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Translanguaging in the Discourse of Malaysian ESL Lessons: A Look into the Practice

Wei Zhuang Ooi
National University of Malaysia, Malaysia

Abstract
The occurrence of codeswitching or translanguaging is evident from recent studies of Malaysian English as a Second Language (ESL) education due to reasons influenced by localisation of languages seen in society, linguistic landscape and media of the country. However, ESL teachers and pupils face stigma when translanguaging between their first language (L1) and the target language (L2) in the ESL classroom. This is heavily influenced by the purist language approach found in Malaysia’s education policy. Hence, this study seeks to bridge the gap on translanguaging practices in countries with similar institutional education policies. The study aims to investigate the purposes of translanguaging discourse by teachers in ESL lessons. Teachers from Malaysian secondary and primary schools were chosen to participate in this case study. Video observations and questionnaires were carried out then analysed qualitatively and quantitatively. Findings showed that translanguaging is essential among teachers for an array of reasons to facilitate effective language learning, build healthy student-teacher relationships, encourage use of target language, manage classroom instructions or activities and facilitate teachers’ self-talk. This study is substantial in providing further information on ESL pedagogy and learning as a guide for ESL educators and researchers on the recent use of translanguaging for developing ESL skills as well as recommendations for future research.

Keywords: Translanguaging, English as a Second Language, Code-switching

Introduction
Translanguaging (TL) is the act of alternating between languages often between and within sentences for systematic teaching and learning of a lesson that was termed by Cen Williams in the 1980s (Lewis et al., 2012). It is considered typical and common among Malaysians to have a broader range of language repository to express their feelings, ideas and thoughts internally and interpersonally (David & McLellan, 2014; Kärchner-Ober, 2011). This may be due to reasons influenced by localisation of languages seen in society, linguistic landscape and media in Malaysia.

The current Malaysian education policy has aspirations of developing talented individuals who are proficient bilinguals in the Malay national language and English as the second language (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2013). The Malaysian Ministry of Education (2013, 2017, 2020) dictated that languages used for instruction from preschool to post-secondary education must be grammatically accurate with emphasis on use of appropriate level of formality in language so pupils could learn effective communication.

In contrast, Malaysia had shown a constant dip in rankings and proficiency in the global Education First English Proficiency Index survey over the last 5 years (Education First, 2020). English teaching and learning strategies employed and recommended by the ministry were not helpful enough for ESL teachers to maintain and produce high proficiency English users despite their efforts witnessed in reforming the English curriculum. TL in the Malaysian ESL classroom was continually perceived to be a last resort which often branded teachers and students as the inefficiency of teaching and learning English as a Second Language (ESL) respectively if the practice is used (Tan & Low, 2017; Wong & Yoong, 2019).

In spite of the negative views, TL practices were proven beneficial among Malaysian ESL learners for enhancing their comprehension, self-efficacy, discipline and communication when learning in L2 in the classroom. However, teachers, students, policy makers and the general public have diverse opinions over the significance of translanguaging practices on learners’ language learning process. Hence, the purpose of this study is to explore the practices of translanguaging by Malaysian ESL teachers in lessons distributed to pupils for language learning. This research seeks to bridge the gap on translanguaging practices in countries with institutional education policies similar to Malaysia. This is due to the fact that translanguaging in English language teaching or ESL pedagogy is still a novel concept in institutions that regard monolingualism and language purism as the norm for medium of education instructions (Allard, 2017).
Literature review
This literature review opens with general discussions on the use of translanguaging which then focuses onto translanguaging in the Malaysian ESL context.

Shifting from code-switching to translanguaging
Code-switching has received backlash previously although the practice is common among multilinguals and bilinguals in education. Creese and Blackledge (2010) concurred that research conclusions of code-switching as a concept for education was contradictory to which many believed the use of L1 in L2 education to be a learning hindrance and for the most part disregards an individual’s linguistic background as a learning resource.

For this reason, translanguaging was made known by Williams (1994, 2000) in bilingualism research conducted at Welsh-English schools. The heteroglossic view of translingualism considers that all languages are linked to multilinguals’ purpose of conveying meaning, communication, sound identity development and making sense of new information by employing their linguistic repertoire and resources available (MacSwan, 2017). In essence, this research will focus on the study of translanguaging as an effort to shift from code-switching in order to observe the progressive and flexible practice of multilingual learners’ and teachers’ language mixing in the classroom.

Recent studies related to ESL translanguaging in Malaysia
Recent literature related to translanguaging in the Malaysia ESL context within 5 years of this research from year 2017-2021 were reviewed. Researches have shown code-switching behaviours to be common and useful in Malaysian ESL education (e.g. Lachmy Narayana & Nur Syuhada, 2018; Noor Azaliya et al., 2019; Tan & Low, 2017; Wong & Yoong, 2019).

Ting and Jintang (2020) centered their research on the translanguaging practices in a preschool. Fieldwork research was conducted with two preschool teachers and 15 preschoolers in Malaysia. In English lessons, the researchers concluded a great amount TL in teacher talk were used to affirm students learning to speak English since they had a harder time in replicating simple English expressions. In students’ case, they used TL half the time in English lessons since their English was still at beginners’ level. This can infer that students and teachers in Malaysian preschools use TL on to conduct lessons smoothly.

Lastly, Rajendram (2021) examined factors that limits and possibilities of translanguaging practices among 31 Year Five Malaysian pupils in the ESL classroom using critical discourse analysis on their interactions within collaborative learning and interviews. Findings indicated the pupils were active TL users as they alternate between languages to learn L2, clear up disagreements, build positive relations, affirm their social identity and access all their linguistic resources. Yet, students were externally affected by the influences of teachers, peers, parents and the general society to avoid TL because of strict language policies, assumptions regarding negating linguistic capital together with conflicts against ethnicity, nationality. As a result, the author managed to portray the contradicting views on TL practices in Malaysia.

In short, the existing empirical research showed that translanguaging studies were sparse as with two papers directly discussing on the concept of translingualism in Malaysia (e.g. Rajendram, 2021; Ting & Jintang, 2020). The remainder papers discussed on code-switching as their main concept which were related to TL in general. All researches provided insights on possible functions, perceptions, factors of TL in the Malaysia ESL classroom. From this, the researcher will contribute knowledge on ESL translanguaging practices in the Malaysian context. This study aims to investigate the purposes of translanguaging discourse by teachers in ESL lessons.

Method
This study employed case study research design where processes, groups, events, activities or individuals in a system bounded by time or place are explored using extensive data collection (Creswell, 2012; Neuman, 2014). Discourse analysis is used to study the language-in-use and how it is used in real world situations (Gee, 2011). In this case, discourse analysis was done to analyse how translanguaging is used in the Malaysia ESL education context.

The research selected its participants through purposive sampling where a sample chosen is informative for the researchers’ unique case to gain an in-depth understanding of a phenomena (Neuman, 2014). Hence, the participants in this research were English teachers performing
translanguaging in their lessons. Relatively, the researcher decided to gather data for discourse analysis from four teachers who disseminated their ESL lessons on YouTube. Qualitative data was gathered by transcribing said videos with NVivo. The researcher proceeded to note instances of translanguaging then code relevant data based on themes related to translanguaging purposes. The four teachers’ details can be seen in Table 1. The questionnaire data was gathered from 4 translanguaging teachers in ESL lessons that can be easily contacted off-site in this research. Questionnaires were adapted from Yeoh (2017) focusing on the functions of translanguaging from teachers. Data collected from the questionnaires was analysed quantitatively using descriptive statistics.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>School and Area</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>English Teaching Experience (Years)</th>
<th>Teachers’ Ethnicity and L1</th>
<th>Highest Education Qualification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Halim</td>
<td>Primary school, Johor</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Malay, Malay</td>
<td>Bachelor’s Degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mdm. Yati</td>
<td>Primary school, Pahang</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Malay, Malay</td>
<td>Bachelor’s Degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ms. Athirah</td>
<td>Secondary School, Johor</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Malay, Malay</td>
<td>Bachelor’s Degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mdm. Aifaa</td>
<td>Secondary school, Pulau Pinang</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Malay, Malay</td>
<td>Bachelor’s Degree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results and findings
The analysis from the video observations and questionnaires data collected for this study were synthesized and discussed according to the theme of purposes of translanguaging discourse by teachers in ESL lessons.

According to the findings, teachers from national primary schools and secondary schools in Malaysia use TL when teaching pupils to learn English language as their second language. This can be seen in Figure 1 where the number of words uttered by four teachers were analysed descriptively based on the languages spoken in their respective ESL video lessons.

Figure 1 Languages spoken in observed ESL video lessons
This analysis revealed that all teachers performed TL often during English language classes by switching between the English, Malay and Arabic language. Both Mdm. Aifaa and Mdm. Yati utilized TL frequently by switching to Malay when speaking to pupils for more than half of their ESL lessons. Subsequently, Mr. Halim sometimes used the Malay language in his discourse when teaching English. The figure also indicated that Ms. Athirah had spoken the least number of words in Malay, the most number of words in English with a little Arabic. This data has proven that ESL teachers consciously use TL as a strategy to supplement pupils’ learning of the English language.

Further analysis from the research data collected allowed the researcher to determine emergent subthemes related to the purposes of teachers’ who use TL in Malaysian ESL lessons. The eight subthemes are as follows. The eight subthemes include the use of TL (1) to facilitate comprehension of English vocabulary, (2) to manage classroom instructions and activities, (3) to facilitate comprehension of novel or difficult topics in English, (4) to improve interpersonal relationship with pupils, (5) to prompt and encourage learning of English among pupils, (6) to facilitate language tasks, (7) to facilitate teaching of English grammar and (8) to facilitate teachers’ self-talk during ESL lessons.

Table 2 and 3 show examples of how questionnaire data corroborated with the analysis of video observations for the purposes of teachers’ TL.

### Table 2 Teachers translanguaging to explain meaning of words and sentences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Frequency Scale Describer</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Explain meaning of words and sentences</td>
<td>Often</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3 Examples of teachers explaining meaning of words and sentences through translanguaging

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>Examples of teachers’ translanguaging discourse</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Providing direct translations of words or sentences</td>
<td>Mdm. Aifaa: And for adults. Adults <em>adalah</em> (is) Eight point nine five pound. <em>Lapan perpuluhan sembilan lima pound.</em> (eight point nine five pound)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mdm. Yati: Ok. Next sentence. After school, she does her homework. <em>Apa maksud ni? Selepas sekolah, dia buat kerja rumah.</em> (What does it mean? After school, she does her homework)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing elaborations of words or sentences</td>
<td>Mr. Halim: This is olive. <em>Yang kat pizza, yang warna hitam macam cincin tu.</em> (The ones on the pizza, the ones that are black like those rings.) Those are olives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ms. Athirah: This week’s bestsellers. Bestsellers means… books that so many people have bought. Ok. <em>Yang paling banyak dibeli.</em> (The most that were bought.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Discussion

The findings indicate ESL teachers who shared the same L1 with pupils or were familiar with pupils’ first language would utilize translanguaging when teaching English in their lessons as opposed to avoiding the practice upon propositions by education policy makers which emphasized the accurate and appropriate use of languages when delivering classroom instructions (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2013, 2017, 2020). Essentially, TL allows teachers and pupils alike to make use of all their linguistic knowledge and resources when attempting to accomplish the eight purposes identified in ESL teachers’ translanguaging discourse.

First, translanguaging frequently served as a purpose for teachers to improve English comprehension of new vocabulary, concepts or topics among young and adolescent ESL learners. These findings are in agreement with previous research which showed teachers switching between L1 and L2 to provide repeated explanations of unfamiliar target language content as means of reinforcing new knowledge (e.g. Noor Azaliya et al., 2019; Rajendram, 2021; Ting & Jintang, 2020; Wong & Yoong, 2019).

