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# Linguistics & Education



Telehealthcare System in Taiwan

Translanguaging Pedagogy to Teach Science

Highlights

Culturally and Linguistic Responsive

Empirical Exploration of Moroccan Learners'

**Discovering Thoughts, Inventing Future**

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# Using Culturally and Linguistic Responsive and Translanguaging Pedagogy to Teach Science

By Yu Ren Dong
*City University of New York*

*Introduction-* More and more students in today's secondary subject matter classrooms in America are bilingual ELLs (English language learners), a fast-growing student population in the U.S. public schools (National Center for Education Statistics, 2019). In New York City, about 50% of the total public-school students speak a language other than English at home and one out of every six secondary school students are an ELL (New York City Department of Education, 2019). Those ELLs are served by the three language programs: TBE (Transitional Bilingual Education program, mostly for middle and high school students), DL (Dual Language Program, mostly for elementary and middle school students), ENL (English as a new language program, formerly ESL, for almost all ELLs). In this article, I focus on bilingual subject matter instruction for high school students in the TBE program. Every day, the secondary ELLs in the TBE program attend subject matter classes taught by bilingual subject matter teachers using the bilingual education pedagogy. According to the guidelines shown on the website of New York City Department of Education:

> The Transitional Bilingual Education program provides reading, writing, and other classes in English and in the student's home language. As students' English improves, more time is spent learning in English and less time is spent learning in their home language. The goal of a TBE program is to support students in their home language while they fully transition to an English-only instruction class.

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# Using Culturally and Linguistic Responsive and Translanguaging Pedagogy to Teach Science

Yu Ren Dong

## I. Introduction

More and more students in today's secondary subject matter classrooms in America are bilingual ELLs (English language learners), a fast-growing student population in the U.S. public schools (National Center for Education Statistics, 2019). In New York City, about 50% of the total public-school students speak a language other than English at home and one out of every six secondary school students are an ELL (New York City Department of Education, 2019). Those ELLs are served by the three language programs: TBE (Transitional Bilingual Education program, mostly for middle and high school students), DL (Dual Language Program, mostly for elementary and middle school students), ENL (English as a new language program, formerly ESL, for almost all ELLs). In this article, I focus on bilingual subject matter instruction for high school students in the TBE program. Every day, the secondary ELLs in the TBE program attend subject matter classes taught by bilingual subject matter teachers using the bilingual education pedagogy. According to the guidelines shown on the website of New York City Department of Education:

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Clearly, the TBE pedagogy is rooted in the monolingual ideology and views bilingual students' L1 as a temporary support for them to learn English. The bilingual subject matter teacher is given the guidelines of using 80% of their students' L1 in the beginning of the year/semester and reducing the L1 use to 20% or less by the end of the year/semester. The bilingual ELLs' L1 support will be gradually removed over time once they can communicate in English. This approach to bilingual education becomes problematic when about two-thirds of the secondary bilingual ELLs in New York City have received either equivalent or close to equivalent subject matter education before coming to the U.S. in their home countries. However, their lack of English language proficiency and the TBE program set up prevents them from a fast transition in their subject matter learning to meet the graduation standards.

A recent count of the graduation rate (New York State Department of Education 2018-2019) for New York City English proficient students was 81%, while only 41% of ELLs graduated. When comparing the pass rate on the Regents exams (a measure in graduation standards), while 70% of English-proficient high school students passed the regent's exam in living sciences (biology), only 35% of ELLs did so. Although, ELLs have an option of using the alternative language edition translated into Spanish, Chinese, Korean, Haitian Creole, Russian and write their responses to the open-ended questions in their native language on the Regents exam, this option was not fully utilized due to the English only goal and set up of the TBE program. The TBE program approach and structure limits the use of students' native languages and the artificial design of alternations or percentages between the use of English and students' native languages is not effective and even detrimental to bilingual ELLs' language and subject matter knowledge development. All this points to the urgent need to re-examine the bilingual education pedagogy for secondary bilingual ELLs.

Recent research in bilingual education has called attention towards re-examining the traditional bilingual education program, such as TBE and monolingual approach to bilingual education. Most research in the US initiated by Garcia on the potentials and benefits of the Translanguaging pedagogy has expanded our views on what bilingual and biliteracy education is all about. Translanguaging pedagogy argues for drawing on and intermingling emergent bilingual students' full linguistic repertoire-all languages and literacy skills to promote those students' bilingual and biliteracy development (Aguilar, et al., 2020; Garcia and Wei, 2014; Sharon, et al., 2021). By incorporating various language forms, skills, and competences purposefully, systematically bilingual students have multiple accesses to and develop ways of learning, interacting, and practicing their bilingual and biliteracy and subject matter knowledge and skills. Therefore, it's the purpose of this article to explore the benefits and

*Author: Professor of secondary education at Queens College, City University of New York, U.S.A. She teaches secondary school teacher education courses, and her research areas include preparing mainstream subject area teachers for English language learners and preparing secondary bilingual teachers to teach biliteracy in their subject matter classes. e-mail: yu.dong@qc.cuny.edu*



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ways of using the culturally relevant and Translanguaging bilingual education pedagogy in a secondary Chinese bilingual biology class.

## II. Literature Review

### a) *Science Instruction for Linguistically and Culturally Diverse Students*

Over the years, the changing student body in science classrooms has prompted investigations into using culturally relevant pedagogy to effectively serve the ELLs in science education (Cho and McDonnough, 2009; Lee and Fradd, 2001). The culturally relevant teaching pedagogy originally focused on educational disparities of racial minority students in the 1990s. (Gay, 2010; Ladson-Billings, 1995) and delineated three major teaching applications to address these disparities by

1. Teachers' investigation of students' prior knowledge;
2. Teachers' recognition and inclusion of students' prior knowledge and voices in their curriculum and instruction; and
3. Teachers' adjustment made during the teaching process to engage and motivate students to participate in the learning process (Ladson-Billings, 1995).

Later with a tremendous increase of ELLs in American classrooms, the linguistically responsive pedagogy complemented and expanded the culturally relevant science teaching pedagogy to take into account bilingual/ELL students' native languages, literacy backgrounds obtained in their native country, culturally familiar examples, and previous science learning experiences in ESL education (Dong, 2014, 2017; Lucas & Villegas, 2013; Rupley and Slough, 2010; Rosebery and Warren, 2008; Short, *et al.,* 2011). Research has shown that when using linguistically and culturally responsive approach to teach science, students respond positively and engage actively in the learning process (Lee, *et al.* 2007; Lucas and Villegas, 2013). Also, instead of teaching science or scientific language separately, research findings have shown the benefit of engaging bilingual students' two languages in learning science and teaching both science knowledge and language together to achieve their development in scientific knowledge and skills as well as in their bilingual language skills (Amaral, *et al.,* 2002; Bialystok, 2008; Meyers and Crawford, 2011; Moore and Schleppegrell, 2020; Morrison*, et al.,* 2020).

### b) *Translanguaging Pedagogy in Bilingual Science Instruction*

Most recently, bilingual education research pointed out the problems and limitations of the existing bilingual education models and pedagogy. Derived from this line of research is the arrival of Translanguaging pedagogy to argue for the positive effect of teachers' systematic, active, and purposeful activation and mobilization of bilingual students' full linguistic repertoire cross language boundaries in bilingual science classrooms to increase bilingual/ELLs participation, understanding, and discussion of the language and subject matter topic under study.

Cummins' Linguistic Independence theory provides the foundation of Translanguaging pedagogy. According to Cummins (1979), there is a strong underlying connection in language proficiency between languages at the deeper level of reading, writing, and oral language. Also, there is a conceptual knowledge base shared between languages at the CALP level. In other words, bilingual students' native language and cognitive competence and skills gained in their schooling in L1 can be transferred into the understanding of L2 at the deeper cognition and academic language level. Thus, what ESLs bring to the classroom should be used to learn not only the surface level L2, such as spelling and pronunciation but also the deep level of concepts, such as metaphorical ways of thinking and doing science. For Cummins "language and content will be acquired most successfully when students are challenged cognitively but provided with the contextual and linguistic supports or scaffolds required for successful task completion" (Cummins, 2000, p. 71). For secondary bilingual students who have had either equivalent or some subject matter knowledge and skills in the subject matter topic under instruction, Translanguaging pedagogy has an important role to play in moving beyond word-for-word concept translations to fully using students' linguistic repertoire and developing bilingual students' biliteracy skills (Garcia, et al. 2017; Garicia and Kleyn, 2016). Beeman and Urow (2013) argued that bilingual students' cognitive and linguistic assets, including their previous learning history and native language and literacy skills must be recognized and used in teaching subject matter knowledge and language.

Even though Cummins' theory has become the guiding principle for both the ESL and bilingual education, there is still a gap between research and practice. Under the pressure of the standardized tests and graduation demands and restrictions from the TBE program guidelines, bilingual science education practice has yet to implement the research findings. Rather, secondary bilingual science education still operates from the monolingual model and uses separate or sequential bilingual education approaches. Often the bilingual science teachers are settling for using the word-for-word translation method to teach bilingual science and using the surface word level discussions (Hornberger and Link, 2012; Lee, *et al.* 2007; Licona and Kelly, 2020, Unsal*, et al.,* 2018). Due to the limited and sporadic and surface level use of students' L1, bilingual/ELLs cannot access and gain an accurate and in-depth concept understanding or



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participate in an inquiry-discussion about the concept in an extended and in-depth manner. All this is especially problematic when conceptual understanding is the goal of science education and using language to do inquiry-based science discussion is the hallmark of science instruction. Therefore, it's important to prepare for using culturally and linguistical responsive Translanguaging pedagogy. The research questions were:

## III. Research Questions

What prior knowledge that secondary bilingual ELLs brought into the science classroom?

What bilingual science teachers did to use culturally and linguistically responsive and Translanguaging pedagogy to teach science to bilingual ELLs?

## IV. Research Context

In the 2018-2019 academic year, I worked with 15 certified subject matter teachers who were seeking New York State bilingual extensions. Their subject matter areas ranged from mathematics to social studies to science. In this article, I focus on Mike (pseudonym), a high school biology teacher who had been teaching biology to bilingual/ELLs for seven years at the time of the study. Mike had both New York State science teaching certificate and a master's in science education. As a Chinese bilingual who originally came from Taiwan after completing middle school, Mike had an intimate knowledge about the Chinese education and culture. Growing up speaking both Chinese and later English, Mike was big on teaching his Chinese bilingual ELLs the importance of improving their native language while learning English. Mike's science Assistant Principal encouraged Mike to pursue a Chinese bilingual extension to better serve his students.

I had Mike as a student in my class entitled SEYS 745: Reading and Writing for Diverse Students in Subject Matter Classes, one of the five Secondary Bilingual Education courses that Mike was completing for his bilingual extension license. Mike reflected on his bilingual language learning like this:

> I grew up in Taiwan where I solely spoke Chinese Mandarin. I developed a solid base in science and literacy in my first language. The Taiwanese public-school students started learning English when they begin their middle schools. So, I consider myself a sequential bilingual. Because of my strong foundation in Chinese language and subject matter education in my early years of schooling. I would transfer my Chinese skills to English. Now as a science teacher, I often find incidents where I can use what my students learned in China and Taiwan to make a reference or analogy to teach the concept under study to make abstract and challenging scientific concepts understandable for my Chinese bilingual students.

Mike was teaching in a multilingual and multicultural inner city public high school with over 3,500 students in Queens, New York City. Among 3,500 students, 602 or 17% were ELLs and close to half of the ELLs were Asian ELLs. The science department offers quite a few bilingual science classes, such as bilingual biology, chemistry, earth science, etc. in Chinese, Korean, Spanish, etc. At the time of the study, Mike was teaching two Chinese biology classes besides his three regular biology classes for English proficient students. Each of his classes had about 30 students. Having worked with his Chinese bilingual ELLs, Mike realized the need to pursue his Chinese bilingual extension to better serve these students. Using the Transitional Bilingual Education (TBE) program, Mike's science curriculum aimed to prepare its bilingual students for the New York Regents exams in life sciences.

In light of the recent research and reconceptualization of bilingual education, I placed the Translanguaging and culturally and linguistic responsive pedagogy front and center in the class readings, discussions, and assignments. Along with other students, Mike was asked to do a cross-cultural literacy education by doing the two readings selected in the scholarly journals about the culture and literacy education and interviewing three people who had had secondary education in the country whose people speak the same language that Mike was seeking in the bilingual extension. Near the end of the semester, students were required to apply translanguaging and culturally and linguistic responsive pedagogy to their subject matter teaching contexts by designing and teaching a series of bilingual subject matter lessons.

Data collected included Mike's semester long reflections, cross-cultural literacy study report, class discussions, bilingual biology lessons, and biliteracy teaching report, which included three lessons using the Translanguaging and culturally and linguistic responsive pedagogy.

## V. Results and Discussion

Although New York City public schools have a systematic and formal approach to identifying and providing students' levels of English proficiency, there is no formal system set up to evaluate those ELLs' levels of native language and subject matter knowledge learned in their home countries. Teachers can only assess the students' previous school records and/or transcripts translated from another language into English.

To uncover their students' prior subject matter knowledge and native language literacy backgrounds, those inservice teachers studied the education system of a country whose people speak the language that they were seeking the bilingual teaching extension. Each student read two scholarly articles about the education system, curriculum, instruction, and assessment of the country, interviewed three cultural and educational



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insiders' who had had schooling up to 8th grade in that country, and wrote about what they had learned. Below is a sample interview response from two of Mike's student interviewees:

> Back in China, in middle school we learned physics first, then chemistry, and finally biology. Students are not required to pass the standardized test on it like the Regents exam here in the U.S.; instead, we are required to learn each subject for one year and complete all three subjects by the end of senior high school. However, we do have Gao Kao, an annual college entrance exam for three days, where general science, such as biology, physics, and chemistry is tested and the scores were used for the college admission. By Ling, a 9th grader.

> I love science and read 100,000 whys (十万个为什么), a popular science book series in my spare time. The series covered many popular science topics. Each chapter opens up with a why question. It asks the reader to think about common problems in daily life and use scientific knowledge to solve it. For example, "Why does a bike have two wheels?" "Why does cement harden after contacting with water?" It then provides us with a detailed explanation and scientific reasoning behind it. I like to read those books because they tell me something that I don't know before. - by Sam, a 10th grader.

