annotated "…actual patterns of language use in natural texts", qualitatively and/or quantitatively (Kennedy, 2014).

General or reference corpora, specialized corpora and learner-based corpora refer to three main types of corpora. General or reference corpora mainly comprises of language used across a wide range of contexts, speakers/writers, and registers; examples are the British National Corpus (BNC) and the Corpus of Contemporary American English (Davies, 2008). Conversely, specialized corpora represent a more specified or restricted collection of data such as academic language (Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English) or newspaper discourse. Perhaps the most pertinent type of corpora within ELT or linguistic research is non-expert or learners' based corpora for instance the International Corpus of Learner English. Another important distinction to be made is that of 'corpus-based' and 'corpus-driven' approach to corpus research. Corpus-based research is conducted to verify or endorse already existing linguistic frameworks and theories, while, "corpus-driven method refers to the setting of linguistic paradigms through the already conducted corpus analysis" (Hameed, Jabeen & Afzal, 2020).

Corpus analysis research has rapidly increased since 1996, when Alderson introduced the field to linguists and researchers, owing to its multiple and diverse advantages. The foremost merit of corpus analysis is the availability of "authentic and naturally occurring language data produced by a variety of speakers/writers" (Klimova, 2014). Moreover, the comparative analyses and extensive examinations of linguistic features generated through systematically and appropriately managed large body of corpora, "across contexts, genres, and disciplines" provide the researchers' opportunities to study language phenomenon in various ways and on different levels (Cushing, 2017). Likewise, through objectively gathered and analyzed data, the previously held beliefs and assumptions concerning specific language use can either be challenged, verified or refuted.

Corpus linguistics has given birth to various methods to study and scrutinize numerous facets of linguistic corpora. To name a few and most commonly applied methods are words, collocations, colligation analysis and N-grams. For example, one study conducted by Charteris-Black (2002) investigates the effective use of lexis for teaching vocabulary to economics learners. Another study (Lee, 2013) explores how the teachers provided written feedback using model verbs might, could, would most frequently. Based on the gender and age differences, the study held by Berglind (2017) highlights that men and women use significantly different language, however, age did not indicate any major differences. Muhammad and Alshahrani (2019) conducted a corpus based study of Arab media which highlighted the representation of the Vision 2030. Hameed, Jabeen and Afzal (2020) analyzed American newspapers for depiction of the Vision 2030. However, rarely studies have compared the British and American media discourses on Saudi Vision 2030. The present study intends to fill the gap.

Research Methodology

The present research is quantitative in nature. It is based on corpus tools to identify the frequency, measure correlations, and enlist thematic concerns. For the said purpose, specialized corpora are built both for British and American media. The media was further delimited to newspapers as published in both print and electronic forms. For the present study, the top three newspapers (as per circulation) were identified and retrieved from the archives of their respective web links. The time frame prescribed for the collection of sample data was from 25 April 2016 (the date Saudi Vision 2030 was announced) to 25 April 2020. The following newspapers were selected from British and American media respectively.

- Metro UK
- The Sun UK
- Daily Mail UK
- The Washington Post (USA)
- The New York Times (USA)
- Wall Street Journal (USA)

As mentioned, specialized corpora were built for both types of media, using the tokens Saudi Vision 2030/ Vision 2030/ Saudi Vision. All types of new reports were included except for some news involving controversial issues. Wynne (2005) defined specialized corpus as “a much smaller corpus …. needed for typical studies than is needed for a general view of the language” (p. 19). However, the size of a corpus in such cases does not affect the results’ quality since the investigator often has a constricted scope of the study (McEnery & Wilson, 2001). The size in this regard was to be approximately 100, 000 words from each source. Further details of the corpus are given below in table one.

Table 1

Specialized Corpus built in the study

Name	Language	Texts	Tokens	Additional information
British Newspapers Corpus	English	1	99,694	Types: 10047 Lemmas: 8756
American Newspapers Corpus	English	1	99,340	Types: 11683 Lemmas: 10271

As mentioned above, the corpus approach is one of the effective ways to study results from a large set of data to make better generalizations. Hunston (2006) argues that corpus analysis assists the researchers to identify text patterns and themes through a variety of tools like collocations, keywords, lists, word frequency, etc. For the present study, a selection of corpus tools was used to understand the representation to make a comparison between American and British media discourses.

After the data collection, the analysis was concerned with two main agendas: to identify the significance of the token word "Vison 2030" in the collected data and secondly, to compare significant themes related to it. For the said purpose, the following items were focused:

- keyword frequency and relative frequency
- keyword collocation/ collocation graph
- Concordance lines
- Adjectives in relevance to keyword
- Strategic themes (thematic concentration) in both corpora

For the said purpose, many software/ tools were used which include mainly Lancbox v 5.1 (Brezina, McEnery & Wattam, 2015), Voyant, and Kwords. Keyword/phrase frequency, distribution, and collocations were gathered through Lancbox v 5.1 which provided effective statistical descriptive analysis. The frequency and relative frequency clarifies how popular a word or phrase is in the given set of data. Ngula (2018) comments that frequency is an important concept to identify how a word is prioritized or trivialized in the selected corpus. On the other hand, collocation refers to the company of the selected word/ phrase that appears in the data in routine. Evert (2004) refers to collocations as a fundamental tool for analyzing the relationship of a word/ phrase with other words. This helps to understand how a certain key item is presented and highlighted in contextual nodes. In this regard, collocational graphs are becoming more popular to visualize this connection in a subtle way. Referred to as GraphColl in Lancbox toolset, three important dimensions, distance, intensity, and directionality, help us to interpret the connection in intelligible ways (Brezina, et al, 2015). Further, adjectives were extracted from these above-mentioned collocation results to see how the key item is characterized or attributed in both media discourses. Besides, the concordance results for the term “Vision” were also studied using Voyant tool. The last part was to generate and compare the list of major themes in the selected corpora. It helped to understand the most commonly used themes in both corpora. For the said purpose, the tool for thematic concentration by KWords is used.

Findings and Discussion

The present research intended to analyze the Western media discourse with respect to the representation of transformations in the Kingdom after the implementation of Vision 2030., for this purpose, corpus tools were used to examine and compare British and American newspapers’ corpora. The results are presented in the following paragraphs.

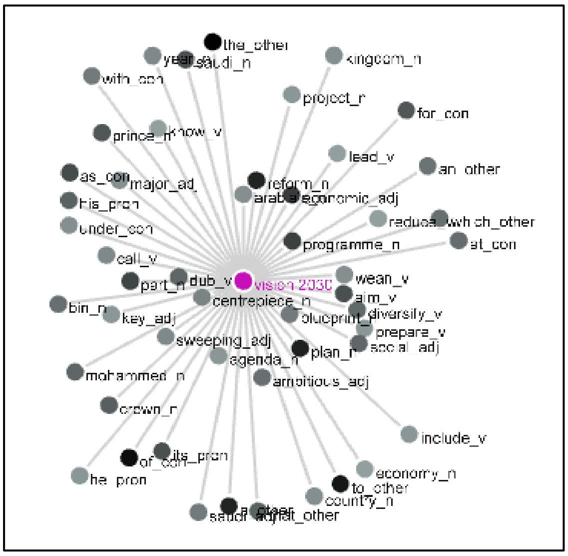
The first concern was to scrutinize the presence of key phrase i.e. Vision 2030 in the selected discourses. The results identify that the British corpus has 199, whereas the American corpus has 100 mentions of the term. Concerning relative frequency (presence of the keyword in a collection of 10,000 words), it appears that Vision 2030 is not much prominent term (see table two below). With respect to comparison, American media has neglected it more than the British media.

Table 2

Distribution of Key term "Vision 2030" in both corpora

File	Tokens	Frequency	Relative frequency per 10k
British Corpus 1.txt	99694	199	19.961
American corpus 2.txt	99340	100	10.066

Further, the two corpora were analyzed for collocational use of "Vision 2030". For the said purpose, GraphColl were created and compared.



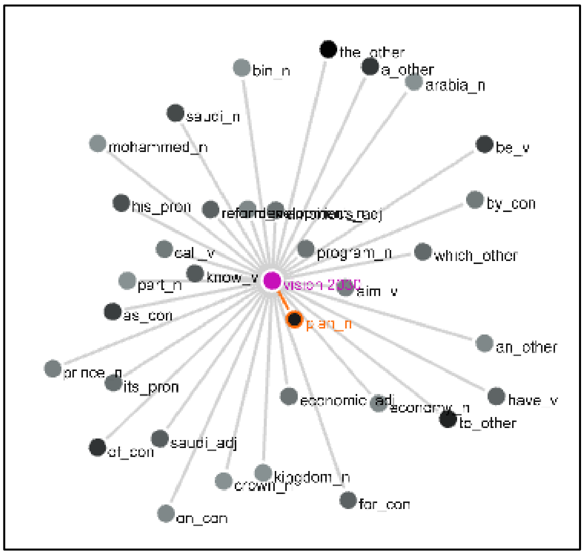


Figure 1 GraphColl for British media corpus   Figure 2 GraphColl for American media corpus

The two figures above clarify the ways the main phrase "Vision 2030" collocates with several terms in both corpora. For the British corpus, the nearest collocates are the centrepiece, blueprint, program, agenda, plan (nouns), sweeping, ambitious, economic, social, key (adjectives) aim, wean, reform, diversify, and prepare (verbs). With respect to color strength, the words economic, reform, programme, plan, prince, Saudi are the words with more dark intensity than others (functional words are excluded). Concerning direction, the words are seen distributed randomly on both sides of the node. Overall, these words specify how the Vision 2030 has been visualized as a game-changing (ambitious, key, sweeping) goal (blueprint, program, agenda, plan) set to achieve (reform, aim) transformation (social, reform, economic) by the proponent (prince). On the other hand, there are few collocates for the key term which include dominantly program, plan, development, reform, part (nouns), ambitious, economic, Saudi (adjectives), aim, know, call (verbs). There is only one lexical item as collocate with high-intensity color i.e. plan (remaining are functional words).

While comparing British corpus findings with American corpus, the first notable difference is of the number of words in both. As it is clear that in the British corpus, there are more items as collocations than in the American media corpus. (The data for figures one and two is attached in Appendix A and B). However, key collocates interestingly fall in the same domains like highlighting it is an ambitious plan for bringing change in Saudi Arabia (for collocates list in both). Moreover, the British media highlights the Vision with more attributive terms (seven different lexical items) than found in the American media (only three) as also given in the table below (based on the list attached in Appendices A and B). This shows a lack of appreciation for Vision 2030 by the American media.

Table 3

Attributive Collocates for "Vision 2030"

#	British Media		American Media	
	Adjective	Frequency	Adjective	Frequency
	economic	41	Saudi	14
	Social	16	Ambitious	9
	ambitious	14	economic	9
	Saudi	11		
	Sweeping	8		
	Major	7		
	Key	6		

The table above also clarifies that British newspapers have used more adjectives (total frequency 103) than American newspapers (total frequency 32). In addition, the variety of terms is also greater in the British media corpus.

In this regard, concordance lines are also studied to see how both corpora present an image of the Kingdom's transformative Vision 2030 (see figures one and two as a sample below). The results from British media are more positive than American media. Few sample concordance lines are presented below in figures one and two. In British media, Vision 2030 is appreciated more often as an ambitious plan to reform the economy and society. Crown prince is often appreciated to devise such a strategic plan to move the country's dependence on oil to other resources. It is also highlighted that such efforts along with social reforms are taking the Kingdom to the roads away from its traditional image. Inline, results from American media also appreciate the Kingdom's new reformative plan as a blueprint for a progressive country. There is not much difference in the ways Vision 2030 is cherished as an ambitious plan for the country in both selected corpora. However, the concordance results also specify that activities and policies related to Vision 2030 are presented in the British media in higher frequency as well as in variety as compared to the American media.

Contexts

Document	Left	Term	Right
1) Britis...	and encouraging patriotism reflect some of the major promises of	vis...	2030, which maps out Saudi Arabia's plan for the future
1) Britis...	of a 10-year strategic multiplatform partnership in support of	vis...	2030, Saudi Arabia's social and economic reform program. The Greatest
1) Britis...	in the coming years as part of the Crown Prince's	vis...	2030 economic plan. Any order for UK-built warplanes would
1) Britis...	and develops key industrial capabilities critical to the delivery of	vis...	2030.' Save the Children's chief executive Kevin Watkins warned Saudi
1) Britis...	prince has been the driving force behind a modernisation programme,	vis...	2030, in Saudi Arabia – but the reforms have been dismissed
1) Britis...	of a 10-year strategic multiplatform partnership in support of	vis...	2030, Saudi Arabia's social and economic reform program. 'The Greatest
1) Britis...	April. The landmark move is part of widespread reforms dubbed	vis...	2030 designed to lessen the ultra-conservative kingdom's dependence on
1) Britis...	Saudi is currently following a modernisation programme known as Saudi	vis...	2030 where one of the aims is to increase 'women's
1) Britis...	in Saudi Arabia, she discussed and reiterated her support of	vis...	2030 – reforms being set out by Crown Prince Mohammed bin
1) Britis...	supporters say fighting corruption is part of the crown prince's	vis...	2030 plan. Donald Trump gave his stamp of approval, saying
1) Britis...	the restrictions placed on women, as part of the landmark	vis...	2030 scheme – which, among other things, aims to get more
1) Britis...	today at an economic forum in Riyadh, he said his	vis...	was for the country to become more moderate and open
1) Britis...	officials. The panellists later praised the prince for his 'passion,	vis...	and enthusiasm', but he interjected, saying he is only 'one
1) Britis...	females in leadership positions'. The Saudi government has said that	vis...	2030, a vast plan of economic and social reforms, will
1) Britis...	was pleased when it finally happened as part of the '	vis...	2030' programme, which hopes to modernise the country. 'I'm very
1) Britis...	Recent reforms brought in by Crown Prince Mohammed bin Salman,	vis...	2030, aims to increase women's participation in the workplace by
1) Britis...	to sign Britain up as a leading partner in the	vis...	2030 programme. May said: 'These new partnerships, on defence and

Figure 1 Concordance lines from British corpus

Contexts

Document	Left	Term	Right
1) Amer...	there is considerable uncertainty. One likely early victim is Saudi	vis...	2030, which aims to shift the Saudi economy away from
1) Amer...	are in line with the government's plan for the future,	vis...	2030, which foresees a more open society and a diversified
1) Amer...	a young and under-employed population, Mohammed bin Salman's ambitious	vis...	2030 plan to transform the economy away from its dependence
1) Amer...	its propagandizing of Saudi Crown Prince Mohammed bin Salman's Saudi	vis...	2030 program and for its exclusion of female competitors. (A
1) Amer...	around the world. The fund is a centerpiece of Saudi	vis...	2030, a plan championed by the crown prince to diversify
1) Amer...	fund and the Saudi state is in harmony with the	vis...	of infrastructure development endorsed by the Trump administration. Earlier this
1) Amer...	the workforce. Last year, the crown prince unveiled his ambitious	vis...	2030 plan, designed to modernize Saudi Arabia and move it
1) Amer...	channel has been asked to focus on Salman's modernization efforts.	vis...	2030 also imagines a more inclusive Saudi Arabia where women
1) Amer...	to work." That idea fits in with the much-hyped	vis...	2030 plan first unveiled by MBS in April 2016. The
1) Amer...	national transformation project to structurally overhaul the Saudi state. His "	vis...	2030" reform program aims to change the kingdom into a
1) Amer...	a post-Wahhabi Islam. Economic reform is the driver behind	vis...	2030 – the International Monetary Fund has warned that Saudi Arabia
1) Amer...	stake in the success of Saudi Arabia's reform effort. Should	vis...	2030 fail, we'll be facing an explosion of instability at
1) Amer...	Muslim world. Unfortunately, the 32-year-old in charge of	vis...	2030 – Mohammed bin Salman himself – has become a threat to
1) Amer...	Salman himself – has become a threat to his own project.	vis...	2030 represents, at its core, a new Saudi social contract
1) Amer...	Al Zamel, a young economist who ran the figures on	vis...	2030 and offered criticisms and suggestions for improving it. Recent
1) Amer...	again last year. Two years ago, the crown prince unveiled "	vis...	2030," a program that aims to diversify Saudi Arabia's oil
1) Amer...	before they run out, as part of a plan dubbed "	vis...	2030." Saudi Arabia is pursuing grand domestic projects like Neom

Figure 2 Concordance lines from American corpus

The next part of the present study is focused on the concentration of themes in the selected corpora. Keywords tool was used to generate individual lists of themes in British and American media corpus using BNC and COCA as reference corpora respectively. The findings are presented in figures three and four. As per the results, the major themes in the British newspapers are Saudi Arabia (location), Crown Prince (the founder of the Vision), Vision (Saudi Vision 2030), oil, Aramco, energy (as famous for oil), Riyadh (the capital city of KSA), reform, reforms, plan, new, power (all themes highlighting Vision as new plan) economy, economic (reformation of the economy), public, social (change in society), women (more empowerment for women as an important concern in Vision 2030), drive (women are allowed to drive under new vision), and sports (more sports activities are focused in line with Vision). On the other hand, the main themes in the American corpus are Saudi Arabia (country), prince (the main figure behind Vision 2030), oil, Aramco (main resources of Saudi economy), Trump (American president in close connection with the Kingdom), Vision (Vision 2030), Iran (the country in clash), economy, investment (direction of Vision 2030), plan (Vision as strategic plan), social (aimed at social reformation as well), Riyadh (capital city), and people (focus on public).

Summary

	Target text	Reference corpus: BNC
Tokens	114913	112490069
Types	8308	762967

Thematic concentration

Rank	Form	FQ
7	saudi	1544
11	arabia	787
14	said	734
18	prince	596
20	women	527
24	kingdom	492
27	oil	418
30	aramco	384
36	mohammed	334
38	crown	313
40	country	290
41	also	268
43	billion	262
44	year	255
45	riyadh	254
47	salman	249
48	more	243
49	government	241
50	world	235
51	vision	234
52	bin	230
54	new	222
60	first	198
66	public	173
67	investment	170
68	company	169
69	last	169
71	economy	164
72	years	152
74	economic	148
78	king	145
81	international	138
83	foreign	128
84	state	127
85	plan	127
86	reform	124
87	reforms	124
88	time	122
90	power	117
91	fund	117
92	plans	116
94	energy	114
96	percent	113
97	two	112
98	saudis	111
102	social	108
103	sports	107
104	drive	107

Figure 3 Thematic concentration in British newspapers

The comparison of themes in both corpora does not reveal any significant difference. Interestingly, the themes are quite similar in both types of newspapers. Further, the themes are studied from concordance results. It is apparent that the British media highlights some significant changes like focus on women (more opportunities, choice to drive, open public participation, etc.), sports (more freedom for international competitions and organizations), public (given more chances in the economic activities), etc. On the other hand, such topics are not discussed in the American media. It is also notable that the American media also points out some controversial issues like Iran (rivalry between two countries) and Trump (as a supporter of the Kingdom). Besides some of these minor differences, no much variance is visible in both sets of media texts selected for the study.

Summary

	Target text	Reference corpus: COCA
Tokens	118081	464386720
Types	9363	100803

Thematic concentration

Rank	Form	FQ
7	saudi	1449
15	arabia	656
17	prince	626
22	said	509
27	oil	446
31	women	390
32	mohammed	387
36	kingdom	351
40	bin	304
42	salman	285
45	more	275
46	country	273
47	crown	262
50	government	233
53	aramco	221
55	world	220
56	also	219
60	new	197
61	many	190
62	king	188
66	company	178
68	public	171
71	trump	163
72	last	156
73	vision	155
75	all	148
76	people	147
79	saudis	145
82	prices	143
84	economy	142
85	family	140
87	year	138
89	state	134
91	years	132
92	royal	132
95	plan	126
96	most	125
97	time	124
98	first	124
99	investment	121
100	united	120
101	social	119
102	iran	117
103	fund	117
104	billion	117
105	riyadh	115
109	may	113
111	two	112

Figure 4 Thematic concentration in American Corpus

The results for thematic concentration further verify the scarcity of Vision-related actions and announcements. The findings of the present study are very much different from the findings of the study conducted on Arab media reports by Muhammad and Alshahrani (2019). It is obvious that Arab newspapers presented a high profile image of the Kingdom concerning transformations implemented and planned after Vision 2030. However, the Western media does not give many privileges to this new image of the country. The findings also reveal that both American and British media continue to reflect a longstanding image of the Kingdom with oil, monarchy, and conservatism as key factors, whereas, new transformative actions in line with Vision 2030 are occasionally conversed and presented.

Final Words

The current study is an attempt to understand the ways transformations in Saudi Arabia, in accordance with Vision 2030, are represented in the British and American media. The corpus approach is used to analyze and compare data from American and British newspapers. For this purpose, a specialized corpus is built for each set of data, comprising of 100,000 words each, from the e-portals of the selected newspapers. Various corpus tools are used to study the frequency, relative frequency, collocation, and concordance for the query item, along with thematic concentration. The findings expose the fact that the Saudi Vision 2030 is not given much importance in the selected media. The relative frequency of the query item concerning corpus size is very low; moreover, the activities and plans related to the Vision are barely valued and discussed. With respect to comparison, the British newspapers have given a slightly better representation of the changes in line with Vision 2030, as compared to the American newspapers. It is observed that the British media shares better coverage of the various activities held in the Kingdom than the American media. Many themes like driving permission and sports inclusion policies for women, economic revisions, and social reorganizations for the common public, etc. are mentioned in several British newspaper reports. On the other hand, the American media focuses less on any improvement factors. With respect to such findings, it can be suggested that the Kingdom needs to promote its image on various media platforms. This would in turn help it to attract more investors and tourists from the Western countries as per the requirements of the Vision.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Collocates in British Corpus

Index	Status	Position	Collocate	Stat	Frequency	Coll F
1	○	L	centrepiece_n	8.673316619141142	0.0	9
2	○	R	blueprint_n	8.334792013723346	0.0	11
3	○	R	programme_n	8.166356847472732	0.0	38
4	○	L	dub_v	8.143395481977981	0.0	17
5	○	L	agenda_n	7.740430814999967	0.0	6
6	○	R	arabia's_n	7.52225064494998	0.0	7
7	○	R	plan_n	7.505240189018073	0.0	71
8	○	L	sweeping_adj	7.318967046561149	0.0	8
9	○	R	ambitious_adj	7.215589306716382	0.0	14
10	○	R	economic_adj	7.211850887983742	0.0	41
11	○	R	aim_v	7.185215806895484	0.0	28
12	○	R	wean_v	7.185215657672739	0.0	7
13	○	R	reform_n	7.128045738691222	0.0	67
14	○	L	part_n	6.8729378289622325	0.0	35
15	○	R	diversify_v	6.753370064293968	0.0	16
16	○	R	prepare_v	6.418502720112604	0.0	6
17	○	R	social_adj	6.377860876059592	0.0	17
18	○	L	key_adj	6.262383518196046	0.0	6
19	○	L	call_v	6.181463522810671	0.0	8
20	○	R	reduce_v	5.927199326605463	0.0	5
21	○	R	lead_v	5.640895141447607	0.0	5
22	○	L	major_adj	5.62043124065464	0.0	7
23	○	L	know_v	5.197288700641521	0.0	5
24	○	L	under_con	5.028711305873954	0.0	7
25	○	L	crown_n	5.008627064583763	0.0	20
26	○	L	bin_n	4.9436297973192405	0.0	14

27	○	L	its_pron	4.821811042804234	0.0	28
28	○	L	mohammed_n	4.797620786039707	0.0	17
29	○	L	his_pron	4.784486120008671	0.0	19
30	○	R	project_n	4.70229581068106	0.0	6
31	○	L	as_con	4.445344453391156	0.0	31
32	○	R	which_other	4.421450135991601	0.0	14
33	○	L	prince_n	4.415928904124869	0.0	24
34	○	L	of_con	4.251649252691654	0.0	103
35	○	R	an_other	4.112516283693549	0.0	13
36	○	R	at_con	4.088354248653049	0.0	15
37	○	R	economy_n	3.892433993715715	0.0	5
38	○	R	include_v	3.868305777310974	0.0	6
39	○	R	to_other	3.8535780966536275	0.0	87
40	○	R	a_other	3.826176511176461	0.0	67
41	○	R	country_n	3.804393988332012	0.0	7
42	○	L	saudi_n	3.7422722853159676	0.0	28
43	○	R	that_other	3.69702327140539	0.0	19
44	○	R	for_con	3.5906838252062983	0.0	24
45	○	L	saudi_adj	3.5673865954732213	0.0	11
46	○	L	the_other	3.4163350078755297	0.0	133
47	○	L	year_n	3.377860847530956	0.0	8
48	○	R	kingdom_n	3.3692988492620524	0.0	7
49	○	L	he_pron	3.0965747480132593	0.0	6
50	○	L	with_con	3.073526832570682	0.0	11

Appendix B

Collocates in American Corpus

Index	Status	Position	Collocate	Stat	Frequency	Coll F
1	○	R	plan_n	8.317014048107545	0.0	46
2	○	R	program_n	8.265267624837408	0.0	9
3	○	L	ambitious_adj	7.663816911654571	0.0	9
4	○	R	aim_v	7.5907531966357205	0.0	7
5	○	L	development_n	7.538285826404466	0.0	6
6	○	L	know_v	7.485174646113712	0.0	15
7	○	L	reform_n	7.068800692092081	0.0	13
8	○	L	call_v	6.613473493859127	0.0	8
9	○	L	economic_adj	6.508538619836621	0.0	9
10	○	L	part_n	5.799518105111725	0.0	5
11	○	R	which_other	5.5925761045244835	0.0	11
12	○	R	economy_n	5.368360973949646	0.0	6
13	○	L	as_con	5.365958447044573	0.0	25
14	○	L	his_pron	5.180733956240209	0.0	18
15	○	L	its_pron	4.7091975203808705	0.0	10
16	○	L	kingdom_n	4.617040057303038	0.0	5
17	○	L	saudi_adj	4.585752687423303	0.0	14
18	○	L	saudi_n	4.58176458614682	0.0	20
19	○	L	crown_n	4.275251532309216	0.0	5
20	○	L	bin_n	4.046432855224201	0.0	5
21	○	R	by_con	3.9674815200337017	0.0	8
22	○	R	an_other	3.8944297617801205	0.0	6
23	○	L	mohammed_n	3.874372087437685	0.0	5
24	○	R	to_other	3.8386923385606204	0.0	41
25	○	R	for_con	3.623096034919692	0.0	13
26	○	R	a_other	3.5330624299532833	0.0	28
27	○	L	prince_n	3.5151256718224015	0.0	7

28	○	L	the_other	3.4718280934204153	0.0	73
29	○	L	of_con	3.38752320377755	0.0	30
30	○	R	arabia_n	3.3152496159469242	0.0	5
31	○	R	have_v	3.123600714704548	0.0	12
32	○	R	be_v	3.1128602164671535	0.0	25
33	○	L	on_con	3.0304913090031715	0.0	6

Desecuritizing threats: A discourse analysis of the United Nations Security Council Resolutions

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Abstract

While terrorism and security threats have reached their highest levels since the 9/11 US attacks, the United Nations Security Council is indicted of being decrepit to ensure that the resolutions it passes monitor security and human rights. Correspondingly, the term ‘security’ shows unsolvable debates over its areas of application and anticipated meanings in as much as ideological elements are concerned in socio-political works. The current study provides a more textual analysis of resolutions on security as an issue requiring emergency politics. The aim is to find out discursive evidence of whether, or not, the Security Council has securitized threats and suggested extraordinary measures to ensure human rights. The study, also, provides critique of the interconnectedness between discursive, social and political engagement in the discussion of international security threats/measures. For this aim, I have adopted a multidisciplinary approach falling within the mantle of critical discourse analysis for the analysis of the Security Council Resolutions (2001-2019). The results revealed that there was

limited discursive means available in the resolutions that ensured the protection of human rights norms, which, on the contrary, put people's lives at risk.

Keywords: *(De)securitization, Corpus Linguistics, Discourse analysis, Systemic Functional Linguistics*

Introduction

Nearly two decades after the 9/11 attacks on the World Trade Centre in the US, we have experienced an increase in terror-related issues around the world. Although the threats have been addressed by the United Nation (UN) Security Council (SC) resolutions, the world is still rife with insecurity. The resolutions have not made the world a safer place, yet. Instead, security has become an essentially contested concept, showing unsolvable debates in relation to its areas of application and anticipated meanings (Buzan, 2007). The growth of security threats and its discursive representation in the Security Council resolutions are the main concern of this study and the area where discourse analysis gets involved in socio-poetical issues.

The aim of the current study is to find out the ways security issues are discursively represented in the SC resolutions and whether, or not, the SC has imposed binding language (resolution) on conflicting parties (Fox et al., 2018). The study, also, examines the query that the SC resolutions could not counter existential threats, nor be adhered to by the conflicting powers. The analysis of political discourse, particularly SC resolutions, has been an area of attraction for discourse analysts, such as the wording of SC resolutions (Gruenberg, 2009), the legitimization of leadership claims in the context of a nuclear crisis in the SC resolutions (Schnurr et al., 2014) and power and authority in the SC resolutions (Shepherd, 2008). However, little systematic research has been done on human rights protection in the SC resolutions.

The theoretical construct of this study is the influential works of the Copenhagen School Centre which adopts a discourse approach in the analysis of international security threats. Their theory aims to explain how an issue is securitized in discourse as an emergency threat requiring extraordinary measures, or a normal issue placing no existential threats, hence desecuritized (Buzan et al., 1998). Prominent works on security cease to focus on underlying intentions in (de)securitization discourse (Cf. Buzan, 2007; Hansen & Waever, 2003). Therefore, this study contributes to this field by following a 'critique' of the discursive, social and political interconnectedness (Fairclough, 1985, p. 53) in Securitization Discourse Analysis (SDA). I am not bringing Discourse Analysis (DA) to a new level, but securitization has been a prominent focus for discourse analysts in as much as political discourse is concerned.

To address this challenge, I employ a multidisciplinary method triangulating key concepts of Halliday's (1994) Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) and Corpus Linguistics (CL) tools in the analysis of my corpus. The rationale behind this triangulation is that Halliday's SFL proposes a socio semiotic view of language where his ideational, interpersonal and textual metafunctions considerably engage in various contextual dimensions in the linguistic construction of a communicative act. The metafunctions can uncover the implied meanings and motives of speakers, hence providing a link between social and linguistic analysis. The metafunctions also provide a practical framework for the analysis of a wide range of semantic, syntactic and pragmatic features. The use of Corpus Linguistics (CL) tools, on the other hand, helps prepare representative, rather than fragmentary, data for analysis (Widdowson, 2004; Batang, Dayag–Vecaldo & Medriano Jr,2018; Ali& Mohammad, 2020).

They provide the possibility to search for linguistic patterns only related to (de)securitization, and downsample the corpus to a manageable set of data (Gabrielatos & Baker, 2008). The study, therefore, follows a classification, observation and interpretation of the SC resolutions. However, it does not venture in investigating whether the resolutions are legal or have shifted the action-reaction measures.

The United Nations Security Council Resolutions

The UNSC is a multilateral institution that 'has primary responsibility for the maintenance of international peace and security' (United Nations , 2020). This responsibility derived from the fact that the SC determines which issue is a threat to institutional peace, so as to pass a resolution (Chesterman, 2008). Therefore, the language of the resolutions has a principal role in the construction of international peace and security (Herranz, 2010; Shepherd, 2013). Therefore, three main themes need to be explained in this regard, namely the role of the SC, resolutions and drafting the resolutions.

Although the SC has legislative attributes, it is neither a legislative actor nor a judicial organ (Herndl, 1987). Nevertheless, it has the power to set judicial organs, such as the Demarcation Commission in Iraq and Kuwait, and the Criminal Tribunals in Yugoslav and Rwanda. It is more like a political organ with binding measures, reaffirming already agreed-upon rules (United Nations, 2020). The power of the SC derives from Chapter VII of the UN's Charter– a foundational treaty signed by member states in 1945. Chapter VII empowers the SC on behalf of all member states to set military actions to restore international peace caused by 'any threats to the peace, breaches of the peace, and acts of aggression' (United Nations, 1945). Under Chapter VII, the SC allows the Military Staff Committee (subsidiary body of the UNSC) to coordinate strategic forces of the member states to be ready for military actions at the disposal of the SC.

The SC resolutions are 'formal expressions of the opinion or will of United Nations organs' (United Nations, 2020). They deal with internal cases of the Council itself, such as provisional rules, subsidiary organs and legal orders of appointing a Secretary-General and the UN membership. However, a large number of resolutions deals with fundamental external cases, such as criminalising the terror-related funding following the US 9/11 attacks in the Resolution 1373:

Criminalize the wilful provision or collection, by any means, directly or indirectly, of funds by their nationals or in their territories with the intention that the funds should be used, or in the knowledge that they are to be used, in order to carry out terrorist acts […] (Resolution 1373, 28 Sep. 2001)

Each resolution goes through drafting procedures which, according to (Wood, 1996) starts with one delegation composing the first draft and sending it to the Secretary-General for discussion. The draft is then distributed to the Member States for a paragraph-by-paragraph discussion. Finally, an official document is circulated to be agreed upon by the Member States. This suggests that, according to Wood (1998), there is no legal input from the Legal Counsel Office in the resolutions, despite the International Court of Justice's (I.C.J.) statement that the language of the resolution 'should be carefully analysed before a conclusion can be made as to its binding effect' (I.C.J., 1971). Notably, the Security Council does not consult linguists on drafting a resolution nor discuss it with academic institutions. On the contrarily, the Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties (1969, p. 12) suggests that the language of the resolutions should be interpreted in terms of 'good faith in accordance with the ordinary meaning to be given to the terms.' This means that an inconsistent interpretation is possible due to spirit and context of the language of the resolution, as found by Doria (2010) in his study of the conflicting interpretations of the Vienna Conventions.

Copenhagen School securitization theory

Security is the 'pursuit of freedom from threats' (Buzan, 1991). It is to maintain the identity and integrity of states and societies against hostile forces, not only military but those of social, political and economic threats (Erguvenc, 1999; Binded). The discursive qualification of a security issue as a threat has come to be known as securitization– primarily formulated by Copenhagen School researchers and triggered by the publication of Barry Buzan, Ole Wæver and Jaap de Wilde's book *Security: A New Framework for Analysis* (Buzan, et al., 1998). The authors follow a discourse approach in the analysis of security and point out five influencing sectors, namely economic, political, military, environmental and societal. The rise of their theory was a reaction against the perception that security is a military focus. On the contrary, they widened the notion of security to include state-inclusive/exclusive institutions. Chiefly, they analysed security as intersubjective raised from discursive, social and political processes (Buzan et al., 1998; Waever, 1995; Emmers, 2007).

Securitization is compared to Carl Schmitt's (1996) theory of political security in which a community exists on the condition that a distinction is made between this community and an enemy in order to ensure political sovereignty and stability. Political security seeks the maintenance of administrative stability and institutional integrity through political power alone (Waever, 2008). However, securitization is epistemologically wider and no longer a state-focused. According to Waever (2008), a threat to the existence of any group is a social security matter. This linkage between society and security was a prominent factor in Buzan's theorisation of security in his classic series of writings *People, States and Fear* (1983). In the Copenhagen School terms, securitization is part of the society's linguistic content, where linguistic information is a starting point in transmitting and communicating information for national security, as with the U.S. intelligence agency (Birner, 2019). Security is constructed via a speech act (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1969) to formulate a securitizing move with a securitizing actor, such as when political elites utter a threatening action (Buza et al., 1998; Stritzel, 2007). Still, the discursive representing of an issue as a threat needs to be declared by the political elites and accepted by an audience to be part of securitization (Buzan et al., 1998; Waever, 1995). This does apply to the SC resolutions, the data of the study, since they are raised by UN delegates who represent the public of their countries in the UN, and articulated by political elites.

Desecuritization

Desecuritization is a binary alternative to securitization, coined by the Copenhagen School to refer to the 'shifting of issues out of emergency mode and into the normal bargaining processes of the political sphere' (Buzan et al., 1998, p. 4). Desecuritization is different from normalisation which is the process by which norms of conduct are enforced in discourse and supported by political institutions (Foucault, 1977). Desecuritizing a threat is not to have countermeasures against an issue, but to move it to normal politics through discourse, hence more politically preferable than securitization (Waever, 1995). For example, Palombo's (2017) discourse analysis of Scottish National Party speeches shows that political elites desecuritize immigration by accentuating the purpose of positive economic benefit, welcoming more migration policies and strategies.

According to Hansen (2012), there are four strategies for a political institution, as in the case of the SC, to desecuritize a threat, namely change through stabilisation, replacement, rearticulation and silencing. Change through stabilisation is 'when an issue is cast in terms other than security' and minimised by failing to create a security speech act (Hansen, 2012, p. 529), It is similar to de´tente – a term coined during the Cold War to imply less military and violent measures of engagement against widely unresolvable threats (Waever, 1995). An example of change through stabilisation is presented in Waever's (2000) study of the Hungary and Slovakia tension. Hungary took an irredentist move and provided citizenship to Hungary-ethnic Slovakian, so that the problem of the cross-border tension got resolved and disappeared. In Replacement desecuritization, actors desecuritize an issue by removing it from the security sphere, while including other issues (Hansen, 2012). The perspective of seeing desecuritization as replacement is seconded by Behnke (2006, p. 35) who states 'certain threats might no longer exercise our minds and imaginations sufficiently and are replaced with more powerful and stirring imageries.' Palombo's (2017) analysis of the Scottish PM Nicola Sturgeon's speech at Edinburgh humanitarian summit in September 2015 is an example of replacement desecuritization. He has reported that the PM desecuritized the issue of migration by replacing it with Westminster as the real threat to Scotland. Rearticulation is to move a threat from a securitized to a politicised sphere in case of a resolution underpinning securitization (Hansen, 2012). Hansen proposes two levels of rearticulating the threat; either by providing active solution or ceasing the conflict. This strategy of desecuritization is inherently positive for politics, as it does not suggest new securitizing moves for the rearticulated threat, as with change through stabilisation (Hansen, 2012). An example of rearticulation is Kerr's (2006) analysis of the animosity between nationalists and unionists in Northern Ireland. The issue of animosity is desecuritized and handled politically through democratic power-sharing between the two groups in both the Assembly and the Executive Committee. Finally, Desecuritization a threat through silencing happens when 'an issue disappears or fails to register in security discourse' (Hansen, 2012, p. 33). This strategy, according to Hansen, is the trickiest, since we cannot recognize some issues as desecuritized threats or normal issues (see also Noria-lorenzo-Dus and Almaged, 2020). This, of course, cannot be justified on political grounds and may ruin the analytical concept of desecuritization. An example of silencing a threat is presented in MacKenzie's (2009) analysis of Sierra Leone female soldiers. Those soldiers were excluded from support and fund in post-war societies. However, this issue was silenced by stripping women off their titles and recognizing them domestic victims and sex slaves. Although these strategies assist in the formulation of desecuritization, there is the need to provide a theoretical framework of the discourse methods that can examine the ways these strategies are practically undertaken to desecuritize threats, which I discuss in the following section.

Methodology

Data

The data of this study comprised 1169 resolutions (1.7 million words) passed by the UNSC between 2001 and 2019. The UNSC has a functional role in the world security and peace, mainly formulated through language and vocabulary. The rationale behind the selection of this time span is that the September 11, 2001, attacks on the US has ignited worldwide threats and sparked international wars on terror to redeem security (Freedman, 2005). It is the period when the SC was supposed to take countermeasures against international threats through its resolutions. Resolutions come with no titles and consist of preambular (un)numbered paragraphs, with annexes if exists. They are not always self-contained, with many referring to previous resolutions and documents, which has required me to go back and forth between resolutions to reconnect security events throughout the analysis.

Framework and Analytical procedures

The inseparable link between discourse and security may justify the use of Discourse Analysis (DA) methodologies in the analysis of securitization. This resonates with Buzan et al.'s (1998, p. 25) statement 'the way to study securitization is to study discourse and political constellations.' Therefore, to understand how actions are (de)securitized and what influencing factors are there in the process of (de)securitization in the SC resolutions, we need to study the discourse construction of the resolutions. This does not entirely in-line with the theoretical frameworks of Buzan, Waever and Hansen on securitization, since they avoid implied meanings of texts or motives of the securitizing actors. For them, 'neither what individual decision-makers really believe, nor what are shared beliefs among a population' is part of their securitization analysis. Hansen and Waever adhere to Foucault's view of discourse in his *The Archaeology of Knowledge* that DA 'does not try to get to the thoughts or motives of the actors, their hidden intentions or secret plans' (Foucault, 1972, p. 26). However, my SDA further places central focus on implicit meanings in the analysis of securitization in the SC resolutions.

Since DA does not have a 'unitary theoretical framework' (van Dijk, 2001, p. 353), the framework underpinning the analysis in this study relied heavily Halliday's (2007) key concepts of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), namely ideational, interpersonal and textual metafunctions. These modes of meaning construct the communicative act based on language and context. They provide a theoretical and practical framework to relate the social and contextual dimensions of SC to the lexico-semantic organization of the resolution discourse. Halliday's metafunctions analysis, further, reflects on the abstract dimension (ideology) of texts and embraces pragmatic inference and semantic encoding within the propositional attitude of the SC (Fairclough, 1989). The study, also, relied in part on CL tools to prepare representative data for qualitative analysis (Gabrielatos & Baker, 2008).

The ideational metafunction in this study was concerned with the analysis of the transitivity system, particularly verb processes. This is because 'verb' is the element that shows the most powerful impression of experience projected through the grammatical patterns in language in comparison with participants and circumstances (Halliday, 2007). For the analysis of this metafunction, I have tagged the corpus for Parts of Speech (POS) in TagAnt software (Anthony, 2015) and searched the tagged list for all the verb processes in AntConc software (Anthony, 2014). This was followed by Key Word In Context (KWIC) analysis and manual reading of the concordance lines for further DA.

The analysis of interpersonal metafunction helped uncover the ways speakers implicate and express themselves through the system of modality (Halliday, 2007). Modality analysis can show how participants cognitively express their assessment of an event to the audience

(Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). In this study, the focus was on the modals of obligation, namely *must*, *shall* and *should*, since they expressed the binding measures of the SC resolutions. Modals of obligation index the judgmental value for social norms and shape the symbolic behaviour toward cultural standards (Hinkel, 1995). I used AntConc to make wordlist of modal auxiliaries and executed their concordance lines for further qualitative analysis.

Information flow is the main concern of the textual metafunction (Halliday, 2007). In this study, the focus was on the information structure of the 'theme' which is the 'point of departure' and the initial position with a 'special status' (Halliday, 1995, p. 37). The theme, where the SC is supposed to function as a subject participant, is seen by Martin (1995) as the crucial element in the success of a text and as a contributor to the coherence of the texts. For the analysis of the theme, I use Sketch Engine (Kilgarriff et al., 2004) for word sketch analysis, in order to map the linguistic behaviour of the process verbs and their actors.

Corpus analysis and discussion

Initially, the corpus was read 'by eye', and attention was paid to the textual and contextual features of the SC resolutions, so as to create powerful directions in the analysis of the whole corpus. I have found that the 1169 resolutions passed by the SC invoked Chapter VII in 784 of the resolutions (67.06%). They were delivered between 2001 and 2019 at the rate of 40-70 resolutions per year. Although the number of resolutions passed each year was not quite disparate, the number of words in each resolution has been increasing across time. As illustrated in Figure 1, the number of words tripled in recent years, in comparison with 2001, which might be a sign that threats and conflicts are also on increase.

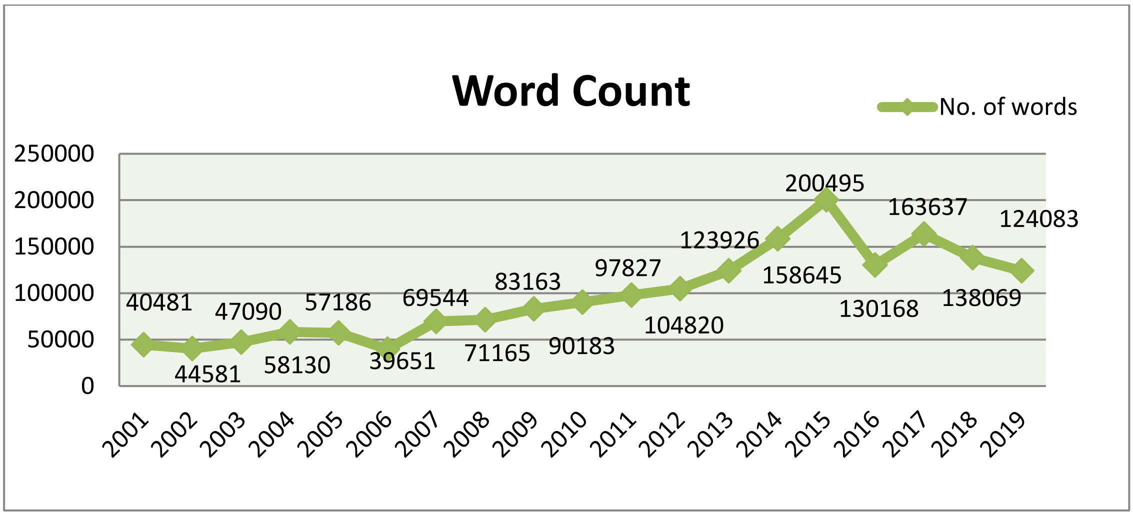

Figure 1: No. of words in each resolution per years

The spread of threats and conflicts was present in the resolutions covering more than 49 regions around the world. The top ten regions of conflict were Sudan, Middle East, Somalia, Congo, Bosnia, Liberia, Côte d'Ivoire, Iraq, Afghanistan and Libya. These regions are visually illustrated in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Visual of Regional conflict in the corpus

Following this quantitative overview of the resolutions, I analyse and discuss each metafunction individually for clarity of presentation, although they were partly overlapping in the corpus.

Stabilising the threats: Ideational metafunction analysis

The analysis of the ideational meaning through transitivity system showed several discursive features in the resolutions and provided evidence for desecuritizing threats through stabilisations. The analysis helped project the discursive construction of SC experience/stance toward security, showing that the SC was mostly interested in reporting (previous) resolutions through verbal processes of 'saying'. This means that the council achieved narration and dialogue development (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004), rather than imposing countermeasures and binging obligations against security issues. The SC failed to create a security speech act (Hansen, 2012).

Although verbal processes are half the way between mental and material processes, as they encode mental operations through language (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004; Thompson, 2004), the linguistic choice of saying verbs, such as *recall*, *reaffirm*, *express*, expresses neutral preferences in linguistic communication of the resolutions (Floyd, 2000; Green, 1976). Therefore, they showed a weaker political stance of the SC toward the security threats. A similar finding has been reported by Floyd (2000) in his analysis of news coverage of Gulf War

1990, where journalists appear neutral and prejudice audience's decision in favour or against them by the use of reporting verbs.

Having tagged the whole corpus for POS, and searched the resulting list in AntConc, I found that verbal processes were most frequent (45%) in the construction of the resolutions, in comparison with material 35%, mental 12%, relational 6% and others 2%. There was also the absence of the 'sayer' (SC) as a securitizing actor in all these discursive constructions (see also 5.3), which make it difficult to create securitization, as illustrated in example 1:

1. *Recalling* the resolution of the IAEA Board of Governors (GOV/2006/14), which states that a solution to the Iranian nuclear issue would contribute to global non-proliferation efforts and to realizing the objective of a Middle East free of weapons of mass destruction, including their means of delivery (Resolution 1929, June 2010).

In this example, the verbal process *recall* does not express the SC position toward what is being discussed. Rather, it refers back to a previous resolution in which the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) Board of Governors neutrally *states* that a solution to the nuclear threat would make the Middle East safer. Both verbs do not create a security speech act nor express the SC's qualified position or measures to be undertaken by the SC, IAEA and Iran in this regard.

The top 10 frequent verbal processes used by the SC in the discursive construction of the resolutions were 'recall n=2023, welcome n=1557, reaffirm n=1371, express n=950, note n=865, reiterating n=636, stressing n=615, emphasizing n=437, commending n=375 and calling n=145'. Here, we speak about thousands of resolutions where no securitizing actor and participants were obliged to take emergency measures. *Recall*, for example, is an assertive speech act concerned with facts and speakers' belief of the world as being a certain way (Kreidler , 1998; Stalnaker, 1999). The frequent use of the verb *recall* to assert previous resolutions implied that the resolutions had not been put on achievement, hence the SC was reiterating the status quo. This is reasoned by the finding that most of the objects of the verb *recall* were previous resolutions and statements. Also, *welcome* is an expressive speech act denoting the psychological state of speakers who do not try to match the world to their words and vice versa (Haverkate , 1984). Unlike *recall,* and despite positive connotations on human empathy, *welcome* has no 'propositional content' (Searle & Vanderveken, 1985), which again obscured the SC's socio-political function to take measures.

This does not mean that the threats were not serious, but the SC did not discursively construct the resolution to require/oblige the member states or other participants to encounter the threat. Implying a less violent form of politics (détente), such as the nuclear threat in example 1, desecuritized the issue through stabilising its emergency threat.

Nonobligatory resolutions: Interpersonal metafunctions analysis

Although overlapping with ideational metafunction, the analysis of interpersonal meaning throughout modality enacts speakers' role to communicate the intermediate degrees of probability between negative and positive poles of reality through the use of modals (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). The analysis showed that the SC created 'unreal' pressure, because the deontic value of the obligatory measures against the threats was not connected to the directive intentionality of actors, not necessarily the speaker (Nuyts, 2016). The deontic modality was, also, marked by 'non-factual' communicative actions (Palmer, 1986, p. 59) that led to a less violent form of politics, which resulted in desecuritizing threats through stabilization. This finding confirms Rosingana's (2018) analysis of the persuasive effects of modalization in Catalan nationalist Artur Mas' speeches. He has found that the force of deontic modals is minimised and used not to express obligation but to persuade the audience to believe a covert imaginary future for Catalonia.

I used AntConc to make wordlist of the deontic modals of *must*, *shall* and *should*, and to execute their concordance lines for KWIC analysis of the resolutions. The analysis revealed that *must* occurred '469' times almost often in the passive form of the resolutions, as illustrated in Figure 2:

nt and redeployment, and reiterates that all foreign troops	must be withdrawn	from the territory of the Democratic R
ediately and reiterates that international humanitarian law	must be respected	, and that there will be no impunity for
m of office of Judge Gilbert Guillaume will thus occur and	must be filled	in accordance with the terms of the Statute
hdrawal pursuant to resolution 425 and that the Blue Line	must be respected	in its entirety, Expressing its concern o
e framework of the monitoring and reporting mechanism	must be designed	to support and supplement, as appropri
all States, undermines global stability and prosperity, and	must be addressed	urgently and proactively by the United
ecurity, and stressing in this regard that such contribution	must be made	in accordance with Chapter VIII of the Unite
l pursuant to resolution 425 (1978) and that the Blue Line	must be respected	in its entirety, Gravely concerned at th
rican Republic, and stressing that regional security aspects	must be addressed	to achieve long lasting peace in Darfur
4, and reaffirming also that those involved in these attacks	must be held	accountable for their crimes, Having exami
well as the region, stressing that regional security aspects	must be addressed	to achieve long-term peace in Darfur,
ction in these tensions and rebel activity in both countries	must be addressed	to achieve long-term peace in Darfur a
e framework of the monitoring and reporting mechanism	must be designed	to support and supplement, as appropri
21 term of office of Judge Shi Jiuyong will thus occur and	must be filled	in accordance with the terms of the Statute
of office of Judge Thomas Buergenthal will thus occur and	must be filled	in accordance with the terms of the Statute
for crimes against United Nations personnel and civilians	must be held	accountable, Acting under Chapter VII of the
the civilian population, including aerial and naval attacks,	must be held	to account, Reiterating its concern at the pli

Figure 2: Concordances of *must*

In Figure 2, the frequent use of *must* in passive construction did not connect the deontic modality to a logical performer (subject), e.g., … *in regional security aspect must be addressed*…. It remained unclear who/which is going to abide by the obligatory measures to deal with the regional security. The absence of the SC as a performing actor can be attributed to the elimination of the SC's responsibility and qualified opinions on what is being discussed (see 5.3). This absence of the securitizing actor(s) took the threats out of the security realm (Buzan & Waever, 2009), and it is not in tandem with Buzan et al.'s (1998) statement that emergency measures have to be taken immediately to secure the referent object which is almost often the state. Therefore, the securitization was not successfully constructed in *must* discursive construction, which resonates with Floyd's (2015) suggestion that successful securitization is marked by a change of action taken and justified by relevant actor, which I found missing in this part of analysis.

Unlike *must*, *shall* and *should* hit 3436 occurrences (n=2539 and n=897, respectively) and showed successful securitization through overt obligatory measures. However, the measures were to be undertaken by external participants other than the SC (member states), except 45 examples where the member states were engaged in the measure, as illustrated in example 2:

2. […] All States *shall* take the necessary measures to prevent, by their nationals or from their territories or using flag vessels or aircraft, the sale or supply of arms and related materiel to any entity or individual in Lebanon other than those authorized by the Government of Lebanon (Resolution 2433, August 2018).