Secondly, translanguaging was often utilized to manage classroom instructions and activities by teachers in ESL lessons. Teachers switched to pupils’ L1 when giving instructions, checking for pupils’ understanding of instructions and focused L2 content along with maintaining classroom
discipline so pupils would be able to give appropriate responses, provide feedback for teachers to
determine apt follow-ups for their lesson and behave when learning. In addition, this study revealed
that teachers also practiced TL occasionally for the purposes of facilitating language tasks. One possible
reason of teachers’ opting to perform TL for classroom instructions and activities was to optimize
pupils’ time for English study.

Thirdly, TL functions as a process for teachers to build rapport with pupils by initiating
conversation and expressing positive or constructive comments to pupils regularly. With reference to
the results, previous studies have demonstrated that switching languages is positively perceived in the
ESL classroom to promote socialising, relationships and the flow of conversation between students with
students or students with teachers (Lachmy Narayana & Nur Syuhada, 2018; Rajendram, 2021; Tan &
Low, 2017)

Next, teachers use TL sometimes to encourage pupils’ response and confidence in learning ESL
such as switching to pupils’ L1 when giving language learning tips, prompts and inspirational words
during a lesson. This result mirrors the findings of Ting and Jintang’s (2020) research on preschool
educators’ usage of TL during teacher talk to engage pupils’ learning participation, assess learning
progress and instill learning motivation of ESL.

The subsequent findings in this study revealed that teachers were practicing TL occasionally
for the purpose of teaching English grammar by explaining in pupils’ L1 and comparing L1 grammar
with L2. The outcome is consistent with past studies which examined the teaching of English grammar
using the L1 of pupils to develop cross-linguistic awareness and further familiarizing themselves with
grammar rules of the target language by discerning similar or contrasting characteristics between
languages. (Rajendram, 2021; Wong & Yoong, 2019).

Surprisingly, observations from teachers’ TL discourse in ESL lessons found two teachers who
switched to their L1 in order to facilitate self-talk which suggested TL as a process to organize their
thoughts and regulate ideal behaviours for teaching was ongoing in the classroom. It is likely that
teachers were composing themselves to best carry out their roles such as facilitators or role models for
language learning which manifested Macswan’s (2017) contention of teachers acting as multilinguals
tended to perform TL in establishing a well-grounded identity.

Conclusion
In this case study, all four teachers from primary and secondary schools employed translanguaging
between the L1 of pupils and L2 during Malaysian ESL lessons. In accordance to the research aims of
this study, the findings identified eight purposes where teachers would use translanguaging when
教学 ESL for pedagogical, instructional, managerial and social-affective advantages to benefit
young as well as adolescent pupils’ English language learning. Therefore, this research may contribute
to demystifying the use of TL and reveal the realities of teaching and learning in the Malaysian ESL
classroom. These findings further enable teachers to look beyond conventional ESL teaching and
learning strategies and encourage the development of a wider teaching repertoire by using
translanguaging as a resource. Likewise, authoritative policy makers should consider TL as a plausible
strategy when devising the language curriculum with hopes of improving ESL learners’ communicative
skill whilst catering to learners’ learning preferences. Teacher training programmes may need to
examine the inclusion of TL as an essential skill for pre-service and in-service ESL teachers. However,
this research is limited to the investigation of translanguaging discourse solely from a small sampling
of teachers. Thus, some recommendations for future study would include a larger sample of teachers or
pupils to determine the common purposes of TL in ESL lessons across educational institutions of
various age groups. Also, an inclusion of semi-structured or open interviews to gather in-depth
information and triangulate relevant data to explore the rationale along with perceptions towards
translanguaging.

References
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Understanding the status and management of foreign language anxiety in a remote pre-faculty EFL programme in Turkey

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Abstract

With the outbreak of the global pandemic, many institutions have transitioned into crisis-prompted remote education without the volition of learners and teachers. Given that remote learning might be education’s new normal, a need to revisit the nature of the multi-faceted construct of foreign or second language anxiety has emerged (Côté & Gaffney, 2021). In addition to the need for research into involuntary remote learning environments, there is also a growing need to identify strategies for learners and teachers to manage foreign language anxiety (Horwitz, 2017).

This mixed-method study explored the essence, manifestations and management of foreign language anxiety as perceived by teachers and learners of a pre-faculty remote English programme in Turkey. Quantitative and qualitative data were collected through an online questionnaire, interviews, learner diaries, and classroom observations in order to identify the gap between learners’ needs and practices of teachers. The findings revealed that many of the factors that induce anxiety in traditional classroom are also influential in remote classrooms. Isolation and lack of real human contact were found to be additional variables that are specific to remote learning. Learners and teachers both agreed that creating a positive learning environment is the ultimate solution for reducing anxiety. Based on the results of this study, implications and interventions for language teachers to achieve a less stressful remote classrooms for learners are suggested.

Keywords: Foreign Language Anxiety, Learner Emotions, Psycholinguistics

Introduction

As in many schools across the world, the institution that this study took place saw a rapid transition from traditional classrooms to remote classrooms in early 2020. During this transition period, rigorous efforts were put into restructuring the language programmes, as well as teacher training and teachers’ well-being. Although these efforts were focused on providing a well-functioning language programme for the benefit of learners, learners’ emotional needs might have been overlooked during this period. As Russell (2020) posited, due to the large number of students in remote language learning since the COVID-19 pandemic began, understanding how affective factors, such as anxiety, can impede learning outcomes in online or remote language learning is worthwhile.

Literature Review

Foreign language anxiety (FLA) is one of the most widely studied affective factors in second language acquisition as, by its nature, learning a new language is “an uncomfortable and unsettling experience” (Horwitz, 2001, p.121). FLA is defined as “the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, including speaking, listening, and learning” (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994, p. 284). Horwitz (2017) uses the metaphor “pink dress anxiety” to refer to language anxiety by referring to a new language as a barrier to represent one’s identity genuinely and connect with others authentically (p. 42).

FLA has been considered as a “mental block” that affects achievement, performance and motivation in foreign language study (Horwitz et al., 1986). Cognitively, it reflects as task-irrelevant activities such as difficulty in concentrating and deciding, forgetfulness, and self-doubt (Horwitz et al., 1986; Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999). This dual-task situation impairs task performance and impedes learning because an inability to concentrate and a division of attentional resources may result in reduced interest and intrinsic motivation in the task (Eysenck, 1979; Pekrun, 2017).

Sources of FLA

FLA researchers have found a wide range of variables that lead to language learning anxiety. These can be learner-related variables such as learners’ beliefs about language learning, perceived competence or high personal standards (Young, 1991; Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002; Rubio-Alcalá, 2014; Deweale & Deweale, 2020). A number of learner-external factors involving teachers, peers and the
environment have also been associated with language anxiety. Harsh error correction methods, feeling ‘on the spot’ or lack of interaction are reported by learners as major learner-external predictors of anxiety (Young, 1991; MacIntyre, 2017; Rubio-Alcalá, 2017). Learner-internal factors that provoke anxiety in traditional classrooms may occur in remote learning environments as well (Roed, 2003; Coryell & Clark, 2009; Pichette, 2009). Additionally, the distance itself is believed to be an important cause of anxiety specific to remote learning environments which may lack a sense of community and interpersonal connections (Chametzky, 2019; Gacs et al., 2020).

Manifestations of FLA

Recognizing foreign language anxiety plays an important role in alleviating it. FLA can manifest itself in physiological, behavioural and cognitive forms, however, these manifestations may not always be explicit enough to be recognized by the teacher. Learners in traditional classrooms commonly report that FLA reflects as clammy hands, cold fingers, shaking, sweating, pounding heart, stomach pain and going red, or freezing up (Horwitz et al., 1986; Young, 1991; von Wörde, 2003). Behavioural manifestations of anxiety may include uneasy behaviours such as foot tapping (Young, 1991) or it can appear as avoidance such as giving short answers and avoiding eye contact (Simsek & Dörnyei, 2017). In remote classrooms, anxious learners reported avoiding oral interaction (Russell, 2020).

Alleviating FLA

Recently, FLA researchers have been interested in the positive rather than the negative, since negative feelings offer limited options for exit: fight or flight (Oxford, 2017). Horwitz (2017) stated that understanding “the pleasurable aspects of language learning” can offer more to learners and teachers in managing language anxiety (p. 41). Supporting this approach, it is agreed that the primary requisite for alleviating anxiety is to establish a desirable learning environment by creating a sense of community, using non-threatening techniques, and expressing that learners are valued and recognized (Horwitz, 2017; Oxford, 2017; Rubio-Alcalá, 2017; Deweale & Deweale, 2020).

Research gap

FLA is a well-studied construct; however, the majority of the research on the construct has taken place in traditional classroom settings. The remote language learning context has received relatively little attention. The existing studies on FLA in distant learning settings have been conducted mainly with learners who voluntarily enrolled in distant courses. Many learners in the current circumstances have been forced into remote education. This may increase the likelihood of learners developing FLA because (a) they need to learn a new language in a new learning environment, and (b) they “lack agency in the selection of the learning environment” (Russell, 2020, p. 347). Besides, there is scant research focusing on the mediation of FLA in the classroom, thus, there has been a call for more attention towards research in techniques and activities that may be helpful to reduce anxiety in language learning contexts (Hurd & Xiao, 2010; Russell, 2020; Côté & Gaffney, 2021).

In order to shed light on these less discovered areas of foreign language anxiety, in this study I addressed the following research questions in the context of remote language classrooms:

RQ1. What are students’ and teachers’ perceptions of foreign language anxiety?
RQ2. How do students and teachers manage foreign language anxiety?
RQ3. What are anxious students’ expectations regarding the teachers’ role in managing foreign language anxiety and to what extent do they perceive that these are met?

Method

This study consisted of two phases (see Table 1). The main purpose of the first phase was sampling and collecting quantitative data from a large group of student participants by means of an online questionnaire with three parts: (1) Personal background, (2) FLCAS, and (3) Experiences and expectations regarding FLA. Inspired by Chametzky’s (2019) adaptation of FLCAS (Horwitz et al., 1986) to remote language learning, I adapted the FLCAS to the context that the study took place in. The adapted scale in this study achieved an internal reliability with a Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of .92. The questionnaire was delivered to participants in their L1 to ensure accurate understanding of the items (Mackey & Gass, 2011).
Table 1
Research Design

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phases</th>
<th>Methods &amp; instruments</th>
<th>Participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phase 1</td>
<td><strong>Quantitative</strong></td>
<td>92 students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Online questionnaire for students (FLCAS + general perceptions)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase 2</td>
<td><strong>Qualitative</strong></td>
<td>6 students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students interviews</td>
<td>5 teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Student diaries</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher interviews</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Classroom observations</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The adapted FLCAS scores helped identify participants for the second phase. In this part of the study, qualitative data was gathered from audio recorded student interviews, audio recorded teacher interviews, student diaries and video recorded lesson observations. The use of multiple instruments helped triangulate the findings to maximize validity and provide various ways to capture the research problem (Jick, 1979).

**Participants**

The participants included EFL learners and instructors at a foundation university in Turkey. The questionnaire in the first phase of the study was responded to by 92 students at various proficiency levels. All of the participants were in their first year of the university and had started the pre-faculty English programme with a low level of English proficiency. The second phase included 6 students with moderate to high anxiety levels (see Table 2). By the time this study was conducted, they had been learning English remotely for about 10 months. Teacher interviews were held with five teachers who were specifically chosen as the class teachers of student participants in the study (see Table 3).

Table 2
Phase 2 Participants – Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students</th>
<th>FLCAS Score</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Proficiency Level</th>
<th>Teacher in the study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Efe</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>18-25</td>
<td>B2</td>
<td>N/A</td>
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<tr>
<td>Buket</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>18-25</td>
<td>B2</td>
<td>Rose</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cem</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>18-25</td>
<td>B2</td>
<td>Liz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ali</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>18-25</td>
<td>B1+</td>
<td>Sude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ayse</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>18-25</td>
<td>B1+</td>
<td>Sude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nur</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>18-25</td>
<td>B2</td>
<td>Sim</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3
**Phase 2 Participants – Teachers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Years of experience</th>
<th>Students in the study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sude</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Ali, Ayse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rose</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Efe, Buket</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sim</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Nur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liz</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Cem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ann</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Methods of data analysis**
The quantitative data of the questionnaire and FLCAS were computed on Excel. The descriptive analyses of other items in the questionnaire were conducted by calculating the frequencies of the relevant items. A theoretical thematic data analysis approach was conducted for the qualitative data and the data analysis process was conducted with the assistance of ATLAS.ti.