Findings obtained from Mike's cross-cultural literacy education study not only informed him of where his students came from but also intrigued and energized his students by their teacher's sincere interest in what they learned and knew. Mike's student interviewees talked and wrote about the differences between American education and Chinese education in two languages using both English and Chinese and revealed their struggles in the new culture and learning environment. Below is Qining's bilingual reflection:

*Chinese Version:*

**来美国之前，听**说美国上课很**自由**，课**程很**简单，考试也不多。**所以，当我来到美国**时，我很期待上学。**但是开学的第一天，我就震惊了。所有内容均**为英文。记得放学的第一天，我默默地走回家的路上边走边**走**流下了眼泪。**回到家我不想吃**饭，回到家一句话也不想说，直接回房间去了。**我一**边哭一边翻译**家庭作**业**和**课堂笔记.那天▪上我一直**弄到**凌晨2点。我在前三周重▪了相同的循▪。▪力太大了，我真的很想回国。但三周后的一天，我通▪了一次生物▪▪，那一刻，我松了一口气。在那之后，我有了一点自信，▪然有▪我▪是想放弃，但我一直▪持到▪在。

*English Version*

> Before I came to the United States, I heard that the United States was free in class, the curriculums were very simple, and there were not many exams. So, when I came to the United States, I was looking forward to going to school. By the end of the first day of school, I was shocked. All the content was in English. I remembered the first day after school I walked home silently and shed tears on the way. When I got home, I didn't want to eat, I didn't want to say a word, I went straight to my room. I locked myself in the room, and I was crying and translating. I stayed awake until 2 AM. I repeated the same cycle for the first three weeks. The pressure was so great that I really wanted to go back home. But one day after three weeks I passed a biology quiz which at that moment, I feel relieved. After that, I feel a little bit more confident, although I still want to give up, I have been persisting until now. Qining, 9th grader.

Inspired by his findings from the cross-cultural literacy education study and guided by the Translanguaging and culturally and linguistic responsive teaching principles, Mike designed his lessons differently by purposefully and explicitly using his students' biliteracy skills and their prior knowledge about biology in the class discussions. Mike's class talks focused on concept learning through inquiry-based discussions. With newly learned teaching pedagogy and knowledge about his students' prior learning, Mike would start the lesson by inviting students to question or comment on the topic by speaking in Chinese and/or English. This ritual helped Mike center the discussion around the student's questions or comments. Throughout the discussion, Mike would take his students on a journey to explore the challenging concepts and do a scientific inquiry. The following excerpt illustrates one of Mike's discussions about the gas exchange in humans:

Student 1: 邊讀文章一邊解註解,讓我讀的數度變好慢喔 (English translation: while reading it slows down my speed of reading so much if I annotate the text.).

Teacher (Mike): Yes, indeed. Biology text reading is close reading. During the reading, you have to take a break to reflect.

Student 1: 那是我該怎麼開始? (English translation: But how do I begin?)

Teacher: You can start with the title. What do you think the text is all about by reading the title?

Student 2: 人体空氣交換 (English translation: gas exchange in humans)

Teacher: Good. Where do you think 人体空氣交換 or gas exchange takes place?

Student 3: 肺 (English translation: lung)

Teacher: What is the English for 肺

Student 4: Lungs

Teacher: Good. Where does gas exchange occur in the lungs?

Student 4: 那個有泡泡的東西 (English translation: the thing looks like bubbles)

Teacher: Yes, you are right. But what is the name for those bubbles?

Student 5: 肺泡



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Teacher: Excellent, in Chinese it means 肺泡 Let's think about what you have learned about all this back in China (gave students 5 minutes to think)

Student 6: I learned this 肺泡 in my biology class in China. I remember my biology teacher asking us to take a deep breath and saying that is when the 肺泡膨胀像气球使你吸收你呼进氧气 (English translation: you inhale to open up your lungs and expand your lungs, alveole is like a balloon),

Teacher: Excellent. I like the balloon analogy here. What other analogy can we use? Think about the functions of 肺泡 to inhale, to open up the air in the lungs, and to exhale to close down the air in the lungs. (gave students another 3 minutes to think) What happened when you inhale?

Student 7: We breathe in oxygen.

Teacher: What do those 肺泡 do?

Student 7: 肺泡打**开使你吸收你呼**进氧气 (English translation: it opens up to let you get oxygen)

Teacher: What happened when you exhale?

Student 6: Then the 肺泡瘪释放你呼出的废物二氧化碳 (English translation: it closes to let you get out the carbon dioxide.)

Student 7: Then 肺泡 work like 丰满 new grapes and when we inhale, 肺泡 work like 葡萄干dry raisins when we exhale.

Teacher: Excellent. How do we put all this into English?

Student 7: We use 肺泡 to breathe in oxygen and breathe out carbon dioxide. But do we have only one 肺泡 in each lung?

Teacher: Excellent question. What do you think? What do you remember?

Student 6: My biology teacher told us there are many. I don't know how many.

Teacher: In each lung there are millions of 肺泡

Students: Wow! That many?

Teacher: Let's say the word together by following me: Alveolus, al-vee-uh-las

Class: al-vee-uh-las

Teacher: Good. As Chinese doesn't have plural forms for the nouns such as 肺泡 but you all have learned the English plural forms for nouns. If I say one 肺泡in English is alveolus. Can you guess what will be the plural form for alveolus?

Student 6: Alveoluses?

Teacher: What other words in biology we learned not long ago like this one ending with -lus?

Student 7: Like nucleus and nuclei?

Student 8: I know, I know. It's alveoli.

Teacher: Excellent! Now I want you to use what we just talked about to read and make notes of this excerpt on gas exchange. Make sure to use the reading comprehension strategies we learned.

In the above class discussion, Mike and students used both English and Chinese actively and freely to discuss the concept of gas exchange and its functions. Notice that student 1 started the conversation commenting on the difficulty with the reading. By Mike acknowledging that and using Chinese students' L1, students were willing and able to invest more in the discussion using both languages. Thus, there is a good coverage of student participation. In the middle of the discussion, a critical juncture of concept exploration, Mike explicitly asked students about what they knew about this topic in their schooling in China. Mike later revealed that the cross-cultural education study opened his eyes to learn that many of his students had already learned some of the biology concepts. So, before each unit he made it a habit of asking students for any knowledge they learned related to the topic under study.

Rather than quickly giving out a one-on-one translation of the word alveolus, Mike engaged his students in an analogical and conceptual exploration of what the alveolus does by drawing on their previous education and by generating analogies to express and further their understanding. Notice that when students used L1, they engaged more with the concept and pushed for scientific and analogical reasoning to deepen their understanding. Noteworthy is also students' genuine interest in the concept and willingness to move the discussion forward to analogical reasoning, such as comparing alveolus to a balloon and grape. Finally, trusting his students' linguistic and cognitive skills, Mike ended the discussion by asking students to make an intelligent guess about the plural form of alveolus.

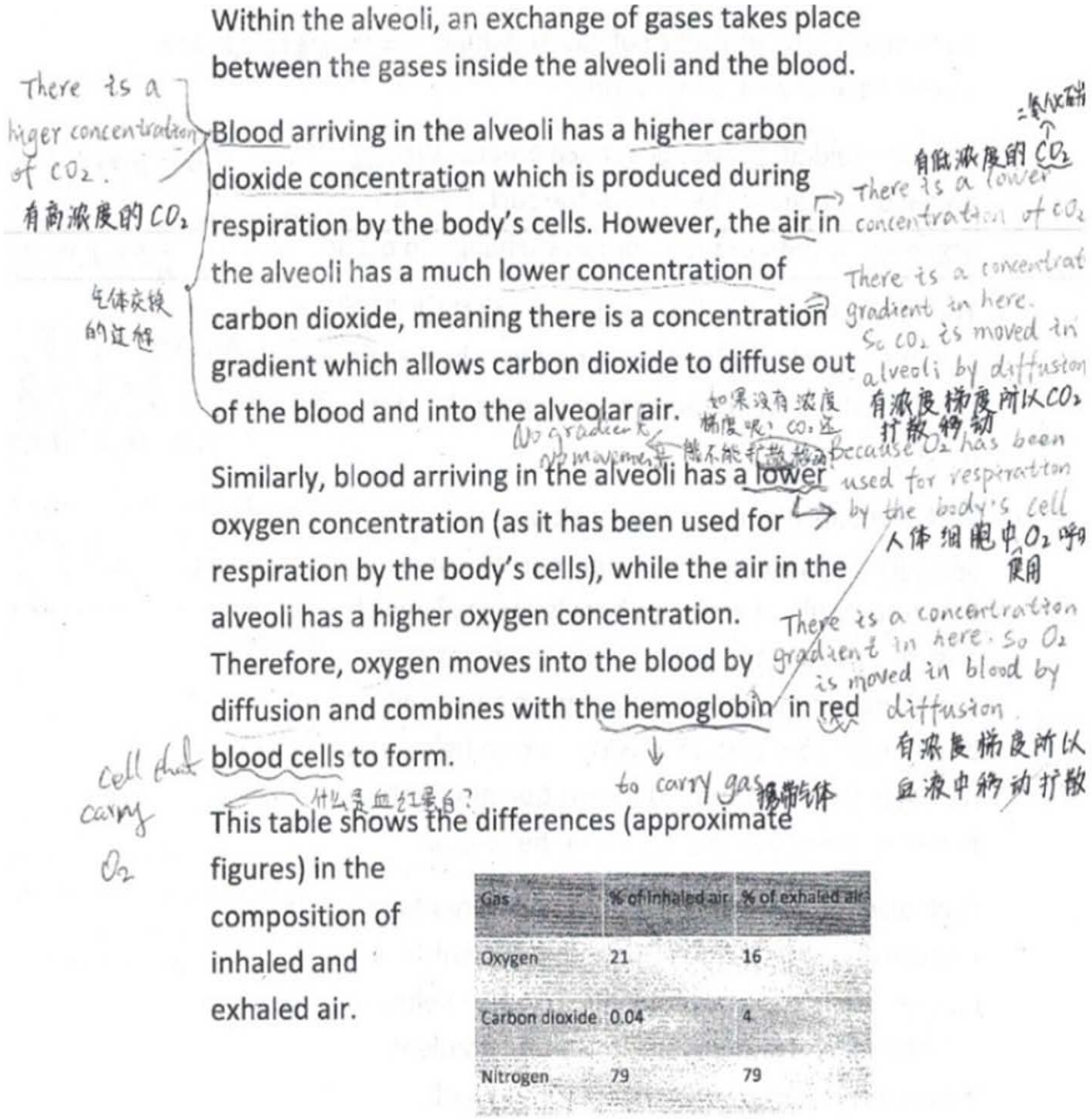
Following the class discussion, Mike's students did a close reading about the gas exchange and created text notes about the reading. Below is Jane's reading notes on gas exchange. Throughout the semester, Mike taught students how to take notes in doing biology text reading. He encouraged students to use English as well as Chinese to demonstrate their understanding as well as their questions and confusions. Several note-making strategies were illustrated and practiced by the class over the semester. They are:

- Summarizing what you have read so far.
- Underlining new words in the reading.
- Using Chinese and/or scientific symbolic language to assist reading comprehension.
- Asking questions about the topic and what you don't know.
- Relating the old knowledge to the new.

Below is Jane's notes on her reading of the gas exchange in humans.



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| Gas | % of inhaled air | % of exhaled air |
|---|---|---|
| Oxygen | 21 | 16 |
| Carbon dioxide | 0.04 | 4 |
| Nitrogen | 79 | 79 |

In the above reading notes, Jane, followed the note-taking guidelines taught and modeled by Mike to summarize what she wrote line by line on the margins of the text and underlined key words that proved to be critical for her understanding of gas exchange. In addition, Jane connected the alveoli function of giving out carbon dioxide to the concept of diffusion, which they learned before. A few Chinese words/sentences written on the margins provide interesting insights. A closer examination of those Chinese words/sentences showed Jane's questions, such as "What happens when there is no concentration? What is red blood protein? Is the carbon dioxide concentration the cause of alveoli's function of diffusion?" Those questions showed Jane's ability to think critically about the subject matter, a wonderful example of Translanguaging where Jane made full use of her Chinese linguistic repertoire to think and write about science. Thus, this shows the benefits of Mike's use of Translanguaging pedagogy to activate his students' dual languages and enable them to think about science using two languages.

Mike's experimentation with Translanguaging pedagogy was well received by his students. One of Mike's students reflected on his use of Chinese to learn science like this:

> Before in the biology class, I often felt guilty of speaking too much Chinese in class discussions, a reminder of my poor English. But there are so many new English words in biology. I follow the translated word glossary given by the teacher and look into the dictionary for the additional new words, while copying down the notes from the board and textbook. Because of all this, I couldn't participate or think

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about those words. Now Mr. Chen lets us use Chinese if we can express our ideas more clearly and gives us time to remember what we learned back in China about this topic both before and during the lesson, and that really helped me a lot.

Semester long discussions, readings, and teaching using Culturally and linguistic and Translanguaging pedagogy led Mike, along with other bilingual subject matter teachers, to grapple with their dual role of bilingual language teacher and subject matter teacher and challenges placed by the school administration and constrains set by the bilingual program. Soon Mike began to question the goal of the TBE program in his school and its effectiveness. Mike reflected on all this as below:

*Mike's Reflection*

This semester, through the cross-cultural education study it brought to my attention that I cannot neglect the importance of my bilingual ELLs' previous language and literacy learning history built in schools in China. I need to bridge two languages and two literacy learning histories together in order to teach biology effectively.

Before, I was so concerned about whether I have met with the required language percentages given by the administration, such as using 80% of students' native language and 20% of English at the beginning of the year and transitioning into using 80% of English and 20% of students' native language at the end of the year. Now I see that those arbitrary requirements lose sight of who the students are and what they bring to the class.

Translanguaging pedagogy opens up my teaching possibilities and especially helps with my concept-based and inquiry-oriented discussions to avoid the pitfalls of turning the biology class into learning from word glossaries and translations. I learned so much about what my Chinese bilingual students know, including what they already learned about biology in their home countries. I'll keep making those connections in my biology classes. In doing so, my students will find motivation and purpose in what we learn. As a result, the discussion can be more inquiry and meaning based as well as conceptual language oriented.