In example 2, the *state* is an explicit securitizing actor responsible for preventing illegal arms deal by taking necessary measures. However, the deontic value of *shall* and *should* can be eliminated when they are used for suggestion, advice and conditionals. They can, then, express a median value and weaker degree of obligation, in comparison with *must* (Nuyts, 2016). Also, *shall* and *should* are confusing because they can be replaced by *may* with little ambiguous meaning, as reported by Krapivkina (2017) in her analysis of legal texts.

Depoliticizing the threats: Textual metafunctions analysis

The analysis of the textual function was concerned with the organization of the information structure within individual clauses, particularly the theme (Halliday 1994). In the analysis of the SC resolutions, I have noticed that the resolution statements were discursively constructed with a null or truncated subject– 'an operation by which a sentence is shortened by omitting one or more unstressed words at the beginning' (Radford, 2004, p. 362). With the frequent absence of the subject in the theme position, the resolutions often started with performative *~ing* verbs (see Figure 3). The purpose of omitting the subject might be to rule out the actor in order to achieve thetic predicate which assigns no semantic role to the subject position rendering it non-oriented and genderless (Queixalós, 2016). Therefore, null subject resolutions failed to register the threats and desecuritized them by silencing, since the verbal articulation of a threat is transmitted to the audience through a securitizing actor as a principal mean to form a security act (Buzan et al., 1998; Hansen & Waever, 2003). Consider example 3:

3. Noting that achieving the goal of Silencing the Guns in Africa will contribute significantly to saving succeeding generations from the scourge of war, (Resolution 2457, February 2019).

In this example, the absence of the subject in *Noting that achieving the goal* … makes it unclear who/which is *noting* or *achieving the goal of Silencing the Guns in Africa*, if any. Although a non-overt subject can be syntactically assigned the external θ-role of the verb, such as in the reflexive pronoun in *hurt himself* (Haegeman, 1990), the subject of *note* and *achieve* in example 3 is syntactically unrepresented.

the United Nations Mission of Observers in Prevlaka (UNMOP),	**Recalling**	also the **letters** to its President from the Chargé d'affaires a.i. of
:ive to a negotiated settlement of the disputed issue of Prevlaka,	**Recalling**	the relevant **principles** contained in the Convention on the Safe
:/s><s> Decides to remain actively seized of the matter. </s><s>	**Recalling**	its **resolutions** 425 (1978) and 426 (1978) of 19 March 1978, 50
nature of the United Nations Interim Force in Lebanon (UNIFIL),	**Recalling**	the relevant **principles** contained in the Convention on the Safe
report of the Secretary-General of 18 January 2001 (S/2001/59),	**Recalling**	the **conclusions** of the Lisbon (S/1997/57, annex) and Istanbul
Council of the Georgian and Abkhaz sides on 23 January 2001,	**Recalling**	the relevant **principles** contained in the Convention on the Safe
essing the need to find a comprehensive solution to the problem,	**Recalling**	the relevant **principles** contained in the Convention on the Safe
:/s><s> Decides to remain actively seized of the matter. </s><s>	**Recalling**	its **resolutions** 808 (1993) of 22 February 1993, 827 (1993) of 2
ymyr Vassylenko (Ukraine) Mr. Karam Chand Vohrah (Malaysia)	**Recalling**	its **resolutions** 1234 (1999) of 9 April 1999, 1258 (1999) of 6 Au
aka Ceasefire Agreement and facilitating national reconciliation,	**Recalling**	the **responsibilities** of all parties to cooperate in the full deployr
ctober 2000, and also its resolution 1308 (2000) of 17 July 2000,	**Recalling**	the relevant **principles** contained in the Convention on the Safe
late; 3. </s><s> Decides to remain seized of the matter. </s><s>	**Recalling**	its **resolutions** 1132 (1997) of 8 October 1997, 1171 (1998) of 5
Government of Liberia is actively supporting the RUF at all levels,	**Recalling**	the Economic **Community** of West African States (ECOWAS) M

Figure 3: Concordance lines of *recall* in Sketch Engine

English language is a non-pro-drop language that does not permit pronominal subject to be omitted in finite clauses. However, there are certain registers where null subjects are permitted, such as in colloquial English, diary styles, and informal notes (Haegeman, 1990). It is also a common feature in English conversation (Biber et al., 1999). Null subject was early introduced by Chomsky (1981) in his empty category theory and referred to by Quirk et al. (1985) as a situational ellipsis. But what purpose does null subject achieve in the SC resolutions?

Nominalizing the verbs, such as *noting and achieving* in example 3, is a 'process of syntactic reduction' that offers opportunities for deleting information regarding the subject, time and modality of the action (Fowler et al., 1979). In this case, by the absence of an explicit subject, it is not obvious whi is the actor of the nominalised verbs; *noting* or *achieving*. Nominalization is one of the linguistic features most commonly associated with ideological discourse (Fairclough, 2003). The normalized entity has ideological effect of moving the audience's perception of information from a process to an entity, because it cannot be linguistically examined for time, place and agent (Halliday, 1985). Hiding information on who the agent is, and when/where a process has been performed create a depersonalised style (Jisa, and L. Tolchinsky, 2009; Simpson, 1993) which, in Copenhagen School terms, means the lack of a securitizing actor, hence desecuritizing the threat.

Conclusion

The aim of this study was to find out the ways the SC discursively constructed security threats in their resolutions from 2011 to 2019, and the degree to which this discursive construction risked human rights and international security. The analysis showed discursive evidence that the SC often followed an impersonalized style and suggested no emergency or military measures to counter security threats. On the contrary, it desecuritized threats by the discursive strategies of change through stabilisation and silencing, which could put people's lives in danger and violate human rights. There was also the risk that the SC implied normalisation of such threats, forfeiting them justice and legal measures, albeit security threats were on increase and almost tripled in 2019, in comparison with 2011.

A close analysis of the ideational metafunctions through transitivity system helped project the construction of the reality of the threats in the resolution discourse. It showed that the SC was impersonally neutral in reporting threats through the use of saying verbs (Floyd, 2000; Green, 1976), providing a less violent form of politics that stabilising the threats. The analysis of the interpersonal meaning, on the other hand, revealed that the frequent use of deontic obligatory modals provided, on the contrary, non-binding resolutions and, thus, created unreal pressure on participants involved in the resolutions. The obligatory measures suggested by the SC were not connected to the SC's directive intentionality, by distancing the logical actor (Palombo, 2017). Therefore, the issues discussed failed to register and silenced by a less form of politics. The textual function analysis of information structure within the resolution showed that the discourse coherence of the resolution was suspended by truncation. The textual analysis revealed that the SC or member states impersonalized the resolutions and did not involve themselves as explicit actors in the representation of threats. They provided thetic predicate without assigning a semantic role for the subject (Radford, 2004). Thus, they failed to register the threats and silenced them, due to the absence of the securitizing actor (Buzan et al., 1998).

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Gender Beliefs in Academic Settings: An Exploratory Study in Saudi Context

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Abstract

One of the strategic agendas enlisted in Saudi Vision 2030 is to provide the female gender with more opportunities and fewer restrictions. In action since 2016 (as Vision 2030 was announced on 25 April 2016), many policies and activities have been planned as well as implemented in this regard. To bring any change in gender roles, gender beliefs play an important role. Thus, in the light of the present Vision, what kind of gender beliefs, the youth of the Kingdom holds, is important to identify. This can be primarily focused on by analyzing the language the members of each gender group use to describe their own or opposite gender. The present study aims to study how students (both male and female) in academic settings of selected Saudi universities perceive their own gender group as well as the others. For this purpose, four tools are used to collect data and the findings are critically discussed under the qualitative paradigm. The major findings of the study reveal that students overall have a biased approach to gender and gender roles. In particular, the female gender is viewed and described in traditional positions and roles. Resultantly, male and female students have a strong inclination to view themselves and others in gender-biased frames. The study suggests that there is a dire need to teach and train Saudi youth regarding gender equality and equity in terms of using the English language. The teachers and other stakeholders can play their part to incorporate gender impartial discourse in academic settings. Finally, the study suggests promoting gender-neutral discourse to make students realize their potential as human beings, rather than gender-beings, which is in line with the Saudi vision 2030 concerning women's equality and empowerment.

Keywords: *gender; academic setting; Saudi universities; Vison 2030; gender beliefs and roles;*

Introduction

"Saudi women are yet another great asset. With over 50 % of our university graduates being female, we will continue to develop their talents, invest in their productive capabilities, and enable them to strengthen their future and contribute to the development of our society and economy" (Saudi Vision 2030, Pg. 37). The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia envisions itself to be better prosperous economically and more enlightened socially and culturally within the next decade (Hameed, Jabeen & Khan, 2020). Along with other crucial transformations, women empowerment is a fundamental step in achieving desired national, economic, and socio-cultural goals as listed in the Saudi Vision 2030. Moreover, the National Transformation Program (NTP) has also enlisted women empowerment as one of the key themes. However, this women empowerment is not possible until the society gives equal prestige to both gender groups and holds positive beliefs regarding them. Many initiations have been taken by the Saudi government to improve and upgrade the status of women in society including the opportunities of getting an education, employment, etc. Nevertheless, rooted in ancient traditional cultural values, the female gender is generally believed to have lower status as compared to males (Sulaimani, 2017). The same is exhibited when students use gender-oriented English language expressions in their spoken and written discourses without being conscious and aware of such biased usage of the language.

After tremendous advances in science and technology, lives of the human beings have changed dramatically. Consequently, English has become a global language and means of communication among the speakers of different languages and cultures (Alzeebaree & Yavuz, 2017, as cited in Alzeebaree & Hasan, 2020). The language of speakers is an embodiment of various factors such as cultural norms and customs, individual and communal beliefs and practices followed in the speakers' immediate context. The language does not only reflect what one believes in, but it also becomes an inevitable instrument for further influence and dissemination of shared beliefs and ideologies (Fairclough, 2013). Despite the efforts of three decades by educationists, researchers, and theorists, it can still be observed that speakers of different languages, specifically English undermine one gender and overpower the other (Paterson, 2014). Mostly, women are the ones who are undermined and marginalized in multiple ways both consciously as well as unconsciously. However, this phenomenon becomes more potent when the language used and practiced within educational settings carry the same gender-oriented and biased beliefs and ideologies (Sunderland, 2000; Corrado, 2009; Norberg, 2016).

The educational settings in Saudi Arabia are no exception when concerning the issue of language bias against females. From textbooks to oral discourse, the prevalence of gender-oriented and discriminating language has been established by a few studies conducted by this time (Arebi, 1994; Al Jumiah, 2016 & Sulaimani, 2017). However, there is still a dearth of exploration and analysis of how both male and female students within academic settings perceive and represent themselves and their other counterparts. Thus, this study aims to critically delve into the phenomenon through the following set objectives:

- To explore gender discourse in academic settings of KSA
- To analyze gender beliefs of university students concerning attributes, activities, and roles
- To examine their knowledge regarding gender-neutral discourse
- To identify gender biases in the academic discourse, if any
- To suggest some remedies for the promotion of gender-neutral discourse

The study is important in multiple ways. Firstly, the perceptions, beliefs, and awareness of university-level students regarding gender-oriented and biased language are assessed. This assessment sheds light on how both male and female participants view themselves as well as the other gender in terms of social status, roles, and values. Secondly, the study also investigates whether or not the students are aware of gender-biased language or even are conscious of the fact that the type of language they use is biased and prejudiced against one or the other gender. It is also be explored if the students know and use gender-neutral language while using English. This comprehensive analysis presents a clear picture of how English is used for gender representation. Thirdly, based on the analysis of the collected data of the study, context-appropriate and relevant recommendations are offered so that the learning and teaching of English can be made more gender-inclusive and neutral. This effort in turn can train the young Saudis to be more accommodating, understanding, and fair towards females especially, moving in the right direction in line with Saudi vision 2030.

Literature Review

Often confused with sex, gender is a more abstract version. The term ‘sex’ refers to biological difference and characteristics between males and females (Schneider et al., 2005) whereas, gender is referred to “socially constructed roles, behaviors, activities, and attributes that a given society considers appropriate for men and women” (WHO, 2015). Right from the birth of a child until adulthood, the society segregates him/her into pre-constructed and prevalent, normative, social roles both explicitly and (mostly) implicitly. But, how exactly this segregation and social division take place? It simply starts from choosing a blue or pink color to “the way parents behave to their children, by their expectations about how their children should behave and act, and by the toys they buy for them. For example, girls are supposed to play with dolls and be sweet and emotional and boys are supposed to play with action figures and be aggressive and rational” (Power, 2011). In simple words, gender is constructed by society and often in line with traditional customs, without realizing how the world has changed over the years.

The prevalence and adoption of gender beliefs and roles not aligned with the new modern global community are often referred to as stereotypes. The troubling part is that it fixes humans to society's standards without realizing their inner potential. Thus what they become is gender beings more than human beings (Hameed, 2014). Blum (2004) asserts that stereotyping is deceptive generalizations about specific gender groups how they should behave and act. The association of certain colors with either gender and expected gender-specific behaviors and roles, are only a few examples that reflect the gender stereotypes prevailing in a society. Such stereotypes lead towards gender discrimination, undermining, and or even ostracizing women (Stout & Dasgupta, 2011; Vervecken & Hannover, 2012; Benattabou, 2021,Go Silk, et al.,2020).

The voices against stereotyping and biased attitudes towards women were first raised by European feminists. Beginning as a social active movement to get rights for women, it spread eventually to all corners of the world. This led many feminist activists to lay foundations for theoretical feminism like Beauvoir (1949), Millett (1970), etc. According to Raina (2017), feminism as a collection of both theories and movements has challenged the perceived gender beliefs and roles. With the advent of feminist movements primarily, these gender stereotypes started to be questioned and addressed not only by feminists themselves but scholars and researchers from diverse fields like education and psychology.

The same feminist approach also affected the language. It has been argued that as a medium of cultural transmission, language cannot be ignored as a tool to propagate and transfer assumed gender values to future generations. Cameron (2000) opines that there is a complex relationship between language and gender which cannot be ignored simply by considering it as something natural. In fact, there are many dimensions to it. On one side, it highlights the ways men and women use language differently (Tannen, 1999), and on the other side, it explains how language can also be used to segregate each gender grouping. The later language use by each gender group reflects how they perceive their as well as other gender groups; this is also the focus of the present study.

The prohibition of generic pronouns like he for all genders by the American Psychological Association (2009) is an example of untiring efforts of professionals and professional bodies around the world to promote the gender-inclusive and gender-fair language. Likewise, the use of gender-neutral language in academic settings specifically courses books has remained the area of focus for researchers for many decades denouncing the anti-feminist approach of the syllabus books (Hellinger, 1980; Bailey & Parkes, 1995; Blumerg 2007 & Gharbavi and Mousavi, 2012). Through constant efforts of using gender-inclusive language have brought a slight change in the use of language in certain contexts as demonstrated in a few of the previous research studies (Sano, Iida & Hardy 2001; Healy, 2009) yet it is still a long way to go (Coats, 2015 & Jule, 2017). Important thing is that biased representation of gender in language gets infused into the brains of the speakers and readers directly or indirectly. Ridgeway and Correll (2004) argue that it has negative impacts which gift men more power and higher social status than women.

Van Han (2014) argues that “something needs doing to change people’s perception and attitude, otherwise new generation continue to have the same perception and attitude as the previous generation have” (p.98). For the said reason, considerable research has been conducted around the globe. Van Han (2014) analyzed the Vietnamese language and found it stereotypical while using gender-related tasks, activities, and attributes. Hultgren (2017) studied language segregation in the workplaces and highlighted the biased use of language. Concerning gender discrimination and language research within the Saudi context, there are only a few studies that investigate and address the phenomenon in certain aspects. The pro-male and anti-female bias was explored in the naming practice prevailing in Arab society in Ab del Jawad's study in 1989. Similarly, another research probed the perceptions of the Saudi female university students regarding gender-specific professions, highlighting the lower status roles being associated with females and higher status with male counterparts (Rada & Hamdan, 2015). More recent studies focus on gender discrimination found in ELT and EFL coursebooks taught from school to university level (For example, Sulaimani, 2017 & Aljuaythin, 2018).

The above examples of only a handful of studies indicate the dearth of research in this crucial area of linguistic appropriateness concerning the usage of English for gender equality, within the Saudi context. The current study intends to address the gap within the existing literature in the said area by comprehensively exploring the phenomenon, as well as recommending context-appropriate suggestions and recommendations to address the issue effectively.

Research Methodology

The research in hand has employed a quantitative approach, as the main focus is to tabulate and graphically represent the numeric data. The data is collected through a survey-based approach using four tools:

- Attribute/Adjective Checklist
- Social Activities Checklist
- Social Roles Preference Checklist

- Gender-Neutral Language Use Checklist

The first tool is based on finding out the type of adjectives respondents of both genders preferably choose displaying their perception, and the concept of masculinity and feminity. The list of adjectives given contains items related to appearance, ability, strength, and nature. The second and third tools are used to measure respondents' views concerning activities and roles, they consider related to each gender group. For the said purpose, a list containing social activities and suitable roles is presented to students to associate their preferences with respective genders. The fourth tool is important in the sense that it helps the researchers to identify whether or not the respondents are aware of gender-neutral language. For the said purpose, a list of commonly used gender-biased terms is provided to the students to provide alternative gender-neutral terms.

The population was undergraduate students enrolled in the universities within Riyadh region. The rationale for selecting this region is the convenience sampling for the researchers to collect data. Moreover, being the capital area and a center for economic activities, the students are of diverse backgrounds thus providing more inclusive data for the research. The sample from the selected universities is comprised of undergraduate students of both gender groups, to get views from both sides. During the pandemics, the survey was conducted online. Almost 342 students from 4 universities participated in the study. However, 320 responses were selected randomly for analysis purposes, comprising of equal gender ration, i.e. 160 each. Figure one below represents the population in gender ratio, whereas figure two represents the age grouping.

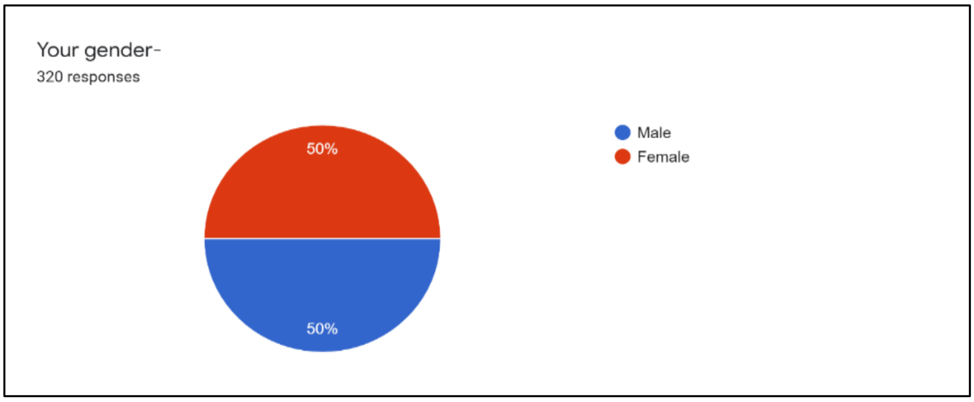

Figure 1 Gender ratio of the sample population

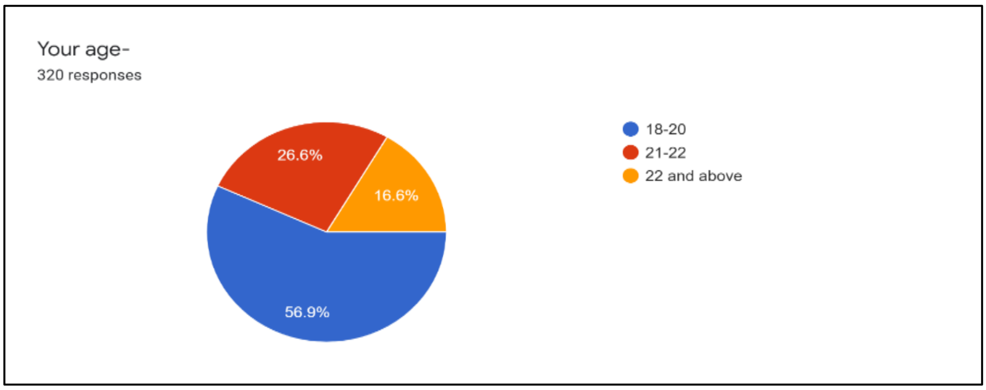

Figure 2 Age ratio of the sample population

All the tools used in the present study have generated quantitative data. Thus, on the first hand, data is quantitatively analyzed using statistical tools and software. The results are presented in form of tables, figures, and graphs. Further, the findings are qualitatively analyzed unearthing themes based on quantitative data, to get an overall insight into the phenomenon. Finally, a comparative analysis of beliefs offered by both gender groups reveals their gender-specific language awareness, orientation, and biases.

Findings of the Study

This section presents a summary of the results along with the discussion.

The first tool of the study was based on characteristics or attributes associated with each gender grouping. The results are presented in figure three below. The data presented in the figure demonstrates evident segregation and discrimination between both the genders based on their socio-culturally perceived attributes. The checklist, carefully designed was comprised of a combination of attributes that reflect both positive, desired as well as less admired personality traits. Interestingly, both male and female respondents tended to undermine the female gender by ascribing it with attributes such as ‘weak’, and ‘sensitive’ which are inherently considered as stereotyped and negative connotatively. Similarly, the adjective ‘beautiful’ is attributed to females by 65.3% of the participants which reflects a mindset that females are acquired to be beautiful and pretty. Contrastively, when it comes to connotatively positive qualities such as ‘strong’ and ‘bold’ the majority of the respondents i.e. 55.6% and 47.2% respectively, attributed it to males. Another perception that polarizes the two genders is revealed in the use of adjectives such as ‘caring’ and ‘careful’ where the ratio of male and female appears to be almost 51:10 and 40:14 respectively. Moreover, the majority of the respondent believe that females are more 'dependent' i.e. 34.7%, whereas males are more 'independent' that is 50.5%. The personal traits such as being 'ambitious', 'hardworking', and 'competent' do not exhibit any significant difference in gender-based distribution.

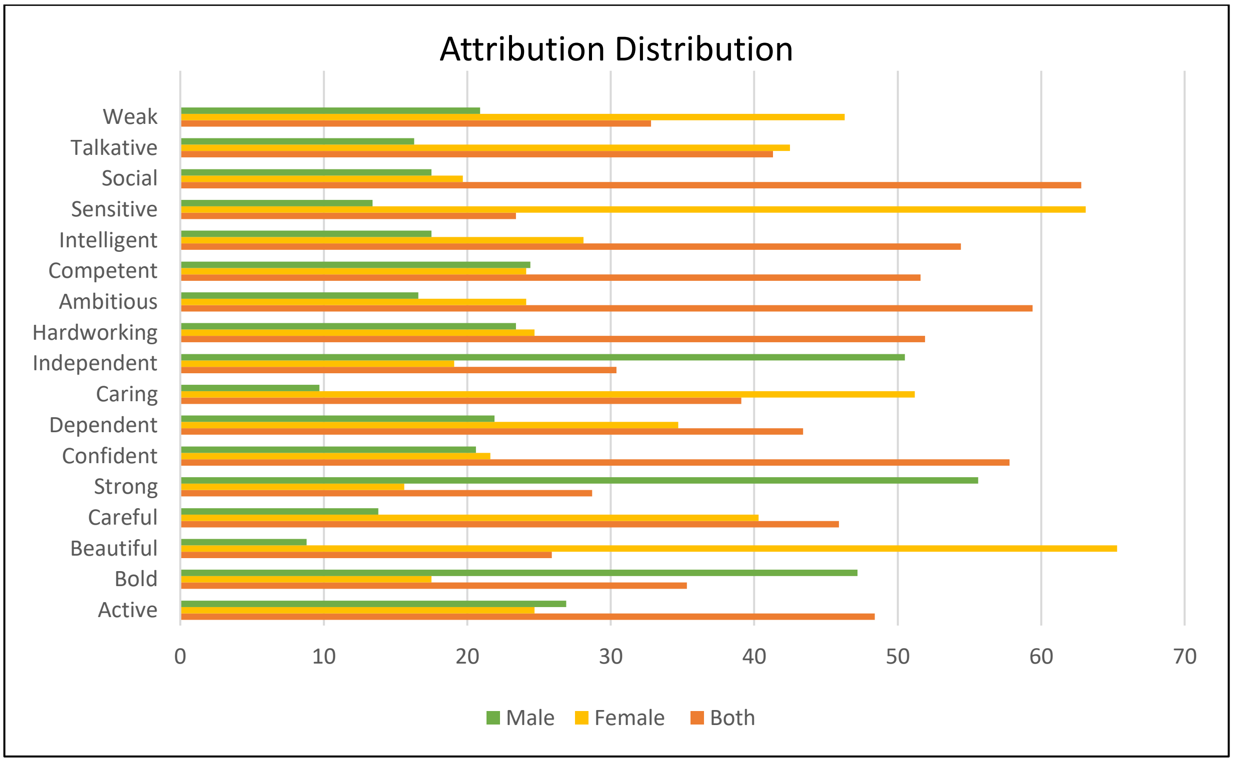

Figure 3 Attribute Distribution

The above findings and discussion reaffirm the phenomenon of gender-based polarization prevalent in the society even though there is a plethora of research, books, discussions, and policies to address such segregation (Lakoff, 1975; Van Han, 2014; Coats, 2015; Jule, 2017 & Aljuaythin, 2018). These conventionally presumed and accepted characteristics of females in the society not only reflect the overall perception of them, rather pave the way to continue with the same biased attitudes and beliefs.

The ascribed characteristics within a given society further lead towards the categorization of males and females in different social activities and spheres. In the figure above the majority of the independent, professional, and out-of-home activities are attributed to males by both males and females respondents. For instance, 'driving, attending a meeting, running business' are overwhelmingly male-oriented ascribed social functions. Whereas, the domestic bound and in-home activities are associated with the female by significant majority i.e. 'cooking', 67% & 'cleaning' 56% with females and only 6.3 and 6.6% attributed to males respectively. The only outdoor activity associated with females by 58% of the respondents is 'shopping'. Other activities that refer to physical strength are also regarded as male domains, such as 'gardening' and 'doing an exercise'.

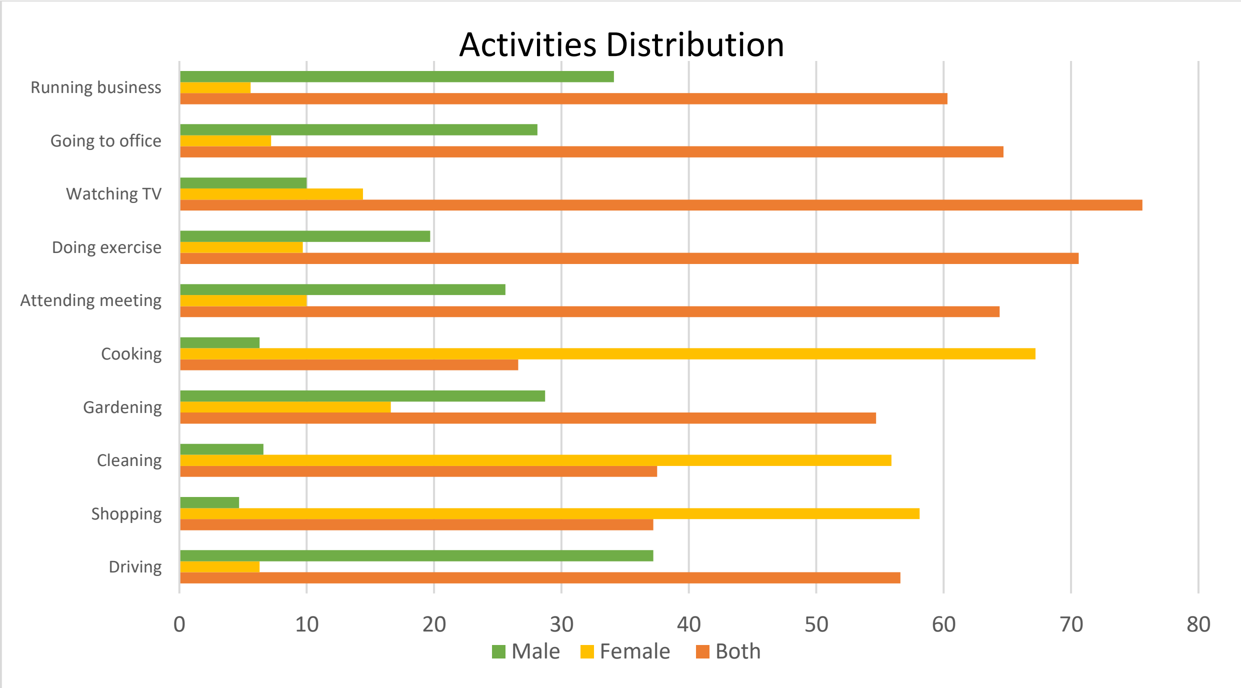

Figure 4 Activities Attribution

Comparatively, males are considered to participate in more positive and substantial activities such as professional tasks like attending a meeting, going to the office, and running a business. However, as per the statistics presented in the figure above, females are not considered to be contributing significantly to economically, socially, and culturally acknowledged domains.

Along with personal attributes and social activities, it was pivotal to explore the respondents' beliefs about the social roles and jobs they consider acceptable for themselves and their counterparts. As exhibited in figure 5, in all the professional categories males have more participation except conventionally and stereotypically female-oriented and specified jobs such as ‘nurse’, ‘cook’ and ‘model’ with 43.4%, 39.7%, & 40.3% respectively. On the other hand, socio-culturally more valued and rewarded jobs which need professional aptitudes and conduct, such as ‘engineers’, ‘accountant’ & ‘pilot’ are thought to be male specified. For example, both male and female participants have attributed the profession of ‘pilot’ to males with a percentage of 55 as compared to only 5% attribution to females. Similarly, all over the world sports and games have female members and teams yet within the Saudi context being an ‘athlete’ means males i.e. 34.7% of males. The professions like ‘teacher’ and ‘receptionist’ do not show any significant difference in the distribution.

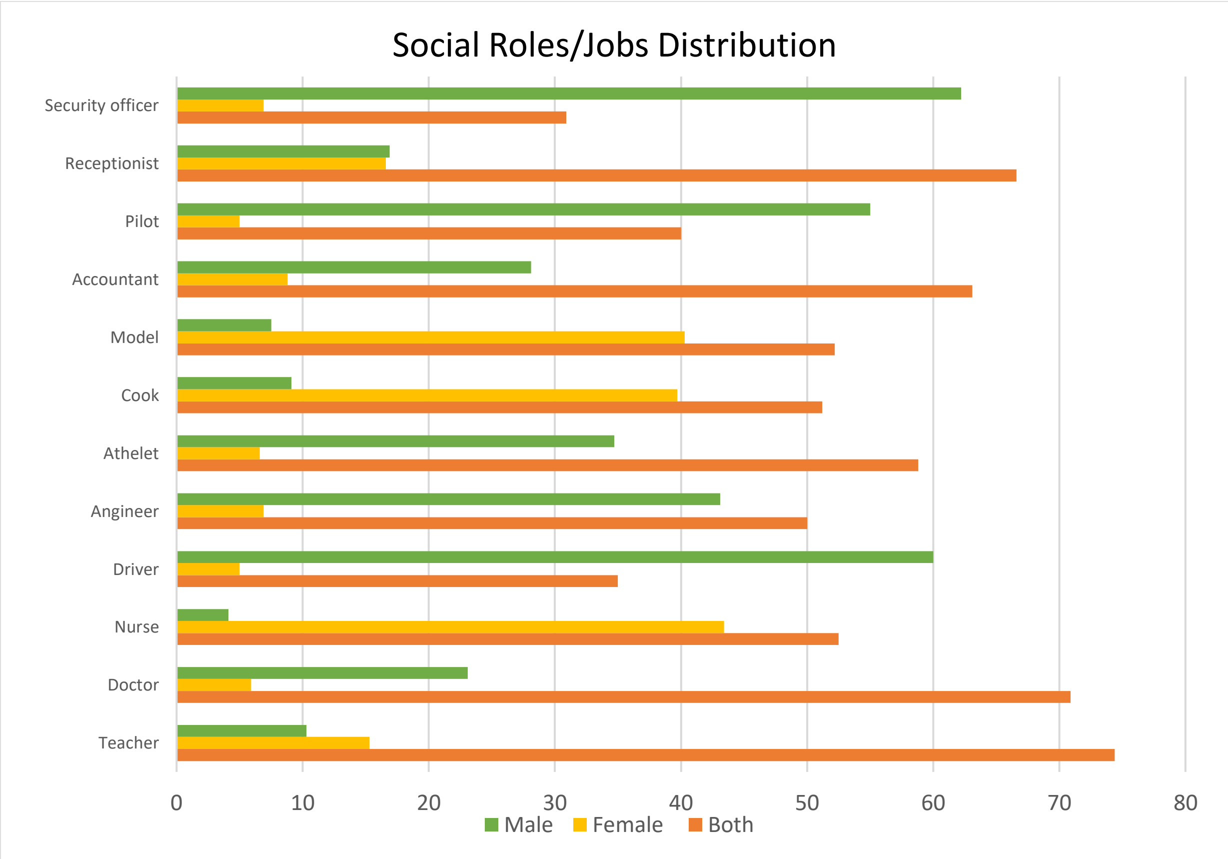

Figure 5 Social Roles/Jobs Attribution

In all the three checklists analysis, it can be noticed that whether these are personal attributes or social activities and roles, there is an obvious and clear distinction between the male and female genders. Interestingly, not only the males, females too ascribed themselves in the culturally segregated domains and functions.

The final tool of the study was used to understand the usage of gender-neutral or gender-biased terms in the routine language used by the participants within the academic settings. The purpose was to analyze whether students employ gender-inclusive terms or they are unfamiliar with such terms. The two sets of terms used were: mankind, common man, chairman, policeman, and salesman (gender-biased terms), humankind, common person, chairperson, police officer, and salesperson as the gender-neutral terms alternatives. The results indicate that students mostly make more use of gender-biased terms (67.1%) than the gender-neutral terms (32.9%). Figure 6 below represents the data.

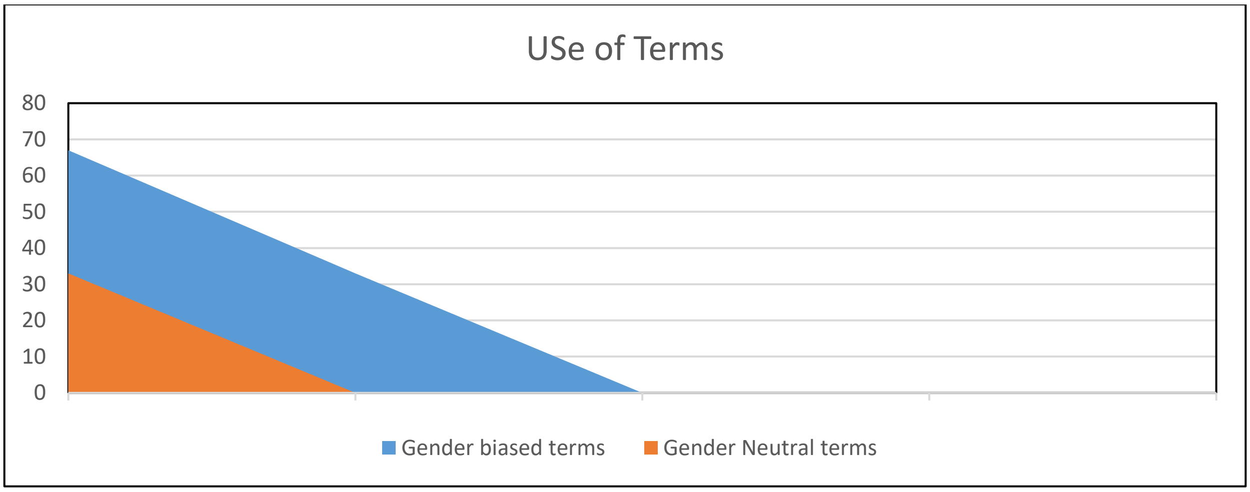

Figure 6: Use of gender-inclusive language

Overall, the findings from all four tools clarify that there is a dire need to implement certain actions to revert traditional gender beliefs and values that undermine the female gender.

Conclusion

The present study was aimed to analyze the gender perspectives of the Saudi educated youth inline to discuss Vision 2030 related goals for the empowerment of the female gender. As the new Vision 2030 targets to promote gender equality in various economic and social activities and domains, it is important to also review the gender-related beliefs of the population, specifically within the academic settings. Gender is no more a biological or fixed phenomenon rather it is socially constructed (WHO, 2015), maintained, promoted, and disseminated construct. This construct lays the very foundation of ones-own self and others' perception, being a boy/male or girl/female and more precisely to behave, perform and even think as per socially prescribed and specified roles and characters for him/her.

It can be argued thus, that gender beliefs can be reformed by promoting gender-neutral use of language as language and culture are deeply assimilated. It could be one of the strategies that would result in improved gender beliefs in a traditional society. However, the foremost step is to first identify and scrutinize the existing gender beliefs and then to implement remedies. For this purpose, the present study was set to study gender beliefs of the students of the undergraduate program enrolled in the selected Saudi universities in the Riyadh region. A randomly selected sample of 320 students (equal gender ratio and educational level) participated in the study. Four tools were used to get an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon. One of the important assumptions of the study was that educated youth would display gender-neutral beliefs and viewpoints and would be familiar with gender-neutral terms and words. However, the results were significantly different from what they were assumed to be at the beginning of the study.

The majority of the findings from all four tools revealed the fact that a significantly higher number of participants had very orthodox and conventional beliefs regarding their own as well their counterpart gender. Moreover, they envisioned each gender group associated with their conventional gender roles and activities. Besides, the use of gender-inclusive language was found to be unsatisfactorily minimal. Overall, the results indicate that Saudi youth have displayed stereotypical attitudes towards each gender group. In most of the cases, the female gender was undermined both physically as well as cognitively and was considered to be related to restricted roles and domains. Conversely, males were believed to be more independent, positively contributing towards themselves and the society at large. Inline, the study suggests:

- To improve gender beliefs of the population through proper policies and activities at national and institutional levels
- To promote usage of gender-neutral language in various domains of academia
- To specifically arrange workshops and seminars addressing the issue

- To make deliberate efforts at the departmental level to make use of gender-inclusive and gender-neutral language in both oral and written discourse

Acknowledgment

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The Application of English Stylistics to Kurdish with Reference to English

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Abstract

The main concerns of this study centre on the use of Stylistics to analyse Kurdish. Stylistics focuses on why one textual feature is chosen over other possible alternatives. For readers whose knowledge of Kurdish language is limited, this work explains the structure of Kurdish, particularly those structures which are different from my data. So, scholars can easily use stylistics in the analysis of Kurdish texts. This work mainly

focuses on the grammar of Kurdish in the data of my PhD thesis (Ibrahim, 2018), *The Small Mirrors*. This work only includes features that are found in *The Small Mirrors*. Thus, there may be other features in Kurdish not found in my data and I do not include them in the current study. Stylistics is invented from English (Jeffries & McIntyre, 2010; Leech & Short, 2007; Simpson, 2004) and is applied to the Kurdish data. It applies to Kurdish with some modifications and additions. This is because of the differences between the two languages.

Introduction

Kurdish is a Western Iranian group of the Indo-Iranian languages; this group is a branch of the Indo-European family. There are two main dialects of modern Kurdish. The first is Kurmanji, which is the language of most of the Kurds in Turkey, Syria, Armenia, and Azerbaijan, the area known by the Kurds as "North Kurdistan". It has an estimated fifteen to seventeen million speakers. The second is Sorani, the language of the vast majority of Kurds in Iraq (about five million speakers) and Iran (about five million speakers), the area is known as "South Kurdistan." although the two dialects are closely related, Kurmanji and Sorani are different in the basic structural level, vocabulary, and idioms. In addition, Kurmanji is still not a unified, or standardised language, whereas Sorani has been the second official language of Iraq since the creation of the country after World War I and there have been literary activities using Sorani for many decades. In Iran, Kurdish has never been the official language, but in Iranian Kurdistan, there have been noteworthy publications in Kurdish, specifically after the Iranian revolution. Outside that area, south to Kermanshah and east as far as Bijar, the language is known as Gorani, or South Sorani, which has a basically Persian structure but Kurdish vocabulary. It is noteworthy that Sorani Kurdish dictionaries are not easily obtainable such as (McCarus,1967; Qazzaz, 2000; Wahby & Edmonds, 1966; Jolaoso & Olajimbiti, 2020; Medriano Jr & Bautista, 2020) and an online dictionary Safeen, Zandy, Jwtiyar, Mrcracker, & Farshad (2013-2021)

Sorani Kurdish is written with a modified Arabic alphabet .Throughout the work, I use the Latin alphabet to make it easier for the reader. I use the Arabic into Latin online converter http://www.lexilogos.com/keyboard/kurdish_conversion.htm. Throughout this chapter, I use superscripts to show the grammatical function of that word. Although there are some descriptive or prescriptive grammatical studies such Haig and Matras (2002) and literary critic studies such as Issa (2009) on Kurdish, no study has yet applied stylistic analysis to Sorani Kurdish data.

The study is useful for the application of stylistics to Kurdish Language data. It is also useful for those who teach Kurdish literary and non-literary data. It attempts to provide a systemic set of tools useful for stylistic analysis.

The grammar of Sorani Kurdish

In this section, I discuss the structure of the Kurdish word and sentence: the word order and classifications of verb and tense followed by the passive voice. The Kurdish sentence elements are a set of labels used to explain how sentences are constructed from smaller units such as morphemes, words, phrases and clauses. As in English, there is no one-to-one match between the elements of the sentence and the parts of speech. The subject of a sentence, for example, could be a noun, a pronoun, or even an entire phrase or clause.

The word order in Kurdish is Subject – Object – Verb. When the subject is a pronoun, however, it is often omitted (Object – Verb). In Kurdish, a verb alone can make a complete statement sentence because it is always combined with the subject pronominal enclitic (bound pronoun) as in **arom**/*I go*. When the object is a pronoun, it can also be attached to the verb in the form of bound pronouns to form Subject – Verb- Object structure as in the following:

1. A. **Kuraka**^{S} **xwend**^{V} **<u>î</u>**^{O}/*The boy read i*

In contrast, when the object is a noun, it precedes the verb as in the following:

1. B. **Kuraka**^{S} **ktebakae**^{O} **xwend**^{V} /*The boy bought the book.*

The first structure above is similar to English while the second one is different. For the sake of clarity, I explain the Kurdish sentence elements which are relevant to my analysis in the order they appear in the sentence. Therefore, I discuss the subject of the sentence first.

2.2.1. bkar/subject and guzarah/predicate

Like English, every complete Kurdish sentence contains two obligatory parts: **bkar**/*subject* in the form of a bound pronoun and a **guzarah**/predicate. In the following sentence, the predicate is underlined, while the subject is highlighted.

2. **Kuraka** <u>pekanî</u>/*the boy laughs*

The subject always appears as the first element in the Kurdish sentence if it is a noun phrase, but the bound pronoun does not appear at the beginning of the sentence as in examples 3 and 4 below. Whether the subject noun phrase is deleted or not, the bound pronoun is attached to the verb and thus the deletion of the subject noun phrase does not affect the sentence structure as in the following:

3. (**Kuraka**) <u>pekan</u> <u>î</u> /*the boy laughs*
4. <u>*[1]î</u> (**Kuraka**) <u>pekan</u> /*the boy laughs*

The subject in the form of an independent pronoun or a noun phrase is mentioned only when it is emphasised and considered as the topic of the sentence. Kurdish subjects behave syntactically and semantically like the English ones. For example, the subject within the sentence is not affected by the existence of one or more objects.

2.2.2. bihrkar /Object

The Kurdish language has three types of verbs: intransitive, transitive and copula verbs. Transitive verbs may take one or two objects. The sentence structure with a transitive verb varies according to tense as explained below:

1. In present sentences, the structure is subject, object, (optional second object) followed by a verb and subject-verb agreement.
2. In past tense Sentences, the structure is (subject), object 1, subject-verb agreement + (object 2) and verb. The subject in this tense can be compensated for by verb endings and is thus syntactically optional. The subject noun phrase is used to show that it is focus of the sentence. It can also be used to attach more importance to the action of the subject than the object. This choice could be because either the writer wants to stress the significance of the subject for reasons which the co-text may not reveal.

Transitive verbs behave like the English verbs apart from the fact that their objects placed before the verb as in the next example:

[1] The asterisk shows unacceptable structure.

Namyk^{DO} **im**^{VG} **nusi**^{V}/ *I wrote a letter.*

1.3.Noun phrases

This section provides an overview of the ways Kurdish texts name the world and aspects of the structures of the noun phrases with examples. In Kurdish, there are three states of noun: the absolute, the indefinite and the definite. These states are explained below separately:

1. The Absolute State of the Noun: a Kurdish noun in the absolute state is a noun in the base form and gives a generic sense of the noun as in **balnda** */birds.* It is the form of the noun given in a vocabulary list or dictionary.

2. **The Indefinite State**: the indefinite singular noun is marked an unstressed enclitic **-*(y)èk*** (***-èk*** after consonants and *-yèk* after vowels) suffixed to the absolute singular noun as in **balnda*yèk*** */a bird*.

The indefinite plural is constructed by suffixing **-ân** to the absolute noun. If the absolute noun ends in **-â**, the indefinite plural suffix is **-yân**. Nouns with absolute singulars which end in **-â**, like **balnda**, the indefinite plural is formed by dropping the final **-a** and adding **ân_** as in **balndân**

3. The Definite State. The nouns in the definite state can be singular or plural. Singular nouns are constructed by suffixing the definite article ***(a)*****ká***/the*. After, u, e, and î, **-aká** is used and **-ká** after the vowels *a* and *o* **as in balnda*ká***/*the bird*. The construction ***îaká*** often results in a vowel contraction to **eká**, and spelled in the contracted form in Kurdish The definite plural is made by adding **(a)kân** to the singular. This means changing the definite singular **- (a)ká** into the definite plural **-(a)kân** as in **balnda*kán***/*the birds.*

We can see the definite and indefinite articles in Kurdish are inseparable from the nouns and are attached to the end of them. Kurdish pluralisation is also different from its English counterpart.

4. Demonstratives. The demonstratives **am***/this* and **aw***/that* precede only the nouns ending with ***(y)á***. This structure is equivalent to *this is* and *that is* in English. The noun which is preceded by demonstratives should be an absolute singular when expressing a singular noun phrase or an indefinite plural when expressing a plural noun phrase as explained in the table below:

	this/**am**	*that*/**aw**

Singular	**<u>Am</u> <u>balndayá</u>**/ *this bird*	**<u>aw</u> <u>balndayá</u>** /*that bird*
Plural	**<u>am</u> <u>balndayána</u>** /these birds	***<u>aw</u>*** **<u>balndayána</u>/** *those birds*

Table 1, independent personal pronouns in Kurdish

The second row in table 1 expresses plural noun phrases. The demonstratives are adjectives when they precede noun phrases or pronouns when they stand alone. The noun phrases in which the demonstrative adjectives appear can be replaced by pronouns.

Pronouns

Pronouns in Kurdish are different from English and divided into two types: independent and dependent. There are two sets of dependent pronouns for each subject and object as in the table below:

Table 2 dependent pronouns in Kurdish

Set I			Set II	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
1st person	M	een	M	man
2nd person	eet/ee	N	T	tan
3rd person	Êt/Ê	N	t	yan

The first set is used with present tense transitive and intransitive verbs and is attached to the verb as illustrated in the examples below:

1. **Aroy<u>een</u>**/ we leave.
2. **Roysht<u>een</u>**/*we left.*
3. **Sayrek akren**/*we buy a car.*

In contrast, the second set is used with the past tense transitive verbs alone. They are attached to the object, not the verb WHEN a pronoun is implied (but not actually used as in 4) rather than a subject noun phrase as in 5:

4. **Ema Sayrek<u>man</u> kre**/we bought a car.

S O VG V

5. **Sayrek<u>man</u> kre**/*we bought a car.*

O VG V

Unlike dependent pronouns, the independent pronouns have free forms but are only used for emphatic purposes. They are not attached to any item within the sentence. The independent personal pronouns are as follows:

Table 3 the independent personal pronouns

min/*I*	**Ema**/We
To/*You* (singular)	**Ewa**/You **(**plural)
Aw/*He, she, it*/	**Awân**/They

There are different uses of independent pronouns: as the subject of copula verbs, e.g. **<u>Min</u>** ^{S} **Mamost** ^{Co} **im** ^{VG}*/I am a teacher*; as the subject of ergative structure, e.g. **Min** ^{S} **aro** ^{V} **im** ^{VG} /*I leave*; and as the subject of transitive verbs, e.g. **Mn**^{s} **kteb**^{O} **akr**^{v} **im**^{VG}/I buy a book. Independent pronouns can be deleted unless they are emphatic subjects of verbs or topics of topic-comment sentences as in **Mn**^{S} **hât**^{V} **im**^{VG}*/I came*, **to**^{s} ***náhât***^{v} ***I***^{VG}*/you did not*. Independent pronouns can also be used for emphatic purposes when the possessor is emphasised in the possessive noun phrases.

Possessive Pronouns. The possessive pronouns are unstressed enclitics suffixed to the noun in the following forms:

Table 4 the possessive personal pronouns in Kurdish

	Singular	Example	Plural	Example
1st person	-m	**<u>balndayam</u>**/*My bird*	-mân	**<u>balndayam man</u>**/Our birds
2nd person	´-t	**<u>balndayait</u>**/Your bird	-tân	**<u>balndayamtan</u>**/Your birds
3rd person	´-y	<u>**balndaya**i/his/her/its bird</u>	-yân	**<u>balndayam</u> yan**/Their birds

The use of an enclitic possessive pronoun with the absolute form of the noun results in figurative meanings. For actual, literal meanings the definite form is used with the enclitic possessive pronoun. For instance, in writing to earn livelihood by means, ***qałamî***/her/ his pen is used (Thackston, 2006). In contrast, the physical pen in the hand of the writer is referred to as **qałamakay**/*his pen*.

An exception to this rule is the use of the enclitic possessive pronoun to a family member such as **dâyik**/*mother*. When **dâyik**/*mother* in the definite and indefinite case is modified by an enclitic possessive pronoun, it refers to anyone other than one's birth mother, who is called **dâyikim**/*my mother*. Independent pronouns can also be used in an izâfa construction for emphatic possessors as in **dayk ema**/*mother of us*.

The izâfa construction and article placement in Kurdish

In Kurdish, the izâfa construction consists of a head noun linked to a modifier, which can be an adjective or noun, by the vowel ***i***. This Kurdish construction is very similar to the English *of* constructions, except in relation to article placement. In the izâfa construction, the placement of the article on the head noun or its modifier plays a role in the connotations of each noun phrase (Thackston, 2006). There are three uses of the articles (definite or indefinite) in Kurdish:

(1) the use of the article at the end of the modifier, as in **darsân a sakhtaká**/*the hard lessons*.

(2) the article at end of the head noun such as **darsakâni sakht**/*the hard lessons* and

(3) the use of no article as in **darsani sakht**/ *hard lessons.*

Each use affects the meaning of the noun phrase. In the first case, the placement of the article at the end of the modifier constructs an inseparable relation between the head noun and the modifier and brings in the mind of the reader/hearer the opposite adjective. This means that in **darsân a sakhtaká**/*the hard lessons*, the relation between *hard* and *lessons* is inseparable and in contrast to, say, *the easy lessons*.

In the second case, the placement of the article at the end of the head noun constructs the head noun as an exclusive category and the relation between the head noun and the modifier is separable. For example, in **darsakâni sakht**/*the hard lessons*, the relation between *hard* and *lessons* is separable, meaning that the lessons happened to be hard but not in contrast to anything else, say, easy lessons. The use of no article in the noun phrase, as in the third case constructs a generic noun phase and, thus, a permanent relation between the head noun and modifier. For example, in the noun phrase **darsani sakht**/*hard* *lessons* the modifier **sakht**/*hard* is permanent, not temporary, property of **darsani**/ *lessons*. This means, like the English sentence, *lessons are generally hard*.

1.4.The verb phrase (The Predicate)

1.4.1. twaw ker/Complement

A complement, whether a noun, an adjective or an adverb, precedes the copula verb. It contributes extra information to the subject in a way as to emphasise its quality. It can be a noun, an adjective, or a prepositional phrase. The most common copula verb is **bûn** which is equivalent to the English *to be.* The sentence structure with copula verb is formed as follows: Subject, Complement and Linking Verb (Present Copula) as in **ali mamostaya**/*Ali is a teacher*.

1.4.2. The Tenses in Kurdish

In Kurdish, there are two tenses and nine times. Tense refers to the forms taken by a verb to indicate the time (and sometimes the continuation or completeness) of the action in relation to the time of the utterance. Unlike English, Kurdish tenses are marked only by suffixes attached to the verbs and each tense has its own base form. In addition, the transitive verb tenses are different from the intransitive verb tenses in terms of structure.

1. The Present Habitual/Progressive.

The present habitual tense corresponds to the English simple present used for habitual action ('I go'), progressive action ('I'm going'), and the future ('I'll go, I'm going to go'[12]). It is formed from the present stem of the verb with a prefixed modal marker **á-** or **dá-** depending on dialects and a suffixed personal ending from the table below:

	CONSONANT STEMS		VOWEL STEMS	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
1st person	-im	-în	-m	-yn
2nd person	-î(t)	-in	-y(t)	-n
3rd person	-e(t)	-in	-â(t)/-(t)	-n

[2] Sorani Kurdish has no future tense. The future may be ex-pressed periphrastically ("I want to go," e.g.), but normally the future sense is gained from context.