**Results & Discussion**

*Perceived factors of FLA*

In line with Horwitz et al.’s (1986) description of anxious learners, participants in this study reported feeling incompetent and worrying about negative evaluation of others (see Table 4).

Table 4

*Perceived factors that induce FLA*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors inducing anxiety</th>
<th>Perceived by students</th>
<th>Perceived by teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n.</td>
<td>n.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factors internal to the student</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fear of making mistakes</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fear of negative evaluation</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beliefs about language</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceptions of the teacher</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of self-confidence</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Camera shyness</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past failures/traumas</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal-pressure to learn the FL</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inadequate computer skills</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low language aptitude</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factors external to the student</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom Practices</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being called on in class</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of preparation/thinking time</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pacing &amp; Materials</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Factor</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error correction</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance Factor</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of communication/authentic relationships</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet connection problems</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance communication tools</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Both learners and teachers in this study frequently reported that missing a sense of community makes remote classrooms a stressful environment for learners. Breaking the ice and establishing friendships in remote learning are experienced as difficult social endeavours. When this is the case, learners cannot feel comfortable socially, which triggers the escalation of already existing fears.

These findings imply that anxiety provoking factors are not independent of each other, so it is hard to draw distinct lines between each factor. Being called on in class, fear of making mistakes and negative evaluation are all intertwined and result from the anticipation of the ultimate outcome which is being socially embarrassed and humiliated.

**Manifestations of FLA**

The most common behavioural manifestation of anxiety reported by the students was turning cameras and microphones off. Many others reported trying to be as invisible as possible by bending their heads down, pretending to be engaged with an off-task activity, and avoiding oral interaction. Similar results were obtained when questionnaire results were analysed.

Physical symptoms of anxiety, as reported by students, include freezing, swinging, clutching hands, and stuttering. Among these, only stuttering was recognized by the teachers. A teacher said anxious students approach too close to the camera with their shoulders up and tight, which could be an indication of their efforts to keep things in control and remain connected. When the findings in this study and the previous studies on FLA in traditional are compared, contextual differences do not seem to affect the behaviour of anxious learners, yet it is apparent that the overtness of manifestations may alter within the limits of remote learning environments.

**Perceived effects of FLA**

As shown in Table 5, teachers expressed awareness of only three out of the eight effects reported by the learners. It is likely that teachers’ recognition of the effects of FLA decreases as the dimension moves from more salient to less salient ones.

Table 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effects of FLA</th>
<th>Reported by students</th>
<th>Reported by teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Behaviours</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decreased WTC / Hesitation</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decreased motivation</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased motivation / Invest in more effort</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive processes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forgetfulness</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of concentration</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-deprecation / Comparison</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-doubt</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decreased self-confidence</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings on the effects of FLA reflect Bandura’s (1991) self-efficacy theory, which postulates that the level of anxiety increases as the level of self-efficacy drops, this in turn creates more anxiety. FLA can be understood better when it is considered as a circular continuum with a dynamic nature which is described by MacIntyre (2017) as “the complex interactions of multiple factors that...
influence the anxiety reaction, including the ongoing interactions among learner variables such as anxiety, perceived competence, willingness to communicate and the features of the learning/communication situation” (p.26). Figure 1 illustrates the reported experiences of anxious learners in this study.

Figure 1

*Ongoing Interaction between the factors and effects of FLA*

Management of FLA in remote language classrooms

*Teachers’ strategies that are registered by students*

Among 13 strategies reported by teachers, nine were recognized by students as anxiety reducing teacher practices (see Table 6). Gentle error correction methods and the use of breakout rooms were the strategies mentioned the most by learners as helpful teacher strategies to create less intimidating learning environments. Learners reported that they worry less about making mistakes when they work in small groups, and they feel more confident in performing when they get the chance to practice in small groups first.

Table 6

*List of teacher strategies recognized by students*  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Recognized teacher strategies</th>
<th>n. of students</th>
<th>Match (student - teacher)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gentle error correction</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Buket – Rose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breakout rooms / small groups</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Nur – Sim, Ali – Sude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receive answers in written form</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Nur – Sim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoid nomination</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Nur – Sim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share personal information</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Nur – Sim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive talk</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Buket – Rose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slow and comprehensible speech</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friendly/jovial attitude</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of music</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Nur – Sim</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Student expectations regarding teachers’ role in managing FLA**

The common insight among students is that they have the responsibility for dealing with their anxiety. They reported that although teacher support would be helpful, it would not be fair to expect it considering the many other responsibilities of teachers. In addition, there was a discrepancy between students and teachers point of views on the role of the teacher, as the latter believe that it’s their responsibility to manage learner anxiety as students themselves cannot change their situation unless what is offered to them is changed.

**Student expectations regarding a less stressful learning environment**

The questionnaire items on strategies which allow more time and opportunities to practice before speaking in front of others received the highest scores, followed by socializing regularly with classmates out of class (72%) and sharing fears and worries with teachers (79%). Although speaking the foreign language is a particularly scary activity for anxious learners, many of the participants (n=70) agreed on the effectiveness of pair or group work activities, role-plays and discussions. In contrast to oral interaction, participants reported formal writing tasks (e.g. writing on a discussion board) as unhelpful for alleviating anxiety. Additionally, in the interviews and diaries, learners expressed their wish for warmer teacher attitudes, fewer and clearer materials, having more thinking and preparation time as well as consistent and clear class rules about turn-taking during interaction.

Overall, the results indicate that in order to feel more relaxed in a distant learning environment, language learners primarily need (a) more time for preparation before performance (b) more opportunities for speaking practice, (c) more contact time with classmates and teachers. Many of the factors identified as anxiety provoking are related to speaking skills. As a result, learners wish to eliminate the chances of making mistakes with more practice and preparation. In addition, they want to get to know their teachers and classmates better to experience a warm classroom environment in which they feel safe.

**Conclusion and implications**

This study was conducted with the intention of helping learners who may be suffering from language anxiety and it has provided an insight into the status of language anxiety in remote EFL classrooms by identifying its factors, effects and manifestations, along with a glance into students’ and teachers’ approaches into its management.

One of the highlights of the study is that variables that induce anxiety for the participants of this study are mainly related to social concerns. This is coherent with Oxford’s (2017) notion that FLA is strongly connected to social anxiety, that is the fear of “engaging in any social or performance situations in which scrutiny by others and embarrassment might occur” (p. 178). Therefore, the ultimate goal for reducing anxiety would be to transform the learning environment, perceived as emotionally and physically distant and threatening by learners, into an environment that is welcoming, warm and safe. Drawing on positive psychology, Dewaele and Dewaele (2020) have emphasized the power of positive emotions in counteracting the damage caused by negative emotions. A positive environment may play a big role in reducing the intensity of learners’ existing fears. However, as anxiety is a dynamic construct with various internal factors that interact with external factors, a positive environment alone may not be sufficient to completely sweep away learners’ anxiety. Yet, creating a stress-free learning environment will be a step in eliminating the external factors of anxiety, reducing the anxious learners’ burden and motivating them to commit to continuing learning.

In order to help teachers create a positive learning environment, several classroom interventions can be offered, based on the findings of this study and literature:

- Explaining to learners that it is natural and acceptable to make mistakes
- Helping learners develop realistic expectations for language learning (Horwitz, 2017, p.42)
- Acknowledging students’ feelings of culture shock and offering opportunities for students to talk about their experiences (Horwitz, 2017 p.42)
- Using “wait-time” in classroom interactions (Rowe, 1986)
- Giving time for practice before speaking in class
- Using breakout rooms to work on tasks in small groups
- Using breakout rooms to allow learners check their answers before nominating them for questions
- Using gentle and non-intrusive error correction methods
• Correcting errors individually
• Having regular social meetings with students outside of class hours

References


Appendix A
Instrument 1 - Online Questionnaire

Part 1 – Personal information and background
1) Name Surname:
2) The module you are studying at
   Level 1    Level 2    Level 3    Level 4    Level 5
3) Email address:
4) Age:
   18-25     26-30     31-35     Other ___
5) Gender:
6) First Language:
7) Proficiency level:
   beginner    intermediate    advanced
8) How long have you been taking foreign language classes remotely?
   less than a year    1-3 years    more than 3 years    other ___
9) How long have you been taking foreign language classes?
   less than a year    1-3 years    more than 3 years    other ___

Part 2 – FLCAS
(5-point Likert scale: Strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, strongly disagree)
1) I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my online foreign language class.
2) I don't worry about making mistakes in the online foreign language class when I participate orally.
3) I am anxious about making mistakes in the foreign language when I submit written work in my class.
4) I get nervous when I know that I'm going to be called on in language class.
5) I panic when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.
6) I get anxious when I have to do listening exercises in the e-book or online homework.
7) I would enjoy taking more online foreign language classes.
8) I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am.
9) I am usually at ease during online English speaking tests.
10) I am usually at ease during online written English tests.
11) I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class
12) I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.
13) I feel confident when I write in the foreign language.
14) I would not be nervous if I were around native speakers of the foreign language and tried speaking with them in their native language.
15) In my online foreign language class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.
16) It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my language class.
17) I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.
18) Even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it.
19) I often feel like not going to my online language class.
20) I don’t feel confident when I speak the foreign language in front of other students.
21) I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.
22) I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in language class.
23) The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get.
24) I don’t feel pressure to prepare very well for my online language class.
25) Online language class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind.
26) I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my online language class.
27) I feel sure of myself and relaxed in my online foreign language class.
28) I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules I have to learn to speak a foreign language.
29) I worry that the other students will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language.
30) I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions which I haven’t prepared in advance.
31) I don’t feel stressed about using the required technological tools (for example, Blackboard, SIS, web browser, online Discussion Board, and so on) in my online foreign language class.
32) I don’t understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes.
33) I feel overwhelmed by the complexity of the online learning environment.

PART 3 – General attitudes and perceptions
(5-point Likert scale: Strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, strongly disagree)
34) When I have questions, I feel embarrassed to ask for help from the instructor in front of everyone in the class.
35) When I have questions, I ask for help from other students.
36) When I feel stressed and nervous in language class, I try to manage those feelings myself.
37) My foreign language teachers should help me manage my worry and negative feelings about learning English.
38) My teachers are helpful when I feel nervous in class.
39) When I feel confused or stressed I expect my teacher to notice this.
40) Do you think you may be experiencing foreign language learning anxiety?
41) What do you usually do when you feel anxious about studying English?

42) To what extend can the following activities be helpful to make you feel relaxed about online foreign language class?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Very helpful</th>
<th>A little bit helpful</th>
<th>Not helpful at all</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>using Turkish in the lesson</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>speaking to the teachers about my emotions and problems privately on the phone or on Zoom</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>having regular meetings with my classmates outside of the class</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>doing practice activities before I engage in an interaction in the foreign language</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>talking about my fears in pair or small group conversations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>writing about my fear in discussion boards</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>joining online mindfulness relaxation classes in the target language</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>receiving frequent messages or emails of encouragement from the teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>taking part in planned role-plays, think-pair-share conversations, and small group discussions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>practicing in pairs or small groups before speaking in front of the whole class</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>increased interaction and pair work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>having ample time to practice and rehearse prior to oral presentations and/or speaking activities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>being part of student support systems, such as peer support groups</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interacting with peers in discussion boards and talking about everyday lives</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>receiving online tutoring and virtual office hours</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If there are others, please specify: _______
Would you like to take part in the second phase of this study?
(In the second phase, you will be invited to take part in a 20 minute one-one interview with the researcher to talk about your experiences. You will also be asked to complete a diary reflecting on your lessons 2-3 times a week. Additionally, the researcher may observe your class once or twice and your routine language learning practices as part of it) and take systematic notes about what they see.)