## VI. Conclusion

This study examined Mike's, innovative ways of using culturally and linguistic responsive approach and Translanguaging pedagogy to teach science to his Chinese bilingual students. Mike was a high school biology teacher. He started out with an investigation into his bilingual students' native language and literacy and science learning experiences in China to inform him of what and how to use what his students bring to his classroom to learn biology. Armed with that knowledge, Mike created time and space for students to think back to what they have learned and use those links purposefully and critically during the class discussion. Those opportunities that Mike created enabled his students to add to scientific inquiry, express their intelligence, and achieve conceptual understanding. This also allowed the students to wrestle through challenging reading and scientific concepts and push the discussion to a deeper level. Mike's teaching shows what Translanguaging pedagogy, when married to culturally and linguistically responsive pedagogy, can achieve (Lucas and Villegas, 2013).

Given students' range and level of participation as well as their reflection on the experience, it appears that all this may not be possible if Mike used English only or used the word translation alone. Research (Poza, 2015) has argued for the need to create time and space for students to foment thoughts in their full linguistic repertoire during the bilingual classroom discussion in order to develop their scientific inquiry skills and in-depth understanding of key concepts (Unsal, et al. 2018). Mike's push for using analogies to increase his students' conceptual understanding as well as linguistic awareness such as the plural form of alveolus was effective that students really used their full linguistic repertoire to think and talk science. In those situations, translanguaging is more than a scaffold but a bridge to connect language and subject matter content.

As the state and college teacher preparation programs continue to seek out effective ways of preparing future bilingual teachers, it is increasingly important to examine the focuses and structures of the existing program and infuse the research-based pedagogies to facilitate students' bilingual and biliteracy skills and subject matter learning. As shown in Mike's reflection, the "judicious use" of students' native language and rigid ways of separation between English and students' L1 mandated by the TBE program may not be effective when the goal of instruction is to learn the subject matter through language.

In addition, bilingual subject matter teachers need to be culturally and linguistic responsive while implementing Translanguaging pedagogy in the classroom. Translanguaging has to be culturally relevant and linguistic responsive. It's only when the teacher aligns language instruction objectives with the subject matter instruction objectives in a culturally and linguistic responsive manner that the effect and benefits of Translanguaging can be achieved to promote students' bilingual, biliteracy learning as well as subject matter knowledge learning.

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# An Empirical Study on the Intentional Behaviors of Healthcare Consumers in a Telehealthcare System in Taiwan

By Wei-Min Huang

*National Chung Cheng University*

*Abstract-* Due to an aging population and the impact of chronic disease, health insurance costs in Taiwan have increased year by year. In order to allow people access to great medical care from home or within their community, the Taiwanese government has promoted a number of telehealthcare policies. Most related research emphasizes the technology involved in such policies, but this study considers instead the combination of a technology acceptance model, a health belief model, and measures of trust within the community to probe the Taiwanese telehealthcare system.

This study was developed to examine factors that affect the usage, attitudes, and intentions of healthcare consumers within a telehealthcare system. 284 responses were collected via an online survey and analyzed using SPSS 23 and smart PLS2.0.

The results showed that perceived ease of use and usefulness were affected by social trust, perceived usefulness was affected by perceived ease of use, users' attitudes were affected by perceived ease of use and perceived usefulness, and user intention was affected by perceived usefulness, perceived seriousness, perceived benefits, and cues to action.

*Keywords: telehealthcare, technology acceptance model, health belief model.*

*GJHSS-G Classification: FOR Code: 139999*




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# An Empirical Study on the Intentional Behaviors of Healthcare Consumers in a Telehealthcare System in Taiwan

Wei-Min Huang

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## I. Introduction

To address healthcare needs of an aging population with a low birth rate and the impacts of chronic disease, the Taiwanese government has been working to improve its existing healthcare environment within the scope of its national budget. Maintaining the existing quality of care while upgrading to a more cost-effective model is important to society. According to the World Health Organization (WHO), a country in which those 65 years old or older comprise at least 7% of the total population can be called aging. Taiwan's Elders' Welfare Law also expressly states that only those over the age of 65 may be called elderly.

According to statistics from the Interior Ministry of Social Affairs, at the end of September 1993 Taiwan's elderly population over 65 years was about 148.5 million people, accounting for 7.09 percent of the population and surpassing the aging society index set by WHO the based on population structure, average life expectancy, and other factors. With the advancement of healthcare information technology and popularization of national quality of life improvement initiatives, telehealth is urgently needed to face current concerns that the elderly and chronically ill population will continue to increase.

At the end of 2020, Taiwan's elderly population comprised 15.5% of the total population, and current trends estimate in 20 years the proportion of elderly people in Taiwan will have doubled. It's therefore critical that the Taiwanese government promotes long-distance healthcare solutions so that elderly or chronically ill patients can get good medical care at home or in their community.

In recent years, the top ten causes of death, including from acute illness and chronic disease, have seen a significant increase especially in the number of deaths due to cardiovascular illness, cerebrovascular illness, and diabetes. As such, the ratio of healthcare medical expenses spent on these patients has also increased. According to Curtin and Lubkin (1995), a chronic disease "is a symptom of some uncertain time internal disease caused by the disease and can only be part of a long-term recovery."

The National Health Insurance (NHI) in Taiwan was established in 1995 and has since led to an insurance rate of more than 99%. Regardless of age, citizens are provided universal care. However, because of the impact of chronic disease and aging, Taiwan's average per capita national health expenditures have increased year by year, with NHI's financial pressure growing.

In Taiwan, hypertension is an important public health problem with regard to the associated risk of stroke and cardiovascular events. However, the results of a population-based high blood pressure (BP) prevalence survey in Taiwan revealed that 68% of Taiwanese with hypertension were aware of their disease, but only 22.9% had good BP control. Telehealth is the use of technology to allow communication between patients and care providers, while patients remain outside the clinical environment, such as in their home (Ju, Chen & Hsu, 2019).

In recent years, global healthcare industry patterns have changed the way healthcare services are delivered. From the traditional hospital bedside service, we've now turned to address the lives of patients discharged from the hospital, and at-home care

*Author: Graduate Institute of Healthcare Information Management, College of Management, National Chung Cheng University, Taiwan.*
*e-mail: weimin950@gmail.com*



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services have shifted the main focus of attention from acute care to a prevention-based health perspective.

Information and communications technology allow for the broad application of health, medical, and care-related services and are important aspect of strategies to address healthcare needs moving forward. In line with industry trends in global health technology and services, government policy is promoting telehealthcare (THC), information and communications technology, and the use of electronic medical equipment to allow people to receive healthcare and preventive health services within their community or home.

## II. Literature Review

### a) Telehealthcare

Telemedicine or telehealthcare uses electronic communication and information technology to provide medical care when patients and caregivers cannot be simultaneously at one location. In addition to its use in care, the scope of application may also include health promotion, disease and accident prevention, re-education of personnel, patient and family health education, counseling, management, and administrative business. The US Department of Health and Human Services (DHHS), notes that personal and at-home healthcare services are a part of comprehensive healthcare that aims to enhance, maintain, and restore health, or otherwise minimize the effects of disability and disease.

#### i. Telemedicine's definition

Telemedicine is defined as "by electronic communications technology, the exchange of medical information from one place to another to transport and to improve the health of patients by American Telemedicine Association (ATA, 2011). Chau and Hu (2002) consider telemedicine as the use of information, communication, biomedical technology, and geographical separation between the groups in order to support, promote, or improve healthcare services, events or cooperation through the electronic transmission of information and expertise. Distant nursing care and care service areas located in the telehealth community or at-home care are all considered telehealth home care (THC) (Burtt, 1997).

### b) Evolution of Telemedicine

In the early 1900s Willem Einthoven invented a method of telehealth that involved broadcasting graphics files. Beginning in 1910 at New York Presbyterian Hospital, the method was widely used for the transmission of ECGs. After World War II, urban hospitals began using telehealth for diagnostics. In 1960, as computers and telematic technology matured, telemedicine services began to not only break down geographic barriers, but also improve healthcare delivery models. In 1959, the United States began using TV image communication facilities for medicine. In the same year, the first famous telemedicine program started at the University of Nebraska by a clinician using two-way action tests and other information with neurological medical students across campus. With the establishment of a telemedicine link with Norfolk State Hospital in 1964, speech therapy, neurological examination, psychiatric diagnosis difficult cases, case notes, case studies and educational training led to a foreign telemedicine evolution. In addition to reducing the cost of upgrading technology, telemedicine in the late 1980s began to accelerate development. Telemedicine programs can now be divided into clinically relevant and non-clinically relevant categories. A review of foreign experience in the implementation of telemedicine and related documents show that modern telemedicine faces many difficulties and challenges, including whether telehealth technology can sufficiently meet patient needs, resistance of medical staff, patient resistance, medical regulatory issues, and the protection of patient data and payment methods, among others (Kovner & Hardy, 1996; Kuo & Delvecchio, 2001).

Several studies have demonstrated that individuals with dementia and their caregivers find technology based monitoring (Farina et al., 2019; Kikhia et al., 2018) and care management (Dang et al., 2018; Gately et al., 2020) acceptable. Furthermore, several studies have found that these interventions are feasible and can aid in providing patient-centered care that results in improved quality of life (QoL) and reduced caregiver burden (Holthe et al., 2018).

In order to understand the effectiveness of the government in the promotion of long-distance healthcare services, this study investigates levels of user demand, acceptance within scientific and technological theory, the effect of a telehealthcare system users on the system's acceptance, and expectations for the government to develop long-distance in the future. Ultimately, the aim of this study is to inform the development of healthcare policies to develop a better telehealthcare system in Taiwan.

Davis (1989) adapted the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) as the basis for the development of the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) in which subjective perception of the usefulness (Usefulness) and usability (Ease of Use) are independent variables to investigate user attitudes and faith in science and technology using the relationship between intention and actual use.

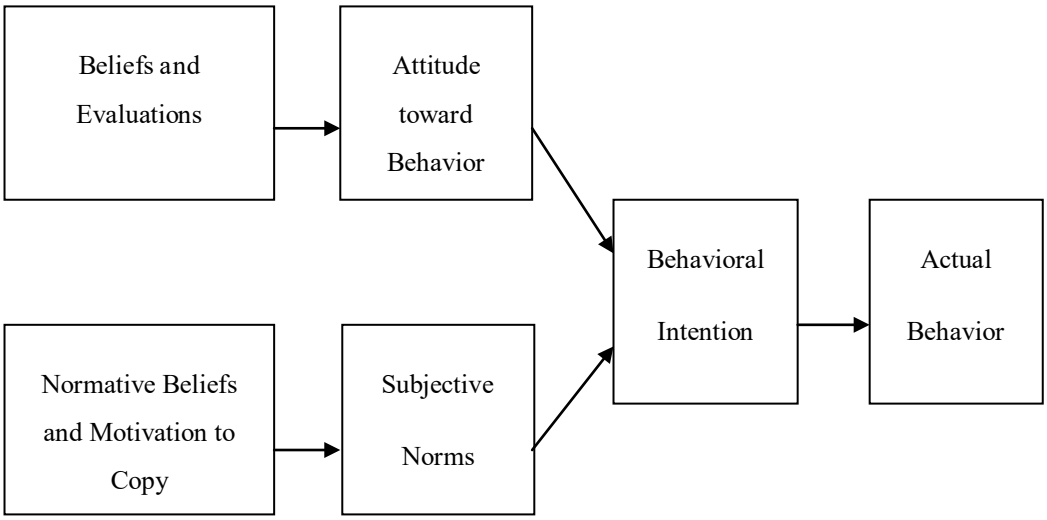
### c) Theory of Reasoned Action

Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) proposed the TRA theoretical framework grounded in the psychology, prediction, and interpretation of actual human behavior. The theory attributes much of human behavior to acts of faith – when faith changes, behavior changes. Development of this theory in 1980 defined "attitude",



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"behavioral intentions", and "behavior" as the three facets of the "subjective norms" used to construct a complete theory chart that "behavioral intentions "I will be" attitude "and" subjective norms "impact and indirect impact on the actual" behavior "(Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Figure 1 illustrates the TRA theoretical framework.

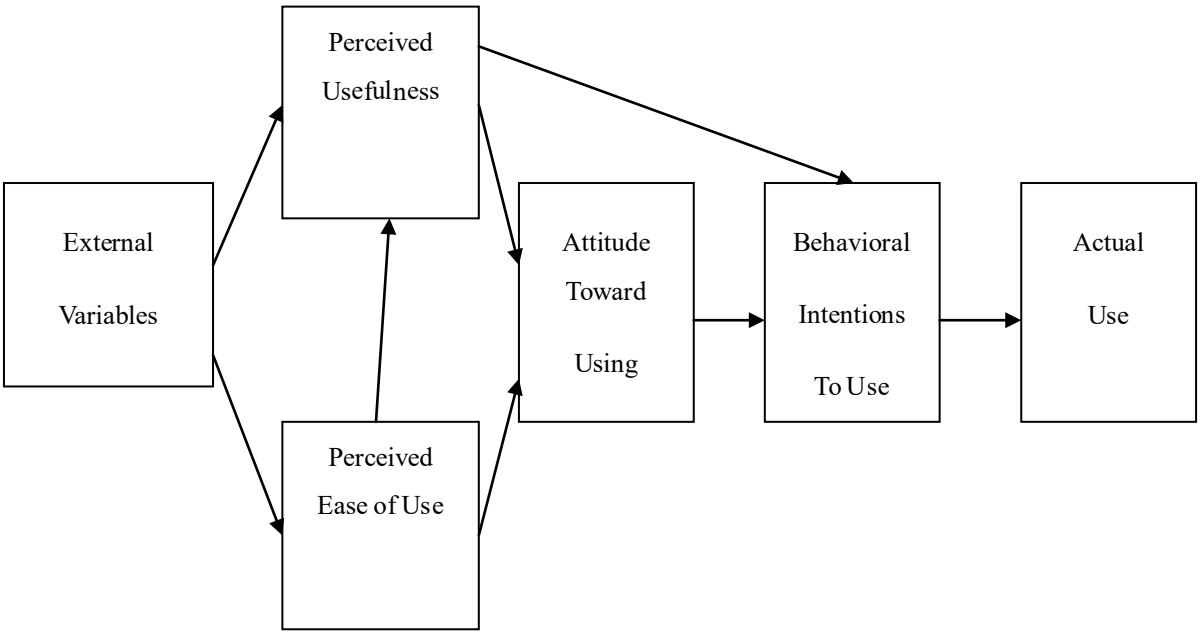



*Source: Fishbein and Ajzen (1975). Belief, Attitude, Intention and Behavior: An Introduction to Theory and Research. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.*

*Figure 1:* Theory of Reasoned Action

*d) Technology Acceptance Model*

Davis (1989) contributed to the theory of reasoned action (TRA) with expected theoretical models, self-efficacy theory, and a Technology Acceptance Model (TAM). He believes TAM's "behavioral intentions" is a determining factor affecting the use of information technology, adding that behavioral intentions are directly affected by "perceived usefulness" and "behavior and attitude". In addition, "behavioral intention" and "subjective norms" are not included in the TAM because Davis considers subjective norms and subjective perception of external social pressure to give itself, and thus produce individual behavior, but because people's subjective perceptions often change along with information systems in an organized environment, users may be reluctant but will inevitably comply with directive executives and experts.