Table 5 suffixed personal endings in the present tense.

For example, in **abin be helbestî glu û gela**/they *become poetry branches and leaves*, the verb **ábin** can be **dábin** or **ábin**.

		bûn/to become	**nûstin**/to sleep	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
1st person	Dábûim	dábûin	Dánûstîn	Dánûstîn
2nd person	Dábûît/dáchî	dábûnin	Dánûstît/dánûsî	Dánûstin
3rd person	Dábûet/ dáchet	dábûn	Dánûstet/ dánûste	Dánûstin

Table 6 examples of The Present Habitual/Progressive of two verbs

The inherent *(t)* shown for the 2nd- and 3rd-person singular is only used in literary Kurdish and not used in the more informal spoken language.

2. Present Perfect

The second tense in Kurdish is the Present Perfect tense of Kurdish which is equivalent to the English Present Perfect. It refers to an event or an action began in the past and continues to the present, without the precise specification of the time of the happening. These two forms are discussed in the next two sections.

A. The Present Perfect Tense (Intransitive).

The present perfect tense of intransitive verbs is formed by adding **w** to the past root of the verb. For instance, the present perfect of the verb **Chûn**/*to go* is formed by adding **w** to the past root of the verb **Chû** followed by the subject agreement to get **Chûwa**/ *it, s/he gone*.

	Chûn/to go	**Nûsîn**/to write	
Ch**ûwîm**	Ch**ûwîn**	Nûstwîm	Nûstwîn
ch**ûwit**/ ch**ûwit**	Ch**û**win	Nûstwit/nûstwi	nûstwin
ch**û**wet/ ch**ûwe**	Ch**û**win	Nûstwa	nûstwin

Table 7 examples of The Present prefect tense of intransitive verbs

B. The Present Perfect Tense (Transitive).

The present perfect tense of transitive verbs is constructed from the agent affixes followed by the past participle and the third person present copula **-a**, as in **henân** /*to bring* and **froshtin**/*to sell*:

	in **henân** /*to bring*		**froshtin** /*to sell*	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
1st person	**- im Henâûa**	**-mân Henâûa**	**- im froshtûa**	**-mân froshtûa**
2nd person	**it Henâûa**	**-tân Henâûa**	**- it froshtûa**	**-tân froshtûa**
3rd person	**i Henâûa**	**-yân Henâûa**	**- i froshtûa**	**-yân froshtûa**

Table 8 examples of The Present prefect tense of transitive verbs

3. The Simple Past.

The third tense in Kurdish is the simple past**.** The simple past tense of intransitive verbs is different from the simple past of transitive verbs.

A. The Simple Past (Intransitive).

The simple past of intransitive verbs is formed by adding unstressed agent suffixes to the past stem of the verb. This form is for ergative and linking verbs. The past stem is derived by deleting **(i)n** ending of the infinitive, such as **hâtin** > **hât-**, **bûn** > **bû**:

	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
1st person	-im	-în	-m	-yn
2nd person	-î(t)	-in	-y(t)	-n
3rd person	-	-in	-	-n

Table 9 endings used with simple past tense

B. The simple past (transitive)

The simple past tense of transitive verbs is formed from the past stem of the verb and an agent affix. The independent pronouns are identical to the enclitic possessive pronouns:

- im	**-mân**
it	**-tân**
i	**-yân**

Table 10 examples of independent pronouns used with simple past intransitive verbs.

The agent affix usually precedes the verb and is attached to some preverbal matter to give the following conjugation of in henân /*to bring*.

in **henân** /*to bring*	
- im Henâûa	**-mân Henâûa**
it Henâûa	**-tân Henâûa**
i Henâûa	**-yân Henâûa**

Table 11 the conjugation of in henân /to bring

If only the verb is expressed, or only the verb and its logical subject, the dependent pronouns are added to the end of the past stem, as follows:

	in **henân** /*to bring*	
	Singular	Plural
1st person	**Henâim**	**Henâ mân**
2nd person	**Henâit**	**Henâtân**
3rd person	**Henâi**	**Henâyân**

Table 12 the conjugation of khwârdin/to eat with only logical subjects.

4. The Past Habitual/Progressive (Intransitive).

The fourth tense in Kurdish is the past habitual. It is formed by adding the habitual/progressive prefix **(d)á-** to the simple past.

		Chûn/to go	**Nûstîn**/to sleep	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
1st person s	**dachaîm**	**Dahîn**	**Danbûstîm**	**Danûstîn**
2nd person	**dachit/ chit**	**dachdin**	**danûst/nûstwi**	**Danûstin**
3rd person	**dachûwet/ dadche**	**Achûin**	**Nûstwa**	**Danûstin**

Table 13 examples of the past progressive tense of intransitive verbs

5. **Past Perfect**

The fifth Kurdish tense is the past perfect which is equivalent to the English Past Perfect and mostly used for subjuctive expressions as in **Rushtibum ka diakm hat**/*I have left when my mom came*. In Kurdish, the past perfect tense is functionally equivalent to the English past perfect.

In general, the Past Perfect tense is used in complex sentences that consist of two different past tenses, or for the subjunctive past tense. The past perfect tense is formed by the addition of the verb **bu** to the past root of the verb to make the past perfect root.

A. The Past Perfect Tense (Intransitive).

For intransitive verbs with past stems ending in a consonant like **hat**/*come*, the past perfect tense is formed from the past stem followed by –i– and the past tense of **bûn**/*to be*. The past perfect tense, whose past stems end in a vowel such as **bû,** is formed by the simple stem followed by the past tense of **bûn**.

		Chûn/to go	**Nûstîn**/to sleep	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
1st person	**Chûbûm**	**Chûbûyn**	**Nûstbûn**	Nûst**bûyn**
2nd person	**Chûbûyt/ Chûbûi**	**Chûbûn**	**Nûstbûyt/ Nûstbûy**	Nûst**bûn**
3rd person	**Chûbû**	**Chûbûn**	**Nûstbû**	Nûst**bûn**

Table 14 the past perfect of the verb hat/come.

B. **The Past Perfect Tense (Transitive)**

Similar to the formation intransitive verb, the past perfect tense of transitive structure is formed from the past stem followed by -i- and the past tense of **bûn** with the addition of the agent affixes somewhere. Past stems that end in vowels, only **bû** is added. The following table contains the verbs **henân**/*to bring* and **froshtin** /*to sell* as examples:

	in **henân** /*to bring*		**froshtin** /*to sell*	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
1st person	**- im Henâbû**	**-mân Henâbû**	**- im froshtbû**	**-mân froshtbû**
2nd person	**it Henâbû**	**-tân Henâbû**	**- it froshtbû**	**-tân froshtbû**
3rd person	**i Henâbûa**	**-yân Heâbû**	**- i froshtbû**	**-yân froshtbû**

Table 15 the past perfect of the verb dîtin/see.

1.4.3. Pronouns as Logical Objects of Past Transitive Verbs.

With past transitive verbs, the agent affix is added to the object. Also, enclitic pronominal logical objects are attached to the past stem of the verb. However, with the intransitive past, the enclitics used are subject endings,[1] as in the following table of the verb

âgâkirdin/*to inform* with the bound pronoun referring of the 3rd-person singular agent affix -*y*.

Âgây kirdim	**Âgây kirdîn**
Âgâkir kirdit	**Âgây kirdin**
Âgây kird	**Âgây kirdin**

Table 16 subject endings with the verb âgâkirdin/to inform (adopted from Thakston).

Because the third person singular object is implicit in the zero ending of the verb, it is not expressed overtly as in **nâmdît.**/*I did not see him/her/it*.

1.4.4. Pronominal Prepositional Complements with dependent pronouns.

With the past transitive verbs, the space normally available for a preposed pronominal complement is filled by the agent affix. In this case, the preposition and its complement are split—the preposition precedes the verb, and the complement of the preposition is placed at the end of the verb. However, the pronouns as endings are used for intransitive past verbs as in the table below:

	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
1st person	-im	-în	-m	-yn
2nd person	-î(t)	-in	-y(t)	-n
3rd person	-	-in	-	-n

Table 17 the pronouns as endings are used for intransitive past verbs

When the prepositional complement is third person singular, nothing is added to the verb stem. Because the past verb has built-in logical objects, the logical objects are used in such constructions as prepositional complements as in:

1. **Pirsyârèkmân le dakâ**/*He asks a question of us*.

Conversely, in the past tense, the independent pronoun takes the place that is usually filled by the preposed complement to the preposition, so the complement of the preposition is removed to the end of the verb stem **Pirsyârèkî**/ ***le*** He asked a ***Kirdîn*** question of us.

1.4.5. The Passive Voice

Passive voice in Kurdish is used for a number of purposes. First, it can be used to show that the focus is on the object. Second, it can also be used to show that the object and the result of the actions done to it are more important than the subject. This choice could be because either the writer does not want to focus on the subject or wants to hide the subject for reasons which may or may not be known by the co-text.

Passive voice in Kurdish is constructed in a number of ways depending on the tense of the verb. The present passive stem is constructed from the present stem of transitive verbs followed by ***–re*** as in the table below:

	Singular	*Plural*
1st person	***dábînrem***	***dábînre*****yn**
2nd person	***Dábînret/ dábînre***	***dábînren***
3rd person	***dábînre***	***dábînren***

Table 18 the present passive of the verb nerr/to send.

The past passive stem is constructed from present stem of transitive verbs followed by ***râ***. The past and present passives are regularly conjugated as in the verb ***Bîn***/see:

	Singular	*Plural*
1st person	***Bînrâm***	***Bînrâ*****yn**
2nd person	***bînrâyt/ dábînrây***	***Bînrân***
3rd person	***Bînrâe***	***Bînrân***

Table 19 the past passive of the verb bîn/see.

The past perfect passive stem is constructed from present stem of transitive verb followed by ***râ*** and **bû**:

	Singular	*Plural*
1st person	***Bînrâ*****bû*****m***	***bînrâ*****bûyn**
2nd person	***bînrâ*****bûyt*****/ dábînrâ*****bûy**	***bînr*****bû*****ân***
3rd person	***Bînrâ*****bû*****e***	***bînrâ*****bû*****n***

Table 20 the past prefect passive of the verb ner/send.

The past passive participle is regularly formed from the past passive stem in ***-râ*** followed by ***w.*** The present perfect passive is made from the past passive participle as in the table below in which the verb ***Bîn****/ see* is conjugated:

	Singular	*Plural*
1st person	***Bînrâ*****bwim**	***Bînrâ*****wîn**
2nd person	***bînrâ*****wit*****/ dábînrâ*****bûy**	***Bînr*****wim**

3rd person	***Bînrâ*wi**	***Bînrâ*wim**

Table 21 the passive participle of the verb Bîn/see.

Other moods and tenses of the passive are regularly formed. All passive verbs are intransitive by definition and therefore never form their past tenses on the ergative model.

Conclusion

In this chapter, I have only explained linguistic features of Kurdish which were relevant to the analysis of the Kurdish data in my PhD thesis. I have outlined the Kurdish features that are significantly different from English. I have shown that stylistics, although invented from English, applies to Kurdish data with some modifications. I have shown how the noun phrase structures and verb phrase structures are different from the English noun phrase structures and verb phrase structures respectively. For example, the article placement plays a big role in the meaning of the Kurdish noun phrase. I have also shown that use of enclitic possessive pronouns with absolute nouns could result in metaphor.

This chapter has attempted to show the readers a brief illustration of the Kurdish linguistic features that are different from that of English. The introduction of Kurdish language and its grammar should assist the readers with little or no knowledge of Kurdish stylistic analysis and be in a position to follow the discussion of Kurdish language features.

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Rethinking Abraham Lincoln's *Gettysburg Address*

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Abstract

As it was a crucial rhetorical opportunity to address a divided nation, this article explored on the rhetoric found in the speech Gettysburg Address considered as one of the central documents in American literature; hence, this study on rhetorical analysis utilized a descriptive research design. The rhetorical analysis was made in the light of Jolliffe's and Aristotle's frameworks. The speech predominantly used ethos as a rhetorical appeal. The rhetor's approach naturally made use of his instinctive rhetoric that strongly rested on his views along doctrinal conviction and cultural predominance which conveyed a message of patriotism, respect and allegiance of the American people, and the culture of nationalism. From the said speech, political passion and advocacy surfaced centering on the concept of

citizen’s responsible government stewardship**.** Other advocacies are patriotism and gratitude, pride and honor for the unsung heroes, social justice and liberation from poverty.

Keywords: *ethos, logos, pathos, rhetorical appeal, rhetorical approach*

Introduction

Studies on discourse in recent times show linguists’ interest to be gradually shifting: from the focus on the linguistic structure of text to how texts figure in the social process. To quote Kaplan (1967, 1989): *“…The rhetoric intent, the coherence and the worldview that the author and receptor bring to the text are equally essential”.* Language, therefore, is no longer seen as merely reflecting reality, but as central to creating reality. Words carry the power that reflects the interests of those who speak or write (Fiske, 1994; Fowler, 2013). Thus, the word rhetoric.

As Borchers & Hundley (2018) couched Bryant (1953): "*Rhetoric exists; however, because a world of certainty is not the world of human affairs. It exists because the world of human affairs is a world where there must be an alternative to certain knowledge on the one hand and pure chance on the other."*

Wherever discourse is, rhetoric plays. Several theories on rhetoric had been offered and several ways on how to figure out rhetoric were also advanced. One of these ways is in relation to *persuasion, intention, public address,* and *substance.* In view of persuasion, in its earliest form, rhetoric was concerned with communication that was persuasive in nature. Theorists today continue to associate rhetoric with persuasion. However, there is often a fine line between informative, persuasive, or expressive communication. Other techniques that can be used are in relation to credibility, emotional appeals, and evidence.

For rhetoric and intention, it is argued that rhetorical communication is instrumental. That is, rhetoric is designed to achieve some kind of goal or outcome, that is, the influence that rhetoric has an audience. Rhetoric and public address show the link of the earliest conception, that a public address was the form of rhetoric most widely used, studied, and taught as it is argued by theorists that rhetoric is concerned with public address. As for rhetoric and substance, rhetorical theorists contend that rhetoric is interested in advancing arguments in support of truth; others consider it to be ornamentation to what is already known or even hindrance in knowing the truth; still other theorists would emphasize one of the three elements - speaker, listener, or the world with a focus on how speakers can use evidence or emotional appeals.

Given the above concepts, rhetoric plays a crucial role in people's lives. More crucial at this point is the role played especially by government leaders in shaping issues in the society and setting the boundaries of what is talked about and how it is talked about (Henry and Tator, 2002).

Hence, this study tries to discover the rhetoric employed in the speech of a world-renowned leader former US President Abraham Lincoln. As couched in Thomas' paper (2009), Abraham Lincoln's *Gettysburg Address* has played a powerful role in shaping American public discourse over the centuries. It has become one of the central documents in the evolution of American civil religion - imbued with religious and biblical language and imagery, backed by the ethos of its orator, its rhetoric sanctifies the founding documents and itself becomes part of the canon of "holy writ" of American civil religion.

Similarly, Southard & Southard (2006) calls the Gettysburg Address as the enduring speech that comes to mind when one utters this phrase. This speech made in the context of the cemetery dedication at Gettysburg, was not the featured oration. Instead, it was the oratorical work of Edward Everett that received prominent billing; and yet, President Lincoln's few words—delivered after Everett's—are the ones that have risen to great prominence in American history. In fact, one historian says of Lincoln: "In his brief time before the crowd at Gettysburg he wove a spell that has not, yet, been broken—he called up a new nation out of the blood and trauma."

Studies of Lincoln's rhetoric often refer to the role played by sound and rhythm, and almost every commentator rightly observes that Lincoln's most impressive writing is "cadenced" and has close affinities with poetry. In fact, Lincoln had what might be thought of as a kind of rhetorical "signature," something that figures critically in virtually all the most memorable passages in Lincoln' writings, and for which he had a special genius—the rhetorical use of the negative which demonstrates his acute understanding of the power of negation in language and discourse and putting that power to rhetorical use.

It is this power that Lincoln consistently tapped into in the high moments of his most memorable writings. As with Shakespeare or Emily Dickinson, both of whom had a similar gift, this may be simply an irreducible aspect of Lincoln's literary genius, but with him it may owe something to his being so often, in the important concerns of his life, in opposition. (Wilson, 2013)

Putting into context the Gettysburg Address as the corpus of the study, it must consider the following excerpts as offered by Southard & Southard (2006):

> *In early July 1863, the Civil War had engulfed the city of Gettysburg, Pennsylvania, leaving 50,000 dead in its wake. By the summer of 1863, the Civil War had been in full swing for more than two years. Lincoln's presidential leadership throughout the war had weathered severe attacks. Many anti-abolitionist Northerners criticized Lincoln for being too sympathetic to abolitionists; abolitionists, though, felt Lincoln's emancipation efforts were insufficient. By July 1863, over two and a half million troops had already perished in the Civil War. The clash of Union and Confederate troops at Gettysburg from July 1 to 3 proved another devastating blow. Over the course of two days, battles waged on two fronts, concluding after 15,000 Confederate troops abandoned one front and walked into artillery fire to take the Union line. The Confederate troops were unsuccessful and ultimately, the Union troops prevailed. Following the battle, anti-war riots erupted in the North and support for the war waned. Despite the Union's victory at Gettysburg, Union leader General George Meade submitted a letter of resignation—as did Confederate leader, General Robert E. Lee. More than seven months passed before a proper dedication was made for those who died at Gettysburg. The removal and identification of bodies slowed the burial process. A prominent Pennsylvania banker, David Wills, orchestrated the burial site and the dedication at Gettysburg. On September 23, Wills invited Everett to a ceremony to be held on October 23. Everett, however, requested that the ceremony be moved to November 19 so that he would have more time to prepare his remarks. Ultimately, the delay was not enough time to prepare the cemetery—only one third of the bodies would be buried by the arrival of the occasion. In late October, in deference to the federal cabinet, David Wills also extended an invitation to President Lincoln to give a few words at*

Gettysburg. To Wills's surprise, the president accepted. According to historian Gary Wills, the president needed this opportunity to bolster war support and his own political popularity. The exact number of people in the crowd is not known, although estimates range from 15,000 to 150,000.22 Sitting upon a platform overlooking such masses, Everett and Lincoln waited to deliver their meticulously-chosen words on the battle at Gettysburg.

Considering the Gettysburg Address context helps in shedding more light in the analysis that this study shall explore. Given the context, it is remarkable how Abraham Lincoln's Gettysburg Address came to be one of the central documents of American literature which had a significant influence on all future public discourse considering the fact that Lincoln was originally only supposed to deliver a few appropriate remarks after the main speaker, Edward Everett, who had already given a long speech when Lincoln's turn came. The situation which thus presented itself to the orator posed a considerable challenge, as the audience was already weary (cf. White, 242). It is therefore all the more fascinating to see how Lincoln succeeded in his speech as it was a crucial rhetorical opportunity to address a divided nation. While most studies on Lincolns' speech centered on language use of sound and rhythm and structure, this study will explore further on the rhetorical appeals and approaches that made the speech an immortal one in history.

Statement of the Problem

Generally, this study analyzed the rhetoric in Abraham Lincoln's *Gettysburg Address.* It aimed to describe rhetorical appeals and rhetorical approaches found in the speech.

Specifically, it sought to analyze the rhetoric in the speech with a focus on appeals namely: *ethos, pathos, logos*. It likewise described the rhetorical approaches used by the speaker/orator in terms of ideology, hegemony, and power.

Scope and Delimitation

The specific coverage of this study includes the Gettysburg Address as the corpus for analysis.

The rhetorical frameworks/appeals of Aristotle and Jolliffe such as *ethos, logos* and *pathos* were utilized as integral part of the rhetorical analysis. Furthermore, exigence, audience and purpose which come from Jolliffe's framework were also included in the qualitative aspect of rhetorical analysis. Moreover, the analysis subscribed to the concepts of ideology, hegemony and power as rhetorical approaches.

As regards the limitation of this study, the surface features particularly organization, structure and form as indicated in the Jolliffe's framework were not part of the rhetorical analysis.

Conceptual Framework

The rhetorical analysis made on this paper is inspired by the metaphor of exposition as used in a short story and in a speech. Exposition in a short story analysis is trying to figure out the situation until the initial conflict is established, while exposition in a speech is the art of explaining or expounding a speech. The exposition technique in analyzing the rhetor's speech in this study is a discovery approach mediated with three approaches and three elements or appeals. The three approaches are ideological, hegemonic, and power, and the three elements or appeals are ethos, logos, and pathos.

Rhetorical analysis may be performed following certain frameworks that are relevant in the study. Some rhetorical devices may use an appeal, which is an attempt to earn an audience approval or agreement by playing the natural human tendencies or common experience. There are three kinds of appeals: (a) Pathetic appeal (pathos), which invokes the audience's emotion in order to gain acceptance and approval for the ideas expressed. Rhetoricians stir the emotion of the audience even if it did not exist before; (b) Ethical appeal(ethos), which rhetoricians use their own credibility and character, their authority and knowledge to make a case and gain approval; and (c) Logical appeal(logos), which uses reason to make a case.

The Jolliffe's rhetorical framework diagram presents the rhetorical situation which are the exigence or the tension or urgency, the audience, and the purpose of the speech which help in understanding the language ideology, language hegemony and language power of the select speech. Likewise, the framework presents the rhetorical appeals which are the ethos, logos and pathos of the same speech that are significant in understanding the corpus of the study.

Research Methodology

Research Design

The study made use of a descriptive research design through a qualitative approach using rhetorical analysis. The qualitative research design was employed to determine the rhetorical appeals on *ethos, logos,* and *pathos* and the rhetorical approaches along ideology, hegemony and power found in the Abraham Lincoln's speech *Gettysburg Address.*

Corpus of the Study

The data for this study came from the corpus under the category of *Speeches That Moved a Nation*: *Gettysburg Address"* delivered by Abraham Lincoln in 1863. Abraham Lincoln's Gettysburg Address is one of the shortest among other speeches at just 10 sentences, with 272 words.

The copy of the speech that was rhetorically analyzed served as the basis in determining the rhetorical appeals and the rhetorical approaches that surfaced in the speech. The rhetorical appeals were analyzed based on *ethos, logos,* and *pathos*. The rhetorical approaches were analyzed based on the parameters of ideology, hegemony and power.

Data Analysis

Owing to the rhetorical density in the speech *Gettysburg Address,* a challenge for an in-depth analysis that is separate at different levels of the rhetoric used, is hardly possible as rhetorical elements are closely intertwined and dependent on each other to contribute to the overall purpose of the speech. With this view, rhetorical analysis with a focus on appeals was employed in this study following Jolliffee's Rhetorical Framework Diagram and Aristotle's Rhetorical Triangle. The rhetorical approaches of ideology, hegemony and power were separately analyzed.

Results and Discussions

Abraham Lincoln was born on February 12, 1809, and died April 15, 1865, in Washington, D.C. He is the 16th president of the United States from 1861 to 1865). Among American heroes, Lincoln had the charm derived from his remarkable life story - the rise from humble origins, from his distinctively human, eloquence as a spokesman for democracy and humane personality as well as from his historical role as savior of the Union and as the emancipator of the slaves (Britannica, 2017).

His relevance endures and grows, especially because of his eloquence as a spokesman for democracy. In his view, the Union was worth saving not only for its own sake but because it embodied an ideal, the ideal of self- government. Lincoln's prose and speeches; however, were eloquent, pithy, powerful, and free of the verbosity so common in the communication of his day. The debates were published in 1860, together with a biography of Lincoln, in a best-selling book that Lincoln himself compiled and marketed as part of his campaign.

As a war leader, Lincoln employed the style that had served him as a politician. He preferred to react to problems and to the circumstances that others had created rather than to originate policies and layout long-range designs. It is well-founded also in his greatness as the war leader who carried the nation safely through the four-year struggle that brought freedom in its reign.

Considering the dangers and provocations of the time, Lincoln was quite liberal in his treatment of political opponents and the opposition press. He was by no means the dictator critics often accused him of being. Within his own party, Lincoln confronted factional divisions and personal rivalries that caused him as much trouble as did the activities of the Democrats. True, he and most of his fellow partisans agreed fairly well upon their principal economic aims.

In 1864, as in 1860, Lincoln was the chief strategist of his own electoral campaign. He took a hand in the management of the Republican Speakers' Bureau, advised state committees on campaign tactics, hired and fired government employees to strengthen party support, and did his best to enable as many soldiers and sailors as possible to vote. Most of the citizens in uniform voted Republican. He has become a myth, as well as a man. He is honest and yet a being of superhuman shrewdness and cunning. He is also Father Abraham, the wielder of authority, the support of the weak, and he is an equal, a neighbor, and a friend (word press.com, 2015).

The Gettysburg Address by Abraham Lincoln was rhetorically analyzed by Stokes (2013) with emphasis on logos which stressed that Abraham Lincoln in his speech made the audience know what the soldiers fought for and Lincoln's advocacy of equality. With ethos, Lincoln predominantly is trustworthy as he encouraged the people to have bravery like the soldiers and to remember them for the birth of new freedom they so obtained. Give honor to them of what they died for. On the other hand, with Pathos, Lincoln uses this speech to console the audience and give honor to the soldiers of what they fought for.

The speech is characterized as epideictic since it is a funeral oration and was meant to praise the American unsung heroes over their selfless bravery and patriotism. Lincoln has taken this opportunity to solicit support from present immediate and mediated American constituents to sustain without preconditions their sense of nationalism to the United States.

The Rhetorical Situation

Abraham Lincoln (1809-1865), was born in Hodgenville, Kentucky on Feb 12, 1809. Raised by poor parents, he received less than a year of formal education by the time he reached the age of 21. His primary means of education was schooling at home, using borrowed books and the Bible. He was the 16th U.S. president (1861–1865), preserved the Union during the American Civil War and brought about the emancipation of the slaves. Among American heroes, Lincoln continues to have a unique appeal for his fellow countrymen and also for people of other lands.

Abraham Lincoln's speech, "The Gettysburg Address" was delivered on April 20, 1964. The Gettysburg Address is a short speech written and delivered by him at the consecration of the Gettysburg National Cemetery in Gettysburg, Pennsylvania, on November 19, 1863. President Abraham Lincoln reminded the Americans of the nation's origins, emphasizing the stakes at risk by the Civil War, and provided a call to action for the preservation of the nation and the ideals of liberty and equality.

The Rhetorical Appeals

Ethos

As a war leader, Lincoln preferred to react to problems and to the circumstances that others had created rather than to originate policies and layout long-range designs. In his view, the Union was worth saving not only for its own sake but because it embodied an ideal, the ideal of self-government (Britannica, 2017).

Nevertheless, it is very interesting to trace Lincoln's rhetorical appeals from ethos. Thus, the first supporting excerpt to vouch the credibility of Abraham Lincoln, reads:

> *"Four score and seven years ago our fathers brought forth on this continent, a new nation, conceived in Liberty, and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal."*

This first sentence of Abraham Lincoln's speech established what the forefathers had brought to the nation. Lincoln was the 16th president of the United States of America. He is known as the spokesman for democracy and emancipator of the slaves. Supporting to this is his mention of historical account. Lincoln as Western figure reasonably views the past in his rhetorical expression as repository where strengths, commitment and inspiration are drawn from, for the present generation to look in advance over the common welfare of American citizens.

There are other two supporting excerpts for *"ethos"*. Serving as second challenging proposition reads:

> *"The world will little note, nor long remember what we say here, but it can never forget what they [unsung compatriots] did here on this continent, a new nation, conceived in Liberty, and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal." It is for us the living, rather, to be dedicated here to the unfinished work..."*

Lincoln's ethical appeal expressed dedication. He acknowledged the sacredness of the American heroes' death and the sanctity of the American soil that was fought for. Americans believe in the power of Almighty that with it he rhetorically predisposed his thought to protect, preserve and embrace the ideals of democracy through the citizens' allegiance to its tenets.

As national leader of strong nation he blatantly remarked, as third "*ethos"*, which reads:

> *"...that from these honored dead we take increased devotion to that cause for which they gave the last full measure of devotion, ...that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain..."*

Logos

There are three excerpts for "*logos*". They are as follows:

> *"The brave men, living and dead, who struggled here, have consecrated it far above our poor power to add or detract."*

> *" The world will little note they who had fought here have thus far so nobly advanced..."*

> *"...that this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom..."*

These arguments infer that both the living have accountabilities to the dead American heroes. In this light and in the name of domestic peace and order, prosperity and external boundary stability, it is clear that every American citizen must take pride, honor, resilience and conscious commitment to sustain the American ideals for democracy and trust in God. Furthermore, it is expressively said that what they fought for gives birth to new freedom that until today the American people, (inclusive of migrants) enjoy.

> *"...in a larger sense, we cannot dedicate -- we cannot consecrate -- we cannot hallow -- this ground (1)."*

Lincoln's rhetoric sounds logically fallacious when these lines are analyzed along with the content of his major premises. However, his jumping to conclusion could just be subjectively true when the present and current generations at a circumstance do not continue to partake on the allegiance of the American Ideals. Thus, his remarks are regarded conditional propositions.

Pathos

Finally, the following excerpts that showed the appeal for patriotism, love and pride:

> *"Now we are engaged in a great civil war, testing whether that nation, or any nation so conceived and so dedicated, can long endure. We are met on a great battlefield of that war. We have come to dedicate a portion of that field, as a final resting place for those who here gave their lives that nation might live. It is altogether fitting and proper that we should do this."*

Lincoln's rhetoric appeals to the sense of ***patriotism, love*** and ***pride*** that every American citizen - be it in the frontlines or the society as a whole- must necessarily exude in the best manner and finest commitment they should do. In this way, though lives had been sacrificed, their noble efforts shall not be in vain as the people march on to live the ideals of these unsung heroes. Hence, his emotional appeal is a call for action.

The next for "*pathos*" reads:

> "*It is rather for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us. That from these honored dead we take increased devotion to that cause for which they gave the last full measure of devotion..."*

Lincoln tries to establish a relation with the audience when he rhetorically and finally descent an appeal in their consciousness over a proactive concern and responsibility that every citizen must devote for, in like manner that our forefathers dedicated their lives, for the nation to survive and their proposition that all men be treated in an equal ground.

Another appeal for freedom is:

> *"... that this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom and that government of the people, by the people, for the people, shall not perish from the earth."*

The circumstance that the audience relates to Lincoln's view of democratic ideology is indicated obviously by the institutionalized standing facts expressed in his rhetoric. Indeed, the democratic form of government is not just a call for one but for all that the soldiers fought for and must be enliven by the people so as not to perish in this earth.

The Rhetorical Approaches

The following discussion presents the dominant variables in rhetorical approaches (ideology, hegemony and power) in *"Gettysburg Address"* delivered by Abraham Lincoln of the United States of America.

The exigency of this necrology speech is founded and grounded by the innate necessity for all warm body Americans to look back onto the nobility of death of their unsung heroes and what reciprocally can they realize more to sustain and nationalistically commit to perform, as a way to give justice to their dedicated lives for peace sake.

As the leader/speaker reiterated to men and women the selfless efforts, this moment vis-à-vis the immenseness of his message has also created him an occasion to remind the American constituents to reflect and act on what best could they reciprocate to the bravery of American peoples who fought for America's stability over the decades.

Thus, the purpose of Lincoln amidst his farewell address in the funeral rite was to remind once again the Americans of their tradition of prosperity, stability and security; and their pride to continue lighting the torch for the lives sacrificed for them and their country. Further, the Americans were sought of deliberate commitment to be participative, cooperative and valiantly ready for any form of eventuality specially the calls of war and challenges of economic, social and political struggles in the American soil.

The leader/speaker has on the other hand been limited to exhibiting language ideology, and hegemony as rhetorical approaches. However, the nature of Lincoln's rhetorical instinct heavily revolved around doctrinal conviction and cultural predominance. This finding implies that Lincoln prevailed in his message the clear depth and breadth of patriotism and the respect and allegiance of the American people. Also, the culture of nationalism that never should at all be forsaken is one governing ground of predominant institution he promptly made it evident in the language rhetoric of his brief but invigorating speech.

The speech was short but powerful. Yet, its message is deep but captivating. This is evidently shown in Lincoln's speech which captures the economy of words in its linguistic devices. The rhetoric of Lincoln is supported by Fairclough (n.d) who emphasized that "the power of the discourse lies in the producer of the text" having an external power behind linguistic features like ideological and hierarchical in nature.

To classify the dimension of language power of Abraham Lincoln was more of the integrative power similar to Chairman Mao, Rizal, Gandhi, and Mandela's rhetorical approach.

For doctrinal conviction, the excerpt reads:

> *"...our fathers brought forth on this continent, a new nation, conceived in Liberty, and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal. Now we are engaged in a great civil war, testing whether that nation, or any nation so conceived and so dedicated, can long endure. We are met on a great battle-field of that war. We have come to dedicate a portion of that field, as a final resting place for those who here gave their lives that nation might live. It is altogether fitting and proper that we should do this."*

Abraham Lincoln in his appeal that Citizens of America who are vested with authority and bounded with responsibility and accountability, and who are on the frontlines of defense, are tied up to show their proactive allegiance to the mandates of the federal laws and its democratic ideals. They are duty bound to perform their public administrative and executive tasks. Subsumed to these tasks would be for every citizen to make oneself available in the challenging instances and face realities during critical situations of circumstances that demand or call for obedience or submissiveness, bravery and action at all costs for the sake of preserving the national interest, security, stability and its moral and political ascendancy. Along this thought, Canay & Temporal (2019) expressed through their study of President Duterte's 2018 SONA the Gricean theory of Conversation Implicature which Lincoln conveys as well in his message. Using Gricean's conversation implicature, the use of the intensification strategy or device as shown in the use of the word *testament* intensifies the illocutionary function of the utterance with the intent to effect pride in the audience as they are Filipinos exercising shared responsibility. This concept of shared responsibility for the establishment of peace and security finds consonance to Grice's theory of implicature.

For doctrinal conviction, the excerpt reads:

> *"...that this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom -- and that government of the people, by the people, for the people, shall not perish from the earth."*

Subsequently, in his conviction that an essence of a democratic nation exists only when States are not only united to individual tasks but also as one nation, believe in the strength of its citizenry who are culturally diverse people but who has a common spirituality to believe in the supreme power of God. Lincoln also underscored a sound presumption that new birth of freedom, as he meant, is the liberty of people from barbaric or uncivilized acts and emancipation from inhumane or indecency of human relations. He also meant the courage, integrity and dignity that each citizen must uphold and embrace which actually free them from bondage, mockery and blasphemy of varied sorts from within or external forces.

Lastly, he indicated that healthy ideology, where the ideals of the government laws emanate from, bases its moral standards from the divine providence. He meant, necessarily, that the "be all and end all" of governance, as it exercises its powers, authorities and constitutional mandates, would meritoriously recede terminally to cultural decency in the life of the people.

For Cultural Predominance, the excerpt reads*:*

> *"It is for us the living, rather, to be dedicated here to the unfinished work which they who fought here have thus far so nobly advanced. It is rather for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us -- that from these honored dead we take increased devotion to that cause for which they gave the last full measure of devotion -- that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain."*

Abraham Lincoln in his reminder to good soldiers of the nation that a well-lived life is worth living, surfaced in his speech a significant element of every citizen's responsibility to just pass on from one generation to another the culture of patriotism, sense of ownership, and sense of belongingness. He portrayed in his message for citizens of the present generation not to grandstand guarantees of success in the endeavors first started by the early comrade and demised corps in the battlefields, for such grandest valor of victories won would all be unfairly worthless.

Conclusion

The Gettysburg Address by Abraham Lincoln predominantly used ethos as a rhetorical appeal. His rhetorical approach naturally made use of his instinctive rhetoric that strongly rested on his views along doctrinal conviction and cultural predominance which conveyed a message of patriotism, respect and allegiance of the American people, and the culture of nationalism. From the said speech, Abraham Lincoln's political passion and advocacy surfaced centering on the *concept of citizen's responsible government stewardship.* Other advocacies are patriotism and gratitude, pride and honor for the unsung heroes, social justice and liberation from poverty.

Pedagogical Implication

It is a prime concern of language teaching whose directional focus includes knowledge transmission of educational values for "nation-building" and whose components for the language learning is the exemplification of rhetorical dimensions covering the heroic milestone influence and contributions of known national iconic personalities and unsung heroes who are absolutely worthy of memorialization. Thus, in the light of these realities, it is necessary that international education advocates enliven, revisit germinate or enkindle in the young generation the values of patriotism and nationalism amidst realities of inter-country migration bringing about cases of inter-racial family bonds.

Furthermore, drawing on insights from the field of intercultural communication, it is suggested that the concept of intercultural competence can be helpful in organizing literature-based lessons (Nault, 2011) which advances the inclusion of American and English literatures from other cultures – or world literatures – in different contexts. On this note, particularly in the offering of 21st century literature in the academic curriculum, Nunn (2005) also advances the need to reconsider the scope of 'communicative competence' and then goes on to consider other kinds of competence relevant to English as an International Language including linguistic competence. Considerably, the need to interculturally communicate necessitates the development of communicative competence which may be best offered in the teaching of literature.

Recommendations

As the analysis was made on the basis of the rhetoric used in speech as a specific genre, it is suggested that more speeches with similar purpose be analyzed for comparison and contrast. In addition, a research on the rhetoric used in other genres may as well be explored with focus on organization, intent and style.

Moreover, with the principle of 'message is in people", rhetorical analysis with a focus on audience's experiences with the speech is strongly recommended.

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Improving Skills in Writing English Business Letters with Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) Approach

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Abstract

This action research was conducted against the background of unsuccessful learning in English business letter writing and has the aim at improving English business letter writing skills through the Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) approach. The research was conducted throughout the odd semester from September 24, 2019, to January 8, 2020, in the third-semester students of the Economic Education Study Program, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, University of Kuningan (FKIP-UNIKU) for the 2019-2020 academic year totaling 42 students. This study uses the Mertler model which has the stages; plan, action, development and reflection. Qualitative data is obtained from interviews and observations which are then analyzed using descriptive qualitative. Meanwhile, quantitative data were obtained from the results of the pre-cycle test, cycle 1 test, cycle 2 test and cycle 3 test which were then analyzed using simple statistics. The results showed an increase from cycle 1 to 3. In cycle 1 student letter writing skills reached 21 students or 50% of them got complete scores. In cycle 2 as many as 29 students (69%) achieved complete scores, and in cycle 3 as many as 39 (93%) students completed it successfully. The conclusion is that the Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) learning approach can improve students' English business letter writing skills and is suggested to be an approach that needs to be applied in improving students' English business letter writing skills.

Keywords: *writing skill, business letters, CLIL*

Introduction

The low ability to write English of college graduates is a challenge. Not a few business people complain about the low ability of college graduates to write business letters. There are still many mistakes in applying grammar (Slutsky & Sardegna, 2018). Therefore it is necessary to prepare better classes in learning to write and practice for the needs of students and the world of work (Turner & Scholtz, 2010). One of the factors is that it is very likely to be influenced by the clear difference between business writing exercises done in higher education and the type of business writing done in the workplace (Paretti, 2006). Writing business letters in higher education is influenced by educational policy requirements, teaching methods, curriculum outcomes, and assessment criteria (Schneider & Andre, 2005). College graduates tend to enter the workplace with the ability to produce the types of business communication required in an academic setting, but lack the knowledge of the rhetorical and discourse communities necessary to adapt this format to a workplace audience (Walters, Hunter, & Giddens, 2007). In writing effective business letters, Sviatiuk (2015) suggests to argue and achieve the business objectives. So that, the writer should comprehend well the whole range of the business letter. The whole range here means the certain occasion written, letter style, and beneficial expressions. Therefore, the communication built from business letters will be accepted and successful.

The ability to communicate effectively in the business world determines the success of a company. Therefore, it is a demand for a manager and personnel in a company to build good and effective communication so that messages conveyed to both internal and external circles can be effective and communicative (Ranaut, 2018). Communication skills in clear and effective written form require intensive and continuous practice. Moreover, according to O'Hara (2014), writing activities at work take place all the time such as writing proposals to clients, memos to senior executives, a constant flow of emails to business partners.

The latest research regarding the importance of writing business letters has been conducted by Ranaut (2018) entitled Importance of good business writing skills. This research is more on Carnes, Awang, & Smith (2015). They expressed the importance of intensive practice in writing business letters to improve students' writing skills and improve their performance in the workplace. Previously, Turner and Scholtz (2010) conducted a research project in three higher education locations and in various work locations to compare writing produced in a business writing program with writing practice in the workplace. The purpose of this study was to determine whether a business communication course was sufficiently capable of preparing students for business communication in the world of work. Documents generated at both higher education and workplaces were studied, surveys and interviews were conducted with students and their lecturers, as well as employees and employers. Data from different contexts were then compared. The findings indicate a pattern of alignment and non-alignment in higher education business writing practices and the workplace. Recommendations were made to better align classroom and work practices for the mutual benefit of student learning and the workplace.

Bernoff (2016) reports on the challenges of writing in the workplace, based on a survey of 547 business letter writers. This study shows 81% of respondents agree that bad business writing has damaged their reputation and productivity. Of those 55 years and over, 72% agreed with the statement "I make a strong and positive impression on others with my writing." And only 18% of the older writers worry that "Taking a clear stance on my writing will hurt my career." Generally, respondents complained about the quality of their writing training and the poor quality of editing their writing. Longitudinal research investigating the writing development of secondary education students in the CLIL region for three consecutive years by Gené-Gil, Juan-Garau and Salazar-Noguera (2015) shows good results. In this respect, the CLIL approach - which represents an integrative model for language learning - appears to be more effective at promoting written development than formal teaching in isolation.

The problem faced by students who learn English as a foreign language (EFL) in writing in English is that they do not understand English word classes such as subjects, predicates, objects, and the mechanism of writing English itself (Quagie, Klu, & Mulaudzi, 2013). In fact, vocabulary, terms, phrases and expressions related to information and communication in the business world are very important for students to master (Kahhar, 2016). Writing is the hardest thing for students coupled with the difficulties faced by foreign speakers in teaching students (Javed, Juan, & Nazli, 2013;

Budiharso & Arbain, 2019).

This problem continues to occur and sounds classic from year to year, making the English language course one of the subjects that many students worry about. This is exacerbated by the situation where practicum activities are still lacking and student motivation is low so that their English skills seem to be running in place (Salima, 2012; Arham & Akrab, 2018; Arnó-Macià & Mancho-Barés, 2015). The student load increases when the international workforce requires prospective workers to have the ability to master this international language both spoken and written.

English is an international language that is still dominant globally. The millennial generation must strive to master this language as a condition in global competition. One part of English language skills is writing skills. In writing skills, there are also various parts of skills. Call it the skills of writing short stories, novels, poetry, job applications, and or writing business letters (Seely, 2013). In the business world, English letter writing skills are important for graduate students to master as a provision for their competitiveness. These skills are included in the category of learning English for specific purposes (English for Specific Purposes) which is prepared for prospective graduates who will work in foreign companies or prospective business economics teachers. The Economic Education Study Program has Business English courses with the outcome of students who are skilled in writing business letters where the researcher is the lecturer.

The researcher took the place of research in the Economic Education Study Program (Prodi PE) because during the past two semesters the researcher had the task of teaching English for Business or Business English courses. In this course, based on the curriculum and syllabus in the study program, students must have the skills to write several types of letters related to company business activities, one of which is writing goods order letters, replying to business letters, and writing complaint letters (Business English Syllabus Program FKIP-UNIKU Economic Education Study, 2019).

The English for Business course is set at 2 credits for 100 minutes, which contains the basics of writing English with the learning outcomes of students being able to have skills, 1) writing job application letters 2) voice orders (voice order/letter), 3) reply to the letter, 4) write a letter of intent, 5) write a letter of delivery, 6) write a complaint letter, 7) write a sales agreement letter of attorney, and 8) being able to write letters of appreciation to clients and business partners. This syllabus is designed based on students' needs when they enter the workforce.

After discussion with the head of the study program in the Economic Education study program, in the present era students are expected to be able to write business letters in English as mentioned above because in this globalization era they must be prepared to face increasingly fierce competition in getting jobs. This is important and must be owned by students who graduate from Economic Education as prospective teachers in the Society 5.0 era. Students as prospective workforce, both teachers and company employees, must be able to understand how to make business letters. To achieve this, the learning that needs to be done is direct practice which is of course preceded by mastery of the main components in writing English business letters such as understanding the important sequence of business letters (organization), understanding the contents of the letter (content), displaying the letter type. and the correct character (appearance), and the use of language (language usage) right.

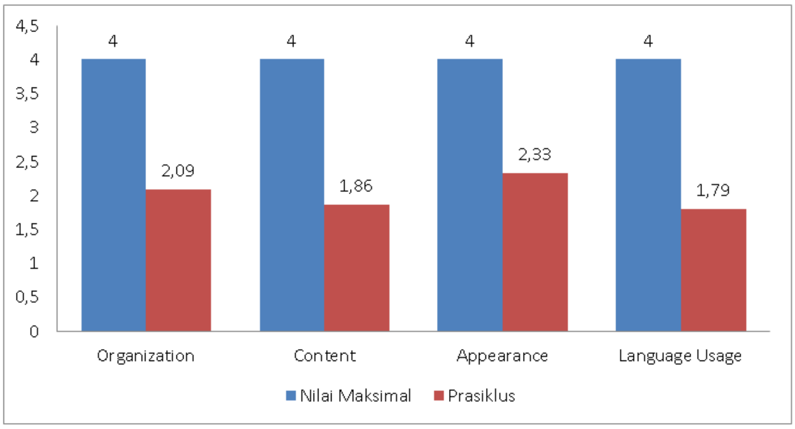
This activity needs to be renewed in its implementation in the classroom, especially at the university level. Applying the right approaches, methods, and strategies in learning English at the student level needs to be carefully prepared and have clear objectives. Providing provisions to students so that after graduating from college they can be productive and useful in society with their English writing skills is a challenge in itself.

From observations made by researchers who are also lecturers at the research site with collaborators, it was identified that the technique applied in lectures, namely the pairwork technique, still had problems. In practicing this technique, several things have been identified as obstacles that interfere with learning activities, namely: 1) in pairs, but both of them do not understand the content of the material; 2) Only one of them works to complete the task, while the partner just follows along; 3) Lack of communication between partners; 4) The absent partner interferes with the learning process.

During one semester of Teaching and Learning Activities (KBM) in the 2017-2018 Academic Year, researchers felt that there were things that needed to be improved in practicing English letter writing skills, especially in terms of approaches and techniques. In terms of understanding the contents of the letter and the use of language, most students still experience difficulties and in terms of teaching methods, lecturers need to fix it. The implementation of learning with partnering techniques (pairwork) raises a sense of boredom from students. Giving assignments from lecturers to students is only done at the end of the lecture as one of the conditions for adding value to the course needs to be improved so that students will feel that there is a clear assignment to improve their writing skills.

From the explanation above, in general, the researchers found several things that need to be improved in the future in the learning process, namely: 1) students need to carry out writing activities not only limited to fulfilling the duties of the lecturer; 2) the pairing technique or pairwork is changed to a group 3) the task is carried out in groups; 4) feedback (feedback) on the results of assignments from lecturers; 5) Lecturers need to change and look for new approaches or strategies in learning.

Along with learning to write business letters in English, specifically, there are several indicators of the problem of incomprehension and lack of understanding of students in writing business letters in English which were found when observing pre-cycle activities, things that need to be improved and identified are: 1) Organization, which includes: write the letterhead, mailing address, greeting, introduction, body of the letter, closing and signature; 2) Content, the contents of a written letter clearly with the intent and purpose of which can be understood by the recipient or reader of the letter; 3) Appearance, letters are typed and have spaces, the correct type of writing format; and 4) Language Usage, the use of punctuation marks, grammar and correct word writing, is still below average. As seen in the graph below.



Graph 1. The ability of students in semester III of the Economic Education Study Program for the 2018-2019 academic year in writing Business Letters in English

in the results of the pre-cycle test

From the data above, the average value of writing a business letter in English Economic Education is a maximum of 4 in four aspects. The four aspects are organization as much as 2.09; 1,86 content; appearance of 2,33; and the last aspect of language usage is 1.79. The low average score of writing student English business letters encourages researchers to take action so that these problems can be resolved. To overcome and correct these deficiencies, the researcher applies the CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) approach as a learning approach that emphasizes understanding the content of a material along with the language itself. CLIL is a language learning approach through the content of subject matter or it can also be said that learning the content of subject matter through the use of language. According to Coyle (2008), CLIL will be very beneficial for students' understanding of material as well as deepening the language used in learning when communicating. Apart from being a medium of communication, language in CLIL concept learning is also a learning goal itself.

CLIL is a learning approach developed by Dalton and Puffer (Dalton-Puffer, 2007) who say, "CLIL refers to educational settings where a language other than the students' mother tongue is used as medium of instruction." By using a language other than the mother tongue, in this case, English, as the medium of instruction. Undoubtedly, CLIL has been helping English and other language teachers, foreign and second language teachers, in experimenting in partnership with other subjects. For example, if the lesson plan is focused on English business letter for Indonesian students, the teacher should be aware of the language usage, as well as the objectives of the study and curriculum.

Ball (2013) said that while teaching EMI (English as a medium of instruction), LAC (Language Across the Curriculum), CBI (Content-Based Instruction), CBLT (Content-Based Language teaching), or while working in bilingual education, a teacher has brought the material content into English lessons. In this situation, said Ball (2013), the teacher is implementing CLIL. In implementing this CLIL approach, the researcher uses one of the four strategies above, namely Content-Based Instruction (CBI). Below is a chart of the strategies included in the CLIL area.

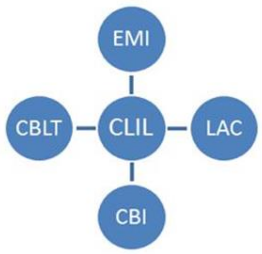


Figure 1. Illustration of the CLIL approach and its learning techniques and strategies (Ball, 2013)

In addition, CLIL is also a learning approach that emphasizes learning content that is supported by language so that there is maximum collaboration in learning. For example, the word ship (send) as a verb is changed to a noun by adding "ment" to shipment. CLIL is able to lead students to understand the content and language at the same time so that students understand better what they are learning and researchers believe that CLIL can bring significant changes to students in writing because the contents of the letter are studied using the steps in CLIL (Brown, 2013; Goris et al., 2019).

Cambridge (2014) reveals that the application of the CLIL approach in learning has several advantages, including (1) Developing student self-confidence; (2) Improve the communication skills of learners; (3) Encouraging intercultural understanding and human values of learners; (4) Increase the learner's sensitivity to vocabulary; and (5) Improve the language skills of learners which include listening, speaking, reading and writing. CLIL is also a catalyst or activator of several activities in learning as shown below:

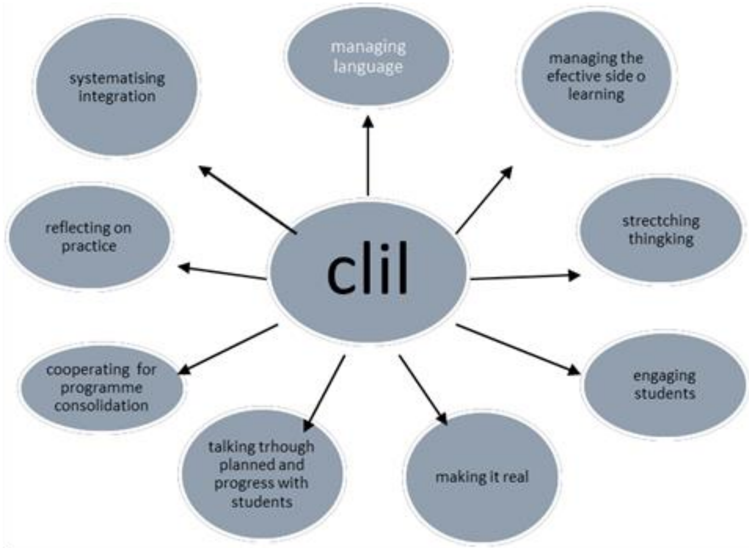


Figure 2. CLIL as a catalyst in several learning activities (Wang, 2017)

Following Wiseman's logic (2018), there are main benefits of CLIL that are important to know. First, students become more motivated to learn a language because the class situation supports the real context. Students' enthusiasm seems to be increased as CLIL focused on content learning and engaging students. In the CLIL class situation, students are demanded to produce and recall certain information using their second language which enhances their assimilation level. Furthermore, since English is also usable for all subjects, again, students' ability in using the language will be in the next level. In addition, CLIL provokes the 'millennial generation' to be able to think critically, to have creative ideas, communication skills, as well as collaboration skills in this technology industry (Luanganggoon, 2020; Pipit, 2018; Uemura, 2013).

Method

The research began in the odd semester of 2019/2020 for one semester in the English for Business class of the third-semester students of the Economic Education Study Program, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Universitas Kuningan, Kuningan Regency, West Java. The research conducted is action research with collaborative techniques where the role of the lecturer was also a researcher.