Yes  No  I'd like to receive more information about it

Appendix B
Student Interview Questions

Sources and effects of FLA
1. What aspects of the English language class do you like best?
2. What aspect of the English language class do you like least?
3. How motivated are you to learn English?
4. How has your anxious feelings influenced your language learning process?
5. What played a role in your negative feelings about your English language class?
6. What played a role in your positive feelings about your English language class?
7. What aspects of the remote language classroom environment increase your anxiety level?
8. Please tell me what worries you the most in your English language class.

Manifestations
9. How do you behave when you feel stressed in the classroom?
10. Are there other things that disturb you about your English language class that you can tell me about? How do you react to them?

Management
11. Do you do anything when you experience any of these manifestations?
12. How can English language classes become less stressful for you?
13. Should language learning stress be eliminated completely?
14. Whose role is it to manage it?
15. What are some of the coping strategies that you use to less stressed in the classroom?

Appendix C
Teacher Interview Questions

Sources and effects of FLA
1. What aspects of the English language class do you think your students like best?
2. What aspect of the English language class do you think your students like least?
3. Do you think FLA can influence learners’ learning process? How?
4. What aspects of online language classroom environment might increase students’ stress?
5. What do you think might be worrying your learners the most in your English language class?

Manifestations
6. How might your learners behave when they feel anxious in the online classroom?
7. Do you think you can recognize the manifestations for FLA?
8. Can you spot stressed learners or learners with FLA? How?
Management
9. Should FLA anxiety be eliminated completely?
10. Whose role is it to manage FLA?
   What role do teachers / students play in managing it?
11. How can English language classes become less stressful for learners?
12. Do you do anything special/different when you notice a learner with FLA?
   (If yes) What do you do when you experience any of these manifestations?
13. What are some of the coping strategies that you use to make the classroom environment less stressful?

Note. Interview questions were not necessarily asked in the given order. Some questions were adapted or omitted when necessary.

Appendix D
Learner Diary Template

Researcher: 
Participant: ___________ (You may use a false name or nickname that you’ll feel more comfortable with.)
Date: ___________
Lesson: ___________ (e.g. 1st class, 2nd class)
(Please answer the following questions twice a week; e.g. Wednesday and Friday)

In this diary you are invited to share the experiences of second language learning during the classes that you attend, as well as your perceptions and reflections on how these experiences made you feel. Please feel free to use the below questions as a guide. You do not have to follow them, but if they help you to focus, you can follow as many or as few of them as you like. Many thanks again for agreeing to participate in this part of the study.

1. What did you like the best about your (today’s) class?
2. What about the least about your class?
3. Were there any situations that made you feel uncomfortable/stressed during this class?
4. What did you do in those moments? Did your actions help you feel better and more comfortable?
5. What did your teacher do in those moments?
6. What could have been different to make you feel better?
7. Is there anything else you’d like to add?
The inspirational performer: lecturer professional subjectivity in digital gamification

Natalie-Jane Howard
Lancaster University, UK

Abstract

Digital gamification is becoming more prevalent in higher education, yet a research gap regarding the socio-material imbrications arising from this pedagogical practice and its relationship to lecturer professional subjectivities was discovered. This presentation reports on data from a larger qualitative study conducted in a Middle Eastern tertiary institution where the use of Kahoot! is commonplace. Semi-structured interviews with lecturers from varied academic disciplines and observations of live sessions were conducted. The socio-material narrative analysis revealed the lecturers’ subjectivities as inspirational performers, arising both from their social self-presentations and the embedded digital materiality of the Kahoot! platform. The study contributes to the expanding body of socio-material research in higher education and concludes by suggesting that future studies should attend to both the social and materially produced aspects of lecturer subjectivities in gamification.

Key words: gamification, subjectivity, higher education, socio-material

Introduction

While there is increasing scholarly attention to the material world, socio-material studies have seemingly neglected the lecturer in this domain (Williamson et al., 2019), while educational research tends to overlook the socio-material aspects which fashion professional subjectivities (Brown, 2019). More specifically, a research gap regarding the influence of the socio-material practice of gamification and how it influences the enactment of lecturers’ professional subjectivities was established.

This article draws on data from a larger qualitative study conducted in a college in the Middle East where Kahoot! gamification is particularly popular amongst lecturers. More extensive findings can be found in Howard (2022). The paper begins with a brief literature review to contextualise socio-materiality, lecturer professional subjectivities and gamification. Following this, an account of the research instruments (semi-structured interviews and observations) is provided. Next, the socio-material narrative analysis is explicated, which evinced how the lecturers’ subjectivities are manifested as inspirational performers, emanating both from their social self-presentations and the embedded digital materiality of the Kahoot! platform. The paper contributes to the existing body of socio-material research in higher education and concludes by recommending future avenues for socio-material research into lecturer subjectivity in the digital domain.

Socio-materiality and subjectivity

Approaching research with a socio-material sensibility allows researchers to discern ‘how materiality acts as a constitutive element of the social world and vice versa’ (Leonardi, 2012, p. 34). Thus, we can attend to not only human accounts of subjectivity, but also acknowledge and foreground everyday material objects (desks, pens, chairs etc.) and intangible, digital artefacts, including computer programmes, platforms and digital games (Morizio, 2014).

Sociomateriality is broadly divided into two camps: the ‘harder’ socio-material which views the social and the material as empirically inseparable, and the ‘softer’ socio-material perspective which views them as distinct (Winch, 2017). The hyphenated socio-material lens thus considers material ‘things’ as separate entities with agency in what they allow humans to do (affordances), whilst preserving the solely humanist attribute of intentionality (Hultin, 2019). Leonardi’s (2013) imbrication metaphor permits an inquiry into how varied instantiations of materiality and discourse combine and interact through repeated interactions, producing significant socio-materially derived effects (e.g.

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1 Professional subjectivity is adopted instead of academic since the educators in this context are not required to publish research (Howard 2021a).
2 Specific country withheld for confidentiality reasons
3 The use of ‘harder’ and ‘softer’ relates to the extent of agency ascribed to the non-human rather than any theoretical superiority/inferiority.
Leonardi, 2011). ‘Equipment, techniques, applications, and people’ (Orlikowski, 2010, p. 455) may become imbricated or intwined, establishing ‘digital significance’ (Campbell et al., 2021, p. 5). In this way, lecturers may utilise digital material entities in the most effectual and productive means for the completion of tasks (Howard, 2022), which is particularly relevant in the pandemic times since the physical classroom has been largely substituted by online lectures featuring engaging and interactive digital software (Campbell et al., 2021). As the imbrication process occurs, it may create ‘residue’ (Leonardi, 2011, p. 151), such as emergent pedagogical practices and lecturer subjectivities.

**A socio-material framing of lecturer professional subjectivities**

A poststructuralist view of professional subjectivities (or identities) holds that they are ‘fragmented, shifting, contradictory, and contextually contingent’ (Appleby, 2016, p.763) rather than fixed or stable. Moreover, existing in plurality, professional subjectivities are manifested in a complex interplay between the individual (Howard, 2019) and occupational socio-material routines and activities as ‘subjectivity is always immanent within the assemblages of practices, objects, places and people’ (Mannion, 2007, p. 416). Subjectivities partly arise through speech acts which are underpinned by personal thoughts, dispositions, and ideals (Symon & Pritchard, 2015). Speech acts furnish social actors with subject positions which are used in their interpretations of the normative rules of their occupational context and may steer their behaviours (Howard, 2021b; Weedon, 1997). Most salient is ideational subject positioning, whereby individuals recount their subjectivity relative to the ideal self they perceive, envision or aspire to become (McInnes & Corlett, 2012).

The imbrications of the human and non-human may give rise to educational affordances (Gourlay, 2017) and crystallise the presentation of subjectivities through iterative enactments (Symon & Pritchard, 2015). This aligns with the notion that professional subjectivity is, in part, an ongoing performance of the self, rather than a fixed state (Butler, 1997). When material agency is positively exploited it may reinforce a lecturer’s self-efficacy and confidence, and, as a result, shape their professional selves (Mishra et al., 2012). Thus, a socio-material perspective reflects the importance of considering not only human speech acts in accounts of lecturer professional subjectivity, but also considering the power of artefacts, both tangible and intangible, in practices such as gamification (McVee et al., 2021).

**Kahoot!**

From a socio-material perspective, online Kahoot! gamification occurs resultant to the imbrications arising from Kahoot! practice whereby the human (social): lecturers and students, the (tangible) material: phones, computers and screens, and the (digital) material: the virtual space, quizzes as artefacts, colourful graphics, digital scores, music and visuality of the score board enmesh to produce pedagogical affordances (Howard, 2022).

Prior research has indicated some affordances provided by Kahoot!. These include a fun, enhanced lecture atmosphere, the convenience and ease of deploying existing quiz artefacts and the website’s universal accessibility (Wang & Tahir, 2020). Kahoot! has been reported to aid lecturer motivation, facilitate on the spot evaluation of learning and in some instances, save educators time (Wang & Tahir, 2020). Moreover, the literature cites several gamification role shifts including ‘presenter’ (Wang, 2015, p.221), ‘game show host’ (Wang & Tahir, 2020, p. 11), ‘planner’ (Nousiainen et al., 2018, p. 86) and ‘playmaker’ (Kangas et al., 2017, p. 453). However, this study sought to examine how the repeated performance of such enactments in the socio-material gamification imbrication could lead to the fashioning of lecturer subjectivities. Thus, the research question guiding this inquiry is: How do lecturers narrate and perform their subjectivities in the socio-material imbrications of Kahoot! gamification?

**Methods**

**Participants and setting**

The use of the Kahoot! gamification application is encouraged at the research site through professional development courses and institutional licensing agreements. In this bring-your-own-device context, kahoots are used for a variety of tasks including formative assessment and content review (Wang & Tahir, 2020). Strategic, purposive sampling (Bryman, 2008) concentrated on recruiting participants from general education, mathematics, social studies and natural science subjects, since these departments were often using Kahoot! frequently. Data from five lecturers is included in this paper. Lancaster University and the research institution gave ethical approval for the study.
Data collection

Remote, semi-structured interviews lasting approximately one hour were held on Zoom since this study took place during the pandemic and the lecturers were working online. The interview dialogues were accompanied by screen-sharing the Kahoot! website on the researcher’s screen, to act as a prompting artefact and visual elicitation technique (Pauwels, 2020). The presence of the website was effective in encouraging the lecturers to recall specific experiences and richly describe their engagement with Kahoot! and permitted the researcher to welcome materiality into the interactions (Hultin, 2019). The interview protocol spanned how and why the lecturers used Kahoot!, how they viewed themselves whilst enacting live games and their beliefs regarding gamification and student engagement. It was also important to for the researcher to personally witness the lecturers enacting Kahoot! online during their lectures (Symon & Pritchard, 2015). Moreover, the combination of interview and observational data provided depth and internal validity to the study (Daniel et al., 2017). Whilst observing, field notes were recorded, which also ensured an element of data triangulation (Howard, 2021c). In the interests of trust and authenticity, the lecturers checked the transcribed data and field notes to affirm their veracity (Howard, 2021a).

Data analysis

Analysing the transcripts involved researcher immersion in the text and the repetitive reading of the experiences and beliefs recounted by the participants (Riessman, 2008). This aligns with the narrative researcher’s orientation to the notion that ‘that when we tell stories about our lives, we perform our preferred identities’ (Riessman, 2003, p. 337).

The initial coding step centred on discovering ‘narrative fragments’ (Symon and Pritchard 2015, p.247), in which the lecturers’ speech acts revealed their subject positioning. This could be definitive (for example: I want to be a great motivator) or tacit (for example: It’s really important to keep students engaged). Through these narratives, the lecturers would lucidly ‘relive their experiences of discursive-material engagements’ in gamification practice (Cecez-Kecmanovic et al., 2014, p.4). The next coding stage examined associations between the observed digital material aspects of gamification and the participants’ subject positions, attending to how the lecturers’ social/human agency was imbricated with materiality to influence their subjectivities (Stanko et al., 2020).