*Source: Davis (1989). Perceived Usefulness, Perceived Ease of Use, and User Acceptance of Information Technology. MIS Quarterly, 13(3), 319-340.*

*Figure 2:* Technology Acceptance Model

Davis, Bagozzi, and Warshaw (1989) applied TRA and TAM of 107 corporate MBA (Master of Business Administration, MBA) in an empirical study on the relationship between users and the intended use of information systems. The results are as follows: (a) behavioral intentions can effectively predict the actual behavior of a computer user; (b) perceived usefulness is the main determinant of behavioral intention; (c) cognitive behavioral intentions for ease of use is second only to the cognitive effects of usefulness, which means cognitive behavior associated with the system's ease of use is lower than its perceived usefulness. Studies have shown the explanatory power of TAM to be better than TRA. In addition, TRA predicts "intent to use" at the social and psychological levels, but with respect to the use of information technology TAM has more appropriate explanatory power.

After many academic studies, current applications of the Technology Acceptance Model have been extended to the medical and healthcare industry (Chau & Hu, 2002; Pai & Huang, 2010; Kowitlawakul, 2011), e-government websites (Teo, Srivastava, & Jiang, 2008), online banking (Bhattacherjee, 2001; Yousafzai, Foxall, Pallister, & John, 2010), and electronic and mobile commerce. Legris and Collerette (2003) summarized past research on TAM the model explains only about 40% of information systems. TAM alone does not clearly explain how information systems are integrated into the course of human and social change, important variables and facets of innovation adoption. Such factors must be considered in order to further increase the explanatory power of TAM.

*e) The Health Belief Model Theory*

The Health Belief Model (HBM) was developed in the early 1950's by Hochbaum, Kegeles, Leventhal, Rosenstock and other social psychologists, as an application of concepts from Lewin's Field Theory to interpret theoretical models of preventive health behaviors. Lewin's Field Theory states that everyone is present in a field as a negative value composed of two living spaces, plus or minus the value in this field, with health as a positive value and I'll be negative in value. When a person feels an impending sickness (conscious and unconscious suffering of varying severity), he or she may consider taking action in order to avoid illness brought about by the negative threats. Health Belief Model Theory is based on the Theory of Expected Value (Value Expectancy Theory) as the basis for motivation (motivation) and cognition (perception) to predict and explain health-related behaviors, namely when an individual wants to avoid illness or wants to become healthy, and the use of special health actions to prevent or ameliorate expected diseases (Rosenstock et al, 1988). The Health Belief Model was originally intended to explain why the average person will accept preventive care and screening activities, but because of its wide applicability it was proposed to explain the health behavior of people overall and is often used in research on disease behavior, doctor-patient relationships, and health education.

The Health Belief Model has been extended from its original focus on preventive health behavior to personal daily health behaviors. The Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) proposed by Bandura includes the self-efficacy concept of identity (self-efficacy) as a factor of long-term change. Only when one has confidence will it be possible to enact change, with the degree of confidence measured in terms of self-efficacy. Rosenstock, Strecher and Becker (1988) suggest that self-efficacy be added to the Health Belief Model such that the self-efficacy that individuals have for their ability to perform an act of faith can model the likelihood of the individual to take action (Janz, Champion, & Strecher, 2002).

*f) Trust Theory*

The ability of telehealth home healthcare services to gain user trust with respect to the security of user data, the maintenance of user privacy, sustainability of the service, and so on, is bound to affect the adoption of the telehealthcare system and its use. Therefore, this study includes facets of trust to explore whether the user trust affect the impact of behavioral intentions on health systems.

*g) Trust of the Doctor-Patient Relationship*

With increased medical knowledge among the general public, the relationship between patient care and medical attention is also increasingly relevant to the development of the doctor-patient relationship. Trust is an important factor, as a trust relationship between the patient and medical staff may reduce patient anxiety (Thorne & Robinson, 1988). In telehealthcare, the patient and medical staff conduct the majority of healthcare behaviors through information technology and network communications. Therefore, in a new doctor-patient relationship, the patient's trust in telehealthcare workers is also very important.

Mohseni and Lindstrom's (2007) medical research on social and institutional trust shows that patients do not need to have any medical expertise at the scope of the clinical or technical level. Social trust is said to be increased by actions such as listening, respect, care, and assistance in managing the disease. Su, Tsai, and Hsu's (2013) work studied the institution of trust and social trust as endogenous variables outside the Technology Acceptance Model. Their results show trust as an important facet of intent. However, within the scope of this study, only a single set of medical institutions, and therefore patients, are considered to investigate the mechanism of trust and social trust among community and home-based healthcare systems and telehealth users.

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## III. Research Methodology

*a) Research Framework*

This empirical study on users of the current telehealthcare system in Taiwan uses a structured internet-based questionnaire survey. The questionnaire was developed and translated based on the literature with a five-point Likert (Likert) scale with five options for each question, namely "strongly disagree", "disagree", "ordinary", "agree", and "strongly agree", to accurately reflect the feelings of the respondents.

This study was aimed to explore the factors affecting the behavioral intentions of people in a telehealthcare system. The architecture of the study is based mainly on Davis's (1989) model of technology acceptance and Wixom and Todd's (2005) claim that technology receiving mode extends three major development on the basis of the model. The exogenous variables of "institutional trust" and "social trust" in the Health Belief Model are included in this study. Variables include the "conscious suffering sex", "conscious threatening", "conscious action of interest", "conscious action disorder", and "action cues" as endogenous variables, in addition to "perceived usefulness", "perceived ease of use", and "attitude". The following is the operational definitions of the independent variables used in this study.

*Table1:* Operational Definitions

| Variable | Operational Definition | Reference |
|---|---|---|
| Institutional Trust | Telehealthcare system users trust in healthcare providers | Mohseni and Lindsorm (2007) |
| Social Trust | Telehealthcare system users trust in the social environment | Mohseni and Lindsorm (2007) |
| Perceived Ease of Use | Telehealthcare system users believe that the system is easy to use | Davis（1989） |
| Perceived Usefulness | Telehealthcare system users think that the degree of use of the system can improve the effectiveness of care. | Davis（1989） |
| Attitude | Telehealthcare system users have positive or negative feelings towards the system | Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) |
| Perceived Susceptibility | Telehealthcare system so that users get other diseases self-awareness." | Rosenstock(1994) and Janz et al. (2002) |
| Perceived Severity | Telehealthcare system users for the seriousness of the health of self-awareness. | Rosenstock(1994) and Janz et al. (2002) |
| Perceived Benefits | Telehealthcare system users believe the system may reduce the impact of the possible occurrence of the disease | Rosenstock(1994) and Janz et al. (2002) |
| Perceived Barriers | Telehealthcare system users believe the system increases costs in terms of mental or spiritual awareness. | Rosenstock(1994) and Janz et al. (2002) |
| Cues to Action | Telehealthcare system users' change in health behaviors | Rosenstock(1994) and Janz et al. (2002) |

*b) Hypotheses*

i. *Trust*

When a person is at risk, trust creates positive thoughts and feelings of reliability (Boon & Homelmes, 1985). Dirks (1999) states that trust is an expectation or belief that another person or institution has good will and is reliable. Mohseni and Lindsorm's (2007) study on the doctor-patient relationship in terms of trust and confidence in institutions of social trust, i.e., institutional trust, shows that patients do not need to have any medical expertise at the clinical or technical level. Social trust refers to trust someone else encourages in patients via listening, respect, care, and assistance in managing the disease. Su, Tsai and Hsu's (2013) study indicates that trust is an important facet in behavioral intentions in the use of telehealthcare. Therefore, the following four-point hypothesis is proposed:

*H1:* Telehealthcare system users' institutional trust has a positive effect on perceived ease of use.

*H2:* Telehealthcare system users' institutional trust has a positive impact on perceived usefulness.

*H3:* Telehealthcare system users' social trust has a positive effect on perceived ease of use.

*H4:* Telehealthcare system users' social trust has a positive effect on perceived usefulness.

ii. *Perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use*

The results of Davis (1993), Igbaria et al. (1997), and Sørebø and Eikebrokk (2008) indicate that perceived ease of use will positively affect perceived



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usefulness. This means that when telehealth users do not need to spend a lot of time to learn how to operate a telehealthcare service system, they will feel that this system is useful and can help them effectively improve their own health status. This study is based on the following hypotheses:

*H5:* For telehealth users, perceived ease of use has a positive effect on perceived usefulness.

Davis (1993), Mathieson, Peaccock and Chin (2001), and Vijayasarathy (2004) all found that when information technology can effectively improve work efficiency and does not take much effort to learn, users will have more positive feelings towards the technology. For the healthcare system to effectively improve personal health and reduce pain, users should not have to spend too much effort learning it. This leads to the following hypotheses:

*H6:* Telehealth users' perceived usefulness has a positive impact on their attitude and behavior.

*H7:* Telehealth users' perceived ease of use of the healthcare system has a positive impact on their attitude and behavior.

Davis (1993), Igbaria et al. (1997), and Mathieson et al. (2001) found that if users believe a system can effectively improve their performance they will have higher behavioral intentions. Therefore, if people believe that a telehealthcare service system can improve their health, there will be a high willingness to use the telehealthcare service system. This study therefore proposes the following hypothesis:

*H8:* Telehealth users' perceived usefulness of the telehealthcare service system has a positive effect on behavioral intentions.

iii. *Behavior and Attitude*

Ajzen's (1985) study found that the higher an individual's positive attitude, the higher their desire to take action. Davis et al. (1989), Legris et al. (2003), Vijayasarathy (2004) and Chakraborty, and Hu and Chi (2008) all found that when an individual has a positive attitude towards the use of new technology, behavioral intentions with respect to the system will be higher. Therefore, if telehealth user attitudes are positive they will have a higher willingness to use the system. Based on this, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

*H9:* Telehealthcare users' attitude and behavior has a positive impact on their intention of use of a long-distance healthcare service system.

iv. *Perceived Susceptibility and Perceived Severity*

When a person feels sick (conscious and unconscious suffering of severity), they will consider taking action in order to avoid futher illness brought about by the negative threats, for example by consciously adopting healthy sexual behavior. A positive effect is possible when individuals are already aware that they have a disease and may engage in healthy behaviors to prevent its getting worse (Fung, 1998; Friedman et al, 1998). When patients feel there are possible health threats, this may affect their use of a telehealthcare system when seeking health-related assistance. Therefore, according to this view, the present study proposes the following hypothesis:

*H10:* Telehealth users' conscious suffering will positively affect their behavioral intentions in their use of a telehealthcare system.

Becker (1974) and Anderson (1968) consider personal perceptions of one's own health status as an important factor affecting health behavior. When one encounters what they believe to be potential risk factors, one will tend to engage in health checks. So, regardless of the severity of the disease, patients are affected by their subjective perceptions. This study therefore proposes the following hypothesis:

*H11:* Telehealth users' conscious seriousness of the care system users positively affect their behavioral intentions and use of the telehealthcare system.

v. *Perceived Benefits and Perceived Barriers*

Bandura et al. (1997a) proposed that when any act of self is seen as beneficial, one will try to engage in this behavior. This belief may be affected by norms and pressure on individuals, and different social groups may act differently. In the health belief model, the stronger the conscious action of interest, the easier it is to perform some action. So the benefits of a telehealthcare system should be presented people to use, for example: deterioration of the disease, mitigation symptoms, increased quality of life. This study proposes the following hypothesi:

*H12:* Conscious interest action in a telehealthcare system will positively affect behavioral intentions and use of the system.

Rosenstock (1966) claims that hindering health behaviors and the cost it takes to produce a desired effect will reduce personal health-seeking behavior change intentions. So, when promoting a telehealthcare service, there may be to make use of this system to produce spending behavior, and thus reduce their willingness to use this system of. In the health belief model, the stronger barriers are to conscious action, the more impossible it is to take action. Therefore, this study presents the following hypothesis:

*H13:* The conscious mobility impairments of a telehealthcare system will negatively affect the behvioral intentions and use of the system.

vi. *Cues to Action*

Rosenstock (1966) pointed out that if no relevant health information is disseminated, action cues may trigger one of the key factors in health behavior. The action trail is divided into internal and external cues; internal refers to personal effects, such as physical discomfort and symptoms, and external refers to social



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factors, including physician recommendations, relatives' encouragement, or media education. Falomir (1999) also pointed out that social impact can help change health behavior. Therefore, this study presents the following hypothesis:

*H14:* Users' action cues have a positive impact on the behavioral intentions and use of a telehealthcare system.

*c) Research Design*

The purpose of the present study is to investigate the factors affecting the use of a telehealthcare system. This study focuses on at-home and community-based long-distance healthcare system users. A questionnaire was distributed among the online community using relevant social networks.

## IV. Data Analysis and Results

The study was designed according to methods to use the healthcare system through the Telehealth user for the study, because the home or community-based healthcare system is difficult for the user Telehealth unified Surveying, therefore payment on the Internet questionnaire, in order to ensure that users actually used Telehealthcare system, the Internet questionnaire of this study is limited to a specific Telehealthcare community discussion. Questionnaire in the beginning of 2020 administrated questionnaire, after four months of surveyperiod 296 questionnaires were invalid questionnaires and the remaining 284 valid questionnaires. Data analysis and processing is conducted using SPSS 23.0 statistical analysis and SmartPLS 2.0 software for statistical analysis of the questionnaire.