According to Creswell (2012), action research designs are procedures conducted by teachers to collect information as well as improve the quality of teaching and students learning systematically. This research used data based on qualitative or quantitative methods or a combination of both. Emzir (2015) states that action research is a development in the field of educational research that directs the identification of pragmatic needs characteristics of education practitioners to organize reflective inquiry into classroom teaching. Qualitative and quantitative methods were used in research which had three cycles, where each cycle contains three meetings. The action research procedure used in this study had 4 stages, namely: the planning stage, the action-taking stage, the development stage, and the reflection and follow-up stage (Mertler, 2012).

According to Smith and Rebolledo (2018), data sources in action research were obtained from observations, interviews, and tests for each cycle which were then processed and analyzed with collaborators to determine the extent to which the learning process of English business letter writing skills increased with the CLIL approach. This action research data collection is by using semi-structured or unstructured observation where the researcher utilized field notes and group-based observation sheets which are evidence of authentic notes in the field of how students do exercises in writing business letters in English. Furthermore, researchers used structured interviews with students 3 times, namely after the end of cycle I, cycle II and cycle III. Data were also collected from standardized test scores. The “Rubric for Business English Letter” from the Texas Education Agency (2006) was used by researchers as a reference for assessing writing business letters in English which is based on three basic features, such as the evaluative criteria, the exact definitions for those criteria, and the scoring strategy used for the rubric (Dawson, 2017).

Qualitative data were analyzed inductively, and quantitative data were analyzed using a note about "analyzing" standardized test data based on the rubric which had the components of organization, content, appearance, and language usage. In this study the researcher determined three types of data to be analyzed, namely data from observations, interviews and data from the research process obtained from tests. Concerning observation, the researcher utilized field notes, or written observations about what you see taking place in the classroom to get a rich context of analysis (Phillippi & Lauderdale, 2018). Not only field notes, but researchers also used observation sheets and notes in-class observations. Referring to collaborative learning, success can be observed from the aspects of students' attitudes and behavior, such as students work with each other towards a shared goal, weaving together their independently prepared work, as well as their communication and motivation (Falconie, et al., 2019). The data validation instrument in a qualitative design is the researcher himself is assisted by a collaborator. In addition, observation, interviews, photos, and tests at the end of cycle I, cycle II and cycle III were also the instruments used.

The researcher then measured the level of student ability in the pre-cycle. Here, the researcher and collaborator instructed the students to identify business letters in English and then asked them to write business letters in English independently. Cycle I was opened by dividing into group discussions consisting of 3-4 people. The researcher applied Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) in business letter writing lectures supported by 4K (Content, communication, cognition, and culture). Students' knowledge of the order letter type of English business letter continued to be developed in this cycle. In cycle II, the lecturer instructed students to do the exercises maximally. The theme carried from this second cycle was mild complaint letter. These exercises were balanced with discussions and explanations from the lecturer, especially regarding content and language usage of the letter. Cycle III began with a change in-group members. The lecturer provided new material regarding the strong complaint letter. Students were asked to present the results of their discussion in front of the class. Lecturer provided feedback both in terms of their writing skills and their speaking skills. Cycle III activities ended with evaluating and drawing conclusions.

Results and Discussion

The results of this study were obtained from pre-cycle activities, cycle I, cycle II, and cycle III. The outcome of the pre-cycle activity was the score of writing English business letters before the action research was carried out. The aim was to determine the student's ability to understand English business letters.

Pre-cycle

Activities in the pre-cycle are activities where the lecturer who was also a researcher prepared, implemented, and observed the initial learning process from one to two meetings by recording lecture activities accompanied by an assistant/collaborator. Provide initial material on types of business letters and provide samples of business letters for students to study. An exemplified business letter is an order letter. From the results of the pre-cycle test with questions consisting of knowledge of business letters and English business letter writing skills which contain four criteria, namely organization, content, appearance, and language usage. The results of pre-cycle activities can be seen in table 1.

Table 1. Test results of pre-cycle

No.	**Student Initials**	**Score**	**Complete**	**Incomplete**
1	ARAS	12	□	
2	ANF	10		□
3	AE	8		□
4	AF	0		□
5	US	9		□
6	AAP	10		□
7	DR	9		□
8	DAS	7		□
9	DHP	6		□
10	EYR	8		□
11	FK	9		□
12	HEC	7		□
13	IE	9		□
14	IAM	12	□	
15	I	10		□
16	IPM	7		□
17	IK	9		□

18	IT	9		□
19	IW	9		□
20	IMM	9		□
21	INA	9		□
22	KPF	9		□
23	K	8		□
24	LDL	11	□	
25	LN	10		□
26	L	9		□
27	MZH	9		□
28	MI	9		□
29	MHP	7		□
30	NCW	8		□
31	NK	9		□
32	NSS	8		□
33	NH	9		□
34	PNA	8		□
35	RMS	9		□
36	R	12	□	
37	SP	0		□
38	UF	8		□
39	VSF	9		□
40	YP	0		□
41	YG	9		□
42	YH	0		□
Total		339	4	38
Average		8.07		
Percentage			10%	90 %

From the table of pre-cycle test results above, it can be seen that the average score is 8.07 (enough). Of the 42 students, only 4 students (10%) completed, while 39 students (90%) did not complete with a minimum mastery criteria score of 11.

Cycle I

From the results of observations made by observers and researchers who are also lecturers of courses for two meetings and one pre-cycle test, the researchers felt several shortcomings that needed to be fixed in this first cycle, both from the student side and from the side of him as a teaching lecturer. From the student side, the results of their pre-cycle tests still lacked understanding of the material given, especially about organization, content and language usage in the main material being taught, namely order letter. Lecturers are less clear and detailed in providing material, orders and assignments without applying learning approaches, methods, strategies, or techniques. To fulfill the cycle stage in this study, researchers began to enter the planning stage by identifying problems, limiting themes, gathering information by interviewing and conducting literature reviews. The results of input from collaborator, lecturer in cycle I needed to apply a more appropriate approach and method or strategy. The results of cycle I is shown below.

Table 2. Test results of cycle I

No	Student Initials	Score	Complete	Incomplete
1	ARAS	14	□	
2	ANF	13	□	
3	AE	10		□
4	AF	8		□
5	US	12	□	
6	AAP	11	□	
7	DR	11	□	
8	DAS	10		□
9	DHP	8		□

10	EYR	8		□
11	FK	12	□	
12	HEC	8		□
13	IE	11	□	
14	IAM	12	□	
15	I	12	□	
16	IPM	9		□
17	IK	10		□
18	IT	11	□	
19	IW	11	□	
20	IMM	11	□	
21	INA	11	□	
22	KPF	13	□	
23	K	8		□
24	LDL	12	□	
25	LN	9		□
26	L	12	□	
27	MZH	9		□
28	MI	9		□
29	MHP	8		□
30	NCW	9		□
31	NK	8		□
32	NSS	12	□	
33	NH	10		□
34	PNA	11	□	
35	RMS	9		□
36	R	15	□	
37	SP	8		□
38	UF	10		□

From the table of the results of the test cycle I above, it can be seen that the average score is 10,38 (good enough). From 42 students, 21 students (50%) completed, while 21 students (50%) did not complete with a minimum mastery criteria score of 11.

The researcher and collaborator discussed the findings obtained in cycle I. Reflections on these findings are as follows:

1. There were 21 students who scored below 11 so that their English business letter writing scores needed to be improved.
2. A total of 51 students got a grade of 11 or more with a percentage of completeness of 50%, so the score needed to be maintained.
3. The weakness of students was still in the realm of vocabulary, so the content of English business letters is still difficult for them to understand.
4. Some students were still confused about the rules for writing names, refs, and others.
5. The ability to write with good grammar is still lacking.
6. Lack of experience in writing business English letters is the cause of students' low writing skills.
7. The next cycle must be done because students had not met the completeness criteria.

Cycle II

Cycle I, which had been running for 3 meetings, reflects the deficiencies that must be fixed in the next cycle, namely cycle II. These deficiencies came from the lecturer and students. From the lecturer side, it seemed that the level of clarity in providing instructions and material must be more detailed, and ensured that students understand what is being said. In addition, each student must be active in his group and involve students in reviewing the material. Lack of student activity is possible due to a lack of motivation from the lecturer. Giving rewards to students who "excel" in class can be applied. From the student side, the results of the first cycle test were still unsatisfactory because some of the students' scores were below the minimum criteria. Content and language usage were still the weaknesses of students. Lecturer must emphasize more on the explanation of these two aspects. In addition, students' attendance needed to be increased so that at the time of delivering material and training, they were present and could understand more clearly. To fulfill the cycle stage in this study, the researcher began to enter the planning stage by identifying problems, limiting themes, gathering information by interviewing and conducting literature reviews. The results of input from collaborator, lecturer in cycle II needed to apply more appropriate approach and method or strategy.

Table 3. Test results of cycle II

No	**Student Initials**	**Score**	**Complete**	**Incomplete**
1	ARAS	15	□	
2	ANF	15	□	
3	AE	12	□	
4	AF	10		□
5	US	14	□	
6	AAP	13	□	
7	DR	13	□	
8	DAS	12	□	
9	DHP	8		□
10	EYR	10		□
11	FK	13	□	
12	HEC	8		□
13	IE	13	□	
14	IAM	13	□	
15	I	12	□	
16	IPM	12	□	
17	IK	12	□	
18	IT	14	□	
19	IW	13	□	
20	IMM	12	□	

21	INA	12	□	
22	KPF	15	□	
23	K	9		□
24	LDL	12	□	
25	LN	12	□	
26	L	13	□	
27	MZH	9		□
28	MI	12	□	
29	MHP	8		□
30	NCW	9		□
31	NK	8		□
32	NSS	12	□	
33	NH	11	□	
34	PNA	12	□	
35	RMS	10		□
36	R	15	□	
37	SP	9		□
38	UF	11	□	
39	VSF	12	□	
40	YP	14	□	
41	YG	9		□
42	YH	9		□
Total		487	29	13
Average		11.6		
Percentage			69%	31%

From the table of pre-cycle test results above, it can be seen that the average score is 11,6 (good). From 42 students, 29 students (69%) completed, while 13 students (31%) did not complete with a minimum mastery criteria score of 11.

Researchers and collaborators discuss the findings obtained in cycle II. Reflections on these findings are as follows:

1. 13 students scored below 11, so it was necessary to increase the score of writing business English letters.
2. 29 students scored 11 or more with 69% completeness criteria.
3. Some students had not written with good and correct English rules. For example, in using a pronoun and subject-verb agreement.
4. Students lack understanding of letter content so they had difficulty finding the right words and meanings.
5. It was still found that some students were still confused in composing sentences in English. Students could not fully use content and language usage in letters.
6. The low writing skills of students were due to the lack of practice in writing business English letters.
7. The next cycle must be carried out because some students have not met the completeness criteria.

Cycle III

The increase in the average score of students from cycle I to cycle II has not yet made researchers complacent. This is because the percentage of students scored > 11 was not maximal. Researchers continued to strive to find opportunities that could maximize students' understanding and skills in writing business letters in English. The weakness that the researchers felt in the previous cycle from the student side was the low vocabulary mastery which made it difficult to write business letters in English. Letter writing practice also needs to be improved. But not only in writing, students must also be trained in their confidence and courage in speaking English. Meanwhile, from the lecturer's side, motivation and appreciation needed to be instilled in students so that they would be strong individuals. Lecturers also felt that they still needed to provide input that is easy for students to understand in writing business English letters. Moreover, the use of language usage still needed to be improved by students.

Table 4. Cycle III test results

No.	Student Initials	Score	Complete	Incomplete
1	ARAS	15	□	
2	ANF	15	□	
3	AE	12	□	
4	AF	13	□	
5	US	14	□	
6	AAP	13	□	
7	DR	13	□	
8	DAS	12	□	
9	DHP	10		□
10	EYR	12	□	
11	FK	13	□	
12	HEC	12	□	
13	IE	12	□	
14	IAM	15	□	
15	I	12	□	
16	IPM	13	□	
17	IK	14	□	
18	IT	14	□	
19	IW	14	□	
20	IMM	13	□	
21	INA	13	□	
22	KPF	13	□	
23	K	9		□
24	LDL	12	□	
25	LN	12	□	

26	L	13	□	
27	MZH	12	□	
28	MI	13	□	
29	MHP	12	□	
30	NCW	12	□	
31	NK	9		□
32	NSS	13	□	
33	NH	12	□	
34	PNA	13	□	
35	RMS	13	□	
36	R	16	□	
37	SP	12	□	
38	UF	12	□	
39	VSF	14	□	
40	YP	13	□	
41	YG	13	□	
42	YH	13	□	
Total		535	39	3
Average		12.74		
Percentage			93%	7%

From the table of pre-cycle test results above, it can be seen that the average score is 12.74 (good). From 42 students, 39 students (93%) completed, while 3 students (7%) did not complete with a minimum score of 11.

The researcher and collaborator discussed the findings obtained in cycle III. Reflections on these findings are as follows:

The process of improving English business letter writing skills through Content and Language Integrated Learning was going well.

1. There were 39 students who scored 11 or more with 93% completeness.
2. Students could understand every step of the lecture through Content and Language Integrated Learning.

3. With a group or collaborative lecture strategy in cycle III it could improve students' business letter writing skills.
4. Students were increasingly confident, dare to ask questions, and discuss with their group colleagues

Based on the data that have been obtained through this research, it can be argued that the improvement of business letter writing skills through Content and Language Integrated Learning varies. The comparison of the average score of the English business letter writing skills in the pre-cycle was 8.07.

Meanwhile, in Cycle I, after being given classical action, the students' average skills were quite competent, it was 10.38. The mean score of students in cycle II continued to increase to 11.6, this is because the four aspects of the assessment continue to be used as references in writing English business letters. Students were continuously encouraged to practice writing English business letters correctly by paying attention to organization, content, appearance, and language usage. In addition, the lecturer also ensured that the learning atmosphere was communicative and not boring. Evidently, in cycle III the average score obtained increased to 12.74

The enhancement in the score of pre-cycle, cycle I, cycle II and cycle III business letter writing skills can be seen in Figure 4.

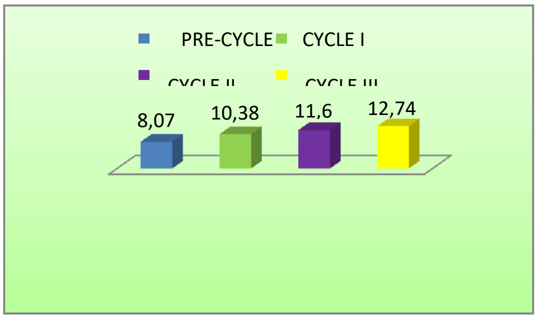


Figure 4. The Average Score of Writing Skills for English Business Letters Pre-Cycle, Cycle I, Cycle II, and Cycle III

The percentage of success obtained through this research can be argued that the improvement of business letter writing skills through Content and Language Integrated Learning varies. The percentage of students who scored 11 or more in the pre-cycle is 10%. Meanwhile, in cycle I the percentage of students who scored 11 or more is 50%. In the second cycle, the percentage of students who scored 11 or more continued to increase to 69%. Furthermore, in the third cycle, the percentage of students who scored 11 or more increased to 93%. The percentage of students who scored 11 or more in pre-cycle, cycle I, cycle I, and cycle III can be seen in Figure 5.

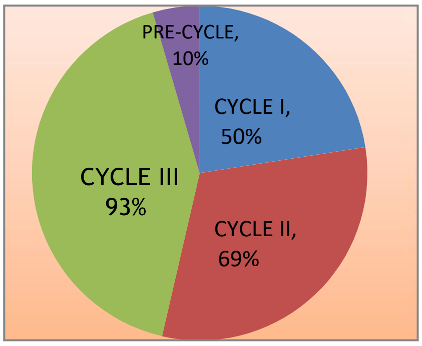
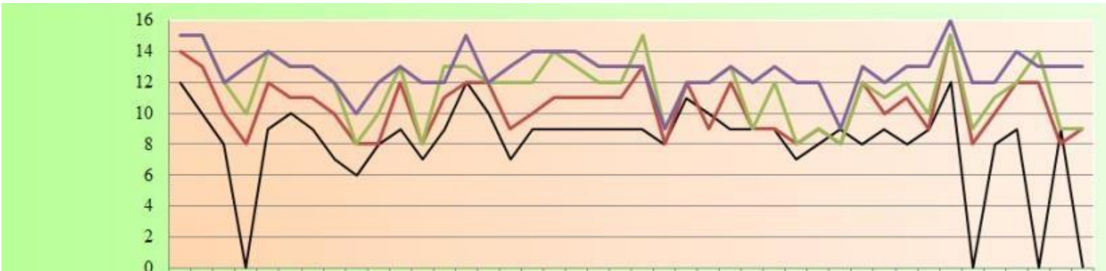


Figure 5. Percentage of Students Achieving Success Criteria in Pre-cycle, Cycle I, Cycle II, and Cycle III

To find out the increase in the score of student business letter writing in pre-cycle, cycle I, cycle II, and cycle III can be seen in Figure 6.



	ARAS	ANF	AE	AF	AS	AAP	DR	DAS	DHP	EYR	FK	HEC	IE	IAM	I	IPM	IK	IT	IW	IMM	INA
PRASIKLUS	12	10	8	0	9	10	9	7	6	8	9	7	9	12	10	7	9	9	9	9	9
SIKLUS I	14	13	10	8	12	11	11	10	8	8	12	8	11	12	12	9	10	11	11	11	11
SIKLUS II	15	15	12	10	14	13	13	12	8	10	13	8	13	13	12	12	12	14	13	12	12
SIKLUS III	15	15	12	13	14	13	13	12	10	12	13	12	12	15	12	13	14	14	14	13	13

	KPF	K	LDL	LN	L	MZH	MI	MHP	NCW	NK	NSP	NH	PNA	RMS	R	SP	UF	VSF	YP	YG	YH
PRASIKLUS	9	8	11	10	9	9	9	7	8	9	8	9	8	9	12	0	8	9	0	9	0
SIKLUS I	13	8	12	9	12	9	9	8	9	8	12	10	11	9	15	8	10	12	12	8	9
SIKLUS II	15	9	12	12	13	9	12	8	9	8	12	11	12	10	15	9	11	12	14	9	9
SIKLUS III	13	9	12	12	13	12	13	12	12	9	13	12	13	13	16	12	12	14	13	13	13

Figure 6. The Skills Score of Writing English Business Letters Pre-Cycle, Cycle I, Cycle II, and Cycle III

Before being given the action cycle I, cycle II, and cycle III to students, the research was started by doing a pre-cycle. The pre-cycle was conducted to determine students' English business letter writing skills before being given action. The business letter theme used for the pre-cycle is the order letter. However, the researchers also used the complaint letter as a comparison.

Implementation of the first cycle of the first meeting, the lecture process of writing English business letters through Content and Language Integrated Learning begins with identifying business letters, the business letters chosen at the first meeting are order letters.

Students are asked to sit in groups of 3-4 people. Handouts were given to students to be identified in terms of organization, content, appearance, and language usage of the letter. The lecturer continued to provide exercises to students and discuss these exercises carefully. The lecturer also provided games in the form of random sentences to stimulate students' English skills.

In the second cycle of the first meeting, the lecturer was still reviewing the material at the previous meeting, namely the order letter. The lecturer ensures that students understand correctly the material by giving exercises. The lecturer introduced the mild complaint letter afterward and continued to stimulate student understanding by asking questions. Handouts were also always discussed by the lecturer after each group presents their performance results. The lecturer continued to provide feedback, especially regarding aspects of content and language usage which were the main obstacles. Cycle II was closed with the third meeting which discussed the mild complaint letter that had been written by the students.

The implementation of cycle III began with changing members of the student group to create a new atmosphere. The discussion in this last cycle was the strong complaint letter. Students were trained by composing sentences in a business letter using good and correct English rules. The lecturer continued to provide directions and also corrects student mistakes to ensure they understand. Good communication was also always maintained so that lecturer find their difficulties. Students were asked to make a strong complaint letter in groups to be presented in front of the class. Feedback was given by the lecturer in terms of both speaking skills and student writing skills so that they felt the benefits of learning English business letters.

The discussion regarding the learning outcomes of students writing English business letters through Content and Language Integrated Learning examined the results of giving tests at the end of each cycle. Before the implementation of the action, the pre-cycle average score of students' skills in writing business English letters was 8.07 with 10% student completeness. In the second cycle, the student learning outcomes in writing business English letters showed an average of 10.38 with a student completeness of 50%. In the second cycle, the student learning outcomes writing English business letters showed a mean of 11,6 with a student completeness of 69%. In the third cycle, the student learning outcomes writing English business letters showed a mean of 12.74 with a student completeness of 93%.

Conclusion

Starting with the pre-cycle, the researcher carried out treatment and also observed it in two meetings without the application of CLIL. Students were given a business letter in the form of an order letter which must be found for themselves what the letter means. The lecturer also gave a complaint letter as a comparison. Students work on the lecturer's instructions, some are willing to explain it in front of the class. The class atmosphere looked conducive and comfortable.

Starting with the pre-cycle, the researcher did not perform any specific treatment and also observed two meetings without the application of CLIL. Students were given a business letter in the form of an order letter which must be found what the letter means. The lecturer also gave a complaint letter as a comparison. Students worked on lecturer instructions, some were willing to explain it in front of the class. The class atmosphere looked conducive and comfortable.

In the first cycle, the lecture process of writing business letters is directed at developing student knowledge about business letters. The lecturer also continued to provide exercises and games to stimulate student skills. Through CLIL, lectures on writing business letters supported by 4K (Content, communication, cognition, and Culture) began. The lecturer and students began the learning process according to the CLIL steps. However, in Cycle I, the students' ability to discuss, interact, motivate, and work on assignments and their speed was still slow. In understanding Content and Language usage, letters were still not optimal. Students still looked confused in composing sentences and grammar. The lack of experience in writing business English letters is the reason for the low writing skills of students. The lecturer continued to maximize the discussion process so that students understood a little more about the material. The lecturer continued to provide directions, materials, and instructions as clearly as possible.

In cycle II the implementation of lectures began to get better. Students seemed to be more active in discussions and identify business letters, namely mild complaint letters. However, student attendance was also increased so that they could optimally receive the material. In addition, the level of clarity in providing instructions and material by the lecturer must be more detailed. Not only that, the lecturer must ensure that students understand the material being taught. In this cycle, the weakness of the students still on Content and Language usage. Students still needed more practice writing business English letters. Reward and punishment strategies were applied to improve student understanding.

In cycle III, lectures were seen to be more active with the implementation of presentations by each group under the control of the lecturer. Students needed to increase their confidence in speaking English when presenting the results of their group work so that their speaking skills will be better. In terms of the results or letters they wrote, it seemed that students were still weak at vocabulary mastery so that the lecturer needed to impart more maximum input. An interactive class was characterized by fluent discussion and interaction. Not to forget, the lecturer gave feedback and motivation at the end of the student presentation. Based on these results, it can be concluded that the learning outcomes of students in writing English business letters through Content and Language Integrated Learning in cycle III have 100% met the criteria for writing success, which was more than 80 % of students scored 11 or more. So, the findings of the research results can be determined that the formulation of the action research hypothesis, namely the application of Content and Language Integrated Learning, the skills of students in writing English business letters improved and could be accepted.

Pedagogical Implication

In this study, the researcher would like to show the pedagogical implication which influenced the learning process. There are

1) **The importance of comprehending the CLIL approach in language subjects.** Teachers in English as a second language have to learn to comprehend the CLIL as an approach in teaching-learning activities. It guides teachers – students and students – students to practice both content and language.
2) **CLIL has generated the students to learn English actively.** Students were forced naturally to follow the clues that prepared by the teachers. They like to write and speak to express their thought at the same time.
3) **CLIL can stimulate the students in writing business letters.** In the practice of writing business letters, CLIL as Wang (2017) supports the students at least in four indicators namely managing Language, engaging students, making it real, and reflecting on practice.

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Comparative Analysis on the Usage of Ilocano Dialect Among the Ilocanos and Tabukenos in Tabuk City

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Abstract

This study aims to compare the usage of Ilocano dialect among the Ilocanos and Tabukenos in Tabuk City particularly on the prefixes, root words and basic sentence constructions. The study use of the qualitative comparative analysis of research since it

gathered data through interview using the guide questions and prepared selections for translation.

This study was conducted in Tabuk City particularly in barangay Tuga where the Ilocano group originally settled and some urban barangays of Tabuk City. The study involved the Ilocanos who are residing in Tuga, Tabuk City and some Tabukenos. These informants are taken through fish bowl method. The informants were 15 Genuine Ilocanos and 15 Tabukenos taken through fish bowl method. Information were taken Pronunciation was the determinant in the analysis of the data. Therefore, video recorder was the primary tool in gathering and reviewing data together with the prepared terms translated by them. It was used to record respondent's utterances of the diagnostic passage. The utterances validated the comparison between the Ilocanos and the Tabukenos using the Ilocano dialect.

General Findings and Conclusion: Based from the translations made by the respondents, there are words or terminologies that are commonly used and there are different translations also however, they have the same meaning. Regarding the tenses of verbs, each tense has its structure which is similar to the Filipino language structure.

Keywords: *comparative analysis, usage, Ilocano dialect, Ilocanos, Tabukenos,*

Introduction

Ilocano (also Ilokano; /iːloʊˈkɑːnoʊ/; Ilocano: *Pagsasao nga Ilokano*) is the third most-spoken native language of the Philippines. An Austronesian language, it is related to such languages as Malay (Indonesian and Malaysian), Tetum, Chamorro, Fijian, Maori, Hawaiian, Samoan, Tahitian, Paiwan and Malagasy. It is closely related to some of the other Austronesian languages of Northern Luzon, and has slight mutual intelligibility with the Balangao language and the eastern dialects of the Bontoc language.

The Ilocano people had their own distinct indigenous writing system and script known as *kur-itan*. There have been proposals to revive the *kur-itan* script by teaching it in Ilokano-majority public and private schools in Ilocos Norte and Ilocos Sur. Ilocano, like all Philippine languages, is an Austronesian language, a very expansive language family believed to be originate in Taiwan. Ilocano comprises its own branch within the

Philippine Cordilleran language subfamily. It is spoken as first language by seven million people. A lingua franca of the northern region of the Philippines, it is spoken as a secondary language by more than two million people who are native speakers of Ibanag, Ivatan, and other languages in Northern Luzon.

The language is spoken in northwest Luzon, the Babuyan Islands, Cordillera Administrative Region, Cagayan Valley, parts of Central Luzon, Mindoro and scattered areas in Mindanao. The language is also spoken in the United States, with Hawaii and California having the largest number of speakers. It is the third most spoken non-English language in Hawaii after Tagalog and Japanese, with 17% of those speaking languages other than English at home (25.4% of the population) speaking the language.

In September 2012, the province of La Union passed an ordinance recognizing Ilocano (Iloko) as an official provincial language, alongside Filipino and English, as national and official languages of the Philippines, respectively. It is the first province in the Philippines to pass an ordinance protecting and revitalizing a native language, although there are also other languages spoken in the province of La Union, including Pangasinan and Kankanaey.

Pre-colonial

Precolonial Ilocano people of all classes wrote in a syllabic system known as Baybayin prior to European arrival. They used a system that is termed as an *abugida*, or an alphasyllabary. It was similar to the Tagalog and Pangasinan scripts, where each character represented a consonant-vowel, or CV, sequence. The Ilocano version, however, was the first to designate coda consonants with a diacritic mark – a cross or virama – shown in the *Doctrina Cristiana* of 1621, one of the earliest surviving Ilokano publications. Before the addition of the virama, writers had no way to designate coda consonants. The reader, on the other hand, had to guess whether the vowel was read or not, due to this vowels "e" and "i" are interchangeable and letters "o" and "u", for instance "tendera" and tindira" (shop-assistant)

Modern

In recent times, there have been two systems in use: The "Spanish" system and the "Tagalog" system. In the *Spanish* system words of Spanish origin kept their spellings. Native words, on the other hand, conformed to the Spanish rules of spelling. Older generation of Ilocanos use the *Spanish* system. In the system based on that of Tagalog there is more of a phoneme-to-letter correspondence, and better reflects the actual pronunciation of the word. The letters *ng* constitute a digraph and counts as a single letter, following *n* in alphabetization. As a result, **numo** *humility* appears before **ngalngal** *to chew* in newer dictionaries. Words of foreign origin, most notably those from Spanish, need to be changed in spelling to better reflect Ilocano phonology. Words of English origin may or may not conform to this orthography. A prime example using this system is the weekly magazine *Bannawag*.

Framework of the Study

In Tabuk City, which is the melting pot of Kalinga is comprising of different local dialects . These dialects are the ykalingas, Igurot, Ibanag, Itawes, Imoslem, tagalog, kankanaey, baliwon, and others. Despite the presence of these dialects, the lengua franca of the Tabukenos is Ilokano. Even though Tabuk is a place where different groups of people stay and different cultures are found, they still understand each other using a common language which is Ilokano or Iluko. This is their lengua franca. This is through DepEd Ordr # 16, s. 2012-Guidelines on the Implementation of the Mother Tongue-Based-Multi-Lingual Education. This Ilokano dialect is a means of communication among the people of this city. Even foreigners from the southern portion of the world are also learning to use this dialect in mingling with people in the locality. In churches, the foreign priests use ilokano in delivering their homilies. They are trying their best even though the way they pronounce words are sometimes not perfect and funny.

Thus, speech in some groups has become the basis of the written language, often of that differs in its vocabulary, syntax and phonetics from its associated spoken one. Speech in addition to its use in communication, it is suggested by some Psychologist such as Vygotsy is internally used by mental processes to enhance and organize cognition in the form of an interior monologue.

This study focuses on the Ilocano dialect Spoken by the People of Tabuk and the Genuine Ilocano of Ilocos Migrated in Tabuk City. The prime purpose of this research is to compare and contrast the language particularly on the prefixes, tense of verb, sentence construction and subject-verb agreement. Speech is a God-given faculty which sets apart human beings from animals. The major medium of communication of daily experiences is speech. Men communicate their thoughts, ideas, desires, and feelings by the use of intelligible words by means of speech. The faculty of speech must be employed and developed by human beings for mutual understanding and appreciation. The ability to articulate is essential to emotional maturity, inner harmony and mental balance. Speech reflects men's countless aspirations and frustrations, their proudest achievements and ignoble failures. It would be very difficult, if not impossible for men to coordinate their activities without speech.

Speech is a vehicle for personality development, being the means of acquiring a pleasing and acceptable personality. The way we articulate instantly reveals our background, training, self-discipline and education. The impression we make depends on the ease and liveliness with which we talk, how advance or defend our convictions and principles and how attractive our voice is.

The way people of Tabuk City use the Ilocano dialect is different from the way the genuine Ilocano's way of using the language. There are some factors that could affect the way the Tabukenos use the dialect.

As we all know, Tabuk is a place of Kalinga where different races of people are found. This is because Tabuk is the center of business in the province and nearby provinces. It is here where business people invest their money. It is the educational center also of the province of Kalinga . As a manifestation, there are five(5) higher education institutions (HEI's) in the province. One of it is the Kalinga State University. The rest are private HEI's. Aside from these, we also have different secondary schools that offer senior high schools in response to the K 12 curriculum.

These are some of the contributors why Tabuk City is a place with different dialects used by people. This motivated the researcher to conduct a study on the comparison of the way the Ilocanos use the dialect to the way the people of Tabuk City used the mentioned dialect.

Statement of Objectives

This study aims to compare the usage of ilocano dialect among the Ilocanos and Tabukenos in Tabuk City particularly on the prefixes, root words and basic sentence constructions. The study sought answers on the following objectives.

1. To compare the usage of Ilocano dialect among the Ilocanos and Tabukenos in Tabuk City in terms of what prefixes are commonly used, tenses of verbs, and basic sentence construction;
2. To translate the common terms (English terms) by both the Ilocanos and the Tabukenos and determine the following differences and similarities:
   a. Root word
   b. Commonly used expressions
   c. Numbers
   d. Body parts
   e. Members of the family
   f. Sentences

Review of Related Literature

Ilocano is a regional "Austronesian" language spoken in the northern part of Luzon and is sometimes referred to as Ilokano, Iloco or Iluko. Some people refer to Ilocano as a dialect. Carl Rubino explains the difference:

"You will undoubtedly run into many Filipinos in your travels who will insist that Ilocano is not a language, but a dialect. This is because Filipinos, like the Chinese, use the terms language and dialect politically rather than linguistically. In the Philippines, the word language is usually reserved for tongues that are given a certain political and legal status. Tagalog, the native language of the people around the Manila area of southern Luzon Island, was declared the basis for the national Language (wikang pambansa) in 1937. All other languages of the archipelago were therefore never duly recognized officially and have been called dialects ever since."

Ilocano is not as adaptive to linguistic evolution as Filipino/Tagalog and is not formally taught in schools, but is still used by millions of people in the Philippines and abroad. It is perpetuated by its oral use in mass media, political campaigns and church services in the Ilocandia region. Ilocano writers of prose and poetry also help preserve grammar rules.

In many cases, because of the wide use of English, terms with no local equivalents in Tagalog or Ilocano are sometimes better left in English since these are understood by the majority of Filipinos and to try to translate them for translation’s sake would render the terms ambiguous, such as credit card, debit or bank account. Thus, it is very common to hear English terms interspersed in conversations in Ilocano and Tagalog.

Ilocano is not a dialect. it is also a language like English. By dialect, we mean the more specific type of English like the American English, the British English, the Aussie English. Ilocano is a totally different language that is spoken in the Philippines. Ilocano is one of the languages here in the Philippines aside from Tagalog (more examples of languages in the PH are Cebuano, Ilonggo, Ybanag, Javacano, etc). they are totally different languages. but since the national language of the Philippines (which is called Filipino) is mostly derived from the language Tagalog, everyone here (even those with Ilocano as their mother-tongue) could speak and understand Tagalog.

Filipino Language is a Tagalog based language. Tagalog and Ilokano language are two of the many ethnic languages of the Philippines (Luzon Island). Tagalog and Ilokano are also the name of the ethnic group/person who originally speaks them (Ilocano people - Wikipedia / Tagalog people - Wikipedia). Its like, the Germans speaks german, the Spanish speaks spanish, the English speaks english…etc.

According to Phillips (2013), both languages are used by various ethnicity in the Philippines apart from their own ethnic language. But Tagalog is spoken by more people since it is the base of Filipino, the Philippine official language. Thus, All Ilokanos and every other ethnicities most likely speaks/understand Tagalog But not all Tagalog can speak/understand Ilokano or any other Philippine ethnic languages. Both language are related. They both belong to the Austronesian Language Family .

Samples-

- English: One, Two, Three, Four, Five, Six, Seven, Eight, Nine, Ten
- Tagalog: Isa, Dalawa, Tatlo, Apat, Lima, Anim, Pito, Walo, Siyam, Sampo
- Ilokano: Maysa, Duwa, Tallo, Uppat, Lima, Innem, Pito, Walo, Siam, Sangapulo

- English: House, King, Kingdom, Soldier, Queen, Judge, teacher, Wiseman/ Sage
- Tagalog: Bahay, Hari, Kaharian, Kawal, Reyna, Hukom, Guro, Pantas/Maalam/Paham
- Ilokano: Balay, Ari, Pagarian, Kawar, Reyna, Ukkom, Maestra/o

The Semai language of peninsular Malaysia is rich in diversity: each Semai village speaks its own variety. This report1,2 documents the various Semai dialects and explores the relationships between them, with regard to choice of words as well as the phonological changes that affect the pronunciation of each. Systematic analysis shows the dialects to be different enough from each other that it is unlikely that any one dialect can be adequately understood by all speakers. Thus, in the strictest sense of the terms, it may be argued that the Semai varieties are a cluster of closely related “languages” rather than “dialects.” Following local convention, however, the term “dialect” is maintained in this paper. This report lays the foundation for establishing which dialect or dialects could be used to provide an optimal means of communication across all the Semai dialects.

Tamayao (2019) examined the language utilized in an ethnic intermarriage between an Ilokano and Ibanag or Itawes and how does this language influence the identity construction of their children using Pierre Bourdieu and Abram De Swaan’s analytical framework, It fundamentally explored the habitus, cultural, and linguistic capital as well as communicative potential of Ilocanos, Ibanags, and Itawes within the context of their field (i.e., marriage, family and community life) specifically in the three (3) municipalities of Cagayan, Philippines. The paper proffers that Ilokano language is primarily used in a marriage between an Ilokano and Ibanag or Itawes. Other than Ilokano language, the Ibanag, Itawes, and Ilokano spouses prefer Filipino and English in cross-communicating to people with different linguistic background because of their communicative function, advantage, and value. Significantly, children of Ilokano and Ibanag or Itawes marriages identify themselves more as Ilokanos than Ibanags and Itawes primarily because of the Ilokano language and Iloko cultural capital. The maintenance of this ethnocultural identity is not threatened, however, with their effort of learning and using the Filipino and English languages as these languages are learned and used purposely in coping with the current globalization and information age

According to Cortez in his study (2016) found out that Ilocano speaking group in different municipalities in both provinces have different accents. This is true based on the observation and/or interviews conducted. In Kalinga, Ilocano speaking group in Municipality of Pinukpuk would prolong the last part of their sentences when speaking. Ilocano speaking group in Municipality of Lubuagan have a sing-song intonation when they are speaking. Lastly, Ilocano speaking group in Municipality of Balbalan would have a rising intonation at the end of their utterances like they are asking a question. In Cagayan, Ilocano speaking group in Municipalities of Gonzaga and Gattaran have a hard accent when they are speaking the dialect. In the Municipality of Aparri, Ilocano speaking group would have a sing song intonation. Ilocano speaking group in the Municipalities of Sanchez Mira, and certain parts of Solana would prolong some words when they are speaking the said dialect. Lastly, Ilocano speaking group in the Municipality of Camalaniugan and other part of Solana have a usual way of intonation

Torres and Medriano (2020) explored Cross-cultural study of rhetorical traditions as they exist or have existed in different societies around the world has been the focus of contrastive rhetoric. Studies in contrastive rhetoric in the past years confirm that culture is reflected in rhetorical patterns. Using the argumentative essays of 55 students from a state university in Central Luzon and following Liu’s (2005) framework on the location of thesis statement, the present quantitative-qualitative study compares the discourse organizations in the placement of thesis statement in the argumentative essays of the three groups of tertiary students (Ilocano, Tagalog and mixed Ilocano and Tagalog), and determines if thesis statements’ placement is dependent on one’s language grouping. Analysis of the corpus revealed that participants from the three groups differ on their choices on where to write the thesis statements. There were more Tagalog participants who preferred the deductive pattern, while there were more Ilocano participants who preferred to write thesis statements in the middle. Meanwhile, there were more participants from the mixed-group who chose the inductive pattern. The interplay between culture and language use was discussed with focus on the distinct culture of

Tagalog and Ilocano that are reflected in the discourse organization of their argumentative essays.

Methodology

Research Design

The study use of the qualitative comparative analysis of research since it gathered data through interview using the guide questions and prepared selections for translation.

Locale and population of the Study

This study was conducted in Tabuk City particularly in barangay Tuga where the Ilokano group originally settled and some urban barangays of Tabuk City .

Respondents/Key Informants/Research Participants of the Study

The study involved the Ilocanos who are residing in Tuga, Tabuk City and some Tabukenos. These informants are taken through fish bowl method. The informants were 15 Genuine Ilocanos and 15 Tabukenos taken through fish bowl method. Information were taken from these informants on the month of May 2019.

Instrumentation

Pronunciation was the determinant in the analysis of the data. Therefore, video recorder was the primary tool in gathering and reviewing data together with the prepared terms translated by them . It was used to record respondent's utterances of the diagnostic passage. The utterances validated the comparison between the Ilocanos and the Tabukenos using the Ilocano dialect.

Validity and Reliability of the Study. The instrument used in gathering data is patterned from the study of Cortez, Ferdinand (2016) **"**Comparative Analysis on the Usage of Ilocano Dialect in Kalinga and Cagayan", University of St. Louis, Tuguegarao City, Cagayan

Data Gathering Procedures

To ensure the participation of the respondents, the researcher sought the help of the barangay chairman of Tuga to identify at least 15 genuine Ilocanos in their place and for the respondents in the urban barangays, the researcher went to the office of the barangay council to ask permission in gathering data The researcher used the video recorder and the prepared lists of terms to be translated. The researcher also interviewed some of them.

Data Analysis

The responses of the informants were analyzed and described.

Results and Discussion

1. How do you term the following? Anya ti awag yo kadagiti sumaganad?

Terms	Translation	
	Genuine Ilocano	**Tabukenos**
1. cook	Saang	Luto
2. write	Surat	Surat
3. smile	Isem	isem
4. read	Basa	basa
5. eat	Kaan/lamot	Kakan
6. sing	Kansiyon	Kanta
7. practice	Ensayo	Praktis
8. dance	Sayandek	Sala
9. talk	Sarita	Sao
10. teach	suro	suro

To glance at the answers of the respondents, the genuine ilokanos have terminologies that are far different from the terminologies used by the ilokanos of Tabuk. The word "saang" means cook in English and "luto" for the Ilokanos of Tabuk. However, there are genuine ilokano interviewees who also translated "cook" into luto. Two of the interviewees out of 15 responded "luto". For the Ilokanos of Tabuk, they are consistent in their translations.

For the word "eat", the genuine ilokanos translated it as "kaan" or "lamot". These two words have their own uses. We have to use "kaan" as a word that refers to a human being while "lamot" is used when the caller is angry to whom he is calling for like" Inka aglamuten". In other words, the word "lamot" is applicable to animals. For the Ilokanos of Tabuk, they translate luto as “kakan” . Instead of “kaan”, most of the interviewees answered “kakan”. They are being influenced by the way the Ykalingas or Ygurots give term to “eat”. Since Tabuk is a place where different kinds of ethnic affiliation are found like Ytawis, Ybanag, Pangasinense, Tagalog, Iyapayao, Ykalinga, etc., they are influenced by their way of using the terms. They are already mixing the original Ilokano terms into whatever race or ethnic terminologies available in the place.

The word “Kansyon” is far different from “kanta” which the two words mean “sing”. Most of the interviewees used “kansyon” instead of “kanta” as the Ilokanos of Tabuk use.

To the word English term“practice”, the genuine ilokanos translated it into “ insayo” which is different from the way the Ilokanos of Tabuk translate which is “praktis” just the same. They are adopting the original term from English which is “practice”. Also the word “flower”. The Ilokanos of Tabuk particularly those who came from the upper stream, they are localizing the original English term. Example the word “flower”, They call “flower:’ in the place as “POLAWEL”. It sounds similar from the original term “Flower”.

The word “dance” has a translation used by the Genuine ilokanos. They call it as “sayandek” while the ilokanos of Tabauk address it as “sala”.

For the word “sao” and “sarita”, they are synonymous. Only, the Ginuine ilokanos say sarita while the Ilokanos of Kalinga say “sao”

With these interpretation on the way the interviewees responded to the questions asked, it is strongly analyzed that the common terms that the Ilokanos of Tabuk are sometimes localizing because they could not find any other translations or terminologies in their own dialect.

2. How do you form the present tense of the following words

Root Words	Present Tense			
	Genuine Ilocano		**Tabukenos**	
Cook	agisasaang	Agisa	aglutluto	Aglut
Write	agsursurat	Agsur	agsursurat	agsur
Smile	Umis-isem	Umis	Umis-isem	Umis

Read	Agbasbasa	Agbas	Agbasbasa	Agbas
Eat	Mangmangan/aglamlamot	Mang/aglam	Mangmangan	Mang
Sing	agkankansiyon	Agkan	Agkankanta	Agkan
Practice	Agen-ensayo	Agen	agprakpraktis	Agparak
Dance	agsaysayandek	Agsay	agsalsala	Agsal
Talk	agsarsarita	Agsar	agsasao	Agsa
Teach	agsursuro	agsur	agsursuro	agsur

When we look at the result of the translation**,** we have to take note on the structure ; prefix +1st syllable of the root word + root word= present tense of the word/verb. This is observed to both; the genuine Ilokano group and the Ilokanos of Tabuk group. A prefix is found and the first syllable of the root word is repeated. This structure of the ilokano dialect spoken by the two groups of respondents is very similar to the structure of the Filipino language .Example; LARO (rootword); NAGLALARO; NAG (Prefix), LA (1st Syllable of the root word) and LARO (root word) This is the present tense structure of the Filipino language.

3. How do you form the past tense of the following words

Root Words	**Past Tense**			
	Genuine Ilocano		**Tabukenos**	
cook	nakasaangen	Naka+ saang+en	nakaluton	Naka+luto+n
write	nakasuraten	Naka+surat+en	nakasuraten	Naka+surat+en
smile	immisemen	I+m+misem	ummisemen	U+m+misem+en
read	nagbasan	Nag+basa+n	nagbasan	Nag+basa+n
eat	Nanganen/naglamoten	Nangan+en/nag+lamot+en	nanganen	Nangan+en
sing	nagkansiyonen	Nag+kansiyon	nagkantan	Nag+kanta+n
practice	nagensayon	Nag+ensayo+n	nagpraktisen	Nag+praktis+en
dance	nagsayandeken	Nag+sayandek+en	nagsalan	Nag+sala+n
talk	nagsaritan	Nag+sarita+n	nagsaon	Nag+sao+n
teach	nagsuron	Nag+suron+en	nagsuron	Nag+suro+n

To glance at the table, the past tense of the verb used by both the genuine Ilokanos and the Ilokanos of Tabuk has a structure prefix + root word + suffix. The suffix used depends on the last letter of the root word. When the root word ends with a vowel, use a suffix "n" and when the root word ends with a consonant, use suffix which is "en".

4. How do you form the past tense of the following words

Root Words	FutureTense			
	Genuine Ilocano		Tabukenos	
cook	Mangisaang to	Mangi+saang+to	Agluton to	Ag+luto+n+to
write	Agsurat to	Ag+surat+to	Agsurat to	Ag+surat+to
smile	Umisem to	Um+isem+to	Umisem to	Um+isem+to
read	Agbasan to	Ag+basa+n+to	Agbasan to	Ag+basa+n+to
eat	Mangan to/aglamot to	Mangan+to/ag+lamot +to	Mangan to	Mangan+to
sing	Agkansiyon to	Ag+kansiyon+to	Agkantan to	Ag+kanta+n+to
practic e	Agensayon to	Ag+ensayo+n+to	Agpraktis to	Ag+praktis+to
dance	Agsayandek to	Ag+sayandek+to	Agsalan to	Ag+sala + n+to
talk	Sumaritan to	S+um+arita+n+to	Sumaon to/agsaritan to	S+um+ao+n+to/ag+sari ta+n+to
Teach	Agsurun to	Ag+suru+n+to	Agsurun to	Ag+suru+n+to

It is glanced in the table that the structure of the future tense of verb is prefix+rootword of the verb+ n+to. This structure is true to both groups, the genuine Ilokano group and the Ilokanos of Tabuk group. When the root word ends with a vowel, "n" is connected after the vowel then the word "to".

5. How do you term the following in your own native tongue? Anya ti tawag na kanyayu dagiti sumaganad?

Terms	Translation	
	Genuine Ilocano	Tabukenos

1. ability	kababalin	kabaelan
2. animals	dingwen	ayup
3. clothes	Pagan-anay	lupot
4. creek	payas	Wa-ig
5. eat	Mangan/lamot	mangan
6. flower	sabong	sabong
7. hole	lussok	Abut
8. slippers	ismagel	Tsinelas/sinelas/step-in
9. teacher	mannursuro	Maestro/maestra
10. trousers	karsonselyo	brip

Regarding the translations of the ten words stated in the table, the two group of respondents have their own terminologies; like the word ability, it is translated as kababalin for the genuine Ilokano group while kabaelan for the Ilokanos of Tabuk group. To the translation of these root words, there are words used by the two group of respondents that are different from each other. They have different terminologies but when it comes to meaning, they are the same. This result is through the influence of the other dialects spoken in the community. Like the Ilokanos of Tabuk group, their terminologies are different form the translation of words used by the genuine Ilokanos. This is probably through the influence by the lowlanders who came to Tabuk like the Igurots, Ytawis, Ybanag, Ykalinga and other ethnic groups.

6. How do you term the following expressions? Anya ti awag na kanya yu dagitoy a balbalikas?

Expressions	**Translation**	
	Genuine Ilocano	**Tabukenos**
1. I'll be going now?	innakun	mapanakun
2. I'll do it.	asikaswek	aramidek
3. When?	Kaano?	Kaano?
4. Come inside.	Sumrek ka/kayo	sumrek

5. I'm going home.	agawidak	agawidak
6. I'm going to your place.	Umayak pumasyar dita lugar yo	Umayak dita yan yu
7. I am going there.	Mapanak ijay	Apanak ijay
8. Never mind.	Bay-amon	Bay-amon
9. What is his name?	Anat nagan na?	Anya nagan na?
10. What is this?	Ana daytoy?	Anya daytoy?

On the expressions used by the group of respondents, they mean the same but they utter very differently but there are also cases where in the expressions used are uttered the same.

7. How do you translate the following numbers ? Anya awag yu kadagitoy a numero?

Numbers	Translation	
	Genuine Ilocano	Tabukenos
1. one	maysa	maysa
2. two	duwa	duwa
3. three	tallo	tallo
4. four	uppat	uppat
5. five	lima	lima
6. six	innem	innem
7. seven	pito	pito
8. eight	walo	walo
9. nine	siam	siam
10. ten	sangapulo	sangapulo

Regarding number translations or countings, both the Genuine Ilokanos and the Ilokanos of Tabuk group have the same expressions. They used these count numbers the same.

8. How do you term the body parts ? Anya ti awag yu iti parte ti bagi?

Body Parts	Translation	
	Genuine Ilocano	Tabukenos

1. arm	takyag	braso
2. back	likod	likod
3. body	bagi	bagi
4. bone	tulang	tulang
5. elbow	siko	siko
6. eye	mata	mata
7. knee	tumeng	tumeng
8. heart	puso	puso
9. forehead	muging	kitong
10. feet	saka	saka

Regarding the body parts, the two groups of respondents have similar terminologies. They have different terminologies only to “arm” and “forehead”.

9. How do you term the members of the family? Anya awag yu ti miembro ti pamilya?

Terms about Family	Translation	
	Genuine Ilocano	Tabukenos
1. father	tatang	ama
2. mother	nanang	Ina
3. cousin	kasinsin	kasinsin
4. niece/nephew	kaanakan	kaanakan
5. relative	kabagyan	Kabagyan
6. friend	pagayam	gayyem
7. brother –in-law	bayaw	bayaw
8. parent –in-law	katugangan	katugangan
9. child	ubing	ubing
10. sibling	kabagis	kabsat

Regarding the addresses of the members of the family, the two groups have different terminologies on father, mother, and friend but generally, they have the same terminologies; however, the words they used differently have the same meanings.

10. Translate the following sentences in your own dialect. Ibaga iti pagsasao yu dagiti sumaganad nga linya.

Sentences	Translation	
	Genuine Ilocano	**Tabukenos**
The children are playing.	Agay-ayam dagiti ubbing.	Agay-ayam dagiti ubbing.
I am hungry.	Nabisinak	Nabisinak
I will go home tomorrow.	Agawidak nu bigat	Agawidnak nu bigat
My head is aching.	Agsaksakit toy ulok.	Agsaksakit ti ulok
I forgot my packed lunch.	Nalipatak jay balon ko	Nalipatak jay balon ko.
The teachers are having a meeting.	Madama ti taripnong dagijay mannursuro.	Madama ti taripnong dagijay mannursuro.
The candidates are campaigning.	Agkamkampanya dagijay papili.	Agkankanta dagijaay kandidatos.
The ladies smile sweetly.	Nadungngo ti isem dagijay babbalasang.	Nagmamayat ti isem dagjay babbalasang.
I will get absent tomorrow.	Aglanganak nu bigat.	Agabsentnak nu bigat
He deposited his money in the bank.	Imbangko na jay kwarta na.	Indulin na jay bangko jay kwarta na.

If we are to look at the translations of the sentences above, not all the respondents have the same translations like the sentence “I will get absent”. The Ilokanos of Tabuk group dare to use the borrowed term from English language than the local translation which is Ilocano.

Regarding the structure, the verb comes first before the subject. This structure is the same as to the structure of Filipino sentences. Verb + Subject pattern.

Conclusion

Based on the translations made by the respondents, there are words or terminologies that are commonly used and there are different translations also however, they have the same meaning. Regarding the tenses of verbs, each tense has its structure which is similar to the Filipino language structure.

Recommendations

Based on the conclusions of the study, the following recommendations are hereby endorsed: Maintain the structure of the Ilocano language sentences and other translations, it is recommended that the original translations of every word, expression, or sentence should be adopted. Since Mother tongue has been taught in the school because of the K-12 curriculum, teachers who are handling this subject (Ilocano) should emphasize the correct structure of sentences and translation of every expression, time, body part and the like in order to preserve its originality and uniqueness.