Findings and discussion

The data analysis revealed how in the socio-material imbrication of Kahoot! practice, the lecturers enacted themselves as ‘inspirational performers’ amid the live deployment of kahoot quizzes, both in terms of their inherently social, entertainment-like performance and at the nexus of specific digital materiality. The digital material elements enacted during live quizzes were particularly instrumental in their capacity to sustain learner engagement. The findings are discussed below with illuminative quotations to portray the lecturers’ subjectivities and performances.

Enacting entertainment subjectivities

In the interviews, the participants recounted how they performed the self in an entertaining social capacity, and this was also witnessed during the live Kahoot! sessions, reinforcing the findings of the studies mentioned previously (e.g. Nousianien et al., 2018). As the lecturers verbalised and enacted these subject positions, their professional subjectivities were bolstered (Symon & Pritchard, 2015). The data analysis unveiled how lecturer performances were mainly driven by the pedagogical and personal inclination to motivate learners and positions frequently cited spanned ‘hype man, game show host and quiz master’ (Howard, 2022, p. 10) and more. For example, it was evident that for Lecturer 1, the purposeful performances of the self an encourager, director and cheerleader were renderings of idealised subjectivities:

I always try to become an encourager when we are playing. I really want to keep the students’ attention and motivation at all times. Sometimes I am also acting as a director controlling the speed, but I am also like a cheerleader who motivates them. (Lecturer 1)

In this excerpt, Lecturer 1 illustrated various modulated subjectivity performances during Kahoot! These were also palpable during the observations as the participant became excited, animated and fully engaged in the performative practice. Additionally, personal pedagogical preferences, mirth

For a full account of the findings, please see Howard (2022).
and the affordances of the digital platform became enmeshed in gamification practice to sustain further ideational subjectivities:

I am not a strict teacher or someone who uses a lot of discipline. Kahoot! works well for me and the students because it’s a lot of fun and its entertaining, too. My teaching style goes well with it because, like me, it’s a light approach, it’s familiar and it’s amiable. (Lecturer 3)

Meanwhile, whilst most participants exploited Kahoot! to inspire their learners in a friendly and cordial manner, Lecturer 5 took a different approach. This participant utilised the affordances of gamification to adopt a more authoritarian, yet still encouraging self-presentation during the socio-material enactment of kahoot quizzes:

Kahoot! is a great method for students to see where they need to improve. It can help them notice when they need to reinforce concepts and notice what they are missing. I can use kahoots to encourage them to study more and I like that I can still be an authentic teacher during the games.

In consonance with this, I witnessed Lecturer 5 performing the self in a didactic, disciplinary way, yet still inspiring learners, as they captured the gamification affordance of highlighting incorrect responses. Lecturer 5’s social agency, professional subjectivity and Kahoot! were imbricated to identify and help resolve learners’ knowledge deficits while conducting formative assessments.

Capturing the affordances of aural and visual digital materiality

The embedded digital materiality of the Kahoot! platform, including the music, the leader board and the timer had pertinence for the inspirational performer subject positioning during the both the games witnessed and the interviews, highlighting the ‘digital significance’ of Kahoot! elements (Campbell et al., 2021, p. 5). The lecturers as inspirational performers were imbricated with these digital functions and symbols, demonstrating the ‘salience of aural and visual material agency in gamification practice’ (Howard, 2022, p. 11). For example, as Lecturer 2 described:

I love the music. You can choose different tracks and it really helps to get the students pumped up and in the mood. It creates a great atmosphere.

For Lecturer 2, the music, as a digital artefact, affords sensory aesthetics (Rafaeli & Vilnai-Yavetz, 2004) which help to accomplish the lecturers’ social intention of inspiring students. This enables the performance of an ideational subjectivity; the engaged teacher who is able to harness the affordances of music selection, but also fashion what the music can do in the online space to align with the educators’ objectives. Similarly, the inspirational performances were bolstered during the socio-material imbrication of verbal articulations and the perceptible affordances captured by the digital leader board, as explicated by Lecturer 3:

I like to use the leader board to motivate students, especially for those who aren’t at the top very often. So, if a student is suddenly doing very well, I say something humorous and entertaining, like a presenter talking during a sports match. Referring to the leader board after every question and getting excited is a great way to motivate the students.

The participants also described how the timer on Kahoot! was pivotal in encouraging students. Lecturer 4 explained how the timer’s affordances could represent a material ally with the lecturer in training learners to respond to time-sensitive activities: Having a timer creates some pressure. But it’s good pressure, you know. It is reminding them of the importance of responding in an allocated time. They see the need to answer quickly, like they will need to do in exams, and it adds to the buzz of the game.

This denotes the imbrication of Lecturer 4’s social intent and the timer’s material capacity to spur student activity whilst reinforcing positive behaviour. Furthermore, as the human and material enmesh, this gives rise to a socio-material capability with which the lecturer successfully enacts gamification to perform the self both as an inspirer and pedagogical coach.

Conclusion

Attending to both the social (human) and the material (Kahoot! and its related digital materiality) demonstrates how lecturer subjectivities may be performed during gamification practice. The findings depict how pedagogical intentions, quiz enactment, and the range of affordances embedded in Kahoot! are imbricated to create significant ‘residue’ (Leonardi, 2011, p.151), including enhanced pedagogical practices and lecturer subjectivities as inspirational performers who can garner and sustain learner engagement. This study adds to our understanding of how lecturer subjectivities may be fashioned not only through discourse, but also through the human entanglement with educational technologies.
Since this study was conducted online, it is suggested that future research could investigate gamification imbrications in lecture hall or classroom-based contexts, to include an embodiment perspective (Schultze, 2010) of lecturer professional subjectivities. Additionally, ethnographies performed over an extended period are in keeping with a socio-material sensibility and could unveil how gamification imbrications progressively fashion lecturer professional subjectivities.

References


Analysing Student-Teacher Discourse Post COVID-19 Using the Community of Inquiry Model in Algeria: A Corpus-Based Analysis of Online and Face-To-Face Modes

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Abstract
This study aims to explore the elements of interaction existing in face-to-face and online student-teacher discourse post COVID-19 in the third level EFL context in Algeria. A blended course was designed to investigate second-year Algerian EFL students' face-to-face and online written and spoken discourse. The initial stage consisted of audio-recorded sessions of the blended course. Students completed pre- and post-surveys to examine their perceptions of face-to-face and online learning experiences. The next stage of the study involves a corpus-based discourse analysis of written and spoken data collected from the face-to-face, and online sessions will be provided to analyse the existing elements of the CoI model. Surveys will be distributed online to EFL teachers to investigate their attitudes toward blended teaching experiences. Preliminary results showed that students have positive attitudes towards the recent blended learning experience and the use of technological devices such as mobile phones for learning in a blended environment.

Key words: blended Learning, Community of Inquiry, discourse, EFL context, post COVID-19.

Introduction
English as a foreign language is being exposed to many technological devices and wireless innovations like mobiles, tablets, and computers. Significantly, virtual environments have grown exponentially as new technologies have expanded the possibilities for distributed communication and interaction (Graham, 2006). With the innovation and progress of tech-based learning tools, blended learning (BL) has emerged as a fundamental approach for traditional and web-based learning to establish and sustain a solid community of inquiry (Garrison, 2017; Garrison & Vaughan, 2008).

The Community of Inquiry (CoI) framework established by Garrison and his colleagues in the 21st century was initially designed to guide virtual-based learning. Deliberately, this framework is in tremendous demand for adequately preparing a well-established interactional environment. The need to establish a firm foundation for teaching in higher education has plunged educators into developing new approaches and communities to engage students in the digital classroom environment (Slaughter, 2009).

The CoI framework was essentially grounded in Dewey's critical, collaborative learning community, consistent with the epitome of the higher education paradigm (Garrison et al., 2017). Garrison et al. (2010) stated that "the CoI framework is consistent with John Dewey's work on community and inquiry" (p. 6). The CoI model consists of three essential components: teaching, social, and cognitive presence. The three elements are constructivist-based e-learning design, research, and constructs. This model is used in this study to analyse the discourse features of a blended learning course which was designed to support the third-level educational system in the EFL context in Algeria.

Literature Review
The CoI emerged as a pedagogical framework to support faculty moving to online and blended learning. There is an urgent need to implement an adequate approach to ensure the success of online learning (Garrison, 2017). This point was reinforced recently by O'Ceallaigh (2022) when he argued for “designing, navigating, and nurturing purposeful and engaging virtual learning spaces for students” (p. 1). Herein arose the role of the CoI model first established by Garrison et al. (2000) to reconstruct concrete theoretical foundation for understanding the dynamics of conceptualising and guiding faculty in the design of delivery of online and later blended learning (Vaughan & Garrison, 2008; Shea & Bidjerano, 2009).

The CoI framework articulates the behaviours and process conversations required to realize knowledge construction through the cultivation of critical forms of “presence”, among which are teaching, social, and cognitive elements (as shown in Figure 1) underpinning the pedagogical model (Shea & Bidjerano,
Teaching presence is one of the key elements focused on “The design, facilitation, and direction of cognitive and social processes to realize personally meaningful and educationally worthwhile learning outcomes” (Anderson et al., 2001). Teaching presence is a continuous instructional process that starts with designing the course and planning and explaining the learning outcomes. It continues during the course, as the teacher facilitates the discourse and provides constructive feedback when required (Kovanović et al., 2018). This is evident in recent studies which have suggested implementing the CoI framework as a theoretical foundation for understanding teaching presence and improving the online teaching process (O’Ceallaigh, 2022; Singh et al., 2021).

The CoI framework, combined with the use of new web technologies, enables formal learning that facilitates individual and social academic achievements by focusing on autonomous learning, otherwise termed self-regulation (Shea, et al., 2012). Nevertheless, this can be achieved only if the active intervention of the instructor is manifested though using communication tools such as collaborative computer conferencing or collaborative-based learning.

Social presence is another form of presence that governs the CoI framework, defined by Garrison (2011) as the “ability of participants to identify with the group or course of study, communicate purposefully in a trusting environment, and develop personal and affective relationships progressively by way of projecting their personalities” (p. 34). Many researchers have long been interested in social engagement, particularly in an academic setting (Jorge, 2010; Mazzolini & Maddison, 2007; Swan & Shih, 2005; Tao, 2009). Recently, Andre et al. (2022) explored the automatic detection of social presence in an online community of inquiry, which outperformed early automatic analyses of social presence by classifying the affective, interactive, and cohesive categories (Zou et al., 2021). These studies offer a dynamic move towards studying the CoI model to assess learners’ engagement and evaluate their progress.

The third presence is the cognitive element of a community of inquiry environment focused on constructing newly gained knowledge and understanding new concepts. Garrison & Vaughan (2008) defined cognitive presence as “a recursive process that encompasses states of puzzlement, information exchange, a connection of ideas, creation of concepts, and the testing of the viability of solutions” (p.22). They argue that some issues will be more inductive for students to explore, while others will be more deductive for them to focus on applying new ideas or solutions to those problems. There is a strong relationship between the cognitive, social, and teaching elements that go beyond social exchanges, which is a primary concern at the outset of creating a community of inquiry (Garrison & Vaughan, 2009). These are the three interconnected constructs of collaborative constructivist learning (Garrison et al., 2000).
Research done by Rovai (2002) showed a positive relationship between a sense of community and cognitive learning.

A significant number of research studies are online and address the need for duplicating their studies in different settings (face-to-face, and online) (Sea et al., 2012; Akyol & Garrison, 2013; Richardson et al., 2017). In this respect, although there have been recent studies on online and blended learning in the Algerian context, the research on establishing community-based learning remains limited.

Purpose of Study

To address the lack of community-based learning in the third level educational context in Algeria, this doctoral study has begun with a blended course designed to explore interaction in face-to-face and online environments post COVID-19. The next stage of the study involves a corpus-based discourse analysis of written and spoken data collected from the face-to-face and online sessions to analyse the existing elements of the CoI framework.