*a) Structural analysis of samples*

The study questionnaire was a structured questionnaire and the basic information of respondents to those who are nominal scale of measurement types, the research carried out using SPSS 23.0 descriptive statistics and results of basic data analysis are described below.

*b) Demographic information of Telehealthcare system users*

According to statistical analysis of sample data research, a total of four people were aged 20 years old or younger, accounting for 1.4% of all samples; a total of 76 were 21-40 years old, accounting for 26.8% of the total sample; a total of 160 people were aged 41-64 years, representing 56.3% of all samples; a total of 44 people were over the age of 65, accounting for 15.5% of the total sample. The majority respondents were 41-64 years old. A total of 165 respondents were men, accounting for 58.1% of all samples, and a total of 119 were women, accounting for 41.9 per cent of the total sample. The majority of respondents were therefore male. As for education, education following a total of 46 countries, accounting for 16.2% of all samples; a total of 110 respondents completed up to senior high school, accounting for 38.7% of all samples; a total of 45 respondents had a college education, accounting for 15.8% of all samples; higher levels of education were attained by more than a total of six people, accounting for 2.1% of all samples. The majority of respondents to the questionnaire were therefore educated up to high school vocational education.

A total of 59 respondents reported an occupation in the healthcare system, accounting for 20.8% of the total sample. 12.0 percent, or 34 of the total sample, work in the the information technology industry. There are a total of 32 service sector employees accounting for 11.3% of all samples, and a total of 30 free industry accounting for 10.6% of all samples. Manufacturing and students of all 29 people accounted 10.2% of the total sample, housewives were 24 people, 8.5% of the total sample. Those in the financial sector accounted for 8.1% or 23 people of all samples, and a total of six military and government officials accounted for 2.1% of all samples. The majority of respondents to this survey were employed in healthcare. Telehealth user experience with the system ranged from 1-2-years total, 69 respondents accounting for 24.3% of the total sample, followed by less than 58 months accounting for 20.4% of the total sample. 49 respondents had more than two years' experience, accounting for 17.3% of the total sample, and a total of 58 people, accounting for 16.2% of the total sample, reported 1-3 months' experience. Experience of 4-6 months was reported by a total of 35 people accounting for 12.3% of the total sample. 6-1 years a total of 27 people representing 9.5% of the total sample. Respondents used long-distance healthcare system for a maximum of 1-2 years. Reported frequency of use of a telehealthcare system include occasional (once a week) for a total of 139 respondents, 48.9% of all samples, followed by regular (1 2-3 times a week) use reported by a total of 74 respondents, 26.1% of all samples, and infrequently (once a month) use reported by a total of 36 people accounting for 12.7% of all samples. A total of 35 people use telehealthcare every day, 12.3% of the total sample. Most respondents indicated their frequency of use of a telehealthcare system as occasional (once a week).

*c) Reliability and Validity*

Reliability refers to the measure of credibility of questionnaire item, mainly in Cronbach's alpha values to measure the results of the questionnaire in terms of paragraph consistency or stability. Reliability analysis is mainly judged by compliance and standard error of measurement size. If items were asked two or more times the same measurement, the result of its higher degree of similarity is measured again, representing a higher reliability. Therefore, an $\alpha$ of 0.7 represents



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measurement results with high reliability. If α is between 0.7 to 0.35, said CITIC degree. α less than 0.35 represents a lower reliability; such results should be rejected as less relevant (Champney, 1995).

In this study, Cronbach's alpha values for each variable are between 0.70 to 0.87, indicating that each has high reliability, and the whole questionnaire's Cronbach's Alpha coefficient is 0.820. Overall, there is a high reliability and high consistency and stability of this questionnaire, as seen in Table 2 below.

*Table 2:* Reliability Analysis

| Variable | Cronbach's Alpha | Cronbach's Alpha |
|---|---|---|
| Institutional Trust | 0.747 | 0.820 |
| Social Trust | 0.719 | |
| Perceived Ease of Use | 0.744 | |
| Perceived Usefulness | 0.740 | |
| Attitude | 0.790 | |
| Perceived Susceptibility | 0.708 | |
| Perceived Severity | 0.737 | |
| Perceived Benefits | 0.743 | |
| Perceived Barriers | 0.866 | |
| Cues to Action | 0.827 | |
| Behavior Intention | 0.724 | |

*d) Validity Analysis*

i. *Content Validity*

This refers to the measurement of content relevance. After the draft is completed, through the guidance of academic experts, medical practitioners and other medical fields have a considerable degree of understanding of experts to examine the question in the questionnaire items, the questionnaire will be amended semantic confusion and discomfort of the Department to ensure that the questionnaire Identify and improve content validity.

ii. *Construct Validity*

This refers to the measurement of reasoning abilities or abstract or traits and can be divided into convergent validity and discriminant validity.

iii. *Convergent Validity*

Measured via factor loadings (Factor Loading) and the average variance extracted amount (Average Variance Extracted, AVE) with a threshold value of 0.5 to test and ensure trustworthiness. Factor loadings are usually factors (Factor Analysis) Analysis (Kaiser, 1974).

Prior to factor analysis, one must first coduct a KMO (Kasier-Meyer-Olkin sampling quantity relevance number) and Bartlett spherical test. If the KMO value is less than 0.5, indicating that two variables cannot be used to explain other variables, they should not factor into analysis; on the contrary, larger KMO are more suitable for applications and factor analysis (Kaiser, 1974). The KMO value is 0.785 in this study. The results of this study indicate scale projects of common factors, suitable for factor analysis, and a spherical test shows a chi-square value of 3715.809, up significantly, referring to the correlation matrix between parent groups with a common factor presence and representation suitable for factor analysis. This is shown in Table 3.

*Table 3:* KMO and Bartlett Test

| Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin | | .785 |
|---|---|---|
| Bartlett | chi square distribution | 3715.809 |
| | df | 406 |
| | significant | .000 |

The factor analysis of this study uses principal component analysis (Principal Component Analysis) and the factors taken at right angles to the shaft axis method (Orthogonal Rotaion) for maximum number (Varimax) variation data analysis. In addition, Hair et al. (2006) pointed out that if the sample size is between 150~200, factor loadings (Factor Loading) need to be fully accepted in more than 0.45, but in general, one may begin with 0.5 as the standard value analysis. The sample size of this study is 284. As seen inTable 4-11, the results show the factor loadings are in compliance with standards.

In addition, use of a composite reliability (CR) confirmatory factor in the average variance extracted (AVE) was conducted for validity testing. This is a combination of reliability if the composite reliability value potential variables are greater than 0.6. The average variance extracted is generally 0.5 as a standard. If it is



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greater than 0.5, this item asked to correctly measure the extent of a potential error is a measure variables and will be greater than that caused by mutation. This represents convergent validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

The results are shown in Table 4. In a combination of reliability measures, each dimension is greater than 0.6, indicating that each variable measures latent variables with internal consistency and good reliability. The AVE value in part found in 11 configurations surface in 10 standard. The average variance extracted obstacle facets conscious action alone is less than 0.5. According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), when the AVE value is less than 0.5, if the combination is higher than the letter of the facets 0.6 or more, and still has a convergent validity. Therefore, all factors in this study show good convergent validity.

*Table 4:* AVE and Composite Reliability

| Variable | Terms | AVE | Composite Reliability | Factor Loading |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Institutional Trust | IT1 | 0.5645 | 0.7723 | 0.8225 |
| | IT2 | | | 0.9530 |
| | IT3 | | | 0.7530 |
| Social Trust | ST1 | 0.6353 | 0.8381 | 0.8935 |
| | ST2 | | | 0.7042 |
| | ST2 | | | 0.7821 |
| Perceived Ease of Use | PEU1 | 0.6638 | 0.8552 | 0.8646 |
| | PEU2 | | | 0.8181 |
| | PUE3 | | | 0.7581 |
| Perceived Usefulness | PU1 | 0.6665 | 0.8557 | 0.9071 |
| | PU2 | | | 0.8270 |
| | PU3 | | | 0.7019 |
| Attitude | ATT1 | 0.7129 | 0.8806 | 0.9171 |
| | ATT2 | | | 0.8818 |
| | ATT3 | | | 0.7213 |
| Perceived Susceptibility | PSU1 | 0.6311 | 0.8355 | 0.8067 |
| | PSU2 | | | 0.6826 |
| | PSU3 | | | 0.8812 |
| Perceived Severity | PSE1 | 0.6601 | 0.8531 | 0.8326 |
| | PSE2 | | | 0.8533 |
| | PSE3 | | | 0.7476 |
| Perceived Benefits | PBE1 | 0.5502 | 0.7726 | 0.6193 |
| | PBE2 | | | 0.9946 |
| | PBE3 | | | 0.5272 |
| Perceived Barriers | PBA1 | 0.4220 | 0.6469 | 0.5955 |
| | PBA2 | | | 0.5520 |
| | PBA3 | | | 0.9349 |
| Cues to Action | CTA1 | 0.7345 | 0.8920 | 0.7933 |
| | CTA2 | | | 0.8301 |
| | CTA3 | | | 0.9408 |
| Behavior Intention | INT1 | 0.6247 | 0.8316 | 0.6852 |
| | INT2 | | | 0.7846 |
| | INT3 | | | 0.8881 |

iv. *Discriminant Validity (Discriminant Validity)*

Discriminant validity and convergent validity are opposite to one another.

Discriminant validity is used to test the degree of correlation between variables and different factors with respect to the average variance extracted (AVE) amount of each factor of the square root of the correlation matrix. If the value is greater than the other factors of the correlation coefficient, it indicates that the factor is unlike other variables (Chin & Newsted, 1999).

The results are shown in Table 5. The data shows facets of variable of this study are related to other facets of variable differ from each other.



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*Table 5:* The Square Root of the Correlation Matrix

| | IT | ST | PEU | PU | ATT | PSU | PSE | PBE | PBA | CTA | INT |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| IT | **0.7513** | | | | | | | | | | |
| ST | 0.0081 | **0.7970** | | | | | | | | | |
| PEU | 0.0871 | 0.2834 | **0.8147** | | | | | | | | |
| PU | 0.0927 | 0.2924 | 0.4924 | **0.8163** | | | | | | | |
| ATT | 0.0993 | 0.2440 | 0.6991 | 0.4474 | **0.8443** | | | | | | |
| PSU | 0.0721 | 0.2488 | 0.6533 | 0.3675 | 0.4906 | **0.7944** | | | | | |
| PSE | 0.0917 | 0.2739 | 0.7641 | 0.5707 | 0.5930 | 0.5674 | **0.8124** | | | | |
| PBE | 0.0731 | 0.0420 | 0.2188 | 0.0220 | 0.1923 | 0.1180 | 0.1294 | **0.7417** | | | |
| PBA | 0.0237 | 0.0429 | 0.0362 | 0.0193 | 0.0054 | 0.0202 | 0.0292 | 0.0369 | **0.6496** | | |
| CTA | 0.0043 | 0.1128 | 0.0232 | 0.0246 | 0.0345 | 0.0292 | 0.0397 | 0.0372 | 0.0320 | **0.8570** | |
| INT | 0.0588 | 0.0500 | 0.0793 | 0.0854 | 0.1432 | 0.0787 | 0.0975 | 0.1163 | 0.1784 | 0.2204 | **0.7903** |

v. *Structural Equation Modeling Analysis*

According to data analysis in SmartPLS 2.0, a structural model test estimated and predicted the path coefficients. A path coefficient test uses the software's pre-test method SmartPLS BootStrap. Predictive power of the model is estimated using $R^2$. The correlation analysis results are shown below.

vi. *Path Coefficient Test*

After the path analysis coefficient is tested using BootStrap, the number of samples within the sample is repeated 200 times to calculate the path coefficient (β) and t value. The path coefficient can show the strength and direction of the relationship between the study variables. A positive coefficient indicates positive correlation. Otherwise there is an inverse correlation. The results from the study show that in the path between the two significant relationship between the two facets of the relationship are all positive relationship. In addition, the t value can be found through a statistical p-value conversion in order to determine whether the hypotheses of this study are significant. However, usually a t value p value is the normal correlation. If the sample size is greater than 120, t distribution will be close to a normal distribution. In general, close to the norm or an insignificant t value uses the following judgment criteria: t> 1.645 *, t> 1.96 **, t> 2.58 ***, t> 3.29 ****.

The results are shown in Table 6. Perceived ease of use and perceived usefulness are not significant, and consciously suffering of conscious action is not an obstacle to significant behavioral intentions. The rest show a significant relationship.

*Table 6:* Path Analysis

| Relationship | (β) | t-value | p-value |
|---|---|---|---|
| Institutions trust→ Perceived ease of use | 0.030 | 0.504 | p>0.1 |
| Institutions trust→ Perceived usefulness | 0.038 | 0.636 | p>0.1 |
| Social trust→ Perceived ease of use | 0.265 | 6.606 | p<0.001**** |
| Social trust→ Perceived usefulness | 0.269 | 4.700 | p<0.001**** |
| Perceived ease of use→ Perceived usefulness | 0.473 | 9.016 | p<0.001**** |
| Perceived usefulness→ Attitude | 0.433 | 8.056 | p<0.001**** |
| Perceived ease of use→ Attitude | 0.681 | 15.635 | p<0.001**** |
| Perceived usefulness→ Behavior Intention | 0.645 | 1.6731 | p<0.1* |
| Attitude→Behavior Intention | 0.510 | 2.679 | p<0.01*** |
| Susceptibility Perceived→ Behavior Intention | 0.072 | 1.209 | p>0.1 |
| Perceived Severity→ Behavior Intention | 0.295 | 2.657 | p<0.01*** |
| Perceived Benefits→ Behavior Intention | 0.202 | 2.185 | p<0.05** |
| Perceived Barriers→ Behavior Intention | 0.036 | 0.598 | p>0.1 |
| Cues to Action→ Behavior Intention | 0.131 | 2.219 | p<0.05** |

*t>1.645*, t>1.96**, t>2.58***, t>3.29****
p<0.1*, p<0.05**, p<0.01***, p<0.001****



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vii. *Predictive Power of the Model Estimation*

The predictive power of the model is estimated using SmartPLS 2.0 Algorithm method of analysis, but only to test the prediction degree PLS whole pattern of permeability coefficient $R^2$, which unlike the SEM can be adapted to understand the extent of the cut through the entire pattern detection. The $R^2$ value refers to the exogenous variables and can explain the endogenous variable percentage of variance, representing the predictive power of the model. The standard value is between 0 and 1. Higher values indicate a better model. The $R^2$ values of this study are greater than 0.5, indicating that this model has good explanatory power. $R^2$ values for perceived ease of use, perceived usefulness, behavior and attitude, and behavioral intention, respectively, are 57%, 55%, 64%, 59% as shown in Table 7.