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EFL Thesis Writing: Revealing the Supervisor's and Supervisee's Attitudes toward the Written Feedback

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Abstract

This paper aims at exploring supervisor and supervisee attitudes concerning written feedback in thesis writing. This is a content analysis using documentation and interview to collect the data. There were four sets of thesis drafts, four thesis supervisors, and ten supervisees as the sources of the data. Attitudes concerning written feedback are seen from the manner, timing, form, function, and area. The manner in this study is defined in three channels: manual, electronic, and combination. Most supervisors provided written feedback manually even though most of them are IT-literate and young aged. Regarding the timing of providing written feedback, most supervisors preferred on the spot written feedback. That is why all supervisor-supervisees have a certain schedule for thesis supervision and thesis writing conference. The form of written feedback is the next aspect this study is concerned. It is found that comments and marks are dominantly used by the lecturers to provide written feedback. The function of written feedback was dominated by correction followed by criticism, praise, and suggestion. The area which the lecturers were concerned about most was the content followed by the form. Supervisors have positive attitudes in providing written feedback, otherwise, some disheartening written feedback is still provided. Regarding supervisee attitudes, it is found that supervisees accepted all kinds of supervisors' attitudes and treatment to them as far as they were supervised. In an inferior position, students were passive even some critical opinions should be considered for the next thesis supervision process.

Keywords*: thesis writing, written feedback, supervisor and supervisee, attitudes*

Introduction

L2 students probably need further assistance with thesis writing; otherwise, they should have more competence in English grammar and usage than native speakers (Murray, 2006). Hence, the language, cultural, and educational backgrounds these students convey to the writing task and the problems that they experience in thesis writing merit watchful consideration (Dong, 1998; Hassan et al., 2020). That is why, unlike L1 students who are fairly independent requesting for help when it is needed, in Indonesia, students regularly and intensively meet the supervisor to receive support and sufficient direction to enable them to succeed in his/her studies from the beginning until the end of the thesis writing process. In the institution where the study was conducted, for example, each student is supervised by two supervisors and the frequency of supervision in the completion of the thesis writing is also determined: eight meetings to complete the proposal and ten times to complete the research report (Widodo et al., 2017). L2 students may require more supervision than others, perhaps for more than just the language differences, since there are other layers of cultural differences that create specific challenges (Murray, 2006; Budiharso & Arbain, 2019). Thus, they need continuous feedback from the supervisor hence feedback is an important aspect of the functions as praise, criticism, and suggestions in the process of writing a thesis (Hyland & Hyland, 2001; Setyawan et al., 2020).

Generally, feedback played a formative role in students' broader socialization and contributed to the co-construction of academic identities and (in) access to preferred discourse practices in their departments and disciplines (Anderson, 2020). In thesis writing completion, feedback is considered as one of the indicators of whether supervision is good (Ferris, 1997:314). More specifically, as one particular kind of assessment method commonly used in language classrooms (Chong, 2018; Sujito et al., 2019), written feedback is considered as one of the media of communication between supervisor and student, particularly, in writing (Hyland, 2009). That is why written feedback is valued as an important aspect of the students' writing process (Kumar & Stracke, 2007). In other words, feedback from supervisors not only guards and guides the progress of researching and writing up a thesis, but it also helps the student to become an independent academic researcher so they can affiliate their research writing on national or international journals to engage with writers' community.

Sutanto (2015) stated that different types of feedback and the way of the feedback that is provided determine the quality of students' responses to the feedback. The responses of the students to the quality of the contents enhance the progress of the students' thesis writing, which is displayed in the revised drafts of students' thesis. The deeper feedback on the contents and organization indicates the better responses of students in revising the content quality of the thesis. Besides, the supervisors have different abilities in the feedback strategies and that contributes to the development of students' thesis. Sutanto (2015: 131) recommended investigating the perception of supervisors to provide feedback for future research. This recommendation is important to be followed up because supervisors' perception means an awareness of their written feedback and how written feedback is used. This awareness, hopefully, will affect supervisors' passion for providing meaningful and motivating written feedback. Furthermore, to achieve a deeper and balance finding, students' perception is also investigated in this study.

Some studies dealing with the perception of written feedback resulted in different findings (Ferguson 2011; Poulos & Mahoney 2008, Carless 2006; Deveci, 2019). These diverse findings of previous studies have revealed that students' views should not be treated alone, isolated from their context, especially their teachers' beliefs, and practices. Hedgcock and Lefkowitz (1996) put forward those students' response patterns could reflect their instructors' practices in the writing classes. Written feedback reinforces the points made through explicit teaching and any research of written teacher feedback should consider the connections and interactions between teachers, students, texts, and writing purposes (Goldstein, 2001: 86; Hyland & Hyland, 2006: 213).

Leaph (2011) examines the perceptions about the effectiveness of oral (OF) and written (WF) feedback on the writing of thirty-seven Cambodian English-major students at the National University of Management (NUM). Results indicate that both groups equally delivered higher performance on the holistic assessment of writing, although the OF group felt more oriented towards oral feedback than the WF group felt towards written feedback. Whereas the OF group improved in both the micro-aspects (i.e. grammar, vocabulary, and mechanics & spelling) and the macro-aspects (i.e. content and organization), the WF group produced a higher quality of writing only in language and organization. Furthermore, Hajri & Al-Mahrooqi (2013) researched student perceptions and preferences around instructors' feedback. They discovered the type of written corrective feedback students liked best. The study revealed that students agreed on a preference for comprehensible, selective, positive-sounding, and grammatically-focused feedback. Consequently, it is suggested that teachers adjust their correction practices to suit students' immediate needs, taking into consideration the fact that they are EFL learners of English.

Feedback is the heart of the learning experience in thesis writing (Sutanto, 2015) and the importance of written feedback is widely known by feedback providers. However, the way they are giving written feedback is sometimes confusing and disheartening for students (Hyland & Hyland, 2001: 208). That is why researching written feedback needs to be explored due to its necessity hence some students considered written feedback as to their lifelong learning and the fact that they saved all their marked papers for future referrals for their professional practice (Ghazal, 2014: 25). Moreover, what students do with feedback is as important as the quality and conditions of delivery of the feedback; they need to take responsibility and act on the given feedback. Previous studies resulted that the written feedback role is equally important for both L1 and L2 thesis students, even though L2 students may sometimes require feedback in areas that L1 students do not require (Bitchener; Basturkmen; East, 2010; Robillos & Phantharakphong, 2020). In other words, supervisors give different treatment to L1 and L2 students; they are less critical to those L2 students. Bitchener, Basturkmen, East, and Meyer (2011) in their further study suggest investigating the specific types of written feedback supervisors give to the students hence little attention has been given to this issue. Thus, this study seeks thesis supervisors’ and supervisees’ attitudes in written feedback.

Method

This is qualitative research especially content analysis. The content analysis focuses on the meaning reflected in the characteristics of materials. Content or document analysis is a research method applied to written or visual materials to identify specified characteristics of the material. The materials that were discussed in this study were the documents of the process and product in thesis drafts and interviews with the participants: four lecturers (as thesis supervisors). Documentation within four sets of thesis draft was the main instrument which was used to be analyzed to find the qualitative and quantitative data while the interview was used to explore quantitative data. Three instruments were used in this research: researchers, filed notes, and interview guidelines. To answer the research question, the data obtained from documents were classified based on the categories: the manner, the timing, the form, the function, and the area of written feedback. After classifying all data taken from documents, it was followed by interviews with the participants; lecturers, and students. This was done to explore further how and why the participants provide certainly written feedback.

Respondents

In selecting the participants, purposeful sampling was used for rich information taken from carefully chosen participants. Four lecturers (two lecturers as supervisor one and two as supervisor two) were selected. In this institution, supervisor one has responsibility for supervising students' thesis content while supervisor two supervises language, mechanism, and organization. This consideration of selection was taken to see deeper how lecturers provide written feedback on students' thesis and the attempt to establish the objectivity of the research findings. Besides technical and functional consideration, the selection of the lecturers was also based on lecturers' characteristics and professionalism in providing written feedback. Lecturers who are cooperative and have a willingness in providing written feedback were chosen. It is important because if it is not taken into account, the data, perhaps could not be gathered as lecturers' objection in providing written feedback. Furthermore, lecturers who are open-minded and welcome to be invited to discuss the finding were also considered, in case, there were some data which needed to confirm. Next, those four lecturers were named as L1, L2. L3, L4. Besides, ten students were also chosen as the respondents to see their opinion towards lecturers' attitudes in providing written feedback. The consideration made in choosing these ten students is: each student had different supervisors, the ten students are the ones who had the thesis drafts taken as the data. This is because the process and progress made by the students could be traced easily. Moreover, students' opinion towards the written feedback given by the supervisors could be more accurate than that of who were not involved.

Data analysis

The research design started by reviewing the theories related to the study of the ways written feedback was provided in thesis drafts. The theories then were used to develop questions and to design thesis assessment rubrics. The questions were used to collect the data in the form of an interview. The data were put in tables based on themes and codes. The codes were applied to extract text and interpret the data. For analyzing how written feedback is provided by the lecturers, some theories supporting the studies should be used. The theories from Hyland (2010) are used to analyze the manner, Hyland & Hyland (2011) is used to analyze the functions of written feedback, Bitchener, et al. (2011) to analyze the area of written feedback, Mack (2009) to analyze the form of written feedback, and to analyze the timing, the theory from Zhang, Zhang, and Ma (2010) is used. Lecturers' attitudes were defined as the manner, the timing, the form, the function, and the area. There were two kinds of data; qualitative and quantitative. Qualitative data were found from interviews and documentation while quantitative was found from the total numbers and percentage taken from the frequency of appearance of each aspect from the documents. These two kinds of data were presented to make the finding more obvious.

Results

This study aims to find out the attitudes of thesis supervisors and supervisees concerning written feedback in the thesis writing process. The attitudes are defined as the manner, the timing, the form, the function, and the area of written feedback provided by the supervisors to supervisees' thesis drafts.

The Manner

The manner of providing written feedback in thesis writing supervision between lecturers and students was divided into three channels: manual, electronic, and combination (Hyland, 2010). Manual in this case means students and lecturer met at a certain time consulting the thesis proposal. Electronic means students and lecturers did supervision through email or students transferred the soft file instead of printed paper. While the combination referred to supervision by both manual and electronic.

Most lecturers like handwritten feedback because it is simple but helpful. The reasons why lecturers gave manual written feedback are found from the interview. There were four lecturers interviewed (L1, L2, L3, L4). From the interview, it was identified that two lecturers (L1 and L4) combined manual and electronic supervision while the other two lecturers (L2 and L3) provided written feedback manually.

The reasons why lecturers preferred to provide feedback manually even though all of them are IT literate and young aged is because thesis supervision was already in a schedule which was discussed at the first meeting among lecturer and students. Moreover, the regulation to fulfill the numbers of meeting before and after the proposal leads them to meet students face to face regularly because the meetings were recorded in the consultation sheet. He once gave electronic feedback when the student could not print out the file while the student ensured that only a small part needed to check (L1). The next statements come from L2 who combined electronic and manual written feedback. He stated that he provided manual written feedback mostly to students than electronic. He gave electronic feedback in a very special case for example the student was not able to revise or edit on his/her own without assistance while the time to accomplish the thesis was not that long. The need for the students was the basic consideration to provide electronic feedback. L3 said that manual written feedback was simple. Students showed the draft, the lecturer checked, commented while wrote the feedback on the draft, question-answer session if possible, and then students just could start to revise. L4 reported that she did not like providing written feedback electronically because it seems weird to see students come for thesis supervision by bringing the laptop on or even flash disc. She added that some of her colleagues have already provided E-written feedback it does not become culture yet in her institution and it should change as information technology runs fast.

The Timing

Supervision meeting between student and lecturer was divided into two categories; direct (conference) and indirect (through the paper). Direct supervision was done when the students met the lecturer by schedule or appointment consulting the draft students proposed individually or in a group. While indirect supervision was done when the student/s collected the drafts to be corrected or commented on by the lecturer and returned in some days. Most lecturers did both direct and indirect supervision while the frequency was different from one another. Students, on the other side, preferred direct supervision to consult their thesis so they know the progress, the correction, and the revision they should do. Moreover, they could ask things they did not understand or doubt even somehow they got nervous whenever they were about to see the lecturer.

Related to the thesis supervision meeting, lecturers had varied ways in the timing of giving written feedback; immediate and delayed (Zhang, Zhang, and Ma, 2010). Immediate means lecturer and students did conference during the consultation. They met at a certain time to talk about the thesis draft, lecturer commented on the draft while writing feedback on the draft. The student did the same thing while listening to the comment, she/he wrote feedback from the lecturer. On the other way around, delayed means that written feedback was given after the students submitted the drafts, wait for some days while the lecturer checked the draft. Written feedback was given in drafts checking and students got the checked drafts after some days. There were two ways in returning the checked draft, the lecturer simply put the drafts on his/her table and instructed students to take their drafts or students met the lecturer to discuss the drafts.

Data shows the timing of supervision was done regularly. Supervision is always followed by written feedback. It is confirmed that there is no case in thesis consultation students got no written feedback in their drafts even though it is followed by conferencing. Dealing with the frequency of supervision, thesis consultation sheets reported that each student got six up to twelve times a meeting before the proposal seminar and six up to eight times before the thesis examination. Written feedback was given in regular consultation, seminar proposal, another regular consultation heading to thesis examination, and in thesis examination as the final revision before thesis submission. On the other side, the interview resulted that three lecturers (L2, L3, L4) provided written feedback the same all the way through the process. L1 preferred to provide written feedback in the first draft.

The Form

The form of written feedback was analyzed based on Mack's (2009) study those are comment, error correction, and question. Hence error correction and question can be categorized as a comment, the form of written feedback is defined in two; comment and mark. A comment is any word, phrase, or sentence produced by the lecturers to inform students to revise or edit the drafts. It is found that the numbers between comments and forms are similar. 46 comments and 47 marks were provided on four sets of students' thesis drafts.

Table 1: The Form of Written Feedback in Thesis Writing Process

Documents / **Form**	**Comments**	**Marks**	**Total**
Proposal Writing Process	14	17	31
Seminar Proposal Drafts	12	7	19
Thesis Examination Drafts	11	23	34
Evaluation Sheets	9	0	9
Total	46 (49.5%)	47(50.5%)	93

Table 1 shows the use of comment was found in all stages of thesis writing mostly in seminar proposal drafts. Error corrections were found in the proposal writing process and thesis examination drafts, the question was found in proposal writing only, while marks as the dominant form of written feedback were found in all stages of thesis writing except in the evaluation sheet. It is reasonable hence in the evaluation sheet lecturers could only provide comments as the general feedback after the thesis examination.

Why comments were mostly found in the seminar proposal is because, in this phase, students still needed guidance in changing the content even the topic needed further revision. While the marks were mostly found in thesis examination drafts because in thesis examination, the content was considered fixed and students’ need was mostly editing that can be covered through the use of marks as written feedbacks. The comment was given after the student submitted the drafts and it was checked by the lecturer. This kind of written communication was generally found in thesis writing supervision done in face to face consultation. The students, in this case, accepted all forms of written feedback provided by the lecturers no matter what because written feedback was considered meaningful for them. Some students complained about unclearly written feedback so they did not understand what the lecturer meant, some had to confirm with the lecturer orally to crosscheck their understanding of the written feedback, and some just leave the drafts like before as they did not know what to do. Even though students had different reactions after they got written feedback but they appreciated any kind of written feedback.

The statement “I don't appreciate marks without the text in feedback (such as underlined sentences, circle around a word, question mark, etc.) appeared in the interview with students as it is known that written feedback in the form of marks sometimes needs further explanation and confirmation. It can be said that marks are not effective written feedback dealing with students' uptake. Meanwhile, in the documents, marks reached the top form of written feedback. Otherwise, students prefer written feedback in the form of comments hence it is easier to understand and revise.

Another thing that students disagreed with is written feedback which tried to change their direction and writing style, which was hard, contradictory, and given because of personal preference. In a further interview it is found that in some cases, lecturers drove students' ideas or writing styles. Students did not say that it was wrong yet difficult to cope. In different cases, students were open to accepting all feedbacks from the lecturer when they were at the beginning of the writing process. The problem came when the instruction of changing the direction or idea was given after the proposal seminar or even in the thesis examination.

The Function

The function of written feedback was analyzed as categories found by Hyland & Hyland (2011). Of 93 written feedback found, 49 corrections, 32 criticisms, 8 suggestions, and 4 praises. Correction is mostly found in the thesis examination draft, criticism is mostly found in the process of writing a proposal, the suggestion was mostly found in the evaluation sheet, while praise was mostly found in the process of writing a proposal.

Table 2: The Function of Written Feedback in Thesis Writing

Documents / Function	Correction	Criticism	Suggestion	Praise	Total
Proposal Writing Process	17	10	0	3	30
Seminar Proposal Drafts	7	6	0	1	14
Thesis Examination Drafts	25	9	6	0	40
Evaluation Sheets	0	7	2	0	9
Total	49 (52.7%)	32 (34.4%)	8 (0.45%)	4 (0.21%)	93

Table 2 shows that the function of written feedback was mostly for correction (52.7%) followed by criticism (34.4%), praise (0.43%), and suggestion (0.21%). The examples of each function are shown below. It is found that in the form of written feedback, six are error corrections. While the function, most written feedbacks function as a correction. The frequency of correction was mostly found in the drafts of the proposal writing process and thesis examination. It makes sense hence in those two processes students need the draft in the correct version. Moreover, in the thesis examination draft, the lecturer not only criticized but also corrected students' drafts.

Criticism is found in all documents. Criticism range from how the lecturer asked students to think of what they had written, why they wrote a certain topic, and pay attention to the spot which the lecturer disagreed with. To show how the written feedback function in students' thesis drafts, below are the examples of each function. A suggestion that was characterized as optional was found in the thesis examination draft and evaluation sheet. Different from correction or criticism which had to be revised, the suggestion had a lower tone. Students could revise or not depend on the time limitation, the competence, and the will of the student. The suggestion led students to a better thesis draft but if it was not done, it did not affect much the previous thesis production. Praise, on the other hand, had fewer numbers than other functions. The praise which aimed at motivating students with a positive comment was not found in this study. The praise, in this study, was in the form of a mark of a checklist (√) to show the lecturer's appreciation and acceptance of certain points.

As exposed in Table 2, written feedbacks functioning as correction and criticism were prevailing. There are some possible motives for why it occurred. First, it was the first time for students to write a thesis so they made a lot of mistakes and needed strict guidance in producing academic writing. Second, written feedback can be considered as media to learn and progress in writing. Third, the lecturer had a high standard of thesis writing style and topic.

Seen from students' point of view, negative written feedback was given because supervisors had high expectations and students thought when lecturers gave grammar correction they were not interested in the content or not knowledgeable about the content topic of the thesis. It means students agreed that lecturers had high expectations when they provided negative written feedback, and negative perception of lecturers' comments on grammar, sentence structure, format, etc. while ignoring the content. All participants revised their thesis to some degree after receiving written feedback which means no matter the revision consideration they took, but they still did the instruction from the supervisor. This means that not all participants are mentally ready in receiving negative written feedback. These three students could feel uncomfortable in receiving negative written feedback and possibly affected their emotions and mood in writing the thesis even though temporary. This indicates that written feedback should be provided fairly.

The Area

The area of written feedback in the thesis proposal was classified as content, linguistic accuracy and appropriateness, requirements, and organization (Bitchener, 2011). There are 95 written feedbacks found in the process of thesis writing started from writing proposals, proposal seminars, thesis examination, and evaluation sheets. The area which the lecturers concerned most was the content (55) and form (38).

Table 3: The Area of Written Feedback in Thesis Writing

Documents / Area	Content	Form	Total
Proposal Writing Process	20	11	31
Seminar Proposal Drafts	14	5	19
Thesis Examination Drafts	17	17	34
Evaluation Sheets	4	5	9
Total	55 (59%)	38 (41%)	93

The area of written feedback as shown in table 3 indicates lecturers paid attention more to the content than form. The content was the most aspect lecturer was concerned about. It reached 62.38% which put the content as the most important thing to focus on. Written feedback on content gradually decreases in the stages of thesis writing. Written feedback on content was mostly found in proposal writing and appeared less in the thesis examination draft. The same case happens to written feedback on linguistic accuracy and appropriateness. It appears in three kinds of thesis drafts: proposal, seminar proposal, and thesis draft. From the data obtained as shown in table 3, it can be drawn interesting conclusions about the area of written feedback given by lecturers. Lecturers agreed that content was prior more than other areas such as linguistic accuracy and appropriateness, requirements, and organization. In the early stages of writing a thesis, requirements, and organization were ignored by the lecturers. No written feedback was provided in this area. Those two areas were notified in the thesis examination. Content, furthermore, was still a priority to be provided in thesis examination drafts for it reached 62.3%.

Regarding students' feelings towards the form of written feedback in thesis writing, all students came to an agreement that they had a positive feeling for all feedbacks had their own importance to help students. Furthermore, seen from the document and interview, it is known that written feedback provided by lecturers had a substantial role in students' thesis writing.

Furthermore, it is shown that students intended to simply revise and edit based on the instruction but they need to ask for clarification before doing so. Similar to the finding obtained from the documents that students' uptake to written feedback is considered very good even not all students could meet the lecturers’ standard. All students said that the action of ignoring, misunderstanding, feeling unable, even deleting the point provided written feedback was experienced by them.

Discussion

In this study, written feedback is defined as information provided by the lecturers which closes the gap between students' actual performance and desired performance. Written feedbacks which were analyzed are in students' thesis drafts starting from students' regular consultation, seminar proposal draft, another draft on regular consultation heading to thesis examination, in thesis examination draft as the final revision before thesis submission, and evaluation sheet of thesis examination. Written feedback was provided by lecturers who were standing as a supervisor in thesis writing.
Dealing with the manner of written feedback provision, thesis consultation was divided into three channels: manual, electronic, and combination. There were four lecturers interviewed (L1, L2, L3, L4). From the interview, it was identified that two lecturers (L1 and L4) combined manual and electronic supervision while the other two (L2 and L3) provided written feedback manually. It can be said that most lecturers preferred the manual for providing written feedback with follow-up activity (conferencing) than electronic only. It contradicts Hyland (2010: 12) who said that the utilization of PCs and other technology has turned out to be common in instructive settings, especially in university settings, and is frequently favored by students and teachers of second language writing. Meanwhile, dealing with this issue, Salima (2006) confirmed that written feedback should be used in coordination between two sides to make students comfortable and gain some benefit to improve students writing and encourage them to take more responsibility for their learning.

Thus, as far as the learning goal is achieved, any channel can be chosen. Moreover, the use of manual written feedback found in the present study does not simply indicate that technology is not yet broadly used by the lecturers and students, for the use of technology becomes a daily need for both. It is because, as stated by Lecturer 1 in the interview, thesis supervision needs more than correcting and approving but motivational and emotional relation building between lecturers and students that can be developed easier through face to face supervision. Furthermore, as a small institution with a view number of students who are staying near the campus, students possibly come to campus regularly as well as the lecturers so manual becomes lecturers and students' preference than other channels.

Dealing with the timing of written feedback provision, it is confirmed that three lecturers (L2, L3, L4) provided written feedback the same through the process. L1 preferred to provide written feedback in the first draft. As found in the interview, lecturers provided different ways of written feedback: immediate and delayed. Immediate written feedback was done when lecturers directly gave written feedback at the time of consultation while delayed written feedback was provided by lecturers after students submitted the draft and returned after some days. Immediate written feedback is considered the most effective (Cowan, 2003). A different finding is found by Murray (2002) that no matter immediate or delayed feedback, as far as supervisors provided sufficient feedback on the students' draft within the allocated length of time is considered fine. This study finds that both immediate and delayed written feedback were treated the same by students; they revised as well as they could.

The form of written feedback is the next aspect this study is concerned. It is found that those marks are dominantly used by the lecturers to provide written feedback followed by comments, error correction, and questions. Ashwell (2000) argues that students used feedback on form more than on content. It aligns with the present study which finds most used written feedback deals with non-content aspects. Proportionally, Dong (1998) listed the aspects nonnative students need for more involvement and help from their advisors in: (1) developing ideas, (2) drawing conclusions, (3) organizing paragraphs, and (4) presenting ideas logically. Those lists show that non-native students are still weak in content but they find difficulties to use feedback related to the content.

The present study finds that written feedback is not only in the forms of comments, error correction, and question as found in Mack (2009), but also mark which is dominant. The marks found in this study cover underline, circular, question mark, and many others which have no certain meaning except an attentive word or phrase student had to revise or edit. Compared to a study conducted by Buckingham & Aktug-Ekinci (2017) who are concerned with interpreting coded feedback in writing, marks used in their study are correction codes which are forms of guided indirect, metalinguistic feedback on learner writing. Codes used for providing written feedback are generally known by teachers and students hence there is a specific sheet to correct students' writing. Their study resulted in students often found English-sourced correction codes difficult even though the use of the correction code sheet appeared to improve the quality of students' noticing in addressing the error, not yet correcting the errors. Nevertheless, the marks used in this study which have no exact meaning or purpose may drive students into difficulties. That is why, as found in the questionnaire, all students asked for clarification before revising or editing the draft, two students misunderstood the message contained in the written feedback, three students felt unable to come up with suitable revision, the other two simply deleted the offending text to avoid the issue raised, and one student ignored the written feedback when it is not important or unclear. Despite those negative reactions to written feedback, most students simply revised and edited based on the instruction.

The next aspect is the function of written feedback. The function of written feedback was dominated by correction followed by criticism, praise, and suggestion. It is found that in the form of written feedback, six are error corrections. While the function, most written feedbacks function as a correction. The frequency of correction was mostly found in the drafts of the proposal writing process and thesis examination. It makes sense hence in those two processes students need the draft in the correct version. The present research finds that praise has minimum use than that of other written functions such as correction, criticism, and suggestion. Praise was rarely found in the finding because, as found in the follow-up interview, lecturers considered that praise is not appropriate for the thesis writing context yet is suggested for lower writing subjects (Writing I, II, III, and IV). In thesis writing, criticism and suggestion are more appropriate feedback for the sake of students' revision. Imbalanced written feedback is also found in Ghazal et al. (2014) who found the tone of comments lacked a balance of praise and criticism. While different finding comes from Hyland and Hyland (2001) who found feedback providers most frequently employed praise function in their feedback. The varied finding indicates lecturers have their own consideration in providing written feedback to students for they know students’ needs and how to cater.

Two different findings were revealed concerning how to treat grammar errors in students' writing. Truscott (1996) argued that in L2 writing classes, grammar correction should be ignored since it is inefficient and harmful, while Kamler and Thomson (2014) advocate that the final copy of the dissertation must be free of grammatical and spelling errors. Different from classroom context, in thesis writing, grammar is a crucial aspect to be corrected hence no excuse for grammar errors in academic writing. The result of the present study reveals grammar error is important to correct. The timing of correcting grammar is somehow done in an orderly after the content was already fixed and approved by the lecturers who are acting as supervisor one. It is following Leki (1991) in his study that students want to have good writing with error-free writing so they expect their teachers to correct all errors in their written work. This means, even though grammar is not put as the premier object of written feedback in thesis writing supervision but it is not abandoned for error-free writing is considered important for the sake of journal publication.

Regarding the area where written feedback is provided, the present study finds that lecturers paid attention much to the content even though they did not miss the other areas such as linguistic accuracy and appropriateness, requirement, and organization. The area of written feedback in thesis writing was classified as content, linguistic accuracy and appropriateness, requirements, and organization. 95 written feedbacks were found in the process of thesis writing started from writing proposals, proposal seminars, thesis examination, and evaluation sheets. The area which the lecturers were concerned most was the content followed with linguistic accuracy and appropriateness, requirements, organization.

Bitchener et al. (2011) make an imperative point that supervisors viewed feedback as an important part of the teaching and learning dialogue they had with their students and as a way of helping students to move towards becoming independent writers in the tertiary context. Supporting the previous study's affirmation, the present study reveals written feedback was used as a tool by lecturers for guiding students to write appropriately with minimum error. As found in the interview, lecturers also concerned about students' characteristics and background; educational, psychological, and proficiency levels in providing written feedback. In the other words, lecturers treat students differently considering student's competence hence not all students can run at the same speed. To sum, both previous and present studies discover similar findings that there is lecturers' positive intention as the basis of providing written feedback for students.

From the interview, it is found that students had similar attitudes dealing with thesis supervisors' written feedback in general. Otherwise, students have a different perception of negative written feedback. Some of them disagreed with negative written feedback. One of the students does not appreciate straightforward written feedback and when it directs her to other related resources. Written feedback that is too much-changing students' direction, writing style, and which is hard to revise gets low appreciation from students. Interestingly, how affected their emotion and how hard the revision, students had no choice except revised and edited based on lecturers' instruction. It means students can put their ego away in the process of thesis writing because they realize that lecturers' written feedback is important and helpful. It is in line with Paulos and Mahoney (2018) that the impact of feedback is influenced by students' perception of their tutor, in this case, lecturer. They found that students said that feedback can be demoralizing but they did not go to discuss a particular connection between emotion and students' perception of written feedback.

The current study finds that students' emotion is related to the written feedback they received. It is found from the questionnaire asking their feeling that they feel scared, embarrassed, lose-confident, lose-motivation, even give up when they received critical/ negative written feedback. Not all students feel those feelings but all participants confirmed that critical/ negative written feedback affected them emotionally. This finding supports Ferguson (2011) especially in terms of the feel of loss-confident. From the interview, it is found that helpful written feedback is when the instruction from the supervisor is clear. This finding confirmed Ferguson (2011) who found that students wanted personalized feedback with clear guidance on how to improve their work. The results show that most written feedback was used by the students but it does not indicate written feedback is clear and understandable, some factors like oral feedback and clarification before revising are assumed as the other aspects of written feedback is mostly used by the students.

Regarding the area/s which are referred to in items more important and helpful for students, students stated that they needed all aspects content (e.g. range and depth of knowledge, accuracy, completeness, and relevance) and form (requirements/expectations of different parts/chapters of a thesis, organization/structure of material writing coherence and cohesion, linguistic accuracy). Students thought that linguistic accuracy, organization, writing coherence were important because in thesis writing students should make a good and systematic organization for each chapter. The content was considered the most important aspect because students must understand what she/he writes in the thesis.

This present study's finding is in line with Cohen, 1987; Ferris, 1995; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1996; Hyland, 1998; Leki, 1991 who found some learners paid the most attention to almost all aspects of their writing, some paid more attention to form, and some paid more attention to content Second, students' views about the usefulness of teacher feedback are mixed. Most students found teacher feedback useful (Ferris, 1995; Saito, 1994). Some students found feedback on errors more useful than feedback on content (Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1996; Saito, 1994). While students in Leki's (1991) study profited little from error corrections, and students in Cohen's (1991) study reported to benefit most from comments on the organization. Third, students' preferences for feedback have also been found to vary according to writing contexts. Some studies suggested that students want teachers to comment on form as well as on content (Cohen & Cavalcanti, 1990; Leki, 1991; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1996). Some students preferred more comments on the form (Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1996).

The findings of EFL students' preferences regarding feedback do support those of Hedgcock and Lefkowitz (1996), in which data of questionnaires indicated that EFL students were concerned about content, rhetorical soundness as well as linguistic accuracy. Moreover, the students' preference for more detailed, specific, and clear feedback is similar to that of the students in Elwood and Bode's (2014) study. Compared together, the perceptions of the lecturer are slightly different from those of students. For the focus of feedback, the teacher thought she had focused on the organization, while the students and the actual feedback showed that feedback on the organization was not much. For the types of feedback students preferred, the teacher assumed that the students would like her personal reader response to the content of the writing, while the students expected to receive feedback on the organization most. The findings of the present study also support what Hedgcock and Lefkowitz (1996) revealed in their study, that students frequently operate on principles and assumptions that may not match those of their lecturers.

The present study has similar suggestions with previous studies that revision quality may correlate with feedback intake which depends on learner-focus and feedback quality (Leaph, 2011), and providing feedback that is favorable and, hence, more comprehensible to students, is highly recommended (Hajri & Al-Mahrooqi, 2013).

Conclusion

It is found that supervisors had positive attitudes in providing written feedback but they did not realize how important their role in students' thesis writing so some disheartening written feedback was still provided. Moreover, all students had a positive appreciation for written feedback in general but negative feelings in some aspects especially the use of marks and minimum psychological consideration.

Pedagogical Implication

Compared to simply giving grades, feedback positively influenced motivation and achievement (Koenka et al., 2019) hence feedback is a crucial element in helping students identify gaps and assess their learning progress (Cavalcanti, 2020). Sutanto (2015) yielded that feedback helps write development, on the other hand, the communication between students-supervisor contributed to students' stress in thesis writing. Thus, providing effective written feedback in thesis writing is challenging. The results of the present study can be used by the supervisors to reexamine the quality of feedback they give to students. Concerning this issue, supervisors should get training in (a) providing written feedback strategies, (b) explaining those strategies to their students, and (c) helping students learn to revise and holding them accountable for considering feedback they have received in doing so (Ferris, 1997). Based on the finding, it is suggested to the faculty to embed this matter into regulation because effective written feedback will be truly operative when it is held by the faculty level. Furthermore, for an educational institution, it is to address written feedback as a whole issue, as a departure point for discussions in the teaching faculty, as it only is truly effective when embedded in a whole institution policy which is constantly applied. The result of the study also enriches the supervisors any issues dealing with written feedback. Hopefully, by knowing different kinds of written feedback, the supervisors can consider what written feedback they should use before giving. On the other hand, students who are going to write a thesis will know earlier how the supervisor gives written feedback on thesis writing so mental readiness will help them to face the thesis writing process.

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Communicative Strategies and Linguistic Competence of ESL Learners

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Abstract

The study was conducted to investigate the common communicative strategies used by the third year BSED students of Kalinga State University. Moreover, it also studied the students' level of linguistic competence. It also sought to study whether there is significant relationship between the scores of the students' communicative strategies and their level of linguistic competence.

The respondents of the study were the third year BSED students of Kalinga State University majoring in Mathematics, Social Science, Biological Science, Filipino and English. There were 39 respondents in the study. Data were drawn through the use of

questionnaire and a standardized test. The data were analyzed through mean, frequency count t-test and Pearson Product moment correlation coefficient.

Based on the analysis of the data, it was revealed that common communicative strategies were used by the students from different course majors. Moreover, the respondents frequently used communicative strategies. It was also discovered that there are differences on the communicative strategies used by the students. Furthermore, findings also revealed that the level of linguistic competence of the students is described as very incompetent and that there is a significant relationship between the communicative strategies used by the students and their level of linguistic competence.

Introduction

Language, according to Nath (2010), is the vehicle of discretion, means the peculiar mode to transfer, transmit the intended message to the receiver. Everyone as human beings make utilizes it. Language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions, and desire by means of systems of voluntary produced symbols.

Oxford (2003) in her paper point out that "Language learning styles and strategies are among the main factors that help determine how –and how well –our students learn a second or foreign language. A second language is a language studied in a setting where that language is the main vehicle of everyday communication and where abundant input exists in that language. A foreign language is a language studied in an environment where it is not the primary vehicle for daily interaction and where input in that language is restricted. "

The English language is commonly referred to as the universal language, for it is used by the majority of the world's population in communication. Most countries around the world identify English as their national language or second language in order to meet the standards and demands of the majority. Philippines, has integrated the use of the English language in the educational system, urging educators to use the language in instruction in order to expose the students in the language and gradually develop their English proficiency.

In the study of Harmer (2009) he argued that while “English is learnt and taught in many different contexts and in many class arrangement” the reasons of learning English vary significantly to learners of all age groups across the world. Many research findings indicate that there are many factors thwarting students from learning English effectively. Those factors range from class sizes, learning and teaching resources, learning and teaching practices, motivations, and students' education background.

Strategies are plans of actions to achieve a long-term goal. The concept of learning strategies is a more general term than that of study skills used in the research studies and related to the foreign language teaching. The origin of the word strategy is to be found in the Greek word “ strategia” which means “generalship” (where “stratos” means “army” and “ago” means “leading”).

Many researchers have defined the concept of learning strategies from different points of view. Language learning strategies can be defined as choices the learners consciously make to manage their learning. Popescu and Vida (2014) in their paper say that the definition clearly expresses the learning strategies are actions assumed by the learner. His role in the process of learning is of maximum importance. The learner becomes responsible of the strategies used, of the concrete activities practiced, in the learning situations, and of the risks taking to transfer the learning strategies to new situations with other learning tasks.

In the study of Abdulrahman and Basalama (2020) it reveals that CPP can be an effective program for cross cultural understanding as well as develop students’ intercultural competence. Finding also indicates the importance of building a sense of learning community and opportunity for students to exchange their views with speakers of the target language. Despite challenges encountered during the project, students are reported enjoy their new intercultural experience and have fun with their virtual English learning environment.

Communicative Strategies play a very significant role in communication. They serve as a means for communicators—students in this regard, to somehow express themselves in the target language. These strategies are those techniques students use when they try to communicate in the target language and find that the desired language characteristic they want to say is unavailable. To make the communication going, students resort to using different communicative strategies.

Syarifudin (2019) explored verbal and nonverbal compensatory communication strategies (CCSs) employed by EFL students both in encoding of message (speakers) and in decoding of message (listeners) to surmount communication problems in taking turns talking of an English speaking class. Taking turns talking is one way of practicing and learning of speaking in order to habituate and familiarize students on spoken English. Students circulate the message in process of spoken communication are both as message productive and message receptive who convey and receive the message in taking turns talking. The research findings showed that there were ten verbal CCSs employed by speakers, including approximation, word coinage, circumlocution, language switch, appeal for assistance, paraphrase, self-correction, comprehension check, and self-repetition. Meanwhile, nonverbal CCSs employed by speakers consisted of six strategies comprising smiling, head nodding, head shaking, hand moving, thumb up, and drawing something. Furthermore, on students' strategies to deal with communication problems encountered by listeners were found seven verbal CCSs, including language switch, appeal for assistance, asking the speaker for clarification, asking the speaker for repetition, asking the speaker to add language, guessing the speaker's message, and specifying the speaker's message. Seven nonverbal strategies were found, consisting of smiling, gazing towards the speaker, head nodding, head shaking, hand moving, forward position

Lingan (2019) in her study reveals that highly significant difference is noted only when prospective teachers' communicative competence is compared in terms of major. English majors obtained the highest average in overall score that categorized them as Competent Users of English followed by Mathematics and Physical Science majors who were categorized as Fair Users of English. The lowest average in overall score is obtained by the Filipino majors but still under the category of Fair Users of English.

In the communication process, students experience language difficulties, and to be able to still say what they intend to deliver; they change or reduce the content of the message they wish to convey. They also use alternative terms, exemplifying the target words, word- coinage, and even using non- linguistic means such as gestures, mimes, facial expression and sound imitation. Thus, employing or using communicative strategies in an English centered communication is important.

Therefore, this study aimed to identify the different Communicative Strategies used by the students, specifically the Bachelor of Secondary Education, Non- English Majors, which are Filipino, Mathematics, Biological Science and Social Science, in communicating with others using the English language. It targets to determine the Communicative Strategies employed by the respondents and help the teachers to develop the Communicative Strategies in classroom teaching.

Statement of the Problem

This study aimed at identifying the common Communicative Strategies used by the students in communicating using the English language and their level of Linguistic competence. Specifically, it attempted to answer the following questions:

1. What is/are the common Communicative Strategy/ies (CS) used by the Teacher Education students?
   a. What is/are the common communicative strategies used by the Mathematics major Students?
   b. What is/are the common communicative strategies used by the Social Science major Students?
   c. What is/are the common communicative strategies used by the Biological Science major students?
   d. What is/are the common communicative strategies used by the Filipino major students?
   e. What is/are the common communicative strategies used by the English major Students?
2. What are the differences of the communicative strategies used by the students of different majors?
3. What is the level of linguistic competence of the student of different majors?
4. What is the significant relationship of Communicative strategies used by the student and their level of linguistic competence?

Methodology

This study was conducted in the College of Teacher Education, Kalinga State University and utilized the descriptive method of research to find out what communicative strategies were used by the students in the College of Teacher Education, in Kalinga State University. It also used correlation research method to find if there was significant relationship between the scores on the common communicative strategies and the level of linguistic competence of the students.

The College of Teacher Education students served as the respondents of this study. Descriptive statistics such as frequency, weighted mean and rank were used to identify the distribution of the respondents.

Instrumentation

A questionnaire was used as the main instrument in gathering the needed data for the study. The second part of the structured survey questionnaire dealt on the communicative strategies used by the different course majors. The study utilized the communicative strategies questionnaire developed by Faerch and Kasper (1983).

The researcher pre-tested her questionnaire to 30 third year AB English Language students. The computed Spearman Rho gave a high correlation of .91. Some statements from the questionnaire were modified to contextualize the present study.

Part 3 of the questionnaire dealt on the respondents' level of linguistic competence. The researcher adapted the Standardized Communicative Competence Test from the study of Danao (1985).

Data gathering

The questionnaires were distributed to the third year students from different course majors. The researcher personally administered the distribution of the questionnaires. The researcher first explained thoroughly the directions before giving the students ample time to answer the questionnaire

Data analysis

Through detailed analysis of the students' responses to the given questionnaire, the study reached sound conclusions.

To determine the results of the study, the data was tabulated, analyzed, and interpreted. Frequency, weighted mean and ranking were used. The over-all weighted mean of the clustered statements was interpreted using the scale below

Mean Range	**Descriptive Scale**
4.1- 5.0	Always Used
3.1- 4.0	Frequently Used
2.1- 3.0	Sometimes Used
1.1- 2.0	Seldom Used
0.1- 1.0	Never Used

To describe the level of linguistic competence of the students, the following scale was used:

Score Interval	Descriptive Scale
27 - 30	Very Competent
23 - 26	Competent
19 - 22	Fairly Competent
15 - 18	Moderately Competent
14 Below	Very Incompetent

The Pearson-product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to determine the relationship between the students' communicative strategies and their level of linguistic competence.

To describe the computed correlation coefficient, the following criterion was used:

Correlation	Relationship
.80 - 1.00	Very High
.60 - .79	High
.40 - .59	Moderate

.20 - .30	Low
.00 - .19	Negligible

Results and Discussion

This section presents an analysis of the data gathered in response to the questions posed in the study.

Table 2 presents the strategies used by the third year Bachelor of Science in Education Students of Kalinga State University.

Table 2. Communicative Strategies Used by the Third Year BSED students

Communicative Strategies	Weighted Mean	Description	Rank
1. Avoidance	2.95	Sometimes Used	10
2. Circumlocution	3.51	Frequently Used	7.5
3. Word- Coinage	3.77	Frequently Used	4
4. Use of All- Purpose Word	3.83	Frequently Used	3
5. Use of Non- Linguistic Meaning	3.87	Frequently Used	2
6. Literal Translation	3.51	Frequently Used	7.5
7. Code Switching	3.76	Frequently Used	5
8. Use of Fillers	3.23	Frequently Used	9
9. Appealing for Assistance	3.64	Frequently Used	6
10. Re-Structuring	3.88	Frequently Used	1
Total Average Weighted Mean	**3.60**	**Frequently Used**	

Table 2 reveals that the total average weighted mean of 3.60 with a descriptive equivalence of frequently used.

When the researcher informally interviewed the respondents, they said that they really applied all the strategies in communicating in the second language, which is English, since this lingua franca of the world is a little bit hard for them. They combined these strategies so that effective communication of the language is achieved. As stated by the students, communicating is easier if one will use the best strategy that fits one's communicative style.

In the study of Lin Wei (2011) she stated that Færch and Kasper, who suggested communicative strategies as a psychological process, believed that communicative strategies is the solution to the individual's problems of processing rather than the speaker's and the hearer's mutual problems.

According to Faerch and Kasper's (1983) analysis of communicative strategies, it is not difficult to conclude that a learner implements a series of mental assessment and planning before using a particular strategy in his/her communication. When one assesses the situation, he may have to take many factors into consideration: when and where the communication takes place, what the problem is, where the topic is from, and who participates in the communication. Wei (2011) in her study suggested that there are many factors affecting the use of communicative strategies. The learner's level of language proficiency, the learner's personality and communicative experience, a learner's attitude towards communicative strategies, the topic source, and the communication situation are the factors that are affecting the use of communicative strategies.

According to the researchers Abedini, et. al. (2011) and Ratana (2007), strategies are approaches that learners use to enrich and to succeed in their own learning, especially since these are important for language learning since they are valuable tools that can foster learner autonomy in language learning and help learners in promoting their own achievements in language proficiency. Strategy plays its role as a key factor which influences language learning. Students certainly possess these skills and are adept at effectively and efficiently exploiting them in their first language**.** The problem that occurs here, i.e. between L1 and L2, is traceable to the approach both language educators and students themselves adopt to SLA. Bachman views strategic competence as a significant element of all communicative language use, not only the one which manifests deficient language abilities which need to be compensated (Bachman 1990).

According to (Hu & Tian, 2012), strategies can assist learners manage, direct, determine and guide their learning process. The study found that learning strategies could help.

Among the communicative strategies, first in rank is Re-structuring with a mean of 3.88 described as frequently used. Next in rank is Use of Non-linguistic meaning with a mean of 3.87 described as frequently used. Third in rank is the Use of all-purpose word with a frequently used description. Fourth is Word Coinage having a mean of 3.77 described again as frequently used. Code switching comes next with a mean of 3.76 described as frequently used. Appealing for Assistance is sixth in rank with a mean of 3.64 under frequently used description. Circumlocution and Literal translation both garnered a mean of 3.51 with a frequently used description and is ranked 7.5. Use of Fillers is ranked ninth with a mean of 3.23 still under the frequently used description and lastly ranked tenth is the Avoidance strategy having a mean of 2.95 with a description of sometimes used.

Table 3 presents the communicative strategies used by the third year Mathematics majors.

Table 3. Communicative Strategies Used by the Third Year Mathematics Majors

Communicative Strategies	**Weighted Mean**	**Description**	**Rank**
1. Avoidance	2.78	Sometimes Used	10
2. Circumlocution	3.43	Frequently Used	9
3. Word- Coinage	3.60	Frequently Used	6.5
4. Use of All- Purpose Word	3.95	Frequently Used	2
5. Use of Non- Linguistic Meaning	3.85	Frequently Used	4
6. Literal Translation	3.60	Frequently Used	6.5
7. Code Switching	3.93	Frequently Used	3
8. Use of Fillers	3.50	Frequently Used	8
9. Appealing for Assistance	3.78	Frequently Used	5
10. Re-Structuring	4.0	Frequently Used	1
Total Average Weighted Mean	**3.64**	**Frequently Used**	

As gleaned from the table, the third year students frequently used the communicative strategies as evidenced by the total average weighted mean of 3.64. Restructuring ranked first with a mean of 4.0. Second in rank is the Use of All-purpose word with a mean of 3.95 described as frequently used. Code switching is third in rank with a mean of 3.93 described as frequently used. Fourth in rank is Use of Non-linguistic meaning garnering a mean of 3.85 described as frequently used. Appealing for assistance strategy garnered a mean of 3.78 described as frequently used and is ranked fifth. The strategies Word Coinage and Literal translation both ranked 6.5 with a mean of 3.60 again under frequently used respectively.. Next in rank is Use of Fillers with a mean of 3.50 described as frequently used. Ninth is Circumlocution with a mean of 3.43 described as frequently used. Finally, Avoidance strategy is last in rank with a mean of 2.78 described as sometimes used.

Table four presents the communicative used by the Social Science students.

Table 4. Communicative Strategies Used by the Third Year BSED Social Science

Communicative Strategies	Weighted Mean	Description	Rank
1. Avoidance	3.07	Frequently Used	10
2. Circumlocution	3.47	Frequently Used	7
3. Word- Coinage	3.67	Frequently Used	3.5
4. Use of All- Purpose Word	3.80	Frequently Used	2
5. Use of Non- Linguistic Meaning	3.60	Frequently Used	5
6. Literal Translation	3.53	Frequently Used	6
7. Code Switching	3.87	Frequently Used	1
8. Use of Fillers	2.93	Sometimes Used	9
9. Appealing for Assistance	3.20	Frequently Used	8
10. Re-Structuring	3.67	Frequently Used	3.5
Total Average Weighted Mean	**3.48**	**Frequently Used**	

As shown on the table the Social Science students frequently used the Communicative strategies as evidenced by the total average weighted mean of 3.48. Code switching is the most commonly use strategy by the students since it is first in rank with a mean of 3.87 described as frequently used. Second is the Use of all-purpose word with a mean of 3.80 described as frequently used. Word coinage and restructuring are next and both garnered a mean 3.67 described as frequently used. Fifth in rank is Use on non-linguistic meaning which has a mean of 3.60 described as frequently used. Literal translation is next in rank garnering a mean of 3.53 described as frequently used. Circumlocution is rank seven with a mean of 3.47 described again as frequently used. Rank eight is Appealing for assistance with a mean of 3.20 described as frequently used. Ninth in rank is Avoidance having a mean of 3.07 described as frequently used. Lastly, ranked tenth is Use of Fillers strategy with a mean 2.93 described as sometimes used.

Table five presents the common communicative strategies used by the Biological Science majors.

Table 5

Communicative Strategies Used by the Third Year BSED Biological Science

Communicative Strategies	Weighted Mean	Description	Rank
1. Avoidance	2.97	Sometimes Used	10
2. Circumlocution	3.23	Frequently Used	8
3. Word- Coinage	3.83	Frequently Used	2
4. Use of All- Purpose Word	3.60	Frequently Used	6.5
5. Use of Non- Linguistic Meaning	3.60	Frequently Used	6.5
6. Literal Translation	3.50	Frequently Used	5
7. Code Switching	3.63	Frequently Used	4
8. Use of Fillers	3.17	Frequently Used	9
9. Appealing for Assistance	3.73	Frequently Used	3
10. Re-Structuring	3.90	Frequently Used	1

Total Average Weighted Mean	**3.52**	**Frequently Used**	

As gleaned from the table the Biological Science majors frequently used the communicative strategies as shown by the total average weighted mean of 3.52 with a descriptive equivalence of frequently used. Re-structuring is first in rank with a mean of 3.90 labelled under frequently used description. Next is Word coinage with a mean of 3.83 described as frequently used. Third is Appealing for assistance with a mean of 3.73 described as frequently used. Code switching is fourth with a mean of 3.63 under frequently used description. Fifth is Literal translation with a mean of 3.50 still under frequently used. Use of all-purpose word and Use of Non-linguistic meaning both garnered a mean of 3.60 and is described as frequently used. Next is Circumlocution with a mean of 3.23 under the frequently used description. Ninth is Use of fillers having a mean of 3.17 still under frequently used. Avoidance with a mean of 2.97 is sometimes used by the Biological Science students.

Table six shows the communicative strategies used by the third year BSED Filipino students.

Table 6. **Communicative Strategies Used by the Third Year BSED Filipino**

Communicative Strategies	Weighted Mean	Description	Rank
1. Avoidance	3.50	Frequently Used	7
2. Circumlocution	3.45	Frequently Used	8
3. Word- Coinage	3.93	Frequently Used	4
4. Use of All- Purpose Word	4.03	Frequently Used	2.5
5. Use of Non- Linguistic Meaning	4.08	Frequently Used	1
6. Literal Translation	3.55	Frequently Used	6
7. Code Switching	4.03	Frequently Used	2.5
8. Use of Fillers	3.10	Frequently Used	10
9. Appealing for Assistance	3.23	Frequently Used	9

10. Re-Structuring	3.75	Frequently Used	5
Total Average Weighted Mean	**3.66**	**Frequently Used**	

As shown from the table the third year Filipino major students frequently used the communicative strategies as evidenced by the total average weighted mean of 3.66. Furthermore, among the communicative strategies, ranked first is Use of non-linguistic meaning with a mean of 4.08 described as frequently used. Second in rank are use of all-purpose word and code switching, both with a mean of 4.03 described as frequently used. Next in rank is word coinage with a mean of 3.93 under the frequently used description. Rank five is re-structuring with a mean of 3.75 described as frequently used. Sixth is literal translation with a mean of 3.55 still under frequently used. Avoidance comes next having a mean of 3.50 described as frequently used. Circumlocution is ranked eighth with a mean of 3.45 described as frequently used. Rank nine is Appealing for assistance with a mean of 3.23 described again as frequently used. Use of Fillers is last in rank but it is still under the frequently use description with a mean of 3.10.

Table seven presents the common communicative strategies used by the third year English major students.

Table 7. Communicative Strategies Used by the Third Year BSED English

Communicative Strategies	Weighted Mean	Description	Rank
1. Avoidance	2.76	Sometimes Used	10
2. Circumlocution	3.66	Frequently Used	6
3. Word- Coinage	3.79	Frequently Used	4.5
4. Use of All- Purpose Word	3.83	Frequently Used	3
5. Use of Non- Linguistic Meaning	3.94	Frequently Used	1
6. Literal Translation	3.36	Frequently Used	8
7. Code Switching	3.57	Frequently Used	7
8. Use of Fillers	3.24	Frequently Used	9
9. Appealing for Assistance	3.79	Frequently Used	4.5
10. Re-Structuring	3.93	Frequently Used	2

Total Average Weighted Mean	3.59	Frequently Used	

As gleaned from the table, the third year English major students are frequently using the communicative strategies as evidenced by the total average weighted mean of 3.59. Among the different strategies, first in rank is the Use of non-linguistic meaning with a mean of 3.94 described as frequently used. Second is re-structuring with a mean of 3.93 described as frequently used. Third is the use of all-purpose word with a mean of 3.83 under frequently used description. Both word coinage and Appealing for assistance got a mean of 3.79 under the frequently used description. Next is Circumlocution having a mean of 3.66 described as frequently used. Seventh is Code switching with a mean of 3.57 under the frequently used description. Next is Literal translation with a mean of 3.36 still frequently used. Ninth in rank is Use of fillers garnering a mean of 3.24 described as frequently used while Avoidance is last in rank having a mean of 2.76 described as sometimes used.