Therefore, the study proposes to address the following research questions:

1. What are the features of the Community of Inquiry (CoI) framework present in face-to-face discourse?
2. What are the features of the CoI framework present in online discourse (both spoken & written)?
3. What are EFL teachers’ and students’ perspectives of the blended teaching and learning experiences for their teaching/learning interactions?

The third research question is explored with reference to students’ experiences of the BL course with reference to mobile phone use in particular.

Methods

Once this study was granted ethical approval, a blended course consisting of two face-to-face and eight online sessions was designed to investigate the blended written and spoken discourse of 12 undergraduate second year EFL students enrolled in an English language program in Algeria.

The instructional ADDIE (Stavredes & Herder, 2013) model was used to design the four-week course that consists of four phases:

1. Analysis, teachers examine their students’ characteristics and determine the purpose of their course within the curriculum.
2. Design, as part of the course design, activities must adhere to the learning outcomes that align with the course assessments and instructional strategies.
3. Develop, requires a set of instructions for the designed assessments and course activities.
4. Implementation & Evaluation, the former stage refers to teachers applying their course and using a variety of strategies to facilitate the learning programme, while the latter is the final stage of the model where teachers evaluate their course design and consider strategies for continually evaluating the course after implementation. This can be seen in Figure 2 below.

Figure 2

ADDIE Model of Instructional Design (Stavredes & Herder, 2013)
The initial stage of this study consisted of audio-recorded sessions from the blended course, and students completed pre- and post-surveys to examine their perceptions of their blended learning experiences. The next stage of the study involves a corpus-based discourse analysis of written and spoken data collected from the face-to-face and online sessions to analyze the existing elements of the Col model using different teaching, social, and cognitive presence indicators. An online survey will also be distributed to EFL teachers to investigate their attitudes towards blended teaching experiences and technology integration in the BL environment. As noted, for the purposes of this paper, student perceptions of their blended learning experiences are focused on.

Preliminary Results
Preliminary data was analyzed based on the pre and post students’ surveys after the completion of the blended course. This paper will draw preliminary conclusions about the interactions that happen in blended learning contexts.

Pre-Survey Results
In the pre-survey, students were asked to provide insight into their technology use and examine their attitudes toward blended learning based on past experiences. Concerning the use of technology, the results show that students use technology for different activities, and the main reason is to send and reply to emails (40%), compared to using technology for completing classroom assignments (16%). Social media access is one more key element of using technology which can be seen in Figure 3.

Figure 3
Investigating Students’ Technology Use

Moreover, it was deemed important to investigate what types of technologies students usually integrate into a classroom-based environment. Surprisingly, as can be seen in Figure 4, the mobile phone dominates the traditional classroom (83%) of students preferring to use their phones for classroom work, and fairly use laptops (17%). It is worth noting that using mobile phones for learning has become the new trend in education in the age of technology for this group of students in Algeria. Whether this is an overall trend, or a result of the COVID 19 pandemic remains unclear and deserves further scrutiny, although this is beyond the scope of this current paper.
The last section of the pre-survey covered a range of questions about students’ experiences with blended learning. The responses, as depicted in Figure 5, demonstrate that most students (before the blended learning course designed for this study) preferred traditional learning interaction in a classroom setting. In contrast, some prefer a combination of face-to-face and online learning modes.

**Figure 5**
*Students Preference to Learning Type during COVID-19*

**Post-Survey Results**
After completing the eight sessions of the blended course, a post-survey was given to students to examine their attitudes of the recent BL experience. The post-survey was designed to investigate students’ use of technology in the BL environment. As mobile phone usage emerged as a significant finding in the pre-survey, this was probed further in the post-survey. To this end, the results showed that students use mobile phones for a range of activities, such as online texting, and surfing on the internet. In addition to sending, and replying to emails, and joining online teaching sessions (e.g., Ms Teams). This can be seen in Figure 6.

**Figure 6**
*Students’ Mobile Use*
The post-survey also focused on the potential of using mobile phones in a blended learning environment. Therefore, students were asked to justify the importance of using their phones for the activities mentioned earlier. The results showed that students use their mobile phones for social purposes, such as online texting as for academic purposes (see Figure 7).

**Figure 7**  
*The Importance of Using Mobile*  

![](image)

In the post-survey, the question on examining students’ perspectives toward the blended learning experience has been repeated to see whether students’ attitudes changed after completing the course. The findings, as shown in Figure 8 indicated that (25%) of the students preferred traditional or online learning, however the majority (50%) suggested a blended learning experience.

**Figure 8**  
*Students’ Attitudes toward Blended Learning Post COVID-19*

**Discussion**  
This paper investigated students' experiences of blended learning and mobile phone use to support their learning. This part of the study discusses the main findings from examining students' perspectives of the BL approach in higher education in Algeria since the COVID-19 pandemic onwards. The preliminary results presented above were analysed from students' pre-and-post-surveys before and after completing the eight sessions as part of the blended course designed for this research study. The pre-survey was distributed online before the start of the course, where students were asked to complete the questions to investigate their digital competencies and gauge their attitudes toward blended learning based on their past experiences. Generally, students’ responses showed that they do integrate different technologies such as computers, laptops, and mobile devices to support their learning in classroom-based and online environments. The use of mobile phone emerged as being used extensively in the BL environment (Crompton & Traxler, 2017). The last question indicates that most students preferred traditional learning in a classroom-based setting while some suggested a combination of BL learning experiences. Post-survey questions also examined the participants’ perspectives on their engagement in the recent BL experience. Mobile phone use was common among students; therefore, a section was designed to show the importance of using this technological device in both face-to-face and online contexts (Crompton, 2013; Helen & John, 2017; Pergum, 2019). The main findings indicated that teachers could...
consider using mobile devices when teaching in a blended learning environment to respond to students’ tendency and interest toward using mobile phones inside and outside the classroom (Chang and Liu, 2016).

Finally, the last question examined students’ attitudes of BL after completing the eight sessions. Students’ responses showed that some students still find traditional-based or online learning important for their learning, while the majority opted for a blended learning experience. Thus, students’ engagement with the recent blended experience rotated their attitudes toward the online element of blended learning. Hence, their preference for face-to-face and online learning experiences besides traditional-based context. Although these are preliminary results, this is a very welcome finding for this study.

Conclusion
The study aims to investigate the CoI framework's critical forms of "presence", among which are teaching, social, and cognitive elements underpinning the pedagogical model in a blended environment (i.e., face-to-face, and online). This current paper focuses only on students’ experiences of BL and their use of technology for language learning and preliminary results show that students have positive attitudes of The BL experience and the use of technological devices, such as mobile phones, to support their learning. The next phase of the study is the explore the findings from the surveys in more depth, to question teachers on their BL experiences. Further, to examine the spoken and online discourse from the BL four-week course for indicators of teacher, social and cognitive presence, with a view to building a well-rounded view of interactions and perceptions of the BL course.

References


Discursive value creation: the case of the sustainable fashion industry in Shanghai’s high-end market

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Abstract
This study examines how Bourdieu’s conceptualisation of *distinction* manifests itself in the promotion of fashion products that are regarded as ‘ethical’, ‘sustainable’ and ‘authentic’. Adopting both ethnographic- and corpus-analytical methods, I investigated how a Shanghai-based fashion brand called ‘klee klee’ linguistically constructs the meaning of sustainable fashion, and discursively creates added value around its products. The study highlights the significance of language in creating taste distinction and contributes to scholarly discussions on the role of language within political economies. The ethnographic part, comprising participant observations and semi-structured interviews, aims to understand where and how klee klee disseminates the concept of sustainable fashion, and to identify the discourses produced by the brand to construct the distinctiveness (or taste). The corpus-analytical part, informed by ethnography, examines klee klee’s Weibo posts to explore specifically how social media contribute to the discursive value creation. The study demonstrates that ethnography and corpus-linguistic methods can be bridged to achieve methodological triangulation. The data show that the added value is discursively created through *distinction*, which helps the brand establish a niche market that appeals to middle/upper-middle class consumers in Shanghai by differentiating itself from other brands that rely on the industrial-, exploitative- and delocalized forms of production. (200 words)

*Keywords*: Distinction, sustainable fashion, Shanghai, discursive value creation

Introduction
This paper presents a case study of how the Shanghai-based fashion brand ‘klee klee’ constructs the meaning of sustainable fashion, and discursively creates added value around its products. Research has shown that the language used within the commodity chain process is not only limited to its descriptive function for the production, circulation, or exchange of the products but can also be considered as an important constitutive part of the whole process (Heller, 2010; Heller et al. 2014; Lorente, 2012; Shankar and Cavanaugh, 2012). In line with this argument, I aim to investigate how language adds value to fashion products by embedding them in particular social relationships and by associating them with ‘ethical’, ‘sustainable’ and ‘authentic’ forms of production. Situated within an industry stylising itself as globally connected yet locally engaged, this study builds on and aims to provide some insights into the discussions about the relationship between language and the economy in contemporary global capitalism. Moreover, implications may also contribute to understanding the current change of consumption patterns in and around the ‘first-tier cities’ in China such as Shanghai.

Literature review
While discovering the discursive means by which sustainable fashion products form a valuable commodity, I will draw on Bourdieu’s theory of *distinction* (1984) to make available an explanatory approach for discursive value creation. It is argued that people showcase distinction in taste through consumption and such distinction is associated with one’s accumulated cultural capital like knowledge, skills and other cultural acquisitions beyond economic necessity, which is one of the indicators of one’s social status (Bourdieu, 1984). Moreover, as per Bourdieu (ibid:231), the producers who are directed by the logic of competition with other producers and the certain interests related to their situation in the field of manufacturing, form distinct products for meeting various cultural interests that the consumers relate to their class conditions and position.

Applying this argument to understand the trend of sustainable fashion in Shanghai, the current development can be seen as a taste that has been gradually formed to answer the existing global criticisms (Dickson, 2000, Mahajan, 2012) towards the textile industry and the local middle-class’ concerns over Shanghai’s environmental issues (Zhu and Zhu, 2017). Sustainable fashion products mark their consumers out, who are considered to be more educated and wealthier. Brands marketed as
‘green’ or ‘sustainable’ are seemed to be more attractive to those who support sustainable or ethical consumption -making purchasing decisions by considering not only personal interests but also the interests of society and the environment (Goworek et al., 2012). Sustainably sourced products give a response to the growing needs of the market and are linked to beliefs that are considered to be held by their targeted middle/upper-middle customers. In today's society, taste preferences for commodities are a major element in consumer decisions. As clothing is associated with the symbolization of social position (Bourdieu, 1984:394), the taste in clothing then becomes a class marker for the consumers, showing their changes with reference to social identity, as Bourdieu described, ‘[…] Taste categorises, and it classifies the classifier’ (ibid:6).

Taste and consumption do not immediately indicate social class; rather, it is the language that produces social meanings and constructs social positions. The role of language acted in contemporary global capitalism has been explained by many scholars. Williams (1977) defines the conceptualized language as a means of production because of its constitutive capacities. Meanwhile, Bourdieu (1977) stresses the important role of language in the class-based processes of distinction and as a form of capital. One decade later, scholarship in linguistic anthropology by Gal (1987, 1989), Woolard (1985), Irvine (1989), and Heller (1988) has explained these past insights through their ethnographic research. They evaluated the limitations of their predecessors and suggested that the multifunctionality of language is the key to determining the way language and political economies are linked. Adding the existing economic conditions, the explanation of the role of language within the commodity chain process keeps on (e.g. Cavanaugh, 2016; Duchêne and Heller, 2012; Shankar and Cavanaugh, 2012). The linguistic practices mentioned in those studies reflect how language and materiality are linked, and together play a significant role in the global economy. For this research, I adopted an understanding of language as material practice that is ‘embedded within structures of history and power, including class relations and markets, but also having physical presence’ (Cavanaugh and Shankar, 2017:1).