*Table 7:* Explanatory Ability

| Contruct | $R^2$ |
|---|---|
| Perceived ease of use | 0.572313 |
| Perceived usefulness | 0.546341 |
| Attitude | 0.635278 |
| Behaveior Intention | 0.594426 |

The results of path analysis for the overall study architecture are shown in Figure 3. The dashed line represents an insignificant p-value. The solid line represents a significant p-value.

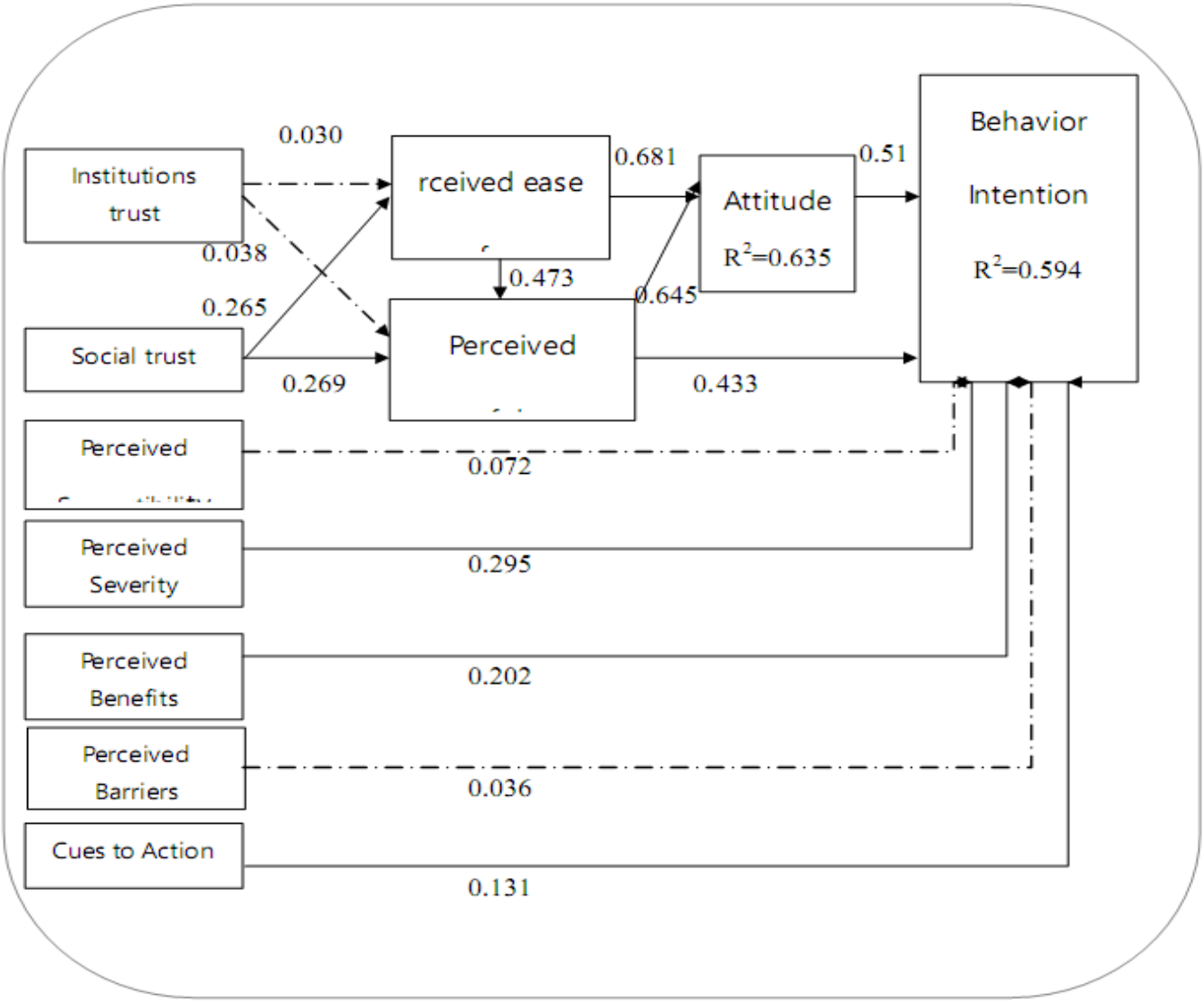



*Figure 3:* Path Analysis



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viii. *Hypothesis Testing Results*

Statistical analysis of the data via t value, p-value and other structural equation modeling in Table 8 show that based on the results of this study, hypothesis 1, hypothesis 2, hypothesis hypothesis test 13 of 10 do not hold. The other hypotheses are all set up test results. The results are described below in detail.

*Table 8:* Hypothesis Testing Results

| Number | Hypothesis | Result |
|---|---|---|
| H1 | Telehealthcare system users' institutional trust has a positive effect on perceived ease of use | Not valid |
| H2 | Telehealthcare system users' institutional trust has a positive impact on perceived usefulness | Not valid |
| H3 | Telehealthcare system users' social trust has a positive effect on perceived ease of use | Valid |
| H4 | Telehealthcare system users' social trust has a positive effect on perceived usefulness | Valid |
| H5 | For telehealth users, perceived ease of use has a positive effect on perceived usefulness | Valid |
| H6 | Telehealth users' perceived usefulness has a positive impact on their attitude and behavior | Valid |
| H7 | Telehealth users' perceived ease of use of the healthcare system has a positive impact on their attitude and behavior | Valid |
| H8 | Telehealth users' perceived usefulness of the telehealthcare service system has a positive effect on behavioral intentions | Valid |
| H9 | Telehealthcare users' attitude and behavior has a positive impact on their intention of use of a long-distance healthcare service system | Valid |
| H10 | Telehealth users' conscious suffering will positively affect their behavioral intentions in their use of a telehealthcare system | Not valid |
| H11 | Telehealth users' conscious seriousness of the care system users positively affect their behavioral intentions and use of the telehealthcare system | Valid |
| H12 | Conscious interest action in a telehealthcare system will positively affect behavioral intentions and use of the system | Valid |
| H13 | The conscious mobility impairments of a telehealthcare system will negatively affect the behvioral intentions and use of the system | Not valid |
| H14 | Users' action cues have a positive impact on the behavioral intentions and use of a telehealthcare system | Valid |

## V. Conclusions and Recommendations

Findings and recommendations based on the results of this study are divided into four parts.

a) *Social, Institutional Trust and Perceived Usefulness, Perceived Ease of use*

Mohseni and Lindstrom's (2007) research on the relationship between trust and confidence for the sub-institution of social trust, known as institutional trust, suggests that patients do not need to have any medical expertise at the clinical or technical level. Healthcare providers give medical care, and social trust is gained by listening, respect, care, and assistance with the disease.

b) *Institutional Trust, Perceived Usefulness, and Ease of use*

This study hypothesized that institutional trust will positively affect the perceived usefulness and ease of use. When user trust in a telehealth system increases, this will improve the system's perceived usefulness and ease of use. The results of this study are not the same as those in Su, Tsai, and Hsu (2013). The following provides a closer discussion on this result. Su, Tsai and Hsu (2013) examine respondents from a single medical institution using the same telehealthcare system. So, in that study a long-term trust pipeline with the medical institution had already been established. However, the present study found that up to 2 percent of users of a telehealthcare system engaged with it for less than a month, and more than 50% of users for less than a year. In such a short time, telehealth users cannot adequately understand the healthcare system. This therefore may not produce a link of trust, resulting in no significant institutional situation of Telehealthcare system trust perceived usefulness and perceived ease of presentation.

In this study, telehealthcare system users who use the system for more than one year experience. The results show that for respondents using a system for 1-2 years and users of more than two years, institutional trust and perceived ease of usefulness are significant. Thus, long-term use of a telehealthcare system, is an important factor for institutional trust.

c) *Social Trust and Perceived Usefulness and Ease of use*

The study hypothesizes that that social trust will positively affect perceived usefulness and ease of use. Social trust in a telehealthcare system should increase if



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relative usefulness will be to raise awareness and ease of use. This result is the same. Su, Tsai and Hsu (2013) studied institutional trust and social trust in the technology acceptance model. The current results show these to be important factors.

*d) Perceived Ease of use and Perceived Usefulness*

The hypothesis is that perceived ease of use will positively affect the perceived usefulness. If the user's perceived ease of use increases, perceived usefulness will also increase. The results of this study are the same as those in Davis (1993), Igbaria et al. (1997) and Sørebø and Eikebrokk (2008). This means id users do not need to spend a lot of time to learn how to operate a telehealthcare service system, they will feel that the system is useful.

*e) Attitude and Behavior, Perceived Usefulness*

The hypothesis is that perceived usefulness will positively affect behavior and attitude. When the user's knowledge and usefulness improves, behavior and attitude will also improve. The results of this study are the same as those in Davis (1993), Igbaria et al. (1997), and Mathieson et al. (2001). This means that if people believe the telehealthcare system can enhance their health, they will have a higher willingness to use the system.

*f) Perceived Usefulness, Perceived Ease of use, and Behavior and Attitude*

The hypothesis is that perceived ease of use will positively affect behavior and attitude. When user ease if cognitive improvement relative behavior and attitude will improve. The results of this study are the same as those in Davis (1993), Igbaria et al. (1997), and Mathieson et al. (2001). Information technology that can effectively improve work efficiency and does not take much effort to learn will result in a more positive experience. If we can effectively improve the care system for personal health to reduce pain without too much effort, users of the telehealthcare system will have more positive attitudes.

*g) Perceived Susceptibility and Behavioral Intention*

The hypothesis is that consciously suffering from sex will positively affect the behavioral intentions. If the user's conscious suffering of the increase, will increase relative behavioral intentions. The results of this study and those of Rosenstock et al. (1988) are not the same. The following provides further discussion of this result.

The health belief model of conscious suffering description of the individual to perform an action or the possibility of taking an act, by the possibility of a disease in itself for the possibility of suffering from cognitive could directly lead to individual actions, but through this study descriptive statistics Information found most of the user frequency of once a week to account for up to 48.9%, showing the majority of users themselves may chronic diseases, not because of fear of their own because of the potential danger of suffering from a particular disease and the use of habit Telehealthcare system.

*h) Perceived Severity and Behavioral Intention*

The hypothesis is that perceived severity will positively affect behavioral intentions. If the user's conscious seriousness improves, behavioral intentions will increase. The results of this study are the same as those in Becker (1974) and Anderson (1968). This means when one feels there are some underlying risk factors, one will tend to seek a physical exam or other healthy behaviors.

*i) Perceived Benefits and Behavioral Intention*

The study hypothesis is that conscious action will positively affect the interests of behavioral intentions. Conscious action represents the interests of a long-distance healthcare system if the user increased relative will improve behavioral intentions. The results of this study and other academic and Bandura (1997a). Faith will be affected by norms and pressure on individuals, and different social groups act differently. In the health belief model, the stronger one's conscious interest in an action, the easier it is to perform the action. So, benefits of a telehealthcare system are brought people's attention, for example its use in mitigating a disease or its symptoms or increased quality of life, then users will be more likely to continue to engage with the system.

*j) Perceived Barriers and Behavioral Intention*

The hypothesis is that conscious intent will negatively affect behavior. This represents a conscious action of the barriers to a telehealth user if the increase will be reduced relative to their behavioral intentions. Results of this study and Rosenstock (1966) are not the same. The following provides a closer discussion of this result.

Obstacles conscious action means hinder the implementation of health and costs arising out of acts required to spend will reduce personal health-seeking behavior change intentions. So Telehealthcare service in promoting, there may be to make use of this system to produce spending behavior, and thus reduce their willingness to use this system of. A comparison of the results of this study with those of previous scholars are summarized as follows:

Most respondents to the questionnaire who will use the computer network, and therefore presumably lower disturb system operations.

Most medical institutions send a medical car into the community to provide services for residents so people do not incur a high cost.

Most of the home-based healthcare services involved in long-distance service have a lower initial



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cost, but in this study more than half of the users are in their first year of experiencing telehealthcare systems and services.

*k) Cues to Action and Behavioral Intention*

The hypothesis is that action cues will positively affect behavioral intentions. If cues to action are improved, behavioral intention will increase. The results of this study are the same as those in Rosenstock (1966) and Falomir (1999). This means personal effects, such as physical discomfort, symptoms, and the outer clue refers to the social impact, including physician recommendations, relatives or encouragement from the media or education. Action cues can effectively help change health behaviors.

*l) The Summary of the Overall Structure of the Model*

First, perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, and the high ratio of social trust and institutional trust all influence perceived usefulness. Trust has relatively no influence on behavior and attitude. The influence of perceived ease of use on perceived usefulness is high. With respect to behavioral intentions, behavior and attitude than perceived usefulness, perceived severity, perceived benefits of action and action cues influence to high.

Overall, current long-distance healthcare is promoted fro mainly those "aging in place", so that the elderly or chronically ill can get the best medical care at home or in their community. Meanwhile, with the progress of Information Section Infotek, the Internet or smart phone APP product innovation, but also to traditional telemedicine towards personal health management autonomy. Governmental agencies and system vendors should strengthen future relationships of trust between each user and the system's interface to ensure it is easy to operate as part of its main design. In the future, we believe that telehealthcare system users will increasingly be able to manage their own health. How to advocate and allow users to accept these systems as the future of healthcare is an important issue faced by today's medical institutions.

The age of respondents in this study falls mostly between 41 to 64 years, 56.3% of the sample, followed by those 21 to 40 years, 26.8% of the sample. Questionnaire respondents were therefore mainly young and middle aged, but with an increasingly aging population, medical groups will probably be 65 years old or older. Further research may be directed to explore the experiences of more elderly users.

In addition, different users may have different concerns including high blood pressure, diabetes, heart disease. This will result in different behavioral intentions for the use of telehealthcare system and can be a research direction for subsequent studies.