Table 8 presents the summary table for the common communicative strategies used by the students.

Table 8. Summary table for the common communicative strategies used by the students.

Major	**Common Communicative Strategy Used**
Mathematics	Re-structuring
Social Science	Code Switching
Biological Science	Re-structuring
Filipino	Use of Non-linguistic meaning
English	Use of Non-linguistic meaning

Both Mathematics major and Biological Science major employ Re-structuring as their common communicative strategy.

Serio (2015) points out that facilitating effective peer-to-peer and student-to-teacher communication is an important aspect in the teaching of mathematics. She further added that it does not only allows students to consolidate their knowledge and understandings of concepts through discussions, but it also gives the students multiple opportunities to build confidence in a supportive environment that is open to discussing new and creative thoughts and conducive to supporting and empowering students with different abilities and strengths.

According to the Ontario Mathematics Curriculum (2005), as cited by Serio "Communication is the process of expressing mathematical ideas and understanding orally, visually, and in writing, using numbers, symbols, pictures, graphs, diagrams, and words Communication, accordingly, can take the form of both verbal and written responses to the materials and activities provided to students which will allow them greater opportunities to gain conceptual understandings of mathematics.

Whitenack and Yackel's (2002) understood that, "Students reap many benefits from reasoning mathematically. They often develop or refine their ideas as they explain and justify their thinking. More generally, by allowing them to explain and justify their ideas, teachers help students develop mathematical dispositions.

Code Switching or the practice of alternating between two or more languages or varieties of language in conversation is the most common strategy used by the Biological Science major. The Philippines is a multi-lingual country, when students are hard up in expressing their thoughts they resort to their native language to put their message across. The Philippines uses bilingualism in the academe. Bilingualism is the term used for the ability to speak two or more languages at a time. Hamers and Blanc (2000) define the term "bilingually" to demonstrate the usage of two languages by an individual and consider "bilingualism" for the field of study which observes the functioning of two or more languages in a society. The authors also point out that, any educational system where more than one language is utilized is bilingual. Bilingualism in education deals with academic issues when children speaking one language may enter into the education system which operates in another language (Lotherington, 2000).

According to Kyeyune (2003), the effectiveness or otherwise of the teaching learning process at whatever level depends on whether or not effective communication has taken place between the teacher and the learner. Though the use of code switching may not be obviously evident to the teacher or the student, it may be a predominant part of the average communication process in the classroom.

Amorim (2012) suggests that students" interactions and their voices reveal that communicative strategies is a strategy that learners resort to, intentionally or unconsciously, to achieve their communicative objectives. It also seems possible to establish a connection between the language level of the students and the functional character of their switches.

Alam and Bashhirudin (2013) are of the view that along with many other strategies, code-switching is inevitable for improving speaking skills in the language learning process. They further added that it should be considered a useful way for improving efficiency in second language learners. Jabeen (2010) on the one hand also agrees with the same idea and strongly recommends the need to change the mindsets of people about the use of the native language in the teaching of English. Another research by Abbas, Aslam and Rana (2011) also favors the preceding claims and adds that code-mixing is not interference; rather, it serves for continuity and fluency. Hence, code switching has become a beneficial communicative strategy and the students use it naturally as they are conscious of the communicative benefits they gain by employing it.

The use of non-linguistic strategy is both employed by the Language majors (English and Filipino). This strategy includes the use of gesture and mime to augment or replace verbal communication. Using communication strategies learners might handle their communication difficulties owing to their linguistic problems. Chairat (2017) in his research, Oral Communication Strategies Used by English Major Undergraduates during the Internship Program, he found that the strategy most used during speaking tasks of the student is the use of non-verbal strategies. This finding supports the result of the currents study. According to Nakatani(2007), the students applied the nonverbal strategies to attract the interlocutors' attention by using eye contact in order that they can achieve the goal of communication. A study by Kongsom (2016) says that, he found that during his pre-test one of the most commonly used strategy by the students to put their message across is employing non-linguistic meaning. Learners' usage of communication strategies in speaking was influence by learners' language proficiency (Syamsudin 2016). He further noted that, learners speaking problems were caused by their limited mastery of linguistic elements such as lack of vocabularies or grammar mastery. This limitation may cause gaps which will eventually lead to communication breakdown. The study of Syamsudin revealed that learners used non-linguistic means s consciously in speaking. His respondents realized that the use of non-linguistic means strategies as parts of communication strategies might help them solve their communication problems.

Table nine presents the level of linguistic competence of the BSED major students of KSU.

Table 9. **Level of Linguistic Competence of the third year students of KSU**

Scale	**Description**	**Math**	**Social science**	**Biology**	**Filipino**	**English**	**Total Frequency**	**Rank**
27 – 30	Very Competent						0	**5**
23 – 26	Competent		1				1	**4**
19 – 22	Fairly Competent	1	1			2	4	**3**
15 – 18	Moderately Competent	2	1		1	2	6	**2**
14 – below	Very Incompetent	5		6	7	10	28	**1**
Total Number of Respondents Per Major		**8**	**3**	**6**	**8**	**14**	**39**	
GRAND MEAN								**10.43**

Table 8 shows the frequency distribution of the students in their linguistic competence test. The table reveals that the majority of the students, that is 28 out of 39, exhibited very incompetent on the test. Among the different course majors, six students out of 39 got a score of 15-18 described as moderately competent, while four students out of 39 got a score 19-22 described as fairly competent, and one out of 39 got a score of 23-26 described as competent.

The figure entails that most of the students were very incompetent in terms of knowledge of the mechanical rules of English. In an informal interview the researcher asked the respondents their opinion about the test. The respondents of the study said that the test is difficult. They suggested that more time should be given to students who will be taking the exam in the future. Furthermore, they were nervous when they were taking the exam and told the researcher that they were not confident regarding the result of their examination. According to the Anxiety and Depression Association of America, fear of failure is one reason why students are apprehensive when taking examinations. Sometimes test takers put so much pressure on themselves to do well that their fear of failure could overcome them. Students may be prepared but their fear could derail their self-confidence. Lack of preparation is another reason why students are anxious in taking exams. As in the case of the respondents, no preparation was done when they took the test. Without a solid grip on the content for an upcoming test, students might become stressed because they know they’ll probably do poorly on the test. **S**tudents who have had trouble with these kinds of tests in the past are prone to develop test anxiety. Instead of looking at the possibility of improving in the next test, they develop a negative mindset and doubt their talents.

Table 9 presents the relationship of the student’s communicative strategies and their level of linguistic competence.

Table 9. Observe and Expected Value of T-Test of the relationship between the student’s communicative strategies and their level of linguistic competence

Indicators	t-test	t-critical Value at.05	Pearson Correlation
Communicative Strategies	9.78	2.75	0.97
Linguistic competence		Significant	Very High relationship

It can be gleaned from table 9 that the student’s communicative strategies and their level of linguistic competence are significantly related. The computed value of 9.78 is higher than the tabular value of 2.75 at .05 level of significance. This means that there is a significant relationship between the student’s communicative strategies and their level of linguistic competence. The null hypothesis which states that there is no significant relationship between the student’s communicative strategies and their level of linguistic competence is rejected.

Zhang (2011) stated that it is generally found that communicative strategies have an intimate relationship with communicative competence. Learners' effective and efficient employment of communicative strategies is the revelation of their strategic competence as well as communicative competence and with the communicative strategies training, it is likely to improve learners' communicative competence.

Canale and Swain (1980) defined communication strategies or strategic competence as a component of communicative competence made up of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence. That is to say that it is what both speaker and hearer may rely on to use in conveying their thoughts whenever there is a misunderstanding due to insufficient competence, whether grammatical or sociolinguistic in other words, the lower the linguistic competence of the student, the greater is the frequency of using communication strategies by the student in order to convey his/her thought or message.

Cohen (2004) also supports the findings when he defined communicative strategy as a systematic attempt by the learner to express meaning by a target language in which the suitable systematic target language rules have not been formed.

In Rababah and Seedhouse's (2004) research entitled "Communication Strategies and Message Transmission With Arab Learners of English in Jordan", they have concluded that about 90 percent of the messages transmitted can be comprehensible and successful because of the learners' use of communicative strategies. The use of communicative strategies is a means of solving communication problems with the aim of passing comprehensible messages to the interlocutor.

Conclusions

Based on the findings of the study the following conclusions were drawn:

Various communicative strategies are used by the respondents, further they are very incompetent in their level of linguistic competence. This finding implies that the students have difficulty understanding the rules that govern the English language, of what is acceptable and not in speaking the language. Likewise, the students have also difficulty in using proper words or vocabulary when delivering their intended message.

Significant relationship is observed between the communicative strategies used by the students and their level of linguistic competence. This implies that since students are hard up in their linguistic competence, they really need to use the different communicative strategies so that they can deliver their message to the receiver or to the listener.

Recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusions drawn, it is recommended that Capability building programs for teachers especially on teaching communicative strategies, for students to learn better maybe continuously implemented to improve the linguistic competence of the students. Strict implementation on the admission and retention policy of the college maybe reinforced to help improve the language competencies of the students. More opportunities for the particular practice of the language should be provided through the creation of competitions, public lectures, debates and the likes during college programs. Students should be continuously involved with in-service training courses so as to develop their linguistic competence.

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Verbal Disability in Indonesia Children with Speech Delay and the Therapy

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Abstract

This research aims to explore verbal disabilities in Indonesian children suffering from speech delay, find out their spoken ability, and enhance communication. This study applied a natural observation method. The researcher was involved with the subjects for 6 months; data collection, analysis, and conclusion making. Based on the results, verbal disabilities were significantly affected phonologically compared to normal children. The three ability levels were perfectly mastered, imperfectly mastered, and not mastered at all. Phonological disability sufferers had difficulty in making the right sounds, especially at the sentencing phase of development (3;1 to 4;0-year-old), while in normal children at the age of 1.8 to 2.0 years, they were already producing phonemes at the phrase and sentence level. There was an increase in the ability of speech delay sufferers. A significant increase was also observed in the sound waveform on the speech analyzer from pre- to post-therapy.

Keywords: *Verbal Disability; Phonologically; Speech Delay; Speech Analyzer; Therapy.*

Introduction

Language in the communication process can be divided into two parts, namely verbal and nonverbal. Verbal language is used to express thoughts orally or in speech and writing, while nonverbal explains speculations indirectly and unwritten, which is known as sign language. In everyday communication, verbal form is used more than nonverbal. Experiencing interference in conversation is due to the internal and external factors, and the inability to expressly speak, especially those suffering from verbal disability which may occur at different age levels, such as children, adolescents, adults, and the elderly. The contributing factors are speech delay, articulation disorders, dysarthria, aphasia, myasthenia, stuttering, malocclusion, as well as various disabilities such as physical, visual, mental, chronic, and hearing (Berdnikova & Abashina, 2020; Dale et al., 2014; Hawa & Spanoudis, 2014).

The number of verbal disorder sufferers in Indonesia has drastically increased. The data from the ILO (International Labor Organization) in line with WHO calculations stated that almost 10 percent of Indonesia's population (approximately 24 million) are suffering from verbal disability. This is a challenge for various fields to pay more attention to issues related to human resources. This do not concern medicine and health circles only, but other sectors such as neuro-psycholinguistic science that studies the mental processes of humans in using language, the neurolinguistics that focuses more on the role of the brain in obtaining, producing, and processing vocabularies, and various interdisciplinary studies that explain the relationship between language and nerves (Sastra & Yanis, 2017; Matte-Landry et al., 2020; Pommée et al., 2021).

This research discusses one form of speech disorder in children, which is known as delay in using language and communicating with others in their environment. Various disorders started from the children's verbal disability in producing sounds. According to Fieldman (2014), it is a delay in speech development which includes problems in sound production, flow or rhythm, volume, quality, and understanding difficulty. Coplan explained it as the articulation development interference, which includes an inability to pronounce letters and sound efficiently. Language disability is more connected to the Broca and Wernicke (productive and receptive) area in the brain. Meanwhile, speech disorders in the articulation area of motor and sensory nerves connect the language center with the speech devices (Coplan, 2017).

Literature Review

Judarwanto (2012) stated that speech and language disorders are numerous, and started from the disruption of the hearing process to the halting of brain impulses, muscles, and organs for making sounds. Speech disorders in children are due to a genetic problem in the body’s system which includes the brain and other hearing organs. Several studies have shown that speech disability is a dominant hemisphere disorder, which is associated with the left brain, while some are observed in the right brain, corpus callosum, and hearing trajectories. This can also be caused by the high environmental pressure, due to the use of two or more languages. Jurdarwanto also mentioned that, when the cause is related to the environment, the speech delay is usually not too severe.

This study focuses on speech delay in Indonesian children (case in Fahrul Ahmad), by observing their various phonological disabilities. However, a behavioral therapy model was applied to improve children's speech ability which was then tested through a spectrogram speech analyzer (Aitken, 2008; Santos, 2019; Tammasse et al., 2019). The objectives to be discussed in this research are as follows: (1) identifying various forms of phonological disorders that occurred in children speech delay, (2) applying behavioral therapy methods to find out their vocabulary ability, and (3) testing the improvement in their speaking ability after carrying out therapy with a speech analyzer spectrogram.

Children's language development is closely related to certain parts of the brain, especially the left side. However, it causes difficulty in processing language when damaged, able to hear utterances, but unable to understand. Frontal brain disorder affects the linguistic stimulation to speak and write, while damage in the back brain affects the organ of hearing and reading (Ingram, 2007; Quinto & MacAyan, 2020).

The causative factors are classified into two, namely the internal and the external. The internal components are due to genetic hereditary abnormalities from birth, which cause hearing disorders such as infection and trauma, malfunctioning of speech organs and the brain center, mental retardation, autism, selective mutism, receptive aphasia, and cerebral palsy. External factors are due to psychosocial deprivation, both physical (poverty, slums, and malnutrition) and social (poor linguistic stimulation, no parents, emotional stress, neglect, and others). Besides the two factors, it can also be a result of food allergies and various deprivations such as quiet environment and social-economic status (Amini, 2019). Wrong eating habits by ignoring the 4M - sucking, swallowing, chewing, and blowing - are also factors that can cause speech delay, since it is a basic requirement and needs to be possessed by children before they can start speaking

(Fitriyana, 2014). Furthermore, it can be due to twin children that are used to mimicking each other's habits (Lantolf, 2011). Smith observed that bilingual children have lower vocabulary than those with one language, except for those with high intelligence. Another factor is due to the delay in maturity of the central nervous needed to process children's speech. However, this can improve after 4 years, since they experience only expressive function delays, while the receptive function is quite good (Champhbell, 2013).

Speech disorders can be minimized with therapy, which is used not only for delay sufferers but various language dysfunctions. The method used was based on the approach and strategy chosen, namely the language processing model that occurs in the brain. Prins (2004) explained that the information which enters through hearing, sight, and touch is firstly processed in the brain. Therefore, various aspects, such as attention, memory, emotions, and feelings, are the deciding factors for choosing the form of linguistic therapy for people with language disorders.

Dysaudia is a type of disorder as a result of loss of hearing components that causes difficulty in receiving and processing the intensity, tone, and quality of speech sounds (Setyono, 2013). The impulses received by sufferers are not perfect and may even be wrong. This situation causes errors in the formation collected and affects the speech concepts, language, sound, and rhythm fluency. Various hearing loss symptoms experienced by the FA are not categorized by doctors as deaf, but rather a mild hearing function disorder that causes verbal disability in communication.

Methods

Research Design

Generally, this research was carried out with several steps including; natural observations and approaches, direct conversations, verbal forms identification, understanding of stories and images, simulating verbal behavior, evaluating each activity (Aitken, 2008), and applying behavioral therapy methods. These steps were implemented through different data collections, techniques, and analyses.

The selected case study was cross-sectionally used to reduce the observation time in a particular developmental level. It was expected that the conclusions to be the same as the longitudinal type (Nunan, 2002), and observing the subjects for approximately 6 months including their families, to get information about the subject's development from the age of 2 to 4. Comparative case studies were used to find out the ability level after the behavioral therapy had been carried out.

The subjects involved were boys aged 3 - 4, and named as Fahrul Ahmad (FA). The subjects chosen were diagnosed by a pediatrician and were confirmed to be suffering from speech delay. It was further validated by doctors and the information from various families that FA experienced speech delay due to heredity disorders, the cesarean birth risk, wrong eating habits, and the EEG (Electro Encephalo Graphy) test which showed complex interference in the sensory and motor impulses (see appendix image) and the disorders in the left hemisphere which is the central portion of language (Broca and Wernicke).

Furthermore, it was due to the mild hearing loss (dysaudia) caused by genetic abnormality accompanied with symptoms such as: (1) less reaction to the surrounding sounds, such as vacuum cleaner, car horn, and lightning, (2) unreactive to events in the environment, except by sightseeing and not easily attracted to the conversation or the voices around, (3) less concern and focus when spoken to, (4) difficulty in pronouncing vowels/consonants, (5) only responding to certain sounds or with violence, and (6) difficulty in comprehending information, therefore unable to express words with clarity.

Data were obtained from the interactions of the children with the researcher and other families in their environment. This research used a listening or *simak* method with recorded and proficient listening *(simak libat cakap)* technique (Bungin, 2013), while the data were analyzed using Blumstein's theory in the production of sounds, both in the omissions, additions, and irregularities of phonemes (Sudaryanto, 1993).

The therapeutic methods applied in improving verbal ability were the Guided therapy based on phonological and lexical disorders, activity therapy, and using the therapeutic effects. The research steps taken were as follows: mentioning and explaining visual images, expressive and receptive prosody.

The therapy for speech delay study was based on these steps, and the phoneme score used was calculated with the summary index formula (IK) as follows:

Number of word

IK = --------------------------------

The therapy mechanism was based on changes made in the vowel and consonant sounds, which contributed a certain intensity and frequency to the sensation (according to the concept). Sounds were divided into segmental and suprasegmental. Segmental could be decapitated from sentences to phonemes, while suprasegmental sounds could not be reduced.

Segmental could also be assessed or recognized based on its sound quality and articulation point, while suprasegmental was assessed based on the meaning, feeling, and interests of the speaker. Vocals were sounds that occurred through the modified airflow from the glottic region (having a certain intensity and frequency) and directly uttered without obstacles.

Vocal sound differences occurred due to the changes in the resonant shape and size, as well as the influence of tongue position based on three sound groups, such as: high, front, not round: /i/, /e/, /e/, low vocal, back: /a/, /a/, and high, back, round vowels: /u/, /o/, /o/, respectively. Consonants were pronounced with or without phonation, with the glottic region air flow modified through the muscles of the articulated organs in the oropharynx. The contractions of these organs could change, slow down, stop, or force out the air flowing from the glottic region. The vowel and consonant sounds functioned as the basis in speaking training for speech delay cases.

The lexical concept, understanding, and pronunciation accuracy were shown by the speech analyzer test, which was a software program often used in therapy logopedic for sufferers of various language and speech disorders. Sastra et al. used this test for aphasia in adult cases, with the right hemisphere receptive disorders for listening and learning, and in children with speech delay (Matsunaga, 2018). Furthermore, the results of this classification were shown through the MRS (Memory Record Standard) speech analyzer used. The improvement comparisons were shown on the pre-and post-therapy recordings.

The theory used was related to psycholinguistics, neurolinguistics, phonology, and the application of behavioral therapy methods based on the speech analyzer spectrogram. In psycholinguistic studies, a normal benchmark in the development of children's speech and language was adopted from Fieldman's theory. The stages of improvement were observed in the children's receptive and expressive abilities, as they possessed the capacity to glance at the sound source and showed interest in the voice and face. This character continued until the age of 4 months, and when they wanted or disliked an action, they expressed it through crying. Darjowijoyo called it scrupulous, or an expressive ability at the age of 2-4 months. Furthermore, approaching the age of 6 months, they could chatter, and after this age, they could respond when called upon. At the age of 8-10 months, they could wave, then say the word "ma-ma" or "da-da" as expressive communication, and continued non-verbally by pointing.

After 1 year, the chatter increased to muttering and saying one word repeatedly. Children's receptive abilities also increased as they continually follow simple commands. At the age of 15 months, they were able to learn words slowly. This continued until the age of 18-24 months, when they started understanding sentences, hence could learn words more quickly and were able to use two or three words simultaneously. At the age of 2 years, the children's vocabulary could amount to 30-60 words and the language learning phase developed rapidly. Children could learn an average of 3-4 words per day and started combining words into 2-3 phrases. Along with these improvements, they were more aware of language grammatical elements, which included self pronouns, question words, articles, and markers (Blumstein, 1994).

At the age of 2-3 years, they were able to answer questions and follow two commands collectively. In this period, about 50% of phrases created by children could be understood and could also form 3 or more sentences, as well as questions with the word "what". When the children were 3-4 years old, they already understood much of what they were taught, and the language had become 75% clearer. Their abilities to form questions had increasingly developed, such as using "why". Gradually, their receptive and expressive abilities continued to experience development (Sastra, 2016).

The normal benchmark for speech and language improvement presented by Fieldman, showed the receptive and expressive abilities of normal children in their general developmental stages. Furthermore, the details of speech ability was used as the Indonesian children's speaking standards generally with the implementation of the phonemes and phonological rules. The implementation was used as a standard for comparing normal children's language abilities with speech delays.

Results and Discussion

In children with speech delay, there were disruptions in producing sounds. Within a period of 6 months, longitudinal observations on FA were performed at the ages of 3.5 – 3.8 and 3.7 – 4.0 years. At these stages, various disorders were found in the form of elimination, replacement, irregularity, shortening, and the addition of phonemes. Verbal disability in the FA occurred due to unpreparedness of words and psychoneurological tools to produce phonemes according to the articulation point.

The consonant replacement made by FA with the sounds of [l] and [r], did not change their meanings, and were shown as follows:

[l] = [r]

[r] → [l/ --l-- / v-k#]

Kontoid [ñ], [t], and [j] in FA speech, affected the sound replacement of [r] to [l]. The substitution in the antepenultima position did not change the word's meaning, but only altered their sound. Therefore, the replacement of [r] in the antepenultima position to [l] was a phonetic change that did not affect the meaning. This was as a result of errors made in speech learning, therefore the wrong words were considered to be right in the arrangement of language functions in children's brains. This was common at the age range of 1.0 year. Alveolar consonants replaced by FA were shown in table 1 as follows:

Table 1. *Consonant Replacement [r] FA*

Sound	Articulation Point & Method	Position			Sound Replacement	Articulation Point & Method
		[#-]	[v-v#]	[v-k#]		
[r]	Tril Alveolar	√	√	√	[y]	Semi Vokoid
					[l]	Lateral Alveolar

The replacement of [r] with [y] and [l] sounds did not change the meaning of the word, hence the phoneme / r / had an allophonic / y / and / l / with an incomplete distribution. According to Amril & Ermanto (2007), sounds could have phonetic similarity when in the same lane, with a particular trait. The phonemes [r] had a tril articulation, while the sound produced by the airflow method was repeatedly and quickly closing and opening (Muchlis, 2008). The replacement of phoneme [r] was due to FA having an *ankyloglossia* in the articulation area and fringulum linguae in the lower part of the mouth, which caused the tongue tip not to touch the ceiling completely and changed the pronunciation of [r] to [y] and [l]. This might be due to the inability of the motor nerves in the articulation area to form sounds.

The replacement of consonants that were carried out by FA also included the alveolar sound [r] as follows:

[r] → [∅/ --r-- / v-v#]
[r] → [∅/ --r-- / k-v#]
[r] → [∅/ --r-- / v-k#]

Table 2. *Consonant Removal [r] FA*

Sound	Articulation Point & Method	Removal Position			
		[#-]	[v-v#]	[v-k#]	[k-v#]
[r]	Alvolar Tril	-	√	√	√

Besides the alveolar sound, FA speech experienced changes in meaning and caused incomprehension of the interlocutor due to various errors that occurred, both in the phoneme replacement, omission, irregularity, shortening, and addition.

When viewed from a limited phonological ability, several phonemes were obtained by the FA from the age of 3;4 to 4;0 years. During the implementation, some minimal pairs of the complementary consonant sounds were obtained which included: peripheral phonemes / t / ~ / d / in the word / taŋ / and / daŋ /. The consonants [t] and [d] at the beginning of a word distinguished the meanings, / taŋ / as '*kan*' and / daŋ / as '*dan*'. The [k] and [ˀ] sounds were categorized as similar pairs at the end of the words / auk / as *'paud'* and / ai$^{?}$ / as *'baik'*. The sounds [t] and [b] in a similar environment were two different phonemes in '*takut*" and *'rambut'* pronounced as / atuk / and / abuk /. Furthermore, consonants / p / and / l / were two different phonemes in a similar environment as shown in the words / əpuk / as '*jemput'* and / əluk / as *'perut'*. Some other different consonants pairs were /c/~/j/, /p/~/m/, /ñ/~/n/, /ŋ/~/m/, /k/~/h/, and /t/~/y/, which were pronounced as /aci/~/aji/, /upa/~/ima/, /əña$^{?}$/~/əna$^{?}$/, /itaŋ/~/itam/, /əlak/~/əlah/, and /ataŋ/~/ayaŋ/ respectively.

Consonant phonemes that were pronounced by FA between the age of 3.4 to 4.0 years were shown in table 3 below:

Table 3. *Consonant Phonemes by FA*

Articulation Point & Method	Bilabial	Labiodental	Alveolar	Alveolar-palatal	Velar	Glotal
Plosive	p b		t d		k	?
Fricative						h
Affricate				c j		
Nasal	m		n	ñ	ŋ	
Lateral			l			
Shakes						
Semivocal				y		

Consonant phonemes pronounced by the FA at the age range of 3.4 – 4.0 years, proved that many had not been obtained such as; / f /, / v /, / g /, / x /, / s /, / z /, / r /, and / w /. When compared with the acquisition of normal children's phonemes from the three levels of phonological ability, hence there were striking differences. At the perfect stage of 3.5 to 4.0 years old, a normal child had obtained consonant sounds such as: / p, b, t, d, k, g, f, v, s, h, m, n, ŋ , l, y, and w /, while FA suffering from speech delay only acquired / p, b, h, ĉ, j, ñ, l, and y /. At the imperfect mastered level, normal children obtained sounds such as; / c, ñ, and ĵ /, while FA acquired / t, d, k, f, m, n, and ŋ /. At a level that had not been mastered at all, normal children obtained / r, š, and x /, while many phonemes had not been achieved by the FA, such as / v, g, s, z, r, and x /.

According to Dardjowidjojo (2000), at the imperfect mastered level, phonemes that had not been acquired at the age range of 3.5 – 4.0 years were related to biological and neurological development. Those suffering from speech delay were predicted to have biological disorders in their articulation; as a result, their speaking ability did not develop perfectly. However, with speech therapy, the capacity to obtain languages similar to normal children could be resolved since they were in the developmental stage.

FA disability in producing vowels and consonants were in different forms such as phoneme replacement, substitution, omission, addition, shortening and irregularity. Verbal disabilities were observed in various language and speech disorders. Previous studies found several forms of speaking dysfunctions such as: aphasia, dysarthria, cerebral palsy, speech stuttering, autism, and others. This indicated that sufferers of various language and speech disorders had problems in the phonological coding stage, which amounted to agrammatism or syntactic structure disorders. According to Kohn (1993), when sufferers had difficulty in producing sounds, they tend to eliminate, replace, add, shorten, or exchange phonemes to achieve the phonetic and syntactic aspects of a speech.

Through speech delay research towards FA, various forms of errors had been observed with a significant percentage difference, such as 22: 37: 5: 12: 8. These comparisons were shown below:

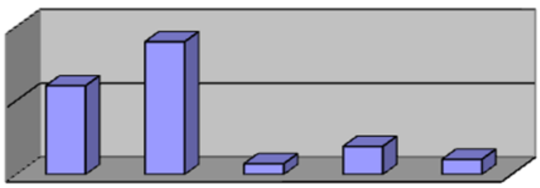

Figure 1. *Verbal Disability Error by FA*

These errors indicated that FA often eliminate sounds (37 percent), and obtained the intended lexical stretch by minimizing the sounds addition (5 percent). Sound replacement (22 percent) was carried out due to lexical jumps, hence FA easily distort phonemes and syllables. Shortening lexical (8 percent) were carried out for speed purposes, since FA tend to be weary in practicing utterances, especially when repeating questions, while the sound additions (5 percent) were rarely carried out due to the limited number of lexicon obtained and speech delay factors.

Based on phonetic aspects of FA, it was observed that the fricative sounds were difficult to use by those suffering from speech delay, and as a result, caused several mistakes. Therefore, FA was very slow in terms of language acquisition.

Furthermore, in the process of sound production, the peripheral neural networks needed were more complicated. In this regard, the segmental sound production required nerves that regulate the muscles of the lips, uvular, tongue, and lower jaw.

Speech therapy efforts to improve speech ability were carried out based on the analysis results of acquired phonemes by FA. The auditive, visual and tactile approach were also utilized. Treatment through behavioral therapy methods was carried out with the following steps:

1. Information was obtained through hearing, vision, and touch, and were interpreted by the posterior brain.
2. At the cortical level, there were conscious processing as the integration continued through various stimuli. There were also semantic knowledge and emotional meaning observed at this stage.
3. Also at this level, memory processing continued integrating from various sensory stimuli. This made them search for more semantic knowledge.
4. Actions were developed in the pre-frontal area, where various choices were made. Finally, thoughts became impulses used in carrying out different processes.

Therefore, behavioral therapy (related to feelings/emotions) was needed in handling the children's speech delay intensively. The receptive and expressive method was carried out with an introductive therapeutic strategy, using stimuli and pictures on the FAs at the age of 4.0 years. The results obtained in the post-therapy had the following percentages:

Table 4. *FA Abilities in Post-treatment*

Ability	Percentage
Repeat words	70

Manipulating object names	22
Understand real pictures	46
Phonemic assistance	37
Continuous visual and sound stimulus	67

The approach used was by asking questions, practicing responses, asking FA to repeat, and correcting their errors. This modeling method was carried out by calculating the average percentage of the following; make complete sentences (47 percent), give prefix words (33 percent), complete syllables (72 percent), demonstrate sounds (87 percent), describe objects (84 percent), and asking for pictures of objects or words (75 percent).

After applying therapeutic methods with behavioral therapy for 50 consecutive meetings, and 2 hours every 2 days, an increase in phonological and lexical accuracy was obtained. In the last month, the accuracy of the intended word meaning was obtained by the expectation. These achievements were the evidence that there was an increase in the FA communication ability. Therefore, the graph showed an increase of 90 percent in terms of phonemes and word accuracy. The index data were obtained based on the percentage calculation of phonological, lexical, and semantic errors from the beginning. The graph was as follows:

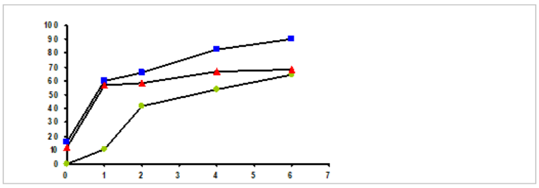

Figure 2. *Achievement of Vocabulary, Lexical Accuracy, and Actual Meanings*

The information obtained by the FA became a selected impulse in the brain (yellow dotted lines). Drastic improvement occurred until the 30th meeting, due to sensory and emotional care given to the patient (blue dotted line). Then, in the next 20 meetings, there was a stable pronunciation, both in knowledge enrichment, lexical, understanding of repeated speech, and images (red dotted lines). Repetition was performed, hence there was a stable phoneme and lexical storage.

The PICA *(Porch Index of Communicative Ability)* test, which tabulated 50 meetings with FA, showed a good verbal modality. The evaluation equipment in the form of lexical analysis on their phonological ability was reclassified. The repetition results were recorded with the MRS *(Memory Record Standard)* speech analyzer. From 89 PICA vocabulary indexes, it showed an improved sound wave vibration (73 percent) compared to the initial record when FA was under observation at ages of 3;4 and 3;5 years. In this paper, examples were given for the sounds [c], [u], [m], and [i].

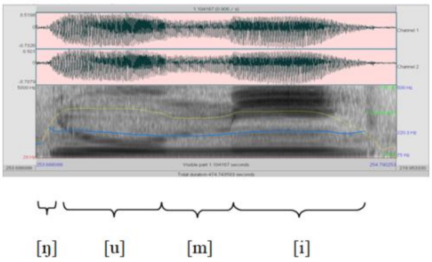

Figure 3. *Speech Analyzer Praterapi on FA at 3;4 years old*

Based on Figure 3, it showed that the sound [c] was silenced, but no vibration on the waveform and spectrogram at the beginning of the words. The vowel sound [u] and [i] did not experience any obstacle when uttered, hence, they were able to be pronounced by FA, as well as buni [m] with a bilabial nasal obstruction in the waveform curve with repeated and tight lines, since these sounds were common consonants obtained by language acquisition, such as the sound [m] in the word / məma /.

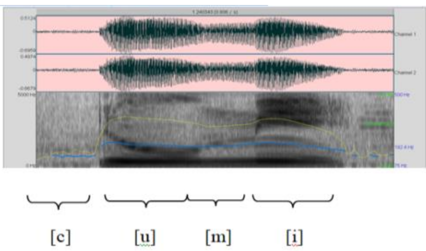

Figure 4. *Post-treatment Speech Analyzer on FA at 3.9 years old*

In the speech analyzer, there were waveform sounds [c] which were regular, and noiseless, with vibrations at the beginning, which originated from the laminopalatal articulation. The vocal [u] was a high back rounded sound, while [i] was a high front unrounded vowel. Repetitions were made and represented by dense lines closer to the end of the peripheral, then the thickness steadily reduced.

The speech analyzer test results between the pre-and post-therapy showed that there were differences in the lexical pronunciations with cleared syllables, both in vowel and consonant words. It was also indicated by the difference between the sound waves and their height in the regularity of speech. The waves' uniformity was characterized by the existence of longitudinal processes that were evenly distributed from the beginning to the end. This was as a result of the cortical motor commands from the brain towards the utterance in the articulatory area.

Conclusion

Based on the research, it can be concluded that:

1. Verbal disability is a form of speech disorder, in children with FA, which are sufferers of speech delay in talking and communicating with others. Therefore, various forms of disorders were observed from their verbal disabilities in producing sounds.
2. Impaired language and speech abilities in children can lead to speech delay. The causes were due to internal and external factors. In the case of FA with speech delay, there was a disruption in producing language sounds. Within the period of 6 months (3.4 – 4.0 years old), the observations from various disorders were found in the form of phoneme omission (37 percent), replacement (22 percent), irregularity (12 percent), shortening (5 percent), and addition (8 percent). Verbal disability in FA occurred due to the inability to acquire some phonemes and the absence of psychoneurological tools to produce it following the articulation point, especially in the trill and consonant sounds.
3. Based on the phonetic aspects, it was observed that the fricative sounds were difficult to produce by speech delay sufferers. Therefore, sound development in FA was very slow in terms of language acquisition. The complexity of the nerve tissue causes FA sound to be more silent, due to the unactivated articulation area. This inactive network was caused by the internal and external factors.
4. After speech therapy was applied towards FA, the percentages of post-therapy were obtained as follows: frequently repeated words (70 percent), manipulating the objects' names (22 percent), understanding real images (46 percent), phonemic assistance

(37 percent), and continuous visual and sound stimulus (67 percent). The FA speaking ability was improving, as evidenced by the increased number of vocabulary achievements, the pronunciation accuracy, and the actual meaning of spoken words. It was also confirmed by the waveform vibration in the speech analyzer.

Pedagogical Implication

The process of learning languages in children can start from the phase of non-formal education, rather than primary school-age. The ability of children to communicate will then be found earlier, whether each child between the ages of 0-3 has a normal period. The importance of this study is its contribution to helping parents treat children with speech disabilities, not only because of language impairment but also by auditory processing disorder.

Via behavioral counseling approaches to practice children's speech skills, different types of phoneme problems and pronunciation errors can be reduced. The behavioral therapy approach (model) developed can be used informally for families whose children experience speech delays and can be used for children with language disorders in conventional schools (special schools). It is also helpful for speech therapists for different cases of verbal disturbances experienced by patients, as applied to children with hearing loss using a speech analyzer and picture tests to improve the speaking skills of children.

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The Teaching of Civic Education as Perceived by Language Educators

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Abstract

Education for citizenship is essential specially in meeting the challenges of times. Education sector like Universities play a significant role as it is the best avenue in communicating civic citizen to its citizenry for them to contribute to public processes and discussions of real issues and strengthening civic education as a means to more meaningful citizen participation in democratic life. It is then the purpose of this study to assess the teaching of civic education as perceived by the language educators since they are of great help to civic educators to equip students about democracy and Constitution. The data gathered for this study were analyzed using descriptive statistics. Frequencies and percentages in two way tables were used to present the profile of the respondents by age and sex, highest level of formal education completed, years of teaching, and a number of Civic Education related subjects taught. Correlation analysis was done to determine the significant relationship between work and education profile and views and instruction activities in teaching civic education. The Spearman's rank order correlation coefficient is computed for age and education profile with views and instruction activities in the teaching of Civic Education. Whereas, the Pearson's correlation coefficient is used for years of teaching Civic Education related subjects with views and instruction activities in the teaching of Civic Education. The significance level is set at 5%. Through this study, it was concluded that language education makes an important contribution to civic education since age, work experience, views on civic education as perceived by respondents show significant correlation in teaching civic education.

Keywords: *Civic Education, Language Educators, Education for Citizenship*

Introduction

Civic education is generally understood as the formation of civic knowledge, skills, and dispositions for effective democratic participation according to UNDP Democratic Governance Group (2004), the same three elements enumerated by Branson (1999) citing the Center for Civic Education's (1991) National Standards for Civics and Government (1994). Civic education is an important means to acquire literacy skills on issues relating to governance, rule of law, good citizenship and sustainable development. Now, promoting Global Citizenship Education (GCED) has become a key education target for all countries around the globe and it is expected that GCED will continue to be further integrated into formal, non-formal, and informal educational contexts. In fact, countries are taking steps to include GCED related components in their national curricula, develop educational resources, and prepare teachers to teach global citizenship in the classroom.

As stated by Morgan (2016), the young are our future, and the future of our democracy is in their hands. As such, civic education needs to prepare students with the knowledge, skills, and desire to participate successfully in the democratic process. On the other hand, according to Djite (2008), the role of language in societies is to serve as a vehicle for transmitting information. Stotsky (1990) also notes that language education makes a major contribution to civic education and may contribute in many distinct manners to the formulation of civic character.

There is, however, plenty of evidence that no nation has achieved the degree of comprehension and recognition of the rights and obligations required for the preservation and growth of a constitutional democracy among the totality of its citizens. One of the disturbing findings of recent studies, including the IEA report, is that young people around the world, especially at the national level, tend to disdain politics.

In addition, there is a perceived disparity between the objectives articulated in the curriculum for democracy and the realities of society and education. There is also a gap when there are long lists of factual knowledge to be transmitted to students, but their study allocates only one or two hours. Likewise, teachers assigned to teach subjects do not fit their education or training.

Consequently, there is an increasing need to integrate a global dimension into citizenship education in the Philippines. According to the United Nations Educational, Science and Cultural Organization's first Global Education Monitoring (GEM) Survey cited by Chung [8], the Philippines scored zero in educating its people about global citizenship. The study noted that in its national curriculum structure, the Philippines failed to support key issues such as gender equality, human rights, sustainable development and global citizenship, while in other aspects of its educational system, the country scored comparably with neighboring countries. Thus, there is a need for civic education in the 21st century.

Universities, like Isabela State University (ISU) have significant role in catalyzing increased civic engagement by directly providing opportunities for civic engagement as a local institution that can connect young and old people alike across the community as it can be integrated in their extension programs and projects. To do this, civic learning needs to be part and parcel of the current movement across many schools to equip young people with 21st-century skills and to develop and practice the knowledge, beliefs, and behaviors needed to participate in civic life.

Recognizing the significant contribution of language teachers to the teaching of civic education, it is therefore appropriate to evaluate the teaching of civic education as viewed by them. Through this paper, the researcher hopes to be able to provide universities with a scientific basis to establish a policy to revise the curriculum or syllabus content of the subjects of civic education that prepares Filipino students to become responsible citizens. *Taken together, this information could help inform classroom teachers as they make decisions about which teaching strategies and activities provide the most impact in the face of time restrictions.*

In addition, this study was conducted primarily to define the work experience and education profile of the respondents, views on civic education, teaching styles of language teachers in teaching the subjects, providing activities and lessons, identifying needs to enhance civic education teaching and determining the significant relationship between the profile of respondents’ work and education in terms of views in teaching civic education, instruction activities and assessment. Eventually, language and civic education teachers would ultimately be partners in civic education instruction.

Materials and Methods

The study involved 30 Language faculty members of Isabela State University who responded to the questionnaire sent via Google form. The questionnaire was adopted from IEA (International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement) International Study for Civic Education-Teacher Questionnaire. To address the purpose of this study, using a four-part questionnaire was utilized to gather the data and was analyzed using descriptive statistics. Frequencies and percentages in two way tables were used to present the profile of the respondents by age and sex, highest level of formal education completed, years of teaching, and number of Civic Education related subjects taught. The weighted mean was used for the Liker-scale items on views on Civic Education, importance of teaching of (Civic Education related) subjects, activities and lessons, and frequency of the use of activities in Civic Related subjects.

Correlation analysis was done to determine whether there is significant relationship between work and education profile, views and instruction activities in the teaching of Civic Education. The Spearman's rank order correlation coefficient is computed for age and education profile with views and instruction activities in the teaching of Civic Education. Whereas, the Pearson's correlation coefficient is used for years of teaching Civic Education related subjects with views and instruction activities in the teaching of Civic Education. The significance level is set at 5%. For the qualitative interpretation of the correlation coefficients, the table below is used.

Absolute value of the correlation coefficient	Strength of relationship
0.00	No linear correlation
0.01 – 0.40	Low
0.41 – 0.60	Moderate
0.61 – 0.99	High
1.00	Perfect linear correlation

Results and Discussion

Work experience and education profile of the respondents

Majority of Language Faculty members of the University are females aged 30 to 39 years old. By highest level of formal education completed, most of them are Master's degree holders (13 or 43.3%) which shows that they met the qualification standards of the University which is Master's degree. In terms of teaching experience, the lowest is one year teaching experience to one year of teaching Civic Education related subjects, and the highest is 29 years of teaching experience to 29 years of teaching Civic Education related subjects. Whereas, participation in in-service professional development activities or trainings in Civic Education related subjects are noted by only seven (7) of the 30 teacher-respondents. They attended Trainors' Training in Readings in Philippine History, Community Immersion and Apostolate, Rural Development, and GEC Training – Understanding the Self. While, civic education related subjects taught by the teacher-respondents for the school year is noted that one to six subjects related to Civic Education is handled by a teacher. Most of them are teaching Filipino and Panitikan (13) and English and Literature (12). Ten (10) teacher-respondents also stated that they are also teaching Social Science subjects and Language Education subjects.

Views on Civic Education

The following are findings on the views of Civic Education among the teacher respondents. As to the methods in teaching civic education to students, it was found out that teaching Civic Education to students must be integrated into subjects related to human and social sciences like history, geography, languages, religion, ethics, and law. This means that Civic Education is also integrated to language subjects as reveals in the study of Stotsky (1990). On the aspects worth learning in civic education, the teacher-respondents strongly agreed that topics negotiated with the students to be included and studied in the subject are worth learning in Civic Education. This implies that Civic Education educators can perform a diagnostic test or concept mapping in order to include topics that are important to the civic interest of students. On the importance of teaching Civic Education, the teacher-respondents strongly agreed that teaching Civic Education in school is a great deal for our country. This finding affirms Campbell (2006), in which he believes that citizenship education should be student-centered with a strong emphasis on classroom discussion and cooperative activities. On topics in teaching Civic Education, the teacher-respondents strongly agreed that students' participation in community and political activities must be emphasized in Civic Education. This indicates support for previous findings that participation in civic programs positively influences civic-related attitudes, Terkla et al., (2007, Piñgul (2015). In terms of learning of students, the teacher-respondents in general, strongly agreed that the seven aspects mentioned in the above table are learned by students through Civic Education. This implies that Civic education taught students to be more cooperative. This means further that students' group task rather than individual task promote responsibility towards others. With regard to the attribute of a good citizen, all teacher-respondents strongly agreed on the importance of the above attributes of a good adult citizen of the country. Among these, obedience to the law, participation to protect the environment, and patriotism and loyalty to the country ranked first. This indicates that teaching Civic Education prepares students for active citizenship as law abiding, participative, patriotic and loyal to the country.

Teaching of Civic Education related subjects, activities and lessons

In planning for Civic Education related activities and lessons, original sources are Constitutions and Human Rights Declaration ranked first. This denotes that primary source of lessons and activities of Language Educators is lifted from these original sources. While topics on citizens' rights and obligations, social welfare and civic virtues have the highest mean rating among the 20 topics listed as very important for Civic Education, the respondent-teachers also noted that, in addition to international organizations and migrations of people, they are not that confident in dealing with topics on different political systems and election and electoral systems. Lastly, the topic on national constitution and state/political institutions with a mean opportunity mean rating of 3.37, also provided the least learning opportunities to students.

Instruction

Table 1. Mean ratings on the frequency of the conduct of activities related to Civic Education

Activity	Mean rating
The teacher chooses the issues to be discussed in class.	3.27
Students work in projects that involve gathering of information outside of school.	2.97
Students study textbooks.	3.20
Students work on drill sheets or work sheets.	3.13
Students work in groups on different topics and prepare presentations.	3.40
Students participate in role play and simulations.	3.23
The teacher asks questions and the students answer.	3.63
The teacher lectures (presents the subject) and the students take notes.	3.37
The teacher includes discussion on controversial issues in class.	3.13
Students participate in events or activities in the community (society).	3.33

Table 1 discusses the different activities related to civic education. It shows that, the teacher-respondents very often conduct all the above-mentioned activities related to the teaching of Civic Education with the exemption of activities in which students work in projects that involve gathering information outside of school (2.97). Among the activities which were frequently conducted, the activity in which the teacher asks questions and the students answer ranked first with the highest mean rating of 3.63. This is followed by activities in which the teacher lectures (presents the subject) and the students take notes (3.37).

Needs to improve the teaching of Civic Education

Table 2. Frequency distribution of important items that needs improvement in teaching Civic Education

Important items in teaching Civic Education	Frequency*	Rank
more materials and textbooks	24	3
better materials and textbooks	13	7
additional training in teaching methods	27	1
additional training in subject matter knowledge	24	3
more co-operation between teachers in different subject areas	25	2
more instructional time allotted to Civic Education	19	6
more co-operation with external experts	22	5
more opportunities for special projects	9	8
more resources for extra-curricular activities	0	10
more autonomy for school decisions	1	9

**multiple answers*

Table 2, shows the ranks of the important items that need improvement in teaching Civic Education. The teacher-respondents named that additional trainings in teaching methods are an important aspect in teaching Civic Education. Secondly, more co-operation between teachers in different subject areas is needed. Thirdly, they also regarded more materials and textbooks and additional training in the subject matter knowledge are required to enhance the teaching of Civic Education in schools. This finding coincides with the study of Larbi (2020) that teachers handling civic education subjects must undergo additional training in teaching methods.

Table 3. Frequency distribution of assessment tools used in teaching Civic Education

Assessment tool	Frequency*	Rank
written compositions or essays	24	1
multiple-choice tests	18	3
oral assessments	17	4
oral participation	19	2
other forms of assessment	8	5

**multiple answers*

Table 3 reveals that among the different assessment tools employed by the teacher-respondents in evaluating the learnings of the students in Civic Education, written compositions or essays are the most frequently used instrument. Oral participation ranks second, while the use of multiple-choice type of tests ranks third. This means that that students can express their views very well in written compositions and essays which supports the study of Stotsky (1990) that citizens may write or express public issues and other public information.

Relationship between work experience and education profile and views and instruction activities in the teaching of Civic Education

Table 4. Relationship between age and views on Civic Education

Perspective	Correlation coefficient	Qualitative description
A. Methods of teaching the lessons	0.266	Low
B. Aspects worth learning in the subject	0.431*	Moderate
C. Importance of teaching the subject	0.067	Low
D. Topics of emphasis in teaching the subject	-0.040	Low
E. Learnings of students	0.135	Low

F. Learnings of students related to good citizenship	0.032	Low

* *Correlation is significant at the 5% level.*

Given the six standpoints on Civic Education considered in the study, table 4 shows that the age and the aspects worth learning in the subject are moderately correlated (0.431), and is statistically significant at the 5% level (Prob = 0.018). All other perspectives have low correlation with age; that is, learning of students related to good citizenship (0.032), topics of emphasis in teaching the subject (0.040), importance of teaching the subject (0.067), learnings of students (0.135), and methods of teaching the lessons (0.266).

Table 5. Relationship between age and teaching of Civic Education related subjects, activities and lessons

Aspects considered in teaching	Correlation coefficient	Qualitative description
Source of activities and lessons	-0.125	Low
Important topics to be included in the lessons	-0.157	Low
Confidence in teaching the topics included in the lessons	0.148	Low
Opportunities of students in learning the topics	-0.095	Low
Frequency of activities used in teaching	-0.275	Low

Table 5 shows that there is low association between age and the different aspects considered in teaching Civic Education related subjects. Correlation coefficients range from 0.095 (opportunities of students in learning the topics) to 0.275 (frequency of activities used in teaching the lessons). Although there is low correlation, it may mean that as language educators grow older, they appear to deliver more Civic Education practices.

Table 6. Relationship between educational profile and views on Civic Education

Perspective	Correlation coefficient	Qualitative description
A. Methods of teaching the lessons	0.177	Low
B. Aspects worth learning in the subject	0.435*	Moderate
C. Importance of teaching the subject	-0.034	Low
D. Topics of emphasis in teaching the subject	0.218	Low
E. Learnings of students	0.036	Low
F. Learnings of students related to good citizenship	0.081	Low

** Correlation is significant at the 5% level.*

As revealed in Table 6, the educational profile of the teacher-respondents in terms of their highest educational attainment has moderate correlation with the aspects worth learning in the subject. This relationship is statistically significant at the 5% level (Prob = 0.016) while the other perspectives have low correlation with education; that is, importance of teaching the subject (0.034), learnings of the students (0.036), learnings of students related to good citizenship (0.081), methods of teaching the lessons (0.177), and topics of emphasis in teaching the subject (0.218). This means that as the level of education of language educators' progresses, they recognize that Civic Education is worth learning and necessary for citizenship education.

Table 7. Relationship between educational profile and teaching of Civic Education related subjects,
activities and lessons

Aspects considered in teaching	Correlation coefficient	Qualitative description
Source of activities and lessons	-0.044	Low
Important topics to be included in the lessons	0.065	Low
Confidence in teaching the topics included in the lessons	-0.280	Low
Opportunities of students in learning the topics	-0.243	Low
Frequency of activities used in teaching	0.076	Low

Table 7 shows that there is low correlation between educational profile of the teacher-respondents and the different aspects considered in teaching Civic Education related subjects, activities and lessons. The least coefficient is for sources of activities and lessons (0.044) and the highest is for confidence in teaching the topics included in the lessons related to Civic Education (0.280). Although the results suggest a low correlation between the profile of education and the activities and lessons of civic education, this may also mean that the confidence of language educators in teaching the subject is influenced by their educational profile.

Table 8. Relationship between years of teaching Civic Education related subjects and views on Civic Education

Perspective	Correlation coefficient	Qualitative description
A. Methods of teaching the lessons	0.176	Low
B. Aspects worth learning in the subject	0.040	Low
C. Importance of teaching the subject	0.007	Low
D. Topics of emphasis in teaching the subject	0.203	Low
E. Learnings of students	0.021	Low
F. Learnings of students related to good citizenship	0.056	Low

Table 8 reveals the association between years of teaching Civic Education-related subjects and views on Civic Education is generally low. The coefficients range from 0.007 (importance of teaching the subject) to 0.203 (topics of emphasis in teaching the subject). Although it is low, it may also mean that longer years in teaching civic education should be taught specifically.

Table 9. Relationship between years of teaching Civic Education related subjects and teaching of Civic Education related subjects, activities and lessons

Aspects considered in teaching	Correlation coefficient	Qualitative description
Source of activities and lessons	0.257	Low
Important topics to be included in the lessons	0.243	Low
Confidence in teaching the topics included in	0.147	Low

the lessons		
Opportunities of students in learning the topics	0.393*	Low
Frequency of activities used in teaching	0.124	Low

** Correlation is significant at the 5% level.*

Table 9 shows the years of teaching Civic Education related subjects and the different aspects of teaching of Civic Education related subjects, activities and lessons have low association. The least is for frequency of activities used in teaching (0.124); the highest is 0.393 for opportunities of students in learning the topics, which is statistically significant at the 5% level (Prob = 0.032). Although there is a low correlation, students 'opportunities to learn the subjects are evident, and this suggests that language teachers' experience in teaching civic education provides students with opportunities that citizenship education is a benefit because these students will someday become public servants.