In the case of the context under study in this paper, language designs the material aspect of the products in question with the help of the corporate branding process. Since many researchers (e.g. Arvidsson, 2006; Lury, 2006) have already given their views on how branding links with advertising and consumption, my major interest is to focus more on how it discursively creates value during the commodity chain procedure. This study examines how the distinct taste that is designed by several linguistic practices and resources has capitalized the corporation with the potential to form a niche market targeting an affluent new middle/upper-middle class in Shanghai. Specifically, research questions are formulated as follows:

− RQ1: Where and how does klee klee disseminate the concept of sustainable fashion?
− RQ2: What discourses are produced by klee klee to construct the distinctiveness (or taste) of the brand, through which the added value of its products is created?
− RQ3: What discursive strategies are used in those discourses?

Methods
To address the research questions, a mixed-methods approach is adopted where a corpus-assisted discourse analysis of online communication is informed by ethnographic research. As is claimed by Brewer (2000:11), ethnography is “not one particular method of data-collection but a style of research that is distinguished by its objectives, which are to understand the social meanings and activities of people in a given ‘field’ or setting” (emphasis in the original). The ethnographic part of my research is aimed at providing an in-depth contextual perspective and identifying the discourses produced by the brand to construct the distinctiveness (or taste), which allows me to further embed these findings into the interpretation and analysis of the corpus data. Data drawn from the ethnographic research comprises three sets: 1.) fieldnotes of exhibitions held at the store; 2.) a collection of promotional materials and photographs of store space and events. 3.) transcripts/notes of interviews conducted with project participants who are all engaged in the shaping and disseminating of the discourses on ‘sustainable fashion. Specifically, the informants comprise: 1.) an employee from the marketing and sales department of the fashion retailer ZUCZUG (klee klee’s parent company), who engages in klee klee’s social media branding; 2.) a shop assistant of klee klee’s physical store in Anfu Road, Shanghai.
The aim of corpus-assisted approaches to discourse analysis, according to Partington et al. (2013:11), is to uncover the “processes at play in the discourse type” or “non-obvious meaning”. Also, they (ibid::10) suggest that it is helpful to examine corpus-external data to interpret and explain the corpus data and identify areas for analysis, thus, ethnographic approaches were adopted to inform the corpus-analytical part. Weibo (a popular social media websites in China) was chosen to investigate. A specialised corpus was built, comprising klee klee’s Weibo posts (299 in total) from 14 October 2016 to 8 October 2021. Most of the posts were written in Chinese, while only 13 posts were translated into English. Since the English version of posts does not contrast significantly with the Chinese one in terms of meaning, a monolingual corpus in Chinese is sufficient for the research goals. In all, the corpus consists of 25,674 Chinese characters. All the emoticons in the original posts were removed at the stage of corpus building, which aimed to make the text plain and machine-readable, however, they were taken into consideration later on when analysing the original context.

Specifically, the first stage of the analysis, using semi-structured interviews and participant observations, focuses on investigating where and how klee klee promotes the brand and its products. The insights gained from it helped me to systematically collect the discursive data involving the construction of sustainable fashion. Then, to identify the discourses shaping this concept, I analysed the ethnographic data by applying the techniques of content analysis (Klippendorff, 2019). The next stage is to examine whether the ethnographic findings align with the corpus data. I investigated the main topics of klee klee Weibo corpus through keywords analysis using the online corpus analysis interface, Sketch Engine (http://www.sketchengine.eu/). The keywords were then explored by investigating their concordance lines and mapping them onto the thematic categories based on the discourses identified previously. Furthermore, the concordance analysis of keywords was conducted to look for evidence of grammatical, semantic or discourse patterns in their contextual uses, which contributes to a better understanding of discursive strategies klee klee employed to create added value around its products.

Analysis and findings

Overall, the ethnographic research found that the concept of ‘sustainable fashion’ is circulated discursively through interactions between klee klee and other different stakeholders in the context of its awareness-raising practices (e.g. the exhibition introducing its social responsibility project, the pop-up store displaying products from other sustainable brands, and casual talks between the shop assistant and the customer). In constructing ‘sustainable fashion’ and building a brand identity based on it, klee klee employs three major discourses –‘sustainability’, ‘trust’, and ‘moderation’, which are identified from the ethnographic data. ‘Sustainability’ relates to the description of the production process or crafting of the product; ‘trust’ is about the transparency and klee klee’s involvement of communities of like-minded consumers and producers, which also ties in well with the events it runs and texts elaborating the source of products and materials; and ‘moderation’ is in the sense of moderateness or self-restraint when it comes to consumption.

The finding of discourses was echoed in the categorisation of keywords from corpus analysis. The corpus approach first allowed a bird’s eye view of klee klee’s social media posts, showing the major themes of the textual data. As is shown from the table (see the appendix), ‘klee klee’ is ranked first, which suggests the significance of self-representation in the brand’s online communication. The keyword list indicates klee klee’s focus on the product processing (e.g. ‘Original colour’, ‘Let’s blue’ and ‘Indigo juice dye’ etc.), material (e.g. ‘yak wool’, ‘green cotton’, ‘knitted fabric’ etc.) and social responsibility projects (e.g. ‘naze naze’, ‘Dulong people’, ‘Dulong’ etc.), like-minded businesses (e.g. ‘Norlha’, ‘Bishan Crafts Cooperatives’, ‘Tangentgc’ etc.), events (e.g. ‘to exhibit for sale’, ‘exhibition’, ‘The World Earth Day’), moderateness in consumption (e.g. ‘old clothes’, ‘laundry care’, ‘tarpaulin’) as well as some of the social media functions enabled by Weibo in words like ‘please click’ and ‘link’ which guides the viewer directly to the related lengthier WeChat article with more details. The thematic categories mentioned above show great alignments with the three discourses identified from ethnographic data. It should be clarified that instead of just relying on the semantic meaning of keywords, the categorisation also depends on manual concordance analysis with an attempt to take the context into consideration. For instance, ‘tarpaulin’ is grouped into the category of ‘moderateness in consumption’, because it relates to how klee klee upcycled the used tarpaulin from its fashion show by repurposing the material into shopping bags.
Then, a detailed concordance analysis further unpacked discursive strategies used in klee klee’s Weibo posts, namely foregrounding the behind-the-scene story, orienting towards shared values, and evidencing a close relationship with other stakeholders.

The behind-the-scene story can be served as a sign of authenticity which indicates the production process or crafting of the product. Foregrounding the stories of products and producers allows klee klee to endorse authenticity as the major value of its fashion products. For example, when introducing the denim product, klee klee emphasised the crafting of the denim cloth in the context. Specifically, the use of vintage loom was compared deliberately with the modern high-speed loom in an attempt to differentiate its denim products from mass-produced ones in terms of quality and texture. A detailed description of the materials and production processes implies the authenticity and rarity of klee klee’s product, creating value for the product:

Trans: A heavy 13 oz denim woven on an old loom gives the fabric a rugged retro quality. It is a piece of rare classic denim fabric that is thick yet soft, and it is matchless compared with those woven on the modern high-speed loom.

Orienting towards shared values is also frequently spotted from the data, especially in the discourse of trust. It is clear that the like-mindedness is constructed linguistically by reiterating shared values between klee klee and other stakeholders such as independent businesses, producers and artists. Thus, value is created collaboratively by members of the community through orienting towards common beliefs. As is shown from the illustration below, klee klee indicated the common values it shares with Chi Mi Do, a farm located in Yunnan province which offers its customers an opportunity to experience rural life. Chi Mi Do does not belong to the fashion industry, nevertheless, its targeted customers are similar to klee klee’s - middle/upper-middle class urban professionals whose buying habit undergo a significant change -thus, instead of a specific industry, what they share are similar values in terms of lifestyle or taste.

Trans: In terms of sustainable lifestyles, klee klee and Chi Mi Do have many similar values, and together we will explore sustainability in the future.

Evidencing a close relationship is another strategy for klee klee to associate itself with the community advocating sustainable fashion, creating solidarity among other stakeholders (including their targeted customers). As is shown from the keyword list, the names of many brands, companies and individuals are mentioned in klee klee’s social media posts. When analysing their concordance lines, those social actors in many cases are addressed intimately and their partnership with klee klee is also introduced in a few words. For instance, Norlha, klee klee’s long-term business partner, is addressed as ‘friend’ or ‘old friend’. The case below illustrates how klee klee shows an intimate relationship with Norlha. The post announced the opening of Norlha’s annual pop-up store for 2019, but the information was delivered in a way as if klee klee invited Norlha to be its guest at its Anfu road store:

Trans: From Nov. 15 to Dec. 15, 2019, Norlha’s nomadic store 03 opens at klee klee Shanghai Anfu Road store and Beijing Sanlitun store. Come and have fun!# klee klee & friends # | Norlha’s nomadic store 03: A social enterprise from the plateau. We once again invited our old friend Norlha to be our guest.

The linguistic feature of using spoken grammar like addressing business partners as ‘friends’ can be associated with Fairclough (1989)’s ‘synthetic personalisation’ identified in the advertising discourse. According to Hunt and Koteyko (2015:448), it refers to the intentional use of linguistic features to
reduce social distance and increase participant solidarity, resulting in discourse meant for a vast audience being recast as intimate communication. Besides, klee klee also employs imperative and interrogative forms to make the promotional information sound like a daily conversation.

Conclusion
To conclude, it is argued that added value is discursively created through *distinction*, which makes sustainable fashion a legitimate taste that “tends, in fact, to impose the norms of its perception and tacitly defines as the only legitimate mode of perception the one which brings into play a certain disposition and a certain competence” (Bourdieu, 1984:28). Through corporate branding, klee klee aligns itself with ‘sustainable fashion’ and the community advocating such concept, differentiating the brand from others whose products rely on the industrial-, exploitative- and delocalized forms of production.

On a methodological note, throughout the different stages of research, the corpus-assisted discourse analysis of textual data was grounded in ethnographic fieldwork, and it is proved that findings obtained from the corpus analysis can in turn validate the interpretation and explanation of ethnographic data. In this study, a combination of corpus-assisted discourse analysis and ethnography showed that they can be two complementary approaches that allow for methodological triangulation and provide a more comprehensive picture of the issue under analysis. (2533 words, excluding the examples of original posts)

References


Appendix

Table. Keywords in the klee klee Weibo corpus compared with Chinese Web 2017 (zhTenTen17) Simplified

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>keyword</th>
<th>Keyword (English translated version)</th>
<th>Frequency (focus)</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>kleeklee</td>
<td>klee klee (brand)</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>14154.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>安福路</td>
<td>Anfu road</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>2790.838</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>请戳</td>
<td>please click</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>2343.563</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>nazenaze</td>
<td>naze naze (project)</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>1963.417</td>
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<tr>
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<td>诺乐</td>
<td>Norlha (brand)</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>1598.809</td>
</tr>
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<td>6</td>
<td>独龙族</td>
<td>Dulong people</td>
<td>20</td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>旧衣</td>
<td>old clothes</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>703.061</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>牦牛绒</td>
<td>yak wool</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>697.949</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>原色</td>
<td>Original colour (collection)</td>
<td>21</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>blue</td>
<td>Let’s blue (collection)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>644.708</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>安福</td>
<td>*Anfu road</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>环保棉</td>
<td>green cotton</td>
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<tr>
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<td>三里屯</td>
<td>Sanlitun Village</td>
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<td>TANGENTGC (brand)</td>
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<td>Indigo juice dye</td>
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<td>夏木</td>
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<td>knitted fabric</td>
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<td>织毯</td>
<td>blanket weaving</td>
<td>6</td>
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<td>------------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Norlha</td>
<td><strong>Norlha (brand)</strong></td>
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<td>BCAF (Beijing Contemporary Art Foundation)</td>
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<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>GOTS</td>
<td>GOTS (Global Organic Textile Standard)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>294.065</td>
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<td>26</td>
<td>织布</td>
<td>weave</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>293.622</td>
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<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>friends</td>
<td>friends</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>292.242</td>
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<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>IndigoJuice</td>
<td><strong>Indigo juice</strong></td>
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<td>截客</td>
<td>Chuke Chuke (company)</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>Bamford</td>
<td>Bamford (brand)</td>
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<td>32</td>
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<td>denim</td>
<td>29</td>
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<td>33</td>
<td>卢珊</td>
<td>(name)</td>
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<td>山货</td>
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1. Keywords with one asterisk mark are some characters segmented incorrectly, and the correct one is also listed in the table.
2. Keywords with two asterisks are another form of the item listed already, therefore the actual keyness score of those keywords is higher than the number shown in the table.
3. Extra information on some keywords is provided in the brackets when necessary.
An exploratory study on the social representation of long and short-term romantic relationship among Japanese

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Abstract

Using the Theory of Social Representation (TSR) as the foundation, this research explored the social representation of long (LTR) and short (STR) term romantic relationships and its differences. A total of 61 Japanese adults aged between 19 and 42 years old (M=25.84, SD=6.41) responded to a structured questionnaire that prompts for the representation of LTR and STR in English using free association techniques. The representations were interpreted using the structural approach of the theory of social representation. The result showed that representations of LTR include love, trust, marriage, understanding, family & stable while representations of STR consisted of fun, sex, love & casual. Comparing both types of romantic relationship, love is included in both concepts while sex is only represented in STR. These findings could be used as the basis to explore more issues related to romantic relationships in Japan.