The study variables included 11 factors and questionnaires were collected. In order to ensure quality and taking into account the survey respondents as older users, the questionnaire was designed with only 39 questions making it more difficult to understand the influencing factors. It is recommended that future studies increase the number of items in order to truly understand and analyze the responses. In addition, qualitative interviews can be used to understand system users.

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# How Images and Social Representations are Fixed in Consumers' Minds and Memories

By Dr. Alini Hammerschmitt
*Universidade de Caxias do Sul*

*Abstract-* This work is a theoretical overview of the postulates of authors of Image, Imaginary, Social Representation and Memory. The aim is to understand in light of theory how images and representations are fixed in the minds and memories of our consumers. It was seen that images are stored, retrieved and resist a longer period of time when are repeated and accessed frequently; they have meaning for the individual and for the others, together; are related to full of emotion So, also it possible to consider that memories should be offered aiming, therefore, to fix the desired image and imagery in the memory of target consumers of the products and services of our works that we produce in the society in which we live.

*Keywords: image; social representation; memory; consumer mind.*

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# How Images and Social Representations are Fixed in Consumers' Minds and Memories

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*Abstract-* This work is a theoretical overview of the postulates of authors of Image, Imaginary, Social Representation and Memory. The aim is to understand in light of theory how images and representations are fixed in the minds and memories of our consumers. It was seen that images are stored, retrieved and resist a longer period of time when are repeated and accessed frequently; they have meaning for the individual and for the others, together; are related to full of emotion So, also it possible to consider that memories should be offered aiming, therefore, to fix the desired image and imagery in the memory of target consumers of the products and services of our works that we produce in the society in which we live.

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*Resumen-* Este trabajo es un repaso teórico de los postulados de autores de Imagen, Imaginario, Representación Social y Memoria. El objetivo es comprender a la luz de la teoría cómo las imágenes y representaciones se fijan en la mente y la memoria de nuestros consumidores. Se vio que las imágenes se almacenan, recuperan y resisten un período de tiempo más largo cuando se repiten y se accede a ellas con frecuencia; tienen significado para el individuo y para los demás, juntos; están relacionados con emociones fuertes. Así, es posible considerar que los recuerdos deben ser ofrecidos con el objetivo, por tanto, de fijar la imagen y imaginarios deseados en la memoria de los consumidores de los productos y servicios de nuestras obras que producimos en la sociedad en el que vivimos.

*Palabras clave: imagen; representación social; memoria; mente del consumidor.*

## I. Presentation

This work is a theoretical overview of the postulates of authors of Image, Imaginary, Social Representation and Memory. The aim is to understand in light of theory how images and representations are fixed in the minds and memories of our consumers.

It is considered that the authors cited in this article, when approaching their assumptions about images and representations and how to fix them in memory, clarify this process so that we can understand it and use it in the most varied areas. The work is composed of 4 parts for each theme addressed. And later for final considerations.

*Author: Universidade de Caxias do Sul, Caxias do Sul, Brazil.*
*e-mail: ahammerschmitt@ucs.br*

## II. Development

*a) Image*

Santaella and Nöth (2001) divide the concept of image into two spheres. The first is that of the image in the sense of visual representation, with drawings, paintings, audiovisual images and so on. The images, in this conception, are material objects or “signs” that represent the visual sphere. The second meaning refers to the subjective (mental) of images in the human mind. In this sphere, images are visions, imaginations, schemes, models and, in general, as mental representations. It is worth mentioning that these two areas of the image do not exist separately, since they are very interconnected.

The brand image has been an important concept in researching consumer behavior and in Marketing management. There are many studies that confirm that the images that consumers have about the product's brand influence their buying behavior (DOBNI; ZINKHAN, 1990). According to Levy (1989) products are sometimes having an impact on the buyer's self-esteem, thus, the probability of products being purchased if there is a convergence between the image of their brands and some characteristics of the individual's self-image (DE TONI, 2000).

Stern, Zinkhan and Jaju (2001) make five brand / product image classifications. These classifications are congruent regarding the brand image being a construct derived from Gestalt (therefore homogeneous, organized and structured), also converge on that the image is a negotiation operation between the stimuli offered by the brand and the perception of them by the consumer. The image of a product or a brand enables the consumer to efficiently code his functional and emotional values in his mind. Thus, a product image is basically a perception about a product or brand, reflected by the association organized in human memory about this product or brand (MARTINEZ; CHERNATONY, 2004).

The way images are organized in the consumer's memory find three prominent approaches: the Theory of Social Representations (TRS) which is a range of meanings arranged around some central elements, the Central Core Theory (TNC) regarding psychological factors and emotional based on the feeling of individuals and the principle related to the concept of complex configuration ("Gestalt") , in which



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image is seen as a transitive and not static process, in which subjects respond to stimuli that activate continuously the knowledge structure. There are many ways to understand how mental representations are organized in an individual's cognitive system. In this perspective, to understand how mental models operationalize information and form images, three approaches can be highlighted: Schema Theory, Semantic Network Model and Associative Modeling. (TAMIOSSO, 2018)

Schema Theory indicates how concepts are organized. Schemas are mental structures for significantly organizing various interrelated concepts. They are structured groupings of concepts composed of several relationships. In parallel to the Schema Theory, there is the approach that deals with the connection between the elements of an image. This perspective is worked a lot in Social Psychology, mainly in the field of social representations. Thus, the attributes will be closer to a collective image the higher the number of individuals treat them in the same way (DE TONI, 2005).

Mental schemas reveal the network of relationships between data (attributes) contained in human memory, which are the fundamental components of the images that the individual has about a given object. Thus, a product or brand schema can be conceptualized as including a set of expectations regarding different brand attributes and the union between these attributes. These expectations provide a framework for interpreting and understanding information about an object that reaches the subject. The lack of an object schema then implies the lack of a cognitive framework to interpret this information about the object that was received. Several factors can contribute to the absence or reduction in the cognitive structure about the object. The product/brand may be new, the person may not have heard or not have experience with the product, etc.

*b) Imaginary*

Regarding the concept of the imaginary, there is the imaginary "from within", which are images that emanate from the individual. This recurs to the extent that the archetypes of their unconscious updated in their individuality are used to recall a given event according to their inner imagination and the facts are read. With regard to the imaginary "from the outside", this vision represents the expression that turns to the outside, to the social reality, providing approximately the opportunity for a conscious construction of the imaginary. In which we can draw a parallel with individual memory "from within", collective memory and social memory, "from outside" (Santos 2005).

Baczo (1982) believes that symbolic goods are the target of cruel disputes and conflicts, in addition to the fact that power drives a hierarchy among them, seeks the monopoly of certain categories of symbols, as well as seeking to control others. The control mechanisms that the constituted powers use to preserve the prominent place assigned to themselves in the symbolic realm prove the imaginary, but not illusory, characteristic of the goods thus protected. Thus, for Baczo (1982) the protectors of the social imaginary are, at the same time, protectors of the sacred. This is explained by the fact that the frontier of freedom and novelty in the construction of collective representations, especially of social imaginaries, is especially restricted. The symbolism of the social order is quantitatively limited, and its character is, at the same time, quite constant (HAMMERSCHMITT, A., 2012).

Furthermore, the manipulation practices of these symbols are mixed with those of rites that reproduce the mythical essence, and this is valid both for bodily procedures as well as for art and language. Only with the establishment of state power that centralizes and with the relative autonomy that is accorded to political exercise, is that the practices of manipulation of social imaginaries become deritualized, becoming autonomous and differentiated.

Conflicts between competing powers prompted the creation of new practices in the realm of the imaginary. For the author, these new practices aimed to build a devalued image of the adversary, seeking especially to invalidate its legitimacy, but also extolled, through grandiose representations, the power they defended and for which they intended to achieve the greatest number of acceptances. The creation of new practices, allied to their improvement and differentiation, entailed the passage from a simple influence of social imaginaries to their increasingly sophisticated and specialized maneuver through the intervention of the mass media (HAMMERSCHMITT, A., BACZO, 1982).

According to Barros (2007), the history of the imaginary has as its object essentially the images produced by a society, but not only visual images, but also verbal images and, finally, mental images. For him, the imaginary is reality as effective as "concrete life". This is based on the assumption that the imaginary has the capacity to restructure the society that builds it. Here, recalling the Middle Ages, in which many dedicated themselves to the Crusades less for economic or political reasons than because of a Christian and chivalrous imagination. In this sense, the imaginary has a range of meaning for human societies equal to what is said as effective reality.

For him it is also possible to speak of symbolic: (..) only when an object, an image or a representation are referred to a given reality, idea or value system that one wants to become present (the sword as a symbol of justice). An image, therefore, can be seen coated with symbolic meaning (...) (BARROS, 2007 p.33).

Although for Baczo (1982), about the meaning of the word imaginary and its social adjective: The adjective "social" adds little precision. In effect, it



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designates a double phenomenon. On the one hand, it is about the orientation of imaginative activity towards the social, that is, the production of representations of the "social order", of social actors and their reciprocal relationships (hierarchy, domination, obedience, conflict, etc.), as well as social institutions, in particular those related to the exercise of power, the images of the "boss", etc. On the other hand, the same adjective designates the participation of individual imaginative activity in a collective phenomenon. (HAMMERSCHMITT, A., 2012; BACZKO, 1982).

But Baczko (1982) still talking about the term social imaginary that encompasses individual performance in a collective scope says that keeping these terms, in the absence of better ones, it is necessary to emphasize the fact that studies on social imagination, in opposition to vision traditional, they are not intended to establish an independent psychological "faculty" or "power". But they approach an angle of social life, of the global activity of social agents, with specificities that are presented in the diversity of their products. Social imaginaries make up several other points of relationship in the broad symbolic system that a collectivity creates (HAMMERSCHMITT, A., 2012).

Thus, for Baczo (1982) the social imaginary is one of the moderating forces of collective life. Due to the fact that the social imaginary is an efficient element of the apparatus for controlling collective life, especially the practice of authority and power. Simultaneously, it becomes the location and target of social conflicts. The social imaginary becomes understandable and communicable through the creation of discourses in which, and, through which the union of collective representations in language is consummated. The signs attributed by the imaginary are equivalent to several other symbols.

And, in this way, social imaginaries are based on a symbolism that is, at the same time, production and mechanism. The purpose of the symbol is not only to establish a categorization, but also to establish values, forming individual and collective behaviors and signaling the success alternatives for their actions. The more fixed symbols are based on deep needs and become a reason to exist and act for individuals and social groups. The symbolic systems on which the social imaginary is based and through which it operates are formed based on the experience of social agents, but they also originate from what they aspire to and what motivates them. For the author, the imaginary apparatus guarantees a social group both a collective scheme for interpreting individual, complicated and varied experiences, and a cataloging of expectations. (HAMMERSCHMITT, A., 2012; BACZO, 1982).

Thus, in an effective way, the social imaginary communicates about reality, simultaneously, it composes a call to action, to behave in a certain way. Interpretation structure, as well as valuation, the imaginary apparatus causes the agreement to a value system and efficiently interferes in the procedures of its internalization by individuals, outlining behaviors, taking over individuals and even inducing them to a common action. (HAMMERSCHMITT, A., 2012; BACZO, 1982).

For Baczko (1982), the control of the social imaginary, its reproduction, diffusion and practice, guarantees, at varying levels, an effective influence on both individual and collective behaviors and actions, making it possible to achieve desired functional results, direct efforts and coordinate expectations. As all social choices result from experiences and hopes, from knowledge and rules, from information and values, social agents seek, even more in situations of crisis and serious conflict, to cancel out the uncertainties inherent in the act of choosing. It is in this way that these choices mentioned can be imagined as the only suitable ones or as the imposition of an inevitable destiny. (HAMMERSCHMITT, A., 2012)

Thus, one of the functions of social imaginaries is the organization and control of collective time at the symbolic level. These imaginaries actively intervene in collective memory, for which, as we said, events often count for less than the representations they give rise to and which frame them. Social imaginaries operate even more vigorously, perhaps, in the production of future visions, namely in the projection of collective anguishes, hopes and dreams about the future (HAMMERSCHMITT, A., BACZKO, 1982).

Thus, the mass media not only expand the flow of information, but also format its attributes. Baczo (1982) finds that information is continuously incorporated several times a day, covering the entire planet, gathering data with images and reaching all fields of social life. As it is based on the present, it becomes fragmented, and the fact of today is forgotten and repressed tomorrow. Thus, due to its quantity and quality, this information serves in a special way for manipulations. And, consequently, the transmission of this information forces the issuers to make a selection that cannot be avoided, as well as a hierarchy. What happens when the state has a monopoly on broadcasting is that it is easy to practice censorship, abolish unwanted information, while spreading targeted words and images. (HAMMERSCHMITT, A., 2012).

However, the author emphasizes that information can be manipulated through other means besides censorship, because they are in the form of particles and do not make up a whole, which generates constant concerns and tensions, and emphasizes two needs: unification and that of appreciation. In other words, people are no longer able to coordinate the pulverized and dispersed mass of information and have a greater need for global and unifying representations. Something that is created by the mass media, that expands new opportunities for advertising while satisfying that need. It can be seen that these facts



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observed by the author are current and more accentuated in internet times (HAMMERSCHITT, A. BACZO, 1982).

As, for example, information that is continuously incorporated several times a day, encompassing the entire planet, gathering data with images and reaching all social life, in a fractional way serving certain directions, even because people are no longer able to account for the pulverized and dispersed volume of information and have a greater need for general representations. In this way, the traditional means of communication allied to the new media that is the internet, despite the freedom of communication it provides, try to direct the social imaginary at all times (HAMMERSCHMITT, A. 2012, BACZO, 1982).

Thus, the image that a person makes of a product, when shared by more people, and disseminated, for example, via social networks, where diffusion is quick and instantaneous, tends to become a social imaginary around this brand. It is believed that it is up to marketers to identify the anxieties, dreams and hopes of their consumers in relation to their products and/or brand, to create a favorable environment within the imagination of the society in which they are inserted, as well as project opportunities and challenges futures.

*c) Representation*

The Social Representations Theory was elaborated by Moscovici (1978), having the role of being one of the main theories that clarify the processes of social influences and how individuals acquire and store their mental models (TAMIOSSO, 2018; BREAKWELL, 2001). Theory of representations is a theory based on the information of how a group of people forms their daily knowledge and how this knowledge influences their behavior (DE TONI 2005; MOSCOVICI, 1978, 1988).