Conclusion

From the results of the study, the following conclusions can be deduced.

Most of the Language Faculty members of the University are female, middle age and relatively new in handling civic education subjects and most of them met the qualification standards of the University since they are Master's degree holder. However, there is a need to send faculty members to Civic Education Training since majority of the respondents is quite new in handling civic education subjects.

The teacher-respondents' agree that civic education must be integrated into subjects related to human and social sciences like history, geography, languages, religion, ethics, law and teachers must integrate topics negotiated by students and teaching Civic Education in school is a great deal for our country. Likewise, student's participation in community and political activities must be emphasized in Civic Education and they also agreed that that civic education taught students to become cooperative. Which consequently taught students to become law abiding, participative and patriotic and to be loyal to the country. In planning for Civic Education related activities and lessons, original Language Educators primary source of lessons and activities is lifted from original sources like constitution and human rights declaration.

The teacher-respondents very often conduct different kind of activities in teaching of Civic Education these include question and answer, lectures, participation to community activities and cooperative learning. The language educators need additional training in teaching methods in order to improve the teaching of civic education while the assessment tools used in teaching civic education written composition and essays is the most frequently used.

Language Educators' age, educational profile and views of civic is moderately correlated specifically on the aspects worth learning in the subject. Thus, as the age and level of education progresses they recognize that civic education is worth learning and necessary for citizenship.

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Developing Sociopragmatic Competence of Pakistani EFL Speakers: A Case of Apology Speech Act

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Abstract

Interlanguage pragmatic studies have revealed that L2 speakers tend to transfer their L1 cultural and social rules into the target language, using improper linguistic behaviours that become a reason for pragmatic failure. The current study examines whether English-using Pakistanis transfer their L1 sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic resources to target culture language or not. Following a quantitative research approach, data were collected through a discourse completion test (DCT). For the current study, 30 English-using Pakistanis, 30 Pakistani Urdu speakers, and 30 British English speakers were recruited through nonrandom purposive convenience sampling procedures. Data was coded in light of Holmes (1990) and Blum-kulka's (1989) apology classifications. The findings indicate that English-using Pakistanis transferred their apology strategies from L1 to target culture language. Both English-using Pakistanis and Pakistani Urdu speakers are found only using five types of apologies (explicit expression of apology, explanation or account, expressing self-deficiency, intensifiers of apology, and refusal to acknowledge guilt. The results also reveal that English-using Pakistanis are being influenced by sociocultural constraints concerning social distance, social status and severity of the offence. The results of this study might be significant from an academic perspective and can help English language instructors, material developers, policymakers, and future researcher.

Keywords: *English-using Pakistanis; interlanguage pragmatic; pedagogical perspective;, sociocultural transfer; sociocultural constraints.*

Introduction

Sociocultural competence is quite imperative for successful communication in the target language, as according to Ahmed (2017), it has not been given due attention in the second language teaching in Pakistan. Learners of the target language produce grammatically correct language but fail to realize its communicative intentions (Hymes, 1974, Tello Rueda, 2006). Eslami-Rasekh and Mardani (2010) fortify the need of having substantial sociocultural competence in the target language because learners proficient in linguistic competence may not be competent in sociocultural competence of second language (L2). It has been observed when dealing with a new language along with their mother or native language, English as a foreign language (EFL) learners tend to transfer sociocultural rules of L1 in the target language.

For developing the sociocultural competence, the significance of speech act cannot be denied because speech act has been extensively studied in recent years, so as to examine the sociocultural competence and transfer in the field of intercultural communication (Ahmed, 2017; Holmes 1990; Wolfson, 1989; Sultana & Khan, 2014). Specific speech act is apology, complaint, compliment, refusal, request, and suggestion (Harlow, 1990; Frescura, 1991; Cohen & Olshtain, 1981). This study highlights the sociocultural transfer in English-using Pakistanis apology strategies.

Sociocultural transfer is the effect of speakers' pragmatic awareness of L1 culture and language on their understanding. Sociocultural transfer can be either positive, which deals with verification of sociolinguistics and pragmatics integrity among languages, or negative, which displays improper transfer of linguistic norms of the first language into the second language. The reason for Pragmatic error or failure is the incorrect transfer of speech act strategies from the first language to second language (Thomas, 1983; Wannaruk, 2008; Tabatabaei & Samiee, 2013).

Lee (1999) has laid great emphasis that foreign language learners of English learners should have the knowledge and understanding of pragmatics in the target culture along with linguistic competence in English language to strengthen their intercultural communicative competence in English. All the same, EFL teaching programs in Pakistan have not given due attention to teaching pragmatic competence (Warsi, 2004; Jabeen & Akhtar, 2013; Go Silk,2020; Jolaoso & Olajimbiti, 2020).

Studies have shown that Pakistani students of English achieve a higher level of competency in English syntax, vocabulary, and phonology, but they are found incompetent in using sociocultural rules of English (Sultan, 2014). The Pakistani EFL learners get quite a good interaction with the English language with the help of different social, electronic, and print media, but they hardly show the target advanced level of sociocultural competence in English language (Jabeen & Akhtar, 2013; Khan & Sultana, 2014). Pakistani EFL learners are one of these understudied groups. On the whole, there is agreement that intercultural communication research is still an underdeveloped area in Pakistan (Jabeen & Akhter, 2013; Khalid, 2016). Even when, English, as “a lingua franca in today’s globalizing world, is becoming the language of transcultural mobility, the language of the third space, and a language of hybridity” (see Saleem, Anjum & Naz,, 2018; Al-Ghamdi, Almansoob, & Alrefaee, 2019).

Given that the challenge for Pakistani English learners in today’s “intercultural contexts is that social rules are in constant flux; what is appropriate depends on the unique linguistic and cultural backgrounds of the interlocutors, and the specific context in which they are communicating” (Baker, 2016; p. 12). Eventually, “misconceptions and communication breakdowns are often brought about by discourse differences as shaped by culture” (Scollon et al., 2012, p. 45). Especially, when a large number of Pakistanis every year appear in IELTS and TOEFL tests in order to get admission in foreign English speaking and non-English-speaking universities (Shamim, 2011; Khalid, 2016), in such circumstances, inadequate sociocultural competence (insufficient knowledge of speech act) while studying abroad can be a cause of misconception and misunderstanding among speakers if they do not understand each other’s illocutionary intent. Furthermore, during the interaction with international organizations on the Internet especially, using social media sites (Twitter, Facebook, WeChat, Instagram, LinkedIn, Qzone etc.), English-using Pakistanis need to demonstrate adequate sociocultural competence.

There have been conducted a number of studies on the speech act of apology in Pakistan (Khan & Sultana, 2014; Majid & Janjua, 2014), neglecting the investigation of sociocultural competence of English-using Pakistanis. In addition, previous studies conducted on the speech act of apology solely focused on the production of apology strategies, the area of sociocultural transfer is ignored. Further, the present study has its participants from all middle-level professionals (teachers, academicians, lawyers, engineers, doctors, journalists, and Army personals), moving away from the conventional modesty, to investigate whether or not they transfer their socio-cultural norms and speaking rules of the target language. The current study proposed the following research question:

1. What are the apology strategies used by English-using Pakistanis, British English speakers and Pakistani Urdu speakers, and are English-using Pakistanis found making a sociocultural transfer in their apology strategies from L1 to target culture language?

Literature Review

In the field of interlanguage pragmatics, the phenomenon of sociocultural transfer has attracted increased attention from several linguists and researchers. Interlanguage pragmatics is a field of pragmatics that especially discusses how learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) understand and produce speech in a target language (Kasper & Blum- Kulka, 1993). Interlanguage can be split into four elements of grammar, discourse, strategic and sociolinguistic competence, as defined by Canale and Swain (1980). The last classification is the most appropriate for the present research since it talks about the use of language in the apology perspective. Kasper (1992) describes the chances of sociocultural exchange in interlanguage pragmatics as the impact applied by learners' realistic understanding of 'languages' and cultures other than L2 on their understanding, manufacturing and studying of L2 realistic information.

Even though sociocultural exchange has been mentioned as the change in sociocultural competence of first language or cross-linguistic impact (Uliss-Weltz, Beebe &Takahashi, 1990) and according to Odlin (1989) change in such communicative functions or as discourse exchange showing the different concepts about socio-cultural exchange, in the current research, the word 'sociocultural transfer' will be used as it is mentioned by Wolfson (1989). According to him, it represents a realistic exchange. Extra functions of interlanguage pragmatics and cross-cultural pragmatics are also linked with the conversation act of apology.

2.1. Speech Act of Apology

The act of asking for forgiveness happens commonly in our cultures. It may have been anywhere, whether in social or in special communications (Grainger & Harris, 2007). An apology is generally a post-event speech act which states a type of infringement of social norms (Spencer-Oatey, 2008). Speech act of apology is viewed as an act that attends to the face wants of the addressee and it is frequently defined as a face-saving act (Holmes, 1995).

A great number of studies related to speech act of apology have conducted research largely on Western languages while a few have studied Eastern and Asian languages (Nureddeen, 2007). According to Wouk (2005) the interest to discover patterns of different apology strategies has recently developed in Eastern and Asian languages. In this regard studies conducted by Bergman and Kasper (1993) are significant who explore Thai apologies; Indonesian Lombok apologies are investigated by Wouk (2005) and Kim (2008), who has compared the speech acts of apologies in Australian English and South Korean. Other researchers have attempted to investigate apologies in Persian and Arabic languages. One such name is Afghari (2007), who focused upon Persian apologies; and Nureddeen (2007), who discovered apology strategies in Sudanese Arabic. Another current study by Shariati and Chamani (2010) has given an in-depth analysis of the use of apology strategies by Persian speakers.

Though the concept of apology (Alerwi & Alzahrani, 2020) lies in almost every culture and language universally, its recognition and comprehension may vary across different cultures. Alerwi and Alzahrani (2020) propose that a specific type of offense that needs an apology in one culture may not demand an apology in another culture. The findings of other studies have revealed that the occurrence as well as the approaches differ specifically from culture to culture (Cohen & Olshtain, 1981; Olshtain, 1989; Vollmer & Olshtain, 1989). As far as the ratio of occurrence is concerned, according to Spencer-Oatey (2008), Japan is one such country where the act of apology is used most frequently.

2.2. Apology Strategies

Studies have been widely carried out on apology strategies. For example, in implementing regret, Cohen and Olshtain (1981) suggest a simple collection of techniques (also known as semantic formulae). These include the use of an apology term; the handling of liability; the provision of a summary or account; the provision of repair; the appeal of forbearance; and the care for the recipient. Within the CCSARP venture, Fraser (1981), Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) have produced identical modifications to the apology technique. They include a sign of regret; an apology provision; and a request for absolution. These are classified into apparent apology strategies by Wouk (2006).

Suszczynska (1999) suggests that of the three, the most fragile form of apology is said to be a sign of repentance.

2.3. Socio-Pragmatic Variables

As mentioned earlier, a number of socio-pragmatic variables constrain and influence the realisation of the act of apology. They are defined by Olshtain (1989, cited in Wouk 2006, p. 281), including gender, social status, harmony, the cost to the speaker, seriousness of the offence, and contextual factors relating to the specific nature of the situation in which the apology takes place. According to Wouk, these factors influence the essence of the realisation of the apology, including the use of techniques. In terms of the situational aspect, she argues that it can be weighted by people from different cultural backgrounds with different perceptions. In other cultures, one particular case that is viewed as a serious offence in a specific culture may be perceived as a trivial thing, illustrating why the act of apologising is sometimes treated as culturally based in nature.

The present study looks specifically at the sociocultural cultural transfer in English-using Pakistanis apologies. In order to fill the gap in research, this can also be linked to the notion of politeness and face-threatening/supporting actions within apologetic events. Therefore, the outcome of this study will be expected to highlight that students of English as a foreign language should be taught the sociocultural use of language that is important for the learning of a second language and successful intercultural communication because it is crucial to know how to use that language in a real-life situation in interaction with people of another language along with the knowledge of grammar.

Methodology

A quantitative approach was adopted by this data-oriented research. A discourse completion test (DCT) translated into Urdu, each containing 6 items, was developed for data collection. Using SPSS-21 and descriptive narrative techniques, all participant responses were analysed to provide a concrete representation of socio-cultural transfer in English-using Pakistani apology strategies.

3.1. Population and Sample

Al-Momani (2009) states that three sets of data samples should be given for the investigation of the second-language pragmatic abilities of learners: samples of the target language as performed by L2 learners (interlanguage), samples of the target language as performed by native speakers (L2), and samples of the mother tongue of learners as performed by native speakers (L1). Native speakers serve as control groups to assess to what degree the performance of the learner varies from the performance of the native speaker and whether the discrepancies are traceable from the L1 (Ellis, 1994, p. 162). Kasper (1992) notes that "the lack of L1 controls precludes examining observed variation for transfer effects" (p. 14). Using purposive, convenience, non-random sampling procedures, 90 participants, divided into three groups were selected to follow this canonical design and aim to increase the reliability of results. The participants who took part in this study included: (a) 30 English-using Pakistanis (EuP), (b) 30 Pakistani Urdu speakers (PakU), and (c) 30 British English speakers (BritE). The English-using Pakistanis and Pakistani Urdu speakers were recruited from different professions including teachers, lawyers, doctors, engineers, journalists and army personals (as mentioned in Rahman, 1998) and the British English speakers from Coventry University, UK, Leeds University, UK, and British Association of Applied Linguistics (BALL) members. All the participants were graduates between the ages of 25 and 65. The EuP group consisted of 15 males and 15 females and the PakU group consisted of 15 males and 15 females. The only criteria for selecting the EuP and PakU participants from different organizations and institutions was that the respondent should be educated (at least up to the bachelor's level and have studied English as a compulsory subject) and should be in a job where the official written work is carried out in English or English and Urdu language and can exhibit sociocultural competence in the use of apology strategies. The BritE group consisted of 15 males and 15 females.

3.2. Instrumentation

A Discourse Completion Test (DCT) translated in Urdu version, with 6 apology situations, was designed to gather data from English-using Pakistanis apology formulaic, having modified those situations which were adopted in the earlier speech act of apology studies Cohen and Olshtain, (1981); Brown, (2008); Bergman and Kasper, (1993); and

Thijjing, (2010). The role of imposition, sociocultural status (high, equal and low) and distance (close, distant and equivalent,) of the participants and respondents is also taken into account in the design of the apology situations.

3.3. Data Collection Procedure

British English speakers reported their responses through emails. While researchers approached the EuP and PakU groups in person to participate in the Informed Consent Sessions and the Discourse Completion Tests. The willing participants were asked to fill in the discourse completion tests (DCT). The respondents were explained that the focus of the study is upon the use of language and apology strategies not the ability of language. Each situation in the DCT was also explained to the participants before they completed it.

3.4. Data Analysis Procedure

Keeping in mind our cultural variations in apology, we combined Holmes (1990) and Blumkulka's (1989) classifications, because Holmes (1990) strategies alone were not fulfilling our research requirements. Nonetheless, the study based its data analysis of Apology Strategies on Holmes (1990) and Blumkulka's (1988) classifications of Apology Strategies (AS).

Table 1

Holmes (1990) and Blumkulka's (1988) Classification of Apology Strategies

	Strategy	**Estimated Expressions in Urdu**	**Estimated Expressions in English**
A	Explicit Expression of apology	معذرت، معاف کرنا	Sorry
A1	An offer of apology	میں معافی مانگتا ہوں.	I beg pardon.
A2	An expression of regret	میں معافی چاہتا ہوں.	I'm sorry.
A3	A request for forgiveness	کیا آپ براہ مہربانی مجھے معاف کر سکتے ہیں؟	Can you excuse me please?
B	Explanation or account	آج بہت خوفناک ٹریفک تھی.	There was terrible traffic.
C	Acknowledgement of responsibility	اوہ، میں نے غلطی 'کر دی۔	'Oh, I made a mistake'.
C1	Accepting the blame	یہ میری غلطی ہے.	It's my fault.

C2	Expressing self-deficiency	میں الجھ گیا / پریشان ہو گیا	I got upset/confused.
C3	Expressing lack of intent	میرا اسے توڑنے کا ارادہ نہیں تھا.	I did not mean to break it.
C4	Recognizing Interlocutor as deserving apology	کیا آپ ٹھیک ہیں؟	You're right.
C5	Offering repair/ redress	میں آپ کے لیے ایک نیا کیمرہ خرید لوں گا.	I'll buy a new camera for you.
D	Promise of forbearance	میں وعدہ کرتا ہوں، میں اگلی بار ایسا نہیں کروں گا.	I promise I'll not do it next time.
E	Demonstrating a sense of shame	میں نے اس کا واقعی شرم آتی ہے.	I'm really ashamed of it.
F	Intensifiers of the apology	مجھے بہت افسوس ہے.	I'm very sorry.
G	Refusal to acknowledge guilt	اس کو پہلے ہی نقصان پہنچا تھا. میری غلطی نہیں.	It was already damaged; not my fault.

Results

This section presents discourse completion test (DCT) results in order of research questions investigating the use of apology strategies by EuP, BritE, and PakU speakers. It further reports the level of sociocultural competence English-using Pakistanis display, including the sociocultural transfer in English-using Pakistanis apology strategies in various social contexts including social distance, degree of imposition, and social status. Table 2 presents results of the specific apology strategies used by the participants of three groups. We can see that BritE English speakers tend to use A1, A2, and A3 (55, 59, and 61) apology strategies more often in different severe and non-severe situations. In contrast, both EuP and PakU speakers prefer to use less A1, A2, and A3 apology strategies with a proportion of (25:28:25::20:25:31).

As far as the use of Explanation apology strategy is concerned, the results indicate that EuP and PakU speakers prefer to use this strategy more often with a proportion of (93:85). In contrast, BritE speakers tend to use less Explanation (56) strategy in different severe and non-severe situations.

In the Acknowledgment of responsibility category, findings indicate that EuP and PakU speakers prefer to use C1, C2, C3 and C5 apology strategies with a proportion of

(48:73:29:41::39:79:35:39). Anyhow, they do not prefer to use C4 apology strategy at all. Likewise, BritE speakers also tend to use C1, C2, C3, and C5 (58,34,53, and 67) apology strategies, but their use of these strategies is comparatively quite higher than the other two groups (EuP and PakE) except C2 strategy.

Table 2

Frequency Distribution of English-using Pakistanis Apology Strategies

	Strategies		EuP %	BritE %	PakU %
A	**Explicit Expression of apology**				
A1	*An offer of apology*	I beg pardon.	25	55	20
A2	*An expression of regret*	I'm sorry.	28	59	25
A3	*A request for forgiveness*	Can you excuse me please?	25	61	31
B	**Explanation or account**	There was terrible traffic.	93	56	85
C	**Acknowledgement of responsibility**				
C1	*Accepting the blame*	It's my fault.	48	58	39
C2	*Expressing self-deficiency*	I got upset/confused.	73	34	75
C3	*Expressing lack of intent*	I did not mean to break it.	29	53	35
C4	*Recognizing H as deserving apology*	You're right.	00	02	00
C5	*Offering repair*	I'll buy a new camera for you.	41	67	39
D	**Promise of forbearance**	I promise, I'll not do it next time.	58	34	64
E	**Demonstrating sense of shame**	I'm really ashamed of it.	27	56	30
F	**Intensifiers of the apology**	I'm very sorry.	70	42	65
G	**Refusal to acknowledge guilt**	It was already damaged; not my fault.	55	23	60

Unsurprisingly, EuP and PakU speakers prefer to use Promise of Forbearance strategy more often (58, 64) than BritE speakers, who are found using less number with a proportion of (34) in given situations. The results of Demonstrating Sense of Shame indicate that BritE speakers prefer to use this strategy more often (56) than EuP and PakU speakers (27, 30). In contrast, both EuP, and PakU tend to use Intensifiers of the apology more often (70, 65) than the BritE English speakers who are found using this strategy (42) moderately. It is no wonder that both EuP and PakU groups prefer to use Refusal to acknowledge guilt apology strategy more often (55, 60) than BritE speakers (23) who do not favour the use of this strategy.

Discussion

The results provided in table 2 present an overall view of apology techniques used by EuP, BritE, and PakU. The reactions indicate how the three groups expressed their apologies in their efforts to recover individual connections and balance. In spite of individual and social aspects, the selection of apology techniques may signify the speakers' desire for keeping individual connections and balance in the community. The results demonstrate both individual and social aspects of respect and harmony; both these aspects are surprisingly involved in the choice of the apology techniques. Past studies (Adrefiza & Jones, 2013; Wu & Wang, 2016; Waluyo, 2017) have also acknowledged this idea, which consider that these aspects together with additional aspects, like level of social power and distance between speakers, level of imposition, age of speakers, and gender of the respondents, perform an important part in apology strategies. Certain elements of these factors also appear to apply in the performance of apology strategies. Though the speakers are different in relations to social power and status, the apology technique choice differs from participant to participant. However, it needs to keep in mind that the information embodies only a small segment of Pakistani and British cultures; so, a little variation of apology realizations in the three groups that are apparent here may only be interpreted as a signal of the kind of language behavior trend which may be anticipated from three groups, especially in performing apology strategies. The results also display that there is variation in the use of apology strategies, British English speakers tend to use more A1, A2, and A3 strategies than English-using Pakistanis and Pakistani Urdu speakers. As table 1 illustrates, both English-using Pakistanis and Pakistani Urdu speakers have used an almost same proportion of A1, A2, and A3 strategies, indicating the transfer of cultural norms from L1 to the target language. The Explicit Expression of apology strategies, in the present study, are uttered in several syntactic structures in EuP, BritE and PakU data, including: “I’m sorry” “I beg pardon”, “Excuse me please”, and “Forgive me kindly” “Maaf kyjea ga”, Muje maaf kar den”, and “Muj se galti ho gayee” in Urdu. The following illustrations from the data provide proof of how Explicit Expression of Apology is executed through A1, A2, and A3 by Eup, BritE, and PakU groups:

Employee forgot to pass on an urgent letter to the boss.

> **EuP:** Sorry Sir, I forgot to pass it to you. I had high blood pressure yesterday and was out of mind. I assure you, it won’t happen again.
>
> **BritE:** I apologize for the mistake.
>
> **PakU:** Sir maaf kar den. Mere zehan me nehi raha. Meri tabyat kal kharab thi. Ainda esa nehi ho ga.
>
> (*Translation: Sir forgive me. I couldn’t remember. It won’t happen again*).

The apology expressions given above clearly illustrate that the response of British English speaker is direct and short “I apologize for the mistake”. In contrast, English-using Pakistanis and Pakistani Urdu speakers tend to use prolong utterances which seem to be quite cultured-specific and language-specific response. The EuP response “Sorry sir, I forgot to pass it to you”, carries the explicit expression of apology including Explanation “I had high blood pressure yesterday and was out of mind” and Expressing self-deficiency. Further, it includes the use of Promise of Forbearance “It won’t happen again”. Unsurprisingly, Pakistani Urdu speaker’s response also carries the similar kind of IFID consisting of Explicit Expression of Apology including Expressing self-deficiency, Explanation and Promise of Forbearance. These expressions indicate that both EuP and PakU groups have displayed positive politeness behaviour, though they have produced prolonged cultural-specific apology strategies while completely adhering to their native rules of speaking. It signals the occurrence of negative sociocultural transfer in their use of apology strategies.

The other strategy that is less favoured by BritE speakers is Explanation. In contrast, English-using Pakistanis and Pakistani Urdu speakers tend to use more Explanation strategies, providing evidence that the Urdu language influences English-using Pakistanis in producing and perceiving apology strategies inappropriately while keeping in mind sociocultural competence.

Workmate came almost half an hour late to see a colleague.

EuP: Sorry yar (friend) I missed the train. Mom didn't make me wake up early. And buses you know mostly come late, but today came well in time and I was late.

BriE: I'm sorry, I couldn't manage to come in time.

PakU: Yar men raat ko late soya tha or suba time per na uth saka. Or aj roads per bohat rush tha jis ki waja se late ho gaya.

(Translation: Buddy I slept late last night and couldn't wake up early in the morning. And there was a great rush on roads today owing to that I got late).

In the above apology strategies, three groups have demonstrated the use of "Explanation" strategies. It can be seen that both EuP and PakE groups have used quite extended apology strategy. In contrast, BritE speaker's apology strategy is quite short and direct. The use of extended apology strategies by EuP speakers indicate the operation of negative sociocutlral transfer. Hence, the worth noting fact regarding EuP speakers' sociocultural transfer is that Explicit Expression of Apology and Explanation strategies are the most favored strategies of EuP and PakU groups. This appears to be in line with the Pakistani society's cultural characteristics, which are believed to belong to two fundamentally diverse types of cultures. According to Hofstede (2006, 2011), Sawir (2002), Darine and Hall (1998), Klopf and McCroskey (2006) and Rahman (2009), Pakistan is generally associated with Eastern and collectivist culture, while the UK is commonly thought to be Western and individualist. The two cultures are said to vary from one another in many characteristics, such as the way personal and social relations in society are preserved. According to Rahman (2009), in Pakistan, as a collectivist society, social and personal relations are customarily powerful than those in individualist nations such as the UK, because public encounters are discussed in meeting much more regularly than in an individualist community.

One more exciting trend is the percentage of Explanation techniques in use. The reason that English-using Pakistanis and Pakistani Urdu speakers display the most occurrences in Explanation than the British English speakers seem to confirm one of the typical generalizations about the conversation designs of the three groups. These generalizations develop in a typical difference made about interaction behaviors between High Context Perspective and Low Context Perspective societies (Hofstede, 2011). Basically, Pakistan is believed to be HC, thus, their conversation behaviors seem to be regarded uncertain, implied, and indecisive (Wouk, 2006); Westerns, in contrast, are usually supposed LC and direct, open, and candid (Rahman, 1998; Hofstede, 2006, 2011). Explanation actually is an HC attribute as it reveals a large degree of intricate and indirectness on the part of the speaker (Adrefiza & Jones, 2013; Rahman, 2008). Thus, individuals from an LC lifestyle sometimes find it tough to understand individuals from HC as their conversation purpose can be uncertain (Adrefiza & Jones, 2013). Rahman (2009) claims that such conversation functions are popular in the Pakistani community.

Another cluster of strategies which are most favoured by three group participants is the *Acknowledgment of Responsibility*. As can be noticed both EuP and PakU groups have reported a similar number of these strategies indicating a transfer from L1 cultural norms to L2. Given that BritE speaker tends to use less *Acknowledgment of Responsibility* strategies. Though the use of C1, C2, and C3 strategies indicates positive politeness, but it belongs to collectivist cultural traits where people like to be part of a group and like to restore personal relations in order to keep healthy relation (Saleem, Anjum & Naz 2018). The following example illustrates the use of *Acknowledgment of Responsibility* strategies.

Student copied an essay from a website for assignment and teacher found out.

EuP: It's my fault Sir. I assure you it won't happen again *Inshallah*. In fact, I'm very poor in research, and couldn't find relevant material. I shall be grateful if you could forgive this time. I'll ashamed of my this silly behaviour.

BritE: I never knew it's a crime. It's my mistake. Please forgive me.

PakU: Sir mene jan buj kar nehi kya. Khuda k leeye muje maaf kar dein dobara esa nai ho ga. Ap ko to pata he research kafi mushkal kaam he or mere pas net b nai he. Is lye copy kar lya. Laikan esa dobara nai ho ga.

(*Translation: Sir It unintentionally happened. For god sake, forgive me, I'll not do this again. You know research is a tough task, and I don't have internet facility. That's why I copied. But ill refrain from doing this in future*).

In the above apology strategies, participants tend to express their acknowledgment of responsibility and uttering their lack of intent. Given that BritE speaker's response is quite precise as compared to EuP and PakU speakers indicating the use of culture-specific and language-specific semantic formulaic expression. Both EuP and PakU speakers have found using quite extended expression signaling high context cultural traits based on implicit communication style (Saleem & Anjum, 2018). The current research, however, reveals that such functions do operate noticeably in Pakistanis responses both in English and Urdu. Unsurprisingly, English-using Pakistanis and Pakistani Urdu speakers seem to go to express themselves evasively as usual. Hence, English-using Pakistanis and Pakistani Urdu speakers tend to use an almost equal number of Apology strategies, providing evidence that Urdu language influences English-using Pakistanis in producing and perceiving apology strategies inappropriately while keeping in mind sociocultural competence.

One more exciting trend that is noticed in the findings is the percentage of "Promise of forbearance" and "Refusal to acknowledge guilt" techniques in use. The reason that both English-using Pakistanis and Pakistani Urdu speakers tend to use most often these strategies as compared to British English speakers provide further evidence of transferring L1 cultural trends to target culture language. In Pakistani context, people usually offer more promise of forbearance strategies when they fail to fulfill their duties, as there was a situation "where the speaker was found copying an essay from the website". Further, English-using Pakistanis and Pakistani Urdu speakers prefer to use more "Refusal to acknowledge guilt", another trend that is commonly observed in Pakistani culture where people do not acknowledge guilt even if they have offended someone (Saleem & Azam, 2014). Nevertheless, these findings provide ample evidence regarding the operation of sociocultural transfer in English-using Pakistanis apology strategies.

Conclusion

The major findings of current study reveal that apology strategies are distinctive communicative procedures in societies with English speaking individuals. As mentioned in the previous research (Reiter, 2000; Intachakra, 2012; Holmes, 1990), apologies in English have a quite extensive range of formulae. In contrast, Pakistanis hardly necessitate redressive action as they possess or learn quite a small proportion of apology formulae. English-using Pakistanis used the same type of strategies like explicit expression of apology, explanation or account, expressing self-deficiency, intensifiers of apology, and refusal to acknowledge guilt in both DCTs, clearly indicating the transfer of cultural norms and rules of speaking. It looks probable that Pakistan has a "positive politeness" culture as "the expressive expression apologies" propose themselves. Contrariwise, English-speaking countries incline to display the necessity to pursue "negative politeness" strategies as it involves the display of more linguistic formulae. In conclusion, the language is quite a complex phenomenon, not only semantically, structurally but also functionally. The present study also revealed, when apologizing in Urdu and English, English-using Pakistanis get affected by sociocultural variables concerning social distance, social status and severity of the offense. In short, the three sociocultural factors are significant to determine the selection of "apology strategies".

Pedagogical Implications

For learners of English as a foreign language sociocultural transfer is a reason of a lot of troubles, specifically in the speech act of apology. It is pertinent to discuss the pedagogical implications in order to raise sociocultural and interlanguage pragmatic consciousness of Pakistani EFL learners and speakers to enhance sociocultural perspective of "speech act of apology" in English, and to help instructors to enhance sociocultural education in the classroom and to develop teaching resources.

First and foremost, instructors should raise Pakistani EFL learners' understanding and consciousness of the difference in the culture between that of the target language and their native language culture, since sociocultural variations are linked to culture.

Second, English language instructors must know that competency in syntax, phonology, morphology and vocabulary do not entail knowledge of sociocultural and pragmatic proficiency. Findings of comparing differences and similarities in the apologies of first language and second language may be one of the academic way to enhance EFL learners' socio-pragmatic and pragma-linguistic attentiveness in EFL education.

Third, English language teaching experts and material developers need to focus on developing textbooks dealing with different speech act situations and carrying the use of socio-pragmatic and pragma-linguistic expressions. Further, it is also strongly suggested that teaching material be designed to echo English native speakers way of thinking and speaking in natural settings. In addition, the base for textbook drills should be on examples of real resources or specially written exchanges that exhibit the 'spoken strategies and routines' displayed with the understanding of speech act. English-using Pakistanis are mostly surrounded by their native culture and language and hardly get the chance to speak English except the classroom. Moreover, in English language classrooms learners should be provided all the possible chances to rehearse interactive proficiency.

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Appendix A

Imagine if you are in these situations;

1. 1. At the office, you forgot to send your boss an urgent document. Your boss noticed the next day that you had not passed it on to him. What would you have said?

   You:____

   ____

   ____

2. You promised to return your friend's laptop. You held it for almost two weeks, though. Then you were asked by your friend to return it. What would you say to that friend of yours?

   You:____

   ____

   ____

3. In a school, you are the head of a department. You forgot to let the junior teacher attend the meeting, so he skipped it for your sake. Your junior instructor spoke to you about your negligence. What is it you'd say to him?

   You:____

   ____

   ____

4. For your assignment, you copied an essay from a website and your teacher found out. What are you going to tell your teacher?

   You:____

   ____

   ____

5. There was your junior colleague at the hospital. You said you were going to see her at the hospital, but you were stopped from going by an urgent activity. You called her the next day to justify why you weren't there to see her. What were you going to tell her?

You:____

____

____

6. You operate as a guide-tourist. You arrived late to pick up the visitors because you went to the wrong hotel. For an hour, they waited. When you get to the hotel, what will you say to them?

   You:____

   ____

   ____

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Critical analysis of information in electronic media discourse: "neutrality" or manipulation?

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Abstract

Media in general and social media in particular become part of human daily life routines. Recently social media platforms gained much more importance due to the

instant delivery of news and events. This study aims to identify the diversity of voices reporting information constitute a guarantee of "truth" and "fidelity" to the original sources of information, it also scrutinizes the reliability of the reported information, in the event of discordant voices. It was found that journalists do not only report events; theytake a stand against terrorism. They almost do not stick to the relation of the facts, in all objectivity. Because, practically, they can't do it, even if they wanted, they cannot do it due to social and political factors. There have been cases where fake news, false information disseminated by certain malicious media, has triggered behaviour with catastrophic consequences. It is suffice to say that the "loyal" transmission of information is a myth. An "honest" journalist is supposed to apply "the principle of the sincerity of speech". Make no mistake, with all the goodwill in the world, there can only be a claim to the truth.

Introduction

Traditional media – print, radio, and television – have been forced to create websites and move from a daily to continuous news cycle to meet modern media consumption habits. Various actors in the business compete to meet the demand for continuous media coverage, which poses challenges for the quality of information reported.

In this new context, is it possible to claim the absence of ideological polarization and bias? Does the diversity of voices reporting information constitute a guarantee of "truth" and "fidelity" to the original sources of information, or does it call into question the reliability of the reported information, in the event of discordant voices?

To answer all these questions, we start from a corpus[3] of several media discourse from the Tunisian and foreign electronic media around the event of the Bardo museum attack in Tunis on March 18, 2015.This analysis uses Sophie Moirand's (2004) approach to "methods of collecting data and constituting media corpuses in space and time as well as the limits of their contextualization". The analysis, through the coverage of the event,

[3]To facilitate the analysis, we will classify the extracts from the corpus in tables with a number that does not reflect the chronology of their publication. However, we will include the date and time of their publication as well as the name of the journal and / or the author.

focuses on the discursive connections between "the discursive moment"[4] and other events of the same type.

To what extent do enunciators establish maximum distance when reporting an event? Does the discursive moment constitute an "ethical" challenge in the discursive analogies that inscribe it within a series of events of the same type, or in a family of events? Can thereported comments of the protagonists involved in the discursive moment guarantee "neutrality" and "objectivity" in reporting the information?

The diversity of media coverage of the Bardo attack is manifested horizontally by the discursive productions dealing with this event(Cohn, 1987; Dück, 2020; Zheni, 2020a). This occurs at the time when the act was committed, later in the monitoring of the news feed until a few months later when the discourse dealing with this event is rare until it disappears from the media. On the vertical level, this diversity corresponds to the two cultural contexts of production – the Tunisian media context and the foreign media context – which makes it possible to identify the voices of various speakers[5], and, consequently, of points of view they express in each enunciation context.

Finally, observations related to the articles will make it possible to highlight the degree of enunciative responsibility for the different enunciators in their treatment of the same information. This enables description of theenunciative implications in the operations of discursive connection between different events.

[4]By "discursive moment", S. Moirand (2004: 73) designates the "" emergence of an intense and diversified discursive production about the same fact in the media".

[5]Concerning this notion of intertextuality or polyphony in press discourse, Sophie Moirand (2014: 13/14) refers to Todorov and speaks of "the existence of degrees in the presence of the discourse of others: of" that of the full presence, therefore of explicit dialogue ”(represented in the press by the genre 'written interviews with dialogue') to the“ other extreme ”, where“ the speech of others is not attested by any material evidence, and is nevertheless evoked ”, because it is“ available in the collective memory of a determined social group ”(Todorov 1981: 113)…”

Literature Review

Ideological polarization

Political polarization has become a central focus of social scientists in recent decades (Iyengar& Westwood, 2015; Sides & Hopkins, 2015). People are deeply divided on controversial issues such as inequality, gun control, and immigration—and divisions about such issues have become increasingly aligned with partisan identities in recent years (Mason, 2018). The previous studies show that polarization is increasing and is related to news media coverage. This issue leads to the question of whether it is possible to be totally free of all bias in any situation. Everyone suffers from some form of bias. But what does that look like when applied to news media discussion of politics?

Bias in News Media

The effect of bias has clearly been noted in the media. It is important to evaluate the existing literature on the impact of biased news coverage. A microcosm of the impact of biased news coverage can be seen in what has been deemed the Fox News Effect (Epstein & Robertson, 2015). The Fox News Effect is a phenomenon that occurred in the late 1990s and early 2000s. Fox News has consistently been rated as a conservative news source. When Fox News was founded in 1996, it slowly began to move into new territories and markets. Whenever Fox News entered a new market, it appeared that the number of conservative voters increased (Epstein & Robertson, 2015). This provides more evidence of a link between biased news reporting and increased political participation by conservatives.

The content diversity of voices reporting information

Content diversity is defined by Cuilenburg (1999, 188), as the "heterogeneity of media content in terms of one or more specified characteristics". For example, media content can vary according to the issues or the news stories that are presented (Humprecht&Büchel 2013), and news genres, geographic locations (Choi 2009). The diversity of viewpoints can provide readers with a wide range of perspectives on a given issue (Griswold, 1998). The concept of content diversity differs according to the level of analysis. Diversity can be measured at the level of the single unit of information—like a television news item or a newspaper article—as the variety of different social actors and viewpoints that are represented therein. Alternatively, it can be evaluated at a broader level as the consistency of the distribution of these two dimensions within a news outlet—like a television news broadcast or a newspaper—throughout a specific period. The difference between both levels is more than a technical measurement distinction and suggests a different way that a news consumer learns about an issue.

Discursive moments.

The article segments mentioned as examples illustrate what Moirand(2004) calls a "discursive moment". We witness the "emergence" of a flow of information that jostles concerning the evolution and precipitation of events. The main characteristic of the discursive moment is "the impossible closure of the media corpus" (Moirand, 2004: 90).

The media's treatment of information provides an idea about their mode of functioning. The transmission of information essentially obeys what we call "the principle of urgency" whereby an event that occurred at a certain time, a "T0" (time zero), is stillborn from the moment it is reported, it is indissolubly linked to the moment, to current events. After this stage, what happens is called a "rhematic input", an excess of information in the form of details about the event. The coverage of the event, in fact, applies at least three laws of speech: the law of sincerity (which states not to assert what you believe to be false and/or what you lack evidence for), – the law of informativity, which excludes "baseless chatter" and the law of exhaustiveness, which consists in providing the most complete information possible.

The extracts we analyse in relation to the discursive moment are below:

Extracts	**Journal/ author**	**Date and hour**
(1) Tunis attack: what we know about the killing at the Bardo museum **An attack launched at noon** At least two men armed with **Kalashnikovs attacked the Bardo museum in Tunis** around 12:30 pm this Wednesday**.** **[*Attentat de Tunis : ce que l'on sait de la tuerie au musée du Bardo*** ***Une attaque lancée à midi*** *Au moins deux hommes armés de Kalachnikov ont* ***attaqué le musée Bardo à Tunis*** *vers 12h30 ce mercredi midi.*]	drien Sénécat (with *AFP*), (*L' express*)	18/03/2015 at 18:57, updated on 19/03/2015 at 09:54
(2) Tunisia - The death toll rises to 22 dead at the Bardo museum Security sources told Business News that people were reportedly killed in the armed clashes at the Bardo Museum. Interior Ministry spokesman Mohamed Ali Aroui confirmed that eight people died in the terrorist attack on the Bardo museum. It is about seven tourists and a Tunisian. **[*Tunisie - Le bilans'alourdit à 22 morts au musée du Bardo*** *Des sources sécuritaires ont déclaré à Business News que des personnes auraient été tuées dans les confrontations armées au musée du Bardo.* *Le porte-parole du ministère de l'Intérieur, Mohamed Ali Aroui, a confirmé que huit personnes sont décédées au cours de l'attaque terroriste du musée du Bardo. Il s'agit de sept touristes et d'un Tunisien*.]	*ısiness News*	Published on 18/03/2015 à 12 :45, updated at 13 :07

(3) Taking hostages and victims at the Bardo museum? National TV correspondence in Bardo confirmed the hostage-taking of some tourists in the Bardo museum. National TV added that there would be deaths and injuries among the tourists. **[*Prise d'otages et des victimes au musée du Bardo ?*** *La correspondance de la télé nationale au Bardo a confirmé la prise d'otages de certains touristes au sein du musée du Bardo.* *La télé nationale a ajouté qu'il y aurait des morts et des blessés parmi les touristes.*]	*space Manager*	18/03/2015 at 13:07
(4) Hostage-taking confirmed Interior Ministry spokesman Mohamed Ali Aroui has just confirmed the terrorist hostage-taking on the airwaves of Al Watania. **[*Prise d'otages confirmée*** *Le porte-parole du ministère de l'Intérieur, Mohamed Ali Aroui, vient de confirmer sur les ondes de la chaîne Al Watania la prise d'otage faite par des terroristes.*]	*space Manager*	Published 18/03/2015 at 13:26
(5) Bardo Museum: 19 dead including 17 tourists Head of government Habib Essid has just confirmed the end of the Bardo terrorist operation. He specified that the toll of this operation reached 19 dead including 17 tourists**.** **[*Musée du Bardo: 19 morts dont 17 touristes*** *Le chef du gouvernement Habib Essid vient de confirmer la fin de l'opération terroriste du Bardo. Il a précisé que le bilan de cette opération a atteint 19 morts dont 17 touristes***.]**	*space Manager*	Published on 18/03/2015 at 16:02

(6) A police assault ended the attack. The two attackers were killed by the police. **[*Un assaut de la police a mis fin à l'attaque. Les deux assaillants ont été tués par les forces de l'ordre*.]**	*Obs*	Published on 18/03/2015 at 12 :42 -

We note that the AFP press release (Extract (1), dated the same day as the attack, was published only at 6:57 p.m.,[6] certainly observing caution which could be explained by, among other reasons, a lack of elements that could support a thesis and raise it to the level of truthful, unmistakable information (by an official source).

The first source of information refers to “security sources” (Extract (2), published a few minutes after the attack, at 12:45 pm), is “relayed” by national television (Extract 3), in this case the channel Al Watania, then by the spokesman of the Ministry of the Interior (Extract (2) - in the updated information published and Extract (4), the final word is left to the head of government (Extract (5)), without the debate being closed though: hypotheses are first put forward about:

- "hostage taking": in extract (3), the title is an act of questioning: *"Hostage taking and victims at the Bardo museum? "*[*« Prised’otages et des victimes au musée du Bardo ?*] Which presupposes that the information is not yet available. In addition, in extracts (2) and (3), the use of the conditional with modal value provides information on the uncertainty: "there would be deaths and injuries among tourists" [« *il y aurait des morts et des blesses parmi les touristes* »];
- the number of victims (we note the use of the indefinite article ["*des*"] in the 2nd extract: "people would have been killed" ["*des personnes auraient été tuées* "]).

All these hypotheses are then confirmed by the official source ("*The spokesman of the Ministry of the Interior, Mohamed Ali Aroui, has just confirmed ...*"[(*"Le porte-parole du ministère de l’Intérieur, Mohamed Ali Aroui, vient de confirmer…* "]).

What we also note is that a "number of occurrences of discursive units" (Moirand, 2014), i.e. the "collected media documents", (Moirand, 2014) , is not considered in isolation, and they are related to other data stemming from different media

[6] The attack took place on March 18, 2015 at around 12:30 p.m. local time.

covering the same event: the Bardo terrorist attack. Data is collected as progresses, then we proceed to "update the observables" (Moirand, 2014).

The extracts below are the object of the analysis in relation to these discursive units.

Extracts	**Journal/ author**	**Date and hour**
(1)Essebsi at the bedside of the wounded **[*Essebsi au chevet des blessés*]**	*Espace Manager*	Published on 18/03/2015 at 16:44
(2)The toll is growing: 22 dead and 50 injured According to the national television station *Al Watanya 1*, the number of victims of the terrorist attack is increasing every minute; a total of 22 dead in addition to the two terrorists and around fifty injured. **[*Le bilans'alourdit: 22 morts et 50 blessés*** *D'après la chaîne de télévision nationale Al Watanya 1, le nombre de victimes de l'attaque terroriste s'alourdit d'une minute à l'autre ; au total 22 morts en plus des deux terroristes et une cinquantaine de blessés*.]	*Espace Manager*	Published on 18/03/2015 at 16:51

(3) Tunisian President will fight terrorism "relentlessly" "I want the Tunisian people to understand that we are at war against terrorism and that these savage minorities do not scare us," said Tunisian President Béji Caïd Essebsi. **[*Le président tunisien combattra le terrorisme "sans relâche"*** *"Je veux que le peuple tunisien comprenne que nous sommes en guerre contre le terrorisme et que ces minorités sauvages ne nous font pas peur", déclare le président tunisien Béji Caïd Essebsi.]*	*Le Figaro*	Published on 18/03/2015 at 22:45
(4) Tunisia: The world condemns the terrorist attack with emotion and firmness **[*Tunisie: Le monde condamne l'attaque terroriste avec émotion et fermeté*]**	*20 minutes*	Published on 19/03/15 at 07 :26 — updated 19/03/15 at 07:26
(5) Bardo attack: Béji Caïd Essebsi will address the Tunisian people this Wednesday evening, March 18 **[*Attaque de Bardo : Béji Caïd Essebsi s'adressera Ce mercredi soir 18 mars au peuple tunisien*]**	*Business News*	Published on

(6) International condemnations for the terrorist attack on the Bardo museum in Tunis. The attack on the Bardo Museum in Tunis arouses widespread condemnation around the world. **[*Condamnations internationales de l'attaque terroriste du musée du Bardo de Tunis. L'attaque du musée Bardo à Tunis suscite une large réprobation dans le monde*.]**	*Témoignages*	Published on 19/03/ 2015
(7) Attack. In Tunisia, the return of the nightmare of terrorism The attack on Tuesday November 24, 2015 in Tunis is even more cynical than the two previous ones [the Bardo attack, which killed 23 people in March, and the Sousse attack, which left 39 people dead in June], writes Business News a few hours after the explosion in a bus belonging to the Tunisian presidential guard. **[*Attentat. En Tunisie, le retour du cauchemar du terrorisme*** *L'attentat du mardi 24 novembre 2015 de Tunis est encore plus cynique que les deux précédents [l'attentat du Bardo, qui a fait 23 morts en mars, et celui de Sousse, qui a fait 39 morts en juin], écrit Business News quelques heures après l'explosion survenue dans un bus de la garde présidentielle tunisienne*.**]**	*Courrier International*	Published on 25/11/2015 at 08:18

The event of the attack is not singular, and it has extensions. In a kind of snowball effect, it is part of a series of related facts: International condemnations of "the terrorist attack", "Essebsi at the bedside of the wounded", Essebsi addresses the Tunisians, the messages of support and solidarity from other heads of state, etc. Later the investigation, the arrest of the terrorists, their judgment or their death, weapon in hand, will be connected to the event.

Later, in *Courrier International* on March 19, 2015, the event will be part of a "family of events" (Moirand, 2014) such as "the assault on the US embassy by Salafi militants on September 14, 2012; the assassinations of left-wing personalities ChokriBelaïd on February 6, 2013, then Mohamed Brahmi on July 25, 2013 ". March 18, 2015, can just as easily be linked to other earlier events (as indicated in the last example of the corpus,) or later events such as the attack on the presidential guard in November 2015, in the spirit of Bakhtin's dialogism.[7]

Journalists describe the event using forms of designation that are worth considering. It is possible to distinguish three forms of designation that maintain a relation of synonymy or rather of similarity. To schematize, we have:

1) Terrorist act = slaughter = attack = terrorist attack = terrorist operation =terrorism [Attentat = tuerie = attaque = attaqueterroriste = opérationterroriste =Terrorisme].

2) Armed men = terrorists. [Hommesarmés = terroristes.]

3) Hostages = victims = dead = injured.[8] [Otages = victimes = morts = blessés]

These forms of designation are, in fact, methods of repetition and reformulations rich in meaning. They provide either a kind of equivalence (a word equal to another word such as "terrorist act = terrorism") or an approximation (a word ± equal to an expression or periphrasis such as "terrorist act ± terrorist attack"). These forms of designation are not

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[7] "Every Word in Bakhtin has an author (including a collective one) who expresses in the Word his personal position vis-à-vis a problem, aphenomenon, etc. », Tylkowski, I. (2011). which highlights the polyphonic character of any language production.

[8]The Sign= (equal) does not indicate that we are dealing with synonyms (a semic analysis would note the differences between the occurrences), but these forms of designation function as synonyms, they are, if not equivalent, at least similar. The sign ± (plus or minus) indicates an approximation, without there being any identity between the units.

neutral, though. Some are strongly marked such as "slaughter", "terrorist attack", "victims", "dead". They even provide information on the position of the reporter or his/her point of view, a topic I examine later. The unit "terrorist act" is a hyperonym that maintains an inclusive relation with the hyponyms "slaughter", "attack" which, in their turn, are co-hyponyms in relation to one another. To schematize:

Terrorist act⊃slaughter, attack; or slaughter, attack⊂terrorist act.[9]
[Attentat ⊃ tuerie, attaque ; outuerie, attaque ⊂ attentat.]

II. "Transversal discourse", interdiscursiveness and collective memory

On another level, that of the "vertical axis of discourse" (Moirand, 2014), other bodies of work will make it possible to describe the "functioning of the transverse discourses necessary for interpretation" (Moirand, 2014). Two types of corpus can be considered in terms of analogy or divergence. This brings together statements and antagonist statements. I evaluate these statements and “counter statements” using the theory of speech acts in relation to implicit meaning and polyphony, (Zheni, 2020b).

[9]⊃ : includes ; ⊂ : is included in

The corpus extracts below serve as the object of analysis[10] :

Extracts	Journal/ author	Date and hour
(1) The Bardo attack, which threatens tourism, a vital sector of the economy, is the first to affect foreigners in Tunisia since ***the attack on the Ghriba synagogue in Djerba in 2002.*** [*L'attaque du Bardo, qui fait planer une menace sur le tourisme, secteur vital de l'économie, est la première à toucher des étrangers en Tunisie depuis* ***l'attentat contre la synagogue de la Ghriba à Djerba en 2002***.]	*Le Point International(AFP)* - By Antoine LAMBROSCHINI	Published on tuesday 24 march 2015 at 09:20
(2) Notebook by Jean-Pierre Chevènement Press release following the terrorist attack on the Bardo Museum "France ***must*** **take** the lead in a movement of solidarity of all democracies with regard to wounded Tunisia. [*Carnet de Jean-Pierre Chevènement* *Communiqué à la suite de l'attentatterroriste du musée du Bardo* *« La France* **doit prendre** *la tête d'un mouvement de solidarité de toutes les démocraties à l'égard de la Tunisie blessée*.]	Blog of Jean-Pierre Chevènement	Published Thursday 19 March 2015 at 19:14

[10] The shapes underlined in italics and in bold, by us, will be the subject of our analysis

(3) ***According to an official source***, the perpetrators of the attack, unable to attack parliament, **would have turned** on the nearby museum. **[*Selon une source officielle***, les auteurs de l'attaque, à défaut de pouvoir s'enprendre au Parlement, ***se seraient retournés*** contre le musée à proximité.]	RFI (Radio France Internationale)	Published on 18/03/2015 at 13:35/ Modified on 18/03/2015 at 16:39
(4) The newspaper ("Le Canard enchaîné") reminds, in an article published last Wednesday, that six suspected accomplices of the terrorists were arrested and released after claiming being victims of torture. [*Le journal (« le Canard enchaîné ») rappelle, dans un article publié mercredi dernier, que six complices présumés des terroristes ont été arrêtés et relâchés après s'être rétractés invoquant avoir été victimes de tortures*.]	*Espace Manager*	Published on 19/11/2016 at 17:52
(5) President Francois Hollande ***expressed*** "France's solidarity" to his Tunisian counterpart Béji Caïd Essebsi after the attack which claimed the lives of eight people in Tunis on Wednesday, the Elysee announced. [*Le président de la République François Hollande* ***a exprimé*** *la "solidarité de la France" à son homologue tunisien Béji Caïd Essebsi après l'attaque qui a coutée la vie à huit personnes à Tunis mercredi, a annoncé L'Elysée*.]	BFMTV	18/03/2015 at 15:11 – updated on 04/04/2015 at 11:42

(6)"*I want the Tunisian people to be reassured (…) these traitors will be destroyed", declared Mr.Essebsi*, in a tv communication Wednesday evening. [***« Je veux que le peuple tunisien se rassure (…) ces traîtres seront anéantis »***, ***a déclaré M. Essebsi***, dans une allocution télévisée mercredi soir.]	*Le Monde* / By FrédericBobin and Le Monde.fr	Published on 18/03/2015 at 13 :03 - updated on 19/03/2015 at 07:29
(7) ***Tunis: what we know about the terrorist attack on the Bardo museum*** In addition***, a local source ensures that*** twenty tourists were held hostage at the Bardo museum for several hours before being evacuated by the police. [***Tunis : ce que l'on sait de l'attaque terroriste du musée du Bardo*** *Par ailleurs,* **une source locale assure qu'***unevingtaine de touristes étaient retenus en otage au musée du Bardo durant plusieurs heures avant d'être évacués par les forces de l'ordre*.]	*Le Parisien*	Published on 18/03/2015 at 12:44
(8) Several French media have reported on the investigation which, ***according to them,*** was surrounded by ***"several gray areas"]*** [*Plusieurs médias français ont évoqué l'enquête qui,* **selon eux**, *a été entourée de* ***« plusieurs zones d'ombre »*****]**	*Espace Manager*	Published on 19/11/2016 at 17:52

Example **(1)** puts in the scene "media interdiscursive memory", (Moirand, 2014). The event of the attack on the Ghriba synagogue functions as a memory event, and Bardo is a "memory reminder"(Moirand, 2014).making, once again, appeal to a "collective memory" shared by "cultural and linguistic communities threatened (or feeling threatened) by terrorist attacks".(Davier, 2009) Collective memory, or other discursive moments that illustrate, among other things, the notion of "interdiscursivity" is reminiscent of the dialogical dimension of discourse, as conceived by Bakhtin. Namely, every word is "infected" by another word; every word has a counter-word (anterior or posterior) so that "[The word] never refers to one consciousness, to one voice. The life of a word is to pass from mouth to mouth, from one context to another, from one social group to another, from one generation to another " (Bakhtin ,1970) . This polyphonic conception of discourse is even more palpable in the context of reported speech in all its forms. We will come back to this later.