Keywords: romantic relationship, social representation, Japan, short-term relationship

Introduction

The third stage of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs describes how humans need to be loved by others and develop romantic relationships (Finkel et al., 2014). Individuals who are involved in romantic relationships experience greater life satisfaction and are less lonely (Beckmeyer and Cromwell, 2019). As we are marching into Society 5.0 (Deguchi & Kamimura, 2020), the way we experience romantic relationships might have changed as compared to the previous societies (Ellin, 2009). Despite enjoying the benefit of technology and human integration, protecting the core of Society 5.0, ‘human-centered society’ remains challenging. Technologies are taking over so many aspects of our life, e.g. housekeeping, online education, data analysis, diagnostics, shopping, dining experience and communication via social media. Will technologies take over our romantic relationships as well? Will society 5.0 be based on technology-based relationships as well? Or will we keep the authentic, real face-to-face when looking for intimate relationships? Answers to all of these questions have yet to be explored deeply.

After the second world war, due to the influence from the West, personal choice of romantic partners has received tremendous public support in Japan (Wagatsuma & De Vos, 1962). Getting married is often seen as one of the important milestones of a couple who are involved in romantic relationships. In modern society, marriage is an important social institution that ensures society could function efficiently as it serves basic biological, economic and social functions (Giddens & Sutton, 2021). However, recent phenomena such as declining marriage rate (Chazavi et al., 2022), infidelity (Kimura et al., 2021), sexual depression (Hirayama, 2019), sexless marriages (Pacher, 2022; Sanmargaraja et al., 2021) and increase in extra marital affairs (Molony, 2022) were observed. A national survey carried out by the government revealed that 24.1% single females and 37.6% single males in their 20s and 30s experience zero romantic relationships in their lifetime (Teh, 2022). Young adults in Japan have less interest in romantic relationships as compared to the previous generation

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5 Society 5.0, is a future city model proposed by the Japanese Government; a human-centered society that balances economic advancement with the resolution of social problems by a system that highly integrates cyberspace and physical space. It uses technology like artificial intelligence (AI), big data, cloud computing and robotics technologies to assist humans in daily life functioning.
These phenomena may be due to increased integration of technology in the way we experience romantic relationships. The involvement of technology in romances started as early as 2009 where a Japanese man married a video game character, Ms. Nene Anegasaki (Malinowska, 2022) and, in 2020, another man married Ms. Hatsune Miku, a virtual character (Li, 2022). Dating apps (e.g. Tinder, Pairs, Bumble) have changed our traditional way of meeting potential mates. There were around 748,053 dating app users in 47 prefectures in Japan in 2020 (Suzuki et al., 2020) that is expected to increase from time to time. Match Group, the world largest online dating service company that operates services such as Tinder, listed Japan as its second largest business market after the U.S. (Bhattacharya, 2021).

Traditionally, more effort is required (e.g. attending social gathering) to look for potential partners. But this priority has been given to other activities such as work. Looking for potential partners could be done easily by just swapping using the mobile phone. This lesser effort in looking for potential partners could turn out positively. Erevik et al. (2020) revealed that as compared to non-Tinder users, Tinder users have a higher chance to form a romantic relationship in the long term. On the other hand, online dating phenomenon has led to the increase in sociosexuality, sexual activities outside a committed relationship (Ciocca et al., 2020, Nakamine, 2017). Tinder uses are often associated with a short-term relationship (Sevi, 2019) which is motivated by just sexual pleasure (e.g. Timmermans & Courtois, 2018).

Technology advancement is the new challenge for people to maintain long term romantic relationships (LTR) which could lead to marriage. On the surface, a short-term relationship requires less effort as compared to maintaining a long-term relationship (Sadr, 2019). However, what happens when a short-term relationship allows people to experience the same benefit as what they could enjoy for a long-term relationship? Unlike long term relationships where people plan to marry and build a family, it is complicated to define what people meant by the short-term romantic relationship (STR) (see Stewart et al., 2018, p. 128). As this is a new phenomenon, despite unclear definition, people may have started to communicate about it in daily life conversation. This is known as social representation.

Social representation is commonsense knowledge worked out by people in everyday communication in order to provide meaning to different objects, phenomena, events that are new, strange, unknown and threatening (Dvoryanchikov et al., 2014). It is important because it helps us to understand how our social environment has guided our actions. Understanding social representation could help a person to manage their expectations or manage their romantic relationships. Educators or policy makers in making informed decisions on related issues. Hence, the objective of this study was to analyze the central core elements of social representation among Japanese for two variables: (i) “short-term romantic relationship”, and (ii) “long-term romantic relationship”.

Methods

Ethical considerations
This research was approved by the university research ethics committee.

Study design & data collection
The study employed a cross-sectional survey method to obtain social representation from respondents in qualitative forms. The social representation of (i) short-term romantic relationship and (ii) long-term romantic relationship were obtained using the free association and the rank-frequency technique, as suggested by (Moliner & Abric, 2015). The method is commonly used to understand the semantic content of social representation (see Lim et al., 2021; Chundu et al., 2021).

Respondents
There were 61 respondents between the ages of 19 and 42 years old (M=25.84, SD=6.41), 44.26% males, and 55.73% females. Unlike a usual survey that measured variables using Likert scale (see Lim, 2017), Fugard & Potts (2014) recommended qualitative studies to have a minimum sample size of 12. Hence, in the context of this preliminary study, it is deemed sufficient. All respondents self-reported as Japanese citizens. In terms of education background, 52.46% are college or university graduates,
40.98% are high school graduates and others. When asked if they ever experienced short-term romantic relationships, 81.97% of respondents indicated ‘yes’. For long-term romantic relationships, 65.57% indicated ‘yes’, 31.15% indicated ‘no’ while 2 respondents were unsure. For current relationship status, 62.30% reported being single, 22.95% in a relationship and others not specified.

**Measure**
To measure the social representation of “short-term romantic relationship”, respondents were asked "Think about short-term romantic relationship. What words or phrases come to your mind? Please write five words or phrases”. The words and phrases written were the elements of social representation. Representations of “long-term romantic relationship” were measured using the same method.

**Procedures**
After giving a consent to participate in this study, respondents were then to express their opinions about (i) short-term romantic relationship and (ii) long-term romantic relationship by typing out their thoughts in the survey form. The three questions were asked in a randomized sequence automated by the software Qualtrics. Before exiting the survey, respondents were asked a series of demographic questions. Two types of analyses were done, (i) Content coding was carried out to recode words or phrases of the same meaning belonging to the same semantic class. (ii) The software Iramuteq was used to perform the prototypical analysis and to reveal the content of social representations (Chundu et al., 2021). The result was presented and discussed.

**Content coding**
Words or phrases of the same meaning belonging to the same semantic class were recorded. For example: “sex” and “lust” were recoded into “sex”. The initial recording was done by the researchers. After that, 10 independent coders were shown original and corded words or phrases, and they indicated agreement on it. The average pairwise percentage agreement was 85.30 that demonstrated the high level of inter-coding reliability.

**Prototypical analysis**
Verges’s (1992) prototypical analysis is used to categorize respondents’ social representation into the central core and periphery system. This method explores the structure of social representation (Moliner & Abric, 2015). It measures two parameters: association frequencies, and rank of their appearance. The appearances that come first indicate its importance level. Peripheral system will not be addressed in this study as it is outside the scope of the study. The result of the analysis is presented in Table 1.

The central core elements include elements with high frequency and high importance levels. These are the elements that appear first in the mind of the respondents when asked about the questions. The central core system consists of words that help to manage the meanings associated with the phenomena and strengthen non-negotiable beliefs. It consists of elements that are stable and agreed upon by most of the people in the group. Words that formed the central core system are deeply rooted in the collective memory of the social group (Orosz, 2010). It consists of just a few unconditional beliefs that allow one to define the group’s values, norms, and history. Words in the central core system are also stable over time.

**Results**
The prototypical analysis revealed that the core representation among Japanese for LTR includes love, trust, marriage, understanding, family and stable. For STR, it is represented by love, fun, sex and casual. The core representation elements are characterized by high frequency and high importance level.
Table 1: Prototypical analysis of LTR and STR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dual system</th>
<th>Long term romantic relationship (LTR) (Frequency, Rank)</th>
<th>Short term romantic relationship (STR) (Frequency, Rank)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(i) Central core zone</td>
<td>Love (30, 2.2)</td>
<td>Love (8, 2.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Trust (20, 2.6)</td>
<td>Fun (15, 2.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Marriage (13, 2.8)</td>
<td>Sex (14, 2.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Understanding (10, 2.6)</td>
<td>Casual (7, 1.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Family (10, 2.4)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stable (9, 2.7)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: (# indicating frequency, rank ranges from 1 to 5, lower numbers indicate higher level (rank) of importance of the element).

Discussion

Technology advancement has changed the way we experience romantic relationships. Inventions such as dating apps allow people to have easy access to a huge pool of potential romance mates. People can now have not only a long-term romantic relationship (LTR), but a short-term romantic relationship (STR) as well. These changes suggest that we need to further investigate how people understood these new phenomena. Utilizing the Theory of Social Representation as its foundation, this research studied the social representation of LTR and STR among Japanese. According to the structural approach of social representation, the elements gathered can be categorized into two systems, the central core and peripheral system. This research is only interested in the elements evoked in the central core system because it defines groups’ norms and values.

One surprising finding of this research is that the word “love” is used to describe not only LTR, but STR. Love is a type of emotional reaction that influences our personal happiness, self-esteem, self-efficacy and is an important source of psychological well-being (Branscombe & Baron, 2016). Despite upholding a long term orientation culture (Avé, 2022), Japanese describe STR using the term love. This means short-term romantic relationships also have their roles in satisfying the need to be love and love. However, it is important to note that there are various forms of love. For example, Strengberg & Strengberg (2018) argued that love is made up of three basic components: (i) passion, (ii) commitment and (iii) intimacy. What is known in this study is that love is involved in both types of romance, but in detail differences remain unknown.

For LTR, the elements of trust, marriage understanding, family and stability validated the culture that cherishes long term orientation and uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede Insight, 2022). For example, marriage and family building are a long tradition in Japan that provide stability and social security. Another important finding was that LTR is not described using the term such as fun and sex. We speculate that problem such as sexless marriage (Pacher, 2022), sexual depression (Hirayama, 2019) and infidelity (Molony, 2022) happens because LTR is not communicated as fun and involvement of sex. Instead, people benefited from fun and sex through STR. These findings are rather important as if LTR is important, effort need to be invested to encourage fun and sex among LTR couple.

We want to acknowledge the limitations of our research. The limited number of respondents and the fact that all of them took this study in English (not native language) may not allow to generalize this result. Finally, there are still many unanswered questions about romantic relationships in the 21st century. Future research could further investigate if there are any differences in the ways people experience love when they are involved in long- and short-term romantic relationships. Moreover, future research could investigate how to promote fun LTR and sexual activities. These findings could be used as the basis to explore more issues related to romantic relationships in Japan.
References