(2), in the orientation of the theory of speech acts, has an illocutionary value: a recommendation, a call for solidarity, all the more urgent as it is expressed utilizing the modal auxiliary "must". François Hollande will respond to this call, later, since he will be present in Tunis and undertake a protest march towards the Bardo, alongside President Essebsi.

(3) challenges us on two levels: it provides us with the source of information, and as such, it is called "source discourse"(Davier, 2009; Babaii, & Ansary, 2005). On the other hand, it has a polyphonic dimension, to which we will return later. On its first level, it can be compared to (7***) "a local source".*** The first level is to be considered in terms of the reliability of the information and the credibility of the source because "official statements remain a source to which we give credit",(Davier, 2009).

(4) is the very type of antagonistic and critical discourse; by its implicit dimension, it expresses an opposing point of view at two levels:

a.<u>presupposition:</u> Tunisian justice is lax.

b.<u>implied:</u> the case is closed, justice will not be done; with the release of the suspects, there will be no follow-up to the events.

Recourse to the implicit is a choice. It is part of a strategy which makes it possible to say something without accepting the responsibility for having said it, (Ducrot ,1972:12). It is a "stylistic manoeuvre" (Ducrot ,1972:14) of a "trick of the speaker" (Ducrot ,1972:14). The implicit meaning becomes the interpretative work of the listener. It is up to the listener to assume the responsibility; the speaker chooses to stick to the literal meaning. On the other hand, this recourse to the implicit is a necessity: to pose that "Tunisian justice is lax" would have triggered an uproar of protests. Indirection allows the statement to avoid being challenged and transgressing a linguistic taboo. As Ducrot affirms, everything that is said can be contradicted (1972: 6), this is why indirection helps avoid being challenged.

We are therefore dealing with two “divergent representations”(Davier, 2009) of the same event. It is above all the expression of different points of view, as shown by the polyphonic configuration demonstrated through various forms of reported speech.,or according to Authier-Revuz's, (2012) expression, "modes of representation of other discourse" (defined as metalanguage operations - that of categorization).

(5) comprises a narrativized discourse by the use of a locution verb with a narrative function (“expressed”). There are two points of view, that of the locator (the journalist), and the enunciator (E: François Hollande) who produced the original direct speech. Through the narrativized discourse, E alone assumes responsibility for the words the journalist reported and quoted as Hollande’s.

(6) illustrates polysemy, but above all, enunciative dissociation characterizes all forms of reported discourse. In example (6), we are dealing with a Direct Discourse. Two enunciative situations are corresponding to two different cultural universes. These have very distinct and dissociated situations, each with its own deictic.

The reported discourse between quotes includes an enunciator E = (Essebsi; “I” in the extract) and two verbal forms of usage in the direct discourse: a volitive present, and a commissivefuture. Moreover, the statement reflects the speaker’s institutional condition of authority whereby he can fulfil the objective sought through the statement. We are dealing with an explicit performative, followed by an accomplishment.

The set *I want + Future* illustrates an attempt to impose a determined behaviour on the audience and to provoke an action. It is a tense discourse. This enunciator is addressing a co-enunciator or an allocator (the Tunisian people); the subsequently reported discourse is part of another enunciation situation. It is the work of a Speaker-Reporter (S), and it includes a "reporting" verb, an expression verb, a neutral declarative – the reporter does not express a point of view with a critical or ironic distance, such as "pretended". The enunciator E is responsible for the point of view in his speech(the reported discourse),and the speaker is responsible for his own (the reporting discourse).

(7) is an indirect speech with the formal marks that characterize it. A main clause introduces a conjunctive subordinate clause by means of the subordinating "that". The main clause expresses the point of view of the locutor-reporter (L) who is responsible only for linguistic material, i.e. the words used. The subordinate clause illustrates the point of view of the enunciator, E, the local source who is only responsible for the reported content.

(8) is interesting in several respects because it illustrates, alongside clear enunciative dissociation, the concept of *distance*[11]. This concept is highlighted by means of the "according to them" [“*selon eux*”] and the citation "several gray areas" [*“plusieurs zones d’ombre “*]. In both cases, we are dealing with two very distinct discourses with well-delimited borders inscribed in a context of narrativized discourse ("have evoked" [“*ontévoqué*”]). Therefore, the points of view expressed are completely opposite.This is what we will show in the following:

We can speak of maximum distance insofar as the “I” of the utterance (that of Locuter- reporter, the journalist) and the “I” of the enunciation (the foreign media in general) are distinct. This narrativized discourse is quite close to the historical narrative. This is different from an autobiographical story in which distance is minimal, because "the I of the utterance and the one of the enunciation are perfectly identified.(Maingueneau 1976 : 119), "The expression "*according to them*" illustrates a form of Modalization in Second Discourse (MSD), or enunciation relating to another enunciation (Maingueneau 1976: 137), Relying on another discourse, the Locutor-reporter indicates that he is not responsible for the point of view of the French media.

This form can be compared to example (3**) “***according to an official source***”**[“*Selon une source officiell*e”], “*would have returned*” [“*se seraient retournés*”]. The conditional, for its part, is a form of repetition which makes it possible to mark the dissociation between Locutor- reporter and the original enunciator (the official source) and to report unconfirmed information, or even to question its validity – at least at the time when

[11]“By certain words, consciously or not, a speaker can let it be seen that he does not belong or does not want to belong, or has nothing in common with the group or the people he is talking about” (Dubois etal. 1973: 161).

information is transmitted “hot”, awaiting confirmation. Journalists can obviously invoke the "precautionary principle" which makes it possible to avoid getting involved and to avoid taking responsibility for statements that would expose them to reprisals.

Distancing and its corollary,enunciative dissociation, are even sharper in the case of citation in which a fragment of the other's speech (see the quotation marks) is inscribed in the reporter’s speech. The inserting speech is that of the locutor- reporter; the inserted speech is that of the citation (the French media), (Dendale, 2007) . The typographical markers (the quotation marks) fix the responsibilities of the point of views: only the French media assume responsibility for the point of view relating to the lack of transparency of the investigation and all its implications (the lack of seriousness, the desire to cover up the affair and close the file).

III. Deontology? Ethics? Objectivity? Loyalty?

Here we conclude the analysis. we would like to rule out a certain naivety which would advance the rationale of journalistic expression subject to a certain deontology, or any ethics. Scientifically, these notions are pompous; they just give the illusion of depth.

Generally speaking, one of the principles of speech is sincerity. In practice, however, this remains at the level of good intentions and wishful thinking. If we postulate, following Stendhal, that "the word was given to man to hide his thought"[12], and following Kerbrat-Orecchioni (1986), that "one of the properties of language consists, among others, to trick others ” as regards to the lie, there is a question of type. There is the venial lie to ensure social cohesion, and there is the lie of the state. For instance, Colin Powel's press conference on the alleged weapons of mass destruction in Iraq was a sad premise for the Gulf War of Bush Jr. It was a fine example of media manipulation, with well-known consequences. If we assume that language is not innocent, that speaking is underpinned by a communicative intention, which is linked to a calculation, that is the end of "objectivity" and its corollary "impartiality ”.

In Jacques Pradel’s editorial devoted to the event, we can read this:

[12]Cited in *Le Robert* (analogique).

Extract	**Journal/ author**	**Date and**
Jacques Pradel's editorial On March 18, 2015, Tunisia was experiencing one of **the bloodiest terrorist attacks** in its history with **the attack** on the Bardo museum, causing the deaths of **24 people**, 21 tourists, a Tunisian policeman and the two **terrorists killed** during **the assault** by Tunisian **security forces.** [*L'édito de Jacques Pradel* *Le 18 mars 2015, la Tunisie vivait l'un des plus* ***sanglants attentats terroristes*** *de son histoire avec l'****attaque*** *du musée du Bardo, causant la* ***mort*** *de* ***24 personnes****, 21 touristes, un policier tunisien et les deux* ***terroristes abattus*** *pendant l****'assaut*** *des* ***forces de sécurité*** *tunisiennes.]*	RTL.fr by Jacques Pradel	Published on 20/03/2017 at 11:30

The forms underlined in bold are semantically marked. The journalist does not only *report* events; he takes a stand *against terrorism*. Why does he not stick to the relation of the facts, in all "objectivity"? Because, practically, he can't do it, even if he wanted to. In absolute terms, to come back to Bakhtin: "Any member of a speaking community does not find neutral words free from the appreciations or orientations of others, but words inhabited by other voices" (Bakhtin 1963, translation 1970: 263). On the other hand, this is due to the very nature of language, which does not serve only to transmit information, as Bally's (1909) showed. Language, in addition to the informative, also convey the subjective and emotional. Benveniste (1974) addresses this matter through "subjectivity in language" (Benveniste, 1974; 257) and adds: "We must understand discourse in its broadest extension: any utterance supposing a speaker and a listener, and in the former, the intention to influence the other in some way."(Bakhtin 1963, translation 1970: 242).

In the present case (Jacques Pradel's editorial), there is a non-arbitrary choice of lexical units. So there is an intention and a calculation, a will to influence (in this case, it is a premeditated act) and dictate behaviour: the condemnation of terrorism. We can even speak of manipulation, though it is true that here it is for a good cause, the defence of freedoms and the protection of human life if you will. A memory event that Jacques Pradel's editorial could be linked to is the Watergate affair, in which the investigations of two journalists mobilized public opinion to lead to the impeachment of Nixon. But there have been cases where fake news, false information disseminated by certain malicious media, has triggered behaviour with disastrous consequences. All this is to say that the "loyal" transmission of information is a myth. An "honest" journalist is supposed to apply "the principle of the sincerity of speech". Make no mistake, with all the goodwill in the world, there can only be a claim to the truth. Otherwise, we would not resort to speech reinforcers and other guarantors of good faith such as "frankly" or "sincerely” and we wouldn't need to swear either.

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Variation in the Cairene Slum Vernacular: A Sociophonetic Study

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Abstract

This study attempts to provide a formal description and a social treatment for phonetic variation in the Cairene slum speech to describe the phonetic characteristics that distinguish this vernacular from the prestigious variety and trace the correlation between the different social factors and that variation. From the Standard-Arabic point of view, the production of some sounds by slum speakers in Cairo can be considered a variation that forms the broad accent of this speech community. For accomplishing this study, three Cairene slums, whose dwellers have a kindred matrix, have been chosen for collecting data. The study has been beefed up with data to specify and document that phonetic variation. The data collection method adopted in this study is an eclectic one, i.e., informal interviews, observations, and requesting informants to read some passages. This method was adopted from William Labov, the trailblazer of variationist sociolinguistics.The study revealed that the Cairene dialect is bi-accented and the salient features that characterize the accent of the slum vernacular include substitution, assimilation, insertion, omission,

and metathesis. Data showed that the place of residence, educational level, and profession are significant factors in triggering that variation. As for other social factors such as age and religion, they have an unremarkable impact on the phonetic variation. In addition to being a sign of solidarity and a social marker among slum speakers, this phonetic variation is used by the speakers of the other social strata to chastise and belittle their opponents.
It is hoped that this study paves the way for further studies on lexical variation, intonation, and voice quality of the Cairene slum speakers so that there is an integrated perception of the Cairene low variety.

Keywords: *Cairene slums, social factors, variation, sociophonetics.*

Introduction

Not only do dialects vary in vocabulary and syntax, but also the sound structure of words. This variation is of paramount importance- when tackling a sociolinguistic issue- as it refers to the region and reflects the social status of the speakers. Phonetic variation, which is a central concern in this study, is studied via sociophonetics because it, as defined by Foulkes et al. (2010), "involves the integration of the principles, techniques, and theoretical frameworks of phonetics with those of sociolinguistics" (p.703). This sub-branch of the discipline aims to uncover the social aspects of the linguistic behavior in a given speech community through the sound system of the accent of that community. The sound system, therefore, marks and categorizes individuals socially or geographically.

In Egypt, there are many main dialects; the Middle Egyptian dialect, the Upper Egyptian dialect, the Delta dialect, the Western Desert dialect, the Bedouin dialect, and the Cairene dialect.

In fact, the Cairene dialect surpasses the geographical boundaries to be a socially based variety spoken by particular social groups in many Egyptian regions for many social reasons. One of these reasons, as Hudson (1996) argues, is that "[speakers] may be more similar in language to people from the same social group in a different area than to people from a different social group in the same area" (p.42). Moreover, in multidialectal situations, the Cairene dialect usually acts as the lingua franca of people whose dialects are different. The question that arises here is: Does the Cairene dialect have one accent or more? And if there is more than one accent, which one is adopted by the different strata?

In this study, the researcher attempts to answer these questions to bridge a research gap and give a better understanding of the sociophonetic map of the Cairene dialect. First of all, the primary observations of the Cairene dialect raise a hypothesis that it could have two broad varieties. The prestigious variety is spoken by the highly educated people who live in the middle and upper-class suburbs. It is considered the standard variety that is used by top officials, celebrities, intelligentsia, and the media. As for the low variety, it is spoken by the dwellers of the impoverished areas who have shared low social and economic statuses.

Historical review of slum housing in Egypt

Hussein (2015) claims that "the slums phenomenon first emerged in Egypt as a result of the concentration of economic and production activities in the cities, especially in Cairo and Alexandria. The phenomenon became more widespread in the 1970s with the inflation that struck the real estate market" (p.2).

Geographically speaking, these informal districts *ҫashwaʔiyaat*, according to Hussein (2015), "are located on the outskirts of cities, and slum dwellers represent 37% of the country's urban population and 20% of the total population" (p.1). The statistics of the Egyptian Ministry of Housing, Utilities and Urban Communities, according to Gharzeddine (2007), "show that there are 1221 'informal areas', similar to Ezbet El Haggana, that house between 12-15 million of the country's 74 million people. Sixty-seven of these are located in Greater Cairo" (para.18).

Socially speaking, the Cairene slums are populous, unplanned, and illegal areas that lack governmental services such as power sources, potable water networks, sewage systems, schools, hospitals, and hygienic accommodations. Because of the low educational level of the slum dwellers, most of them are manual workers or unemployed. Due to these miserable conditions, incest, kidnapping, and burglary crimes as well as narcotics addiction are substantially higher.

The locale of the study

For this study, three Cairene slums were chosen to collect data from, i.e., *Ezbet El Haggana*, *Manshiyet Nasser*, and *Al-Masara*. The first slum, *Ezbet El Haggana*, is adjacent to the upscale Nasr City suburb. It was described by Gharzeddine (2007) as “a sprawling slum in the northeast of Cairo…. [and] one of the largest urban ashwaiyaat, or ‘informal communities’. With more than one million inhabitants, it is among the few places where the poorest of Egypt's poor can afford some sort of housing. However, with high-voltage cables constantly humming over their heads, sewage water seeping under their feet, and the fumes of burning garbage filling their lungs, residents are constantly reminded of the hazards they face day in and day out” (para.4).

The second slum is *Manshiyet Nasser* or, as it is more popularly known, Garbage City. Its dwellers are mostly Coptic Christians whose job is to collect, sort, and recycle trash. The Daily Mail Reporter (2011) describes it as “a slum on the outskirts of Cairo, just a short drive away from luxury five-star resorts, with mountains of rubbish towering over children and endless bin bags bulging from high-rise flats" (para.1).

Photographer Ilya Stepanov, a Russian visitor, describes the district as "the place stinks and there are myriads of flies. It is so hot, everything is rotting, and there is rubbish piled several floors high on every street. It often has no running water, sewage, or electricity. Huge piles of bagged rubbish stacked high in the streets” (para.6).

The sprawling slum of *Al-Masara Al-Balad*, 20km eastern south of Cairo, which abuts on the modern district of *Al-Maadi*, is the third slum selected for the present study. The social conditions of its dwellers are quite similar to those of the other two slums, i.e., they suffer from unhygienic accommodations, crowded streets, and the lack of basic governmental services.

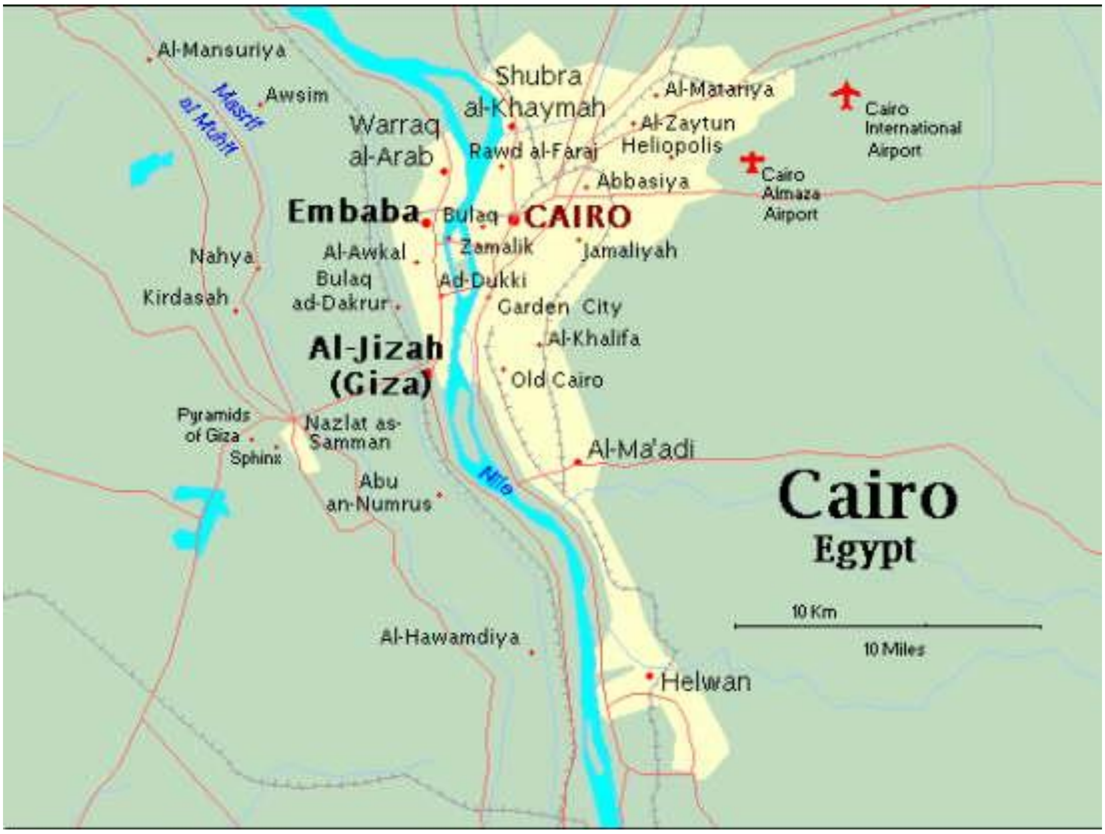
From the description of the three slums, one finds out that the matrix of the vernacular under investigation is identical and that gives authenticity to the results of the study.

Is it vernacular or accent?

Although the speech of the slum speakers shares a considerable portion of its vocabulary, grammar, and phonology with the prestigious variety of the Cairene dialect, the unique accent and lexical features that are employed by those social groupings who live in some specific places in Cairo make it function as a vernacular compared to the prestigious variety. Swann, et al,. (2004) define vernaculars as "relatively homogeneous and well-defined non-standard varieties which are used regularly by particular geographical, ethnic or social groups and which exist in opposition to a dominant (not necessarily related) standard variety (such as, for example, African American vernacular English in the united states)" (p. 327).

Since the accent and the vocabulary used by the slum speakers are by far Cairo-based in general and located in certain neighborhoods in particular, it can be branded a geographical one. But as a sociolinguistic fact, the geographical accents have no clear-cut boundaries. Holmes (2013) finds it difficult when she wonders: "Where should we draw the boundaries between one dialect and the next, or one language and the next?" and she concludes that "the linguistic features overlap, and usage in one area merges into the next" (p.138). Hussein (1984) echoes Holmes' viewpoint as he claims that regional dialects "are arranged geographically like the links of a chain. The speech of any two adjacent language areas is quite similar" (p.62). In other words, there is a gray area between any two adjacent languages, dialects, or accents.

Although the Cairene slums and the upscale neighborhoods are geographically juxtaposed and heavy interaction between their residents occurs daily, their accents do not often overlap. Moreover, this phonetic variation does not impede perception because, as Zsiga (2013) claims, "humans are very good at picking up distinctions in ways of speaking, and assigning meaning to them, so finding distinctions that are truly unpredictable and that truly have no shade of difference in meaning is rare" (p.213). Moreover, the common source of the slum accent and the prestigious variety, the shared heritage of customs and traditions, and the daily communication make Cairenes understand one another easily irrespective of their socioeconomic statuses because, as Mukhroji (2020) claims, "the improper use of the language act can lead to misunderstandings because of the distinct cultures between the language sources and users" (p.152)



Map of Cairo (http://www.in2egypt.com/html/maps_of_egypt_1.html)

Speakers of other social classes match the acoustic signal produced by the slum speakers to the sound which closely resembles it in the prestigious variety.

The Cairene slums are geographically remote from one another; they are scattered in Greater Cairo like the Swiss cheese holes. Nevertheless, their speakers speak one accent; namely, the vernacular of the slums is social in the first place and a string of poverty and low educational level, and social marginalization ties them up. That is to say, people, as Holmes (2013) states, “can be grouped together on the basis of similar social and economic factors. Their language generally reflects these groupings” (p.142).

Before confirming that the slum vernacular is social, one had better investigate what social dialects are. According to Nordquist (2019), "social dialect is a variety of speech associated with a particular social class or occupational group within a society. Also known as a sociolect, group idiolect, and class dialect" (para.1). This definition, one may claim, applies to the case under study; this vernacular is social because it is used in many areas across Greater Cairo, but its typology and the socioeconomic status of its speakers are identical.

Review of the literature

Despite the fact that there is a low variety that is spoken by numerous speakers over a large area in Cairo, most treatises that have been conducted on the Cairene dialect basically focus on the prestigious variety or, in best cases, they deal with it as a homogenous variety. Norlin (1989) conducted a pure phonological study on “intonation of statements and yes-no questions in Cairo Arabic […] to describe the intonational patterns of statements and questions, both in neutral form and with focus on the various parts of the sentence” (p.47). Hellmuth (2004) did a study on the phonological phrasing in Cairene Arabic to “explore two types of potential cue to prosodic phrasing in Cairene Arabic: (non-) application of a syllable repair rule of epenthesis and post-lexical tonal phenomena including local pitch range reset, final lowering and phrase final boundary tones” (p.97). Haggar (2005) conducted a study that “is specially relevant in teaching an Arabic dialect variety to non-native Arabic language university students.” It tackles the phono-syntactic features of Cairo Arabic; it explicates the rules that determine stress shift with examples from the everyday talk of Cairene speakers and shows that syllabic structure that governs accent placement in a word, irrespective of the slot it occupies. Woidich (1996), in his study on the rural dialects of Egypt, subdivided the main dialects into sub-dialects according to the salient phonological, morphological, and lexical features of each sub-dialect. Nevertheless, he dealt with the Cairene dialect as one dialect. Miller (2005) observes that "many contemporary linguistic descriptions of CA (such as Abdel-Massih et al. 1978; Broselow 1979; El-Tounsi,1992; Gamal-Eldin, 1967; Harrell, 1957; Mitchell, 1956; Tomiche, 1964; Wise, 1975; Torghabeh, 2007; Imperial, 2020) provide a very homogenous and normative perception of CA that does not reflect the diversity of language uses. In fact, nonstandard features might be far more widespread than usually described".

This study, therefore, comes to cover a research point that may contribute to exploring the phonetic characteristics of the low variety of the Cairene dialect and their social implications.

The questions of the study

Throughout this study, the researcher attempts to answer the following questions:

1. Is the Cairene dialect bi-accented?
2. Is the accent of the slums classified geographical or social?
3. Is there a relationship between the different social factors and the phonetic variation of the slum vernacular? and if so,
4. Does the similarity of the social factors of the different slum dwellers inevitably lead to a similar accent?
5. How do slum dwellers see their accent?
6. How do the speakers of the prestigious variety see the slum accent?

Data collection

The phonetic analysis presented in this study is based on data collected by the researcher from one hundred random participants. The participants are men and women who live in the three Cairene slums. The researcher adopted an eclectic technique of data collection based on having casual conversations with the participants, letting literate the participants read some passages that were previously prepared by the researcher, eliciting data from participants, and observations.

This technique was used by William Labov (1966) in The Social Stratification of Language in New York City studied the pronunciation of /r/ in medial and final positions (as in fourth floor) in New York City. He gathered data via a variety of methods such as asking participants to read word lists and passages and having informal interviews; this was to get spontaneous speech for the study. In fact, many researchers were influenced by Labov's quantitative methods and adopted his approach in their variationist sociolinguistic studies, i.e., Sankoff & Sankoff (1973), Shuy, Wolfram & Riley (1968) and Trudgill (1974), Chowdhury (2020). Furthermore, this approach was adopted in many other languages such as French, Dutch, Russian, Korean, and Arabic.

Although Milroy (1987), Al-Wer (2013), and Sadiq (2016) argue that the reading-tests technique is not effective and could be misleading in revealing the individual differences of the participants particularly when tackling a low-variety topic in diglossic languages as participants may recall the grammar and phonetics of the high variety during reading, the reading-tests technique has been shown to be an effective tool not only in eliciting natural speech but in revealing the great influence of the phonetic variation on reading and writing as well. For instance, the de-emphasis of the emphatic sounds has affected the orthography of many of celebrities. The former goalkeeper of Al-Ahly Club and T.V. anchor Ahamed Shobier uses [d] instead of [d̠] in his tweet "h̠ɪsi:n ɪʃ-ʃah̠ɑ:t jʊçlIn çan ʁʊdu:çʊ lɪçamalɪjja gɪrah̠ɪjja qari:ban. *Lit. Hussien Al-Shahaat is going under the knife soon*" (Shobier, 2020)

Methodology and data analysis

This study is divided into two parts. The first part is devoted to tackling the slum vernacular phonetically. In addition, each part is subdivided into two sections. In the first section, variation is formally treated and in the second section, variation is socially analyzed.

The formal treatment of each variable is a descriptive analysis of the data to show to what extent the vernacular is different from the prestigious variety. The social treatment of the data attempts to explore the potential reasons beyond that variation and identify the social factors that may affect that linguistic variation, namely, age, gender, education, occupation, religion, and place of residence.

The transcription symbols adopted in this study is that of the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) with some modifications of the symbols of the Arabic sounds; the symbols of the Arabic sounds are /ʔ/ for the voiceless glottal stop /ء/, /ç/ for the voiced pharyngeal fricative /ع/, /ʁ/ for the voiceless velar fricative /خ/, /s̠/ for the voiceless alveolar emphatic fricative /ص/, /d̠/ for the voiced alveolar emphatic stop /ض/, /t̠/ for the voiceless alveolar emphatic stop, /h̠/ for the voiced palatal affricate /ح/, /gh/ for the voiced uvular fricative /غ/, /q/ for the voiceless uvular stop /ق/ and /z̠/ for the voiced alveolar emphatic fricative, an Egyptian variant of the Classical Arabic /ð̠/, which is the voiceless interdental emphatic fricative /ظ/.

Formal treatment of data

Although the slums are sprawling areas, data analysis revealed that the phonetic variation is precisely systematic, well-established, and predictable. The remarkable features of the phonetic variation that the interviews exhibited are substitution, assimilation, insertion, metathesis, and omission. The dwellers of the slums innovated new variants for some variables and gave them an allophonic nature, assimilated different sounds in one word, inserted new sounds in the middle of some words, and dropped some sounds from words.

Despite the ungrammaticality of this phonetic process, it could be branded as “free variation” because it gives another pronunciation to a phoneme and does not alter the semantic content of the lexeme. Below is a description of the different types of phonetic variation that data has shown.

Substitution

Substitution occurs when one sound replaces another in a word. In addition to the diachronic substitution that occurs when a sound substitutes another sound over time and the substitution that occurs due to some phonological disorders like apraxia and dysarthria, there are other kinds of substitution such as differential substitution. To Picard (2002), it occurs when “speakers who lack a certain segment (sequence) in their first language (L1) may adopt alternative language-specific replacement strategies in the L2 they are attempting to acquire” (p.87).

Another type of substitution is that occurs because of phonetic variation vernacular. According to *Online Resources for African American Language,* nasals and interdental fricatives, in the Afro-American vernacular, are substituted; [d] substitutes [ð] in the initial position of words as this>/dɪs/, that /*dæt/* and those>/*doʊs*/, [t] substitutes [θ] in the final position of words as in with > */wɪt/* and bath> */bæt/,* and [n] is substituted for [ŋ] in words ending *–ing,* as in speaking > */spi:kɪn/* and feeding> */fi:dɪn/.* It has been observed that the interviewees substitute the plain or non-emphatic sounds for all the emphatic sounds of Arabic. This process is known as *tarqeeq Al- mufaxxam* or de-emphasis. It is considered one of the salient features of the phonetic variation of the Cairene slum accent. For instance, the voiceless alveolar fricative [s] substitutes the voiceless alveolar emphatic fricative [s̲] as shown below.

English equivalent	Prestigious variant	Slum variant
the press	/ɪs̲s̲a*h̲ɑ:fa/	/ɪssa*h̲æfa/
the morning	/ɪs̲s̲*s̲ʊbh̲/	/ɪss*sʊbh̲/
look	/bʊs̲/	/bʊs/
a copy of the Glorious Qur'an	/*ɪlmʊs̲*h̲af/	/*ɪmmʊ*sh̲af/
friend	/*s̲ɑ:h̲ɪb/	/*sæh̲ɪb/
business or deal	/mas̲*ɫah̲a/ (not used by the speakers of the prestigious variety and the English loanword is used instead)	/mas*lah̲a/
the right or correct thing	/ɪs̲s̲*s̲ah̲/	/ɪss*sah̲/

Although Egyptian speakers, in their everyday talk, do not pronounce the voiced interdental emphatic fricative /ð̲/, they keep the emphatic nature of the sound by merging /ð̲/ and /z/ producing the voiced alveolar emphatic fricative sound [z̲]. As for the speakers of the three slums under study, they use the voiced alveolar fricative [z] instead of the voiced alveolar emphatic fricative phone [z̲] and, consequently, the emphatic back vowel [ɑ:] changes to the non-emphatic front counterpart [æ]. Some of the words that the researcher could elicit showing this kind of variation are listed below.

English equivalent	Prestigious variant	Slum variant
police officer	/*z̲ɑ:bɪt̲ *ʃʊrt̲a/	/*zæbɪt *ʃʊrta/
discipline	/nɪ*z̲ɑ:m/	/nɪ*zæm/

injustice	/z̠ʊɫm/	/zʊlm/
incidental circumstances	/*z̠ʊru:f*t̠ɑ:rɪʔa/	/*zʊru:f *tærɪʔa/

Another phonetic feature of the slum accent is the voiceless alveolar emphatic stop /t̠/ is replaced with the voiceless alveolar stop /t/. One notices that the voiceless alveolar stop /t/ affects the adjacent vowel and changes it to schwa /ə/ as in the words in the table below.

English equivalent	**Prestigious variant**	**Slum variant**
the citizen	/ɪlmʊ*wɑ:t̠In/	/ɪmmʊ*wɑ:tIn/
queue	/t̠a*bu:r/	/tə*bu:r/
divorce	/ɪt̠*t̠alɑ:ʔ/	/ɪt*təlɑ:ʔ/
district	/man*t̠ɪʔa/	/man*tɪʔa/

Although the articulation places of the voiceless palato-alveolar fricative /ʃ/ and the voiceless alveolar emphatic fricative /s̠/ are different, the slum speakers were found to replace the former with the latter as in the only word that the researcher could collect.

English equivalent	**Prestigious variant**	**Slum variant**
character\ personality	/ʃax*s̠ɪjja/	/s̠ax*sɪjja/

In one case, the voiceless alveolar emphatic fricative /s̠/ replaces voiced alveolar fricative /z/.

English equivalent	**Prestigious variant**	**Slum variant**

young/small	/sʊ*ghaɪjar/	/zʊ*ghaɪjar/

The slum speakers also replace the voiced alveolar emphatic stop /d̠/ with the voiced alveolar stop /d/.

English equivalent	**Prestigious variant**	**Slum variant**
an honorific address	/h̠a*d̠rɪtak/	/h̠a*drɪtak/
he refused	/mar*d̠i:ʃ/	/mar*d̠i:ʃ/
the noon	/ɪd̠*d̠ʊhr/	/ɪd*dʊhr/
also	/*bard̠ak/	/*bardək/
scandal	fɪd̠*i:h̠a	fɪd*i:h̠a

It has been observed that the slum speakers do not pronounce the voiceless uvular stop /q/ as in the words in the table below and they use the voiceless velar stop /k/ instead.

English equivalent	**Prestigious variant**	**Slum variant**
Cairo	/ʔɪlqɑ:*hɪra/	/ʔɪkkɑ:*hɪra/
the Qur'an	/ʔɪlqʊr*ʔɑ:n/	/ʔɪkkʊr*ʔɑ:n/
Jurisprudence/fate	/ɪlqa*d̠ɑ:ʔ/	/ɪkka*dæʔ/
to convince	/*jɪqnɪç /	/*jIknɪç /

Although the glottal stop /ʔ/ and the voiceless uvular stop /q/ are allophonic in many words of the prestigious variety, the speakers of the slums added some words to the list as shown in the table below.

English equivalent	Prestigious variant	Slum variant
culture	/ɪssa*qɑ:fa/	/ɪssə*ʔæfa/
the law	/ɪlqa*nu:n/	/ɪlʔa*nu:n/
perfect faith	/ja*qi:n/	/ja*ʔi:n/

Although the voiced alveolar nasal /n/ and the voiced bilabial nasal /m/ are not allophonic, the slum speakers use /n/ instead of /m/ and the non-emphatic /s/ instead of the emphatic /s̲/ as in the word below.

English equivalent	Prestigious variant	Slum variant
catastrophe	/mʊ*s̲i:ba/	/nɪ*si:ba/

Unlike the prestigious variety speakers, the slum speakers replace the voiced alveolar lateral (dark) /ɫ/ with the voiced alveolar lateral (clear) /l/ as in the words below.

English equivalent	Prestigious variant	Slum variant
I swear by God	/wa*ɫɑ:hɪ/	/wə*læhɪ/
injustice	/z̲ʊɫm/	/zʊlm/
prayer	/*s̲aɫa/	/*sala/

Although the voiced labio-dental fricative /v/ is not found in Arabic, the vocal apparatus of the highly educated speakers of the prestigious variety of the Cairene dialect is trained to produce it. As for the slum speakers, they change it into the voiceless labio-dental fricative /f/.

English equivalent	Prestigious variant	Slum variant
villa	/*vɪlla/	/*fɪlla/
proper noun	/*mɪrvat /	/*mɪrfat /
Vaseline	/vaz*li:n/	/fas*li:n/

The slum speakers usually replace the voiced velar plosive /g/ with the voiced alveolar fricative /s/ in the word below

English equivalent	Prestigious variant	Slum variant
sausage	/sʊ*gʊʔʔ/ or the loanword *sausage*	/sʊ*dʊʔʔ/

In addition to the transposition of /l/ and /h̲/, voiced alveolar fricative /z/ substitutes the voiceless alveolar fricative /s/ as in the following word. One thinks that the voicing of /s/ is due to the difficulty that the slum speakers find in keeping the original pronunciation of the sound because of the vowel that follows it. Despite the scarcity of occurrence, this phonological feature is present and could not be left out.

English equivalent	Prestigious variant	Slum variant
turtle	/sʊl*h̲ɪfa/	/zʊh̲*lɪfa/

Assimilation

According to McCarthy and Smith (2003), “assimilation is a phonological process in which a segment changes to resemble its neighbors more closely” (p.320). The type of assimilation that has been observed is full, local assimilation. That is to say, when the two adjacent sounds come together, a similar sound is yielded. The voiceless palato-alveolar fricative /ʃ/ and the voiced post-alveolar fricative /r/ are assimilated by the participants producing double /ʃ/ sound. As for the target sound /r/, it is entirely lost as in the words below.

English equivalent	**Prestigious variant**	**Slum variant**
ten	/*ʢaʃra/	/*ʢaʃ-ʃa/
twenty	/*ʢɪʃri:n/	/*ʢɪʃ-ʃi:n/
proper noun	/*ʔʃraf/	/*ʔʃ-ʃaf/
drink	/*jɪʃrab/	/*jɪʃ-ʃab/

Insertion

According to Nathan (2008), there are two kinds of insertions in phonology. Epenthesis**,** the insertion of a sound or a letter inside a word, and prothesis, the insertion of a segment at the beginning of a word. The insertions detected are epenthesis and they are mainly used by female participants. Due to palatalization, they pronounce the voiceless palato-alveolar fricative /ʃ/ after /t/ in words that end with /-tɪ/ syllable producing the voiceless palato-alveolar affricate /tʃ/. Moreover, the lengthening of the short vowels /ʊ/ and /ɪ/, which are represented by the diacritical marks *d̲amma* and *kas̲ra* respectively yields new vowels represented by letters /ي/ and /و/ and change them into long vowels /u:/ and /i:/.

English equivalent	**Prestigious variant**	**Slum variant**
my sister	/*ʔʊxtɪ/	/*ʔu:xtʃɪ/
my darling	/h̲a*bɪbtɪ/	/ha*bɪbtʃɪ/
scarlet	/nɪ*bi:tɪ/	/nI*bi:tʃɪ/
my female friend	/s̲ah̲*bɪtɪ/	/sah̲*bɪtʃɪ/

proper noun and\or one of Allâh's bounties usually sworn by in slums	/*nıçma/	/*ni:çma/
proper noun	/*çalæʔ/	/*çi:læʔ/
Mr.	/ʔʊs*tæz/	/ʔu:s*æz/
proper noun	/*çawɑ:*t̠ıf/	/*çawɑ:*tʃıf/

Elision

Crystal (2003) defines elision as "omission of sounds in connected speech" (p.158). In the phonological systems of the prestigious variety of Cairene dialect and Classical Arabic, /l/ sound in the definite article /al/, known as al*læmʊ aʃ-ʃam*sIjja, is assimilated in some initial sounds of the nouns after it as in /aʃ*ʃams/. In some other cases, the /l/ sound, known as al*læmʊ al qama*rIjja, is unassimilated in some initial sounds of the nouns after it as in /al*qamar/. However, it has been observed that the speakers of the slums elide and assimilate al *læmʊ al qama*rIjja /l/ in /q/, /m/, and /k/ sounds and doubling them. Heffner (1975) states that "when two sounds become contiguous in the speech measure, one or both of them may, in the fusion of the configuration, undergo changes which tend to make each more like its neighbor" (p.188). Below are some examples.

English equivalent	**Prestigious variant**	**Slum variant**
Cairo	/ʔılqɑ:*hıra/	/ʔıkkæ*hırə/
the citizen	/*ʔılmʊ*wɑ:t̠ın/	/*ʔımma*wætın/
The jurisprudence	/ʔIl*qad̠ɑ:ʔ/	/ʔIkkadæʔ/
The dog	/ʔIl*kalb/	/ʔı*kkalb/
A copy of the Qur'an	/ʔIl*mʊsh̠af/	/ʔım*mʊsh̠af/
The Qur'an	/ʔılqʊrʔɑ:n/	/ʔIkkʊrʔɑ:n/

Metathesis

Metathesis is the transposition of segments in words. This alteration of the normal ordering of sounds and/or letters affects the pronunciation and shape of these words. However, the metathesis in the words that the researcher could collect did not impede understanding. One might argue that this is because this kind of variation is rife in the Cairene slums and in other Egyptian dialects too.

English equivalent	Prestigious variant	Slum variant
ginger	/∗zanga*bi:l/	/∗ganza*bi:l/
jar	/∗bart̠a*mɑ:n/	/∗batra*mɑ:n/
cappuccino	/kabʊ*tʃi:nʊ/	/kabʊ*ʃti:nʊ/

It is worth noting that this type of displacement cannot be counted as speech error because it is different from anagram and lisping. Simply, the slum speakers rearrange the letters of the word to give a different pronunciation.

In most cases, the low central lax unrounded vowel /ɑ:/ that follows the emphatic sounds in the prestigious variety changes into the low front tense unrounded vowel /æ/ when the speakers of the slums replace the emphatic sounds with the non-emphatic ones.

In spite of the phonetic variation, the main phonetic characteristics of the Cairene dialect are preserved in the two varieties: the place of stress, the glottal stop /ʔ/, and the /g/ sound.

Social treatment of the data

Free variation, in phonetics and phonology, according to McGregor (2015), is a different manner of pronunciation that does not alter the semantic content of words. There are some reasons for free variation; it could be the speaker’s accent, or they might want to draw their interlocutors’ attention to the meaning of specific words.

Kager (2004) echoes McGregor (2015) and anticipates more reasons for that variation

> The fact that variation is ‘free’ does not imply that it is totally unpredictable, but only that no grammatical principles govern the distribution of variants. Nevertheless, a wide range of extra grammatical factors may affect the choice of one variant over the other, including sociolinguistic variables (such as gender, age, and class), and performance variables (such as speech style and tempo). Perhaps the most important diagnostic of extra grammatical variables is that they affect the choice of occurrence of one output in a stochastic way, rather than deterministically (p.404).

Although there is no historical evidence of the beginning and the aims beyond this phonetic variation, one finds a strong relationship between the phonetic variation described above and the social factors; this correlation manifests itself strongly as the phonetic variation and the social factors are hand in glove, namely, the phonetic variation is a clear linguistic marker and the social factors are a good environment for the phonetic variation to occur.

The only exception that could be noticed is replacing the non-emphatic /d/ with the emphatic /d̲/ in the vocative expression /*jɑ:d/ (lit. O’ boy!). One could claim that using the emphatic /d̲/ suits the threatening tone that coats that vocative expression.

A status posted by *Eatrafat3* (2020), proves that the phonetic variation acts as a social marker of the speakers. The occurrence of the phonetic variation in words such as /***s**əh̲bɪ/ (my friend), /jʊx*tʊ**b**ha/ (to ask for her hand), /**k**ʊl*tɪlʊh/ (I said to him), /bɪ***s**aræh̲a/ (frankly), /ʔɪm*maʊ**d**u:ç/ (the issue) and /***s**u:ra/ (photo) clearly demonstrates some social facts about the speaker, such as the educational level and the place-of-residence type. Furthermore, the spelling mistakes of the post are alarming symptoms of the great deal of influence that the slum accent has on Standard Arabic.

Sociolinguistically speaking, the speakers of low social status, particularly women, usually tend to imitate the speakers of the prestigious variety in order to acquire prestige. Nevertheless, data refutes this fact as the slum speakers maintain their accent; no imitation has been observed and overlapping is zero. In a forty two-second video uploaded by Elomda (2020) to his personal page on Facebook, H̲ammo Bika, a popular slum singer, pronounced /ɪs̲*s̲i:n/ (China) as /ɪs*si:n/ more than ten times during his comment on novel coronavirus which spread across China starting from December 2019. Also, in a video uploaded to *Kebdetelprince* page on Facebook, Nasser El-Brens (2020), owner of a famous restaurant in *Imbaba*, pronounced /t̲aɪjjIb/ *good*, /ʔɪs*sah̲-h̲a/ *health*, /kɪtʃi:r/ *many* during his talk about his donations to charity foundations. This may indicate that fame and fortune are not factors of familiarity with the prestigious variety because, as Pietraszewski and Schwartz (2014) state, “linguistic shifts involve relatively slow and sequential intergenerational shifts" (p.55). Furthermore, the celebrities and wealthy people who were brought up in the slums may maintain their accent to show solidarity because, as Faber and Di Paolo (2010) claim, “adherence to non-standard, sometimes covert, community norms is a way of showing solidarity with one’s community” (p.20). Although the phonetic variation of this vernacular marks the dwellers of the slums socially, regionally, and economically, some women of the prestigious variety, for some social reasons, partially share some of the phonetic characteristics of the slum vernacular; they replace the emphatic sounds with the non-emphatic ones and insert /ʃ/ sound in their talk as a mark of cuteness and high socioeconomic status.

Another negative function of the slum vernacular, due to stereotypical beliefs, is that some political and human rights activists transcribe the accent of the slum on social media to lampoon those who have opposing political views or celebrities who came from any of the Cairene slums, i.e., the vernacular of the slums functions as a means of offense. From a purely linguistic point of view, the status below, posted by Wael Abbas, a social media influencer and blogger, on his personal Facebook page, is considered a neutral statement that provides a piece of information to his fans. ||ma*h̲ama rama*dæn hajɪ^{c*}mɪl dIwɪ*tʊn ma^{c}a bʊʃra↓ bas||. [Mah̲amma Ramadan and Bushra will play a duet. That’s it!] (Wael Abbas, 2020)

However, transcribing the name of the movie star according to the manner of the pronunciation of the slum speakers (the omission of /d/ in Mah̲ammed and the replacement of the emphatic /d̲/ with the nonemphatic /d/ in Ramadan) changed the post from being informative to a criticizing one. The message that might be intended by the author could be interpreted as follows: Mah̲ammad Ramad̲an, who stars in movies and sings songs that lionize thugs, will play a duet with Bushra. The phonetic characteristics of the slums are politically utilized by talk shows presenters and social media influencers to tarnish the dissidents' images and understate any potential response to rallying against the current regime. Dissident businessman and actor Mohammed Ali is usually referred to his name as /ma*h̲ama ɕalı/, /u:*sæz ma*h̲ama ɕalı/ or /ʔıl mı*ʔæwıl ma*h̲ama ɕalı /. In a similar vein, former President Mubarak is called by his opponents as /ʔabʊ ɕi:*læʔ/ to belittle him and deprecate his achievements. Names of dissidents Alaa Al-Aswani and Hazem Abu Ismael are usually posted on social media by their opponents as /ɕi:*læʔ ʔıl ʔaswɑ:nı/ and /h̲æ*ızm ʔabu ʔısma*ˁi:n/ respectively. Not only are the dissidents' names pronounced and transcribed in the slum accent, but their register as well; words and expressions such as /*ʔannʊʃa*t̲ɑ:ʔ/ *activists*, /h̲ʊ*qu:q ʔal ʔın*sæn/ *human rights*, and /*mʊz̲a*hrɑ:t/ *demonstrations* are usually transcribed as /*ʔInnʊʃa*tæʔ/, /h̲ʊ*ku:k ʔal ʔın*sæn//*mʊza*hræt/ respectively. One can conclude that the slum accent has a sociopolitical function because it categorizes people according to their social class and political orientations.

Phonetic variation and the participants' profiles

In this section, an analysis is given to demonstrate the effect of the different social factors on the phonetic variation and the degree of significance of each factor. According to Pietraszewski and Schwartz (2014), "in modern times, both accent and race appear to mark social origins. Both correlate with socioeconomic status, social class, and area of residence" (p.45).

Educational level

Educational level / Gender	**University degree holders**	**vocational school students**	**intermediate school students**	**school dropouts**	**illiterate**
Males	7	17	12	18	16
Females	5	3	8	10	4
Total	12	20	20	28	20

Distribution of participants' education

As figures show, the educational level of the majority of the participants is low. This indicates that there is an apparent relationship between this factor and the phonetic variation.

Religion

Muslims	**Christians**
89	11

Distribution of participants' religion

The interviews have shown that religion is a non-significant factor in the leading phonetic variation; although some of the residents of *Manshiyet Nâs̠er* are Christians, their accent is identical to the Muslim speakers'.

Place of residence

Ezbet El Haggana	**Manshiyet Nasser**	**Al-Masara**
37	32	31

Distribution of participants' places of residence

According to the data, one could argue that the place-of-residence factor is crucial in triggering phonetic variation. It acts as an incubator of this variation as it accommodates residents with similar social circumstances. According to Pietraszewski and Schwartz (2014), "certain features of language, such as accent, are acquired from the local social environment during an acquisition period starting at infancy and ending roughly at puberty" (p.43). In other words, phonetic variation is crystallized, employed, and maintained by similar social groups in places that have similar typology.

Place of work

Participants work in the slums	**Participants work in other districts**
82	18

Distribution of participants' places of work

Data has demonstrated that phonetic variation in the speech of those who work in the slums and those who work in other districts is the same, i.e., the place of work does not affect the accent of the slum dwellers. That is to say, the place of work has no significance in triggering phonetic variation; many of the participants who work in the nearby upscale districts are not affected by the prestigious variety accent.

Age

Age	10-18	19-30	51-60
Number	15	30	15

Distribution of participants' age

Although data has revealed that the age of the participants plays a significant role in their style and diction, it has an unremarkable impact on phonetic variation.

Gender

Gender	**Males**	**Females**
Number	68	32

Distribution of participants' gender

Data has shown that the lengthening of some vowels and the insertions of some consonants are chiefly made by women; they may use insertions as a sign of prettiness, cuteness, and sex appeal. Moreover, such insertions act as a gender marker as well. Another feature is the lengthening of the short vowels /ʊ/ and /I/ which are represented by the diacritical marks <u>d</u>*amma /ُ/* that appears above the letter and *ka<u>s</u>ra* /ِ/which appears below the letter respectively. Thus, /ʊ/ in /ʔʊxtı/ *my sister* is changed into /u:/ and /I/ in /nıçmə/ is changed into /i:/.

Profession

Profession	**manual occupations**	**civil servants (teachers-clerks-nurses)**	**small business owners (butcher's-barber's-presser's-cafés)**	**unemployed**
Number of participants	65	10	14	11

Distribution of the professions of the participants

As data has shown, the majority of the slum dwellers are manual workers (rickshaw drivers-baristas- poultry shop workers-street vendors- waste collectors- auto mechanic apprentices- daily paid laborers- grocers). This proportion chimes in greatly with their educational level. One could conclude that the place of residence, educational level, and profession are the basic factors that inevitably lead to the phonetic variation in the Cairene dialect, provided that they are mixed up to form an integrated social network.

Conclusion

The current study has identified the existence of clear differences in the Cairene dialect on the phonetic and phonological levels. In other words, the Cairene dialect could be labeled as a bi-accented dialect; the social parallel of the Cairene society is strongly correlated with the articulatory differences discussed above.

Moreover, the accent of the slums has a double-edged social function; it sends a negative signal to the speakers of the prestigious variety of the Cairene dialect because it stereotypes the slum dwellers. The pejorative connotation of the term, as well as the mental image of the slum dwellers in the sight of the prestigious variety speakers, is that they are thugs, kidnappers, narcotics addicts, and sexual harassers. However, it is highly valued by its speakers and seen as a symbol of solidarity and a sign of vernacular loyalty; although it lacks public prestige, they consider it a marker of gallantry and genuine social norms of the Egyptian people. In a word, the phonetic variation marks anomie and moral values at the same time.

Another negative feature of this phonetic variation is the interface between the slum accent and Standard Arabic; the slum students pronounce and write Standard Arabic according to their accent. To overcome this problem, one recommends that Arabic curricula experts ought to design special phonetics and dictation courses at primary and preparatory schools dedicated to slum students to improve their pronunciation and spelling skills. Moreover, such courses and remedial sessions may impose boundaries between the slum accent and Standard Arabic.

The study has also revealed that the social meaning of some phonetic variations is interpreted according to the socioeconomic status, place of residence, educational level, and visual context. The use of the non-emphatic sounds in the place of the emphatic ones by women in the upscale suburbs marks a higher educational, social and economic status and expresses prettiness, linguistic etiquette, and cuteness while the same linguistic behavior by men or women in the slums is differently interpreted; it refers to someone who is socially and educationally low and lives in one of the Cairene slums. That is, the variation of the emphatic sounds is linguistically and socially constrained.

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