This theory postulates that behind man's actions is a representation of the world, which is not only rational, but rather, a set of socially created and shared meanings, beliefs and values. People's actions are governed by the representations they have of the world, and these representations are, in part, socially created within the culture and interaction of social groups. (DE TONI 2005; MOSCOVICI, 1978).

Thus, the theory of Social Representations seeks to analyze the phenomena from the subject (internal causes) and the social context (external causes). For these authors Moscovici (1978), sees the social representation is neither the collective nor the unconscious, but the movement of interaction between people, being a form of individual knowledge that only occurs in the interaction with "the other", in the same moment in which this interaction takes place. The concept of Social Representations is at the center of the individual-social axis, linking the two realities. (DE TONI, 2005; MOSCOVICI, 1978).

For Moscovici (1978) collective representation, or how society sees itself and the world around it, arises from associated, grouped and combined consciousnesses. (DE TONI, 2005; MOSCOVICI, 1978). That with a similar argument is the thought of Bourdieu, who sees representations as visions of the social world, how it is divided, how it is classified, how it works. The representations for him are of two forms: 1° Self-representation - which in a first process is for conformity, but also for conflict. And 2° these are the representations that groups make of themselves and others.

The criticism that Chartier (2002) develops, on the other hand, points out that mentalities forget about the process of representation, appropriation, attribution of meaning. He proposes not to cast the cultural as separate, autonomous, or determinant of the social. For this author, there is no social prior to representation, there is only class if individuals recognize themselves as such.

There is also the postulate that social representations have some characteristics that appear to be contradictory, but that are very present in this form of socially directed knowledge. The first is that representations are stable and flexible to the same extent. The second characteristic is that the representations are consensual but characterized by great individual differences. In the opinion of Abric (1994), social representations are socio-cognitive constructions, having cognitive elements and social components at the same time. (DE TONI, 2005; ABRIC 1994)

According to Jean-Claude Abric (1984, p.170), [...] every representation is organized around a central nucleus [...], formed by one or a few elements that give the representation its meaning, occupying in the structure of representation a singular position. It is defined, on the one hand, by the nature of the object represented, on the other, by the relationship that the subject, or the group, maintains with this object. (DE TONI 2005; ABRIC 1984)

The central core has two main functions: 1- generating function: this function defines the meaning of the representation as a whole; and 2- organizing function: it is the central nucleus that determines the nature of the characteristics that unite the components of the representation together. The so-called nucleus is also the component that unifies, stabilizes and gives meaning to representations. The result of these two functions is stability as a fundamental characteristic of the central core. In this way the nucleus forms the most stable element of the representation. (DE TONI 2005; ABRIC 1984, 1996).

Social representations have an internal organization, in which man organizes and processes information in a dynamic and evolutionary way, forming



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groups of information that are more closely related. The central core is defined by historical, social and ideological conditions, in a dynamic connection between subject and object. Thus, representations strongly carry the collective memory of a group. However, for this very reason, they are one of the most stable and resistant to change components. In this way, any modification of the central core leads to a complete transformation of the representation. (DE TONI, 2000; MOLINARI; EMILIANI, 1993).

The Theory of Social Representations can be seen as the collected image of various conceptual objects that come together and also complement each other, generating a concept or mental scheme. Thus, "anchoring" and "objectification" are ways of dealing with memory. When identifying something new (a new object or concept), the associated experiences and memories are evoked so that the individual can build a new image and associate it with their repertoire of experiences. The connection to pre-existing concepts originates the understanding due to the association and incorporation of the new concept or the way the subject will act on the new. (TAMIOSSO, 2018; STERNBERG, 2000)

Chartier (20021), on the other hand, states that representation represents something in a reflexive way through practice/action. And this reflective form of representation tends to fade away so that belief appears as if this believed reality were a truth. In which it is the logic of the practical sense that is at work, which is a logic of representation.

The aforementioned author states that representation as an analytical concept has been organized by the social sciences since the late nineteenth and twentieth centuries. He postulates that the foundation with which he tries to understand social representations is how through them one seeks to give a universal, natural format to what is culturally, economically, socially constructed, such as individuals' thought schemes, the perception of reality or the social relations.

*d) Memory*

Memory is the dynamic mechanism associated with the retention and retrieval of information about past experiences. It is the means through which human beings evoke their past experiences to use them in the present. For contemporary Cognitive Psychology, there is not just one, but several memories, with different functions. Three types or levels of memory in image processing are identified: sensory memory, short-term memory and long-term memory (DE TONI, 2005; JOHNSON-LAIRD, 1988; LÉVY, 2000; DAVIDOFF, 2000; STERNBERG, 2000; HEALY, 2001; LEDOUX, 2001; LEMOS, 2002; IZQUIERDO, 2002, 2004).

The Atkinson-Shiffrin memory model concludes that the information that marks the sense organs remains momentarily retained by a storage mechanism called sensory memory. If the individual pays attention to the information, it is transferred to the short-term memory (center of consciousness) (DE TONI, 2000; Davidoff 2000; Izquierdo 2004).

Short-term memory retains all the thoughts, information, and experiences that a person becomes aware of at any given time. In addition to storage, short-term memory also works as a central executive. It introduces material and takes data from a third more or less durable memory system, which is long-term memory, there is permanent communication between the two systems. Izquierdo (2004) states that memory comes from 87 experiences or insights. Thus, both short-term and long-term memories begin immediately after experiencing an experience or an insight. Although the Atkinson-Shiffrin model is practical to understand the processing of information, the retrieval of stored information does not always occur in a separate and linear way (DE TONI, 2000).

Short-term memory - Short-term memory can be seen as the center of human consciousness. It is like a central executive who manages the mechanism as a whole. It contains all the thoughts, information and experiences that are in an individual's mind at any given time. It has two elementary functions: temporary storage and general storage. Which is to say, it transfers experiences to long-term memory and retrieves information from the various memory systems (VALLAR, 2001). But short-term memory or also called work, is not only a temporary storage system, but active processing that is used in thinking and reasoning (LEDOUX, 2001). Information from short-term memory cannot be retrieved quickly after about fifteen to twenty seconds have passed, unless it has been repeated or saved to long-term memory. In other words, the storage time in short-term memory is only fifteen or twenty seconds (DE TONI, 2000).

Thus, working memory can serve different phases of the cognitive system, and many of these functions have yet to be fully discovered. According to Ledoux (2001), short-term memory is not purely a product of the here and now. It is conditioned on what the person knows and the type of experience they had in the past, that is, it also depends on long-term memory (DE TONI, 2000).

Long-term memory - The long-term memory mechanism gives the individual the ability to remember large amounts of information for significant periods. It is the place where one's knowledge of the world is stored. It is the material of long-term memory that enables the human being to remember events, solve problems, recognize patterns, which, in short, enables the person to think. Thus, all knowledge, the meaning of words and facts that depend on man's cognitive capacity is stored in long-term memory. (DE TONI, 2000; JOHNSON-LAIRD, 1988; DAVIDOFF, 2000; LÉVY, 2000; LOGIE; SALA, 2001; LEMOS, 2002).



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Long-term memory is classified into three types: semantic memory, procedural memory and episodic memory. - semantic memory is related to the decontextualized memory of facts. (DE TONI; KLATZKY, 1980; LÉVY 2000, DAVIDOFF, 2000; STERNBERG, 2000) Semantic memory operates with concepts, ideas that a person can associate with different characteristics and that he can connect with many other ideas. Episodic memory refers to outstanding episodes and events that occurred in a specific period in time. Subjective experiences are included, referring to the context in which the person lived and temporally organizes codes and events, information about how memories arise and when they occurred. (DE TONI; KLATZKI, 1980; SCHACTER, 1996; GLENBERG, 1997; RELATIVE; CAPUANO; NESPOULOUS, 1999).

For some researchers, differentiating memory types is just a set of rules. Modern Psychology admits that the two forms of memory come together. Within which, episodic memory contains the concrete parts of a semantic memory. (episodic and/or semantic experience) (GLENBERG, 1997; STERNBERG 2000). Images, hypotheses and representations of the order of events are in long-term memory (JOHNSON-LAIRD, 1988). For Lévy (2000), the problem of long-term memory is how to find a fact, a hypothesis or an image that is very far from the area of attention, information that has not been in an active state for a long time (DE TONI, 2000).

Halbwachs (1990) says that there are other people who have memories in common with us, they help us to remember, because for us to remember better, we resort to them, we accept, for a moment, their points of view, we enter their groups, which we still are part. We are thus influenced by them, and we have ideas that we would not have come up with on our own, through which we keep in touch. Thus, according to Halbwachs (1990), to prove or recall a certain memory it is necessary to use witnesses, individuals who witnessed the facts (HAMMERSCHMITT, A., 2012).

But sometimes, even in this way, we don't remember anything, because having lived something that other people also experienced is not enough so that, when they do the reconstruction of what happened, it becomes a memory for us. A testimony will not make us remember anything if we do not keep in our being some trace of what happened in the past, something that is being remembered at that moment. This does not mean that the memory, or part of it, should literally stay with us, but as we and the witnesses were in the same group, we thought in common about something and kept in touch with that group, we are still able to identify with it. and mix our past (HAMMERSCHMITT, A., 2012).

In order for our memory to be helped by that of others, it is not enough for them to bring us their testimonies: it is also necessary that they have not stopped agreeing with their memories and that they have many points of contact between one and the other for the memory that others remind us that it can be reconstructed on a common foundation (HALBWACHS, 1990).

According to the author, in order to reconstitute memories, it is necessary that it takes place using data or perceptions common to us and others as a source, as they are always moving in both directions, something that is only possible if they have done and still do part of the collective. If we are no longer able to access these memories, it is because they have had nothing in common between our partners and ourselves for a long time. A broader collective memory that encompassed mine and theirs disappeared. (HAMMERSCHMITT, A, HALBWACHS, 1990)

As for Lévy (2000), every time one looks for a memory or information, or the activation and retrieval of information, one must remember from the current facts to the facts one wants to find. Thus, the information stored in the long-term memory form the essential basis for the formation of images (KOSSLYN et. al., 1996). For this, two situations are needed. First, there must have remained a representation of the fact being sought. And second, there must be possible paths of connections that lead to this representation (DE TONI, 2000).

Cognitive psychologists locate three basic memory operations: encoding, storing and retrieving (STERNBERG, 2000). Lévy (2000) believes that repetition is not the most effective strategy for storing information in long-term memory. Lévy found that the retention of material in memory is greater when there is a greater involvement of new information with those already permanent in the individual's memory, relating to past phenomena (DE TONI, 2000). Here we can reflect with the thought of Halbachs (1990) when he says that memories are related to the groups we relate to, and that we still keep in touch or make sense to us.

Certain experiments, for example, have shown that under the circumstance that some people were asked to memorize lists of words by repeating them, the memory of the target information remained for twenty-four hours, after which it tended to fade out. On the other hand, when asked to remember the list by building small stories or images linked to the words to be remembered, they persisted for a long time (DE TONI, 2000; LÉVY, 2000, p. 79).

Generally speaking, there is no way to organize information that is better than any other way. People form their own organization, according to subjective units they create. Emotional impacts (liveliness) can trigger the system that converts a short-term memory item into a long-term memory item. Repetition and many other mnemonic techniques can also be used, which are specific knowledge that help the individual to memorize arbitrary information (DE TONI, 2000 LÉVY, 2000).



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Information will also be more easily remembered when the coded or understood material has a connection with something known, with something that makes sense to the individual, or with something that is the result of emotional excitement (DE TONI, 2000; LOGIE; SALA, 2001; LOCKHART, 2001; LEDOUX, 2001). The emotional intensity with which the message was sent to memory produces more vivid presences of this material in the mental model. Such data can easily and spontaneously come to mind and may be manifested in their words or language and behavior (DE TONI GLUCKSBERG, 1971; SCHACTER, 1996; STERNBERG, 2000).

The best retrieval of some information occurs when the type of memory desired and the environment of the phenomenon to be remembered have some characteristics in common. It seems that human beings have a greater capacity to evoke information when they are in the same physical context in which they learn the content. In addition to the external environment, the subject's emotions, moods and states of consciousness, at the time of encoding, affect memory retrieval (DETONI, 2000; STERNBERG, 2000).

Lockhart (2001) believes that memory is not like a book in the library or a computer file that, when looking for information, uses a command or stimulus for the data to appear as it was stored. On the contrary, the retrieval of materials in memory is flexible, constructive and vulnerable to the individual's physical and mental context. Thus, memory retrieval is the consequence of a complex communication between information already stored and new stimuli. The retrieval or recall of information in long-term memory can be done through different strategies (DE TONI, 2000).

We reiterate that, according to Halbwachs (1990), for our memory to help with that of others, it is necessary that it has not stopped agreeing with the memories of the groups we are part of and that there are enough points of contact between them for the memory that remind us of can be reconstructed on a common foundation. Thus, for this author, in order to reconstruct memories, it needs to take place from data or perceptions common to us and to others, as they circulate in both directions, something that is only possible if they were made and are still part of the collective. If we can't remember something anymore, it's because we haven't had anything in common between our partners and ourselves for a long time. A broader collective memory, mine and theirs, no longer exists.

It is possible to remember the characteristics of a product by repeating the benefits of the product in the various contacts that the consumer has with it, from physical contact with the true presence of the product, to any marketing communication campaign. (DE TONI, 2000; LOGIE; SALA, 2001).

Another strategy for an attribute to be remembered quickly when the consumer thinks about the product is to ensure that this characteristic has a living and important meaning for this consumer. Because of this, it is necessary to distinguish, among the product attributes, which are only prominent, and which are important, since an attribute that is not perceived as important to the consumer will tend to be located in a peripheral area of the image, in which it will not be quickly recalled, when the product memory appears. Yet another way to facilitate the recall of attributes favorable to the image of a product, when its memory is evoked, is to create analogies, that is, to link the image of a product to the image of another that is already well established with positive characteristics in the minds of consumers (DE TONI, 2000; LOGIE; SALA, 2001).

It is also possible to create analogies with other objects and beings, as a way to lend some of its characteristics, such as the image of the product that you want to disseminate (eg, comparing a car to a tiger, it adds strength and attributes to the image of this car. majesty, by analogy). In this way, the data that make up memory can be retrieved or recalled in a more or less powerful way, according to three basic principles: frequency, recentness and vividness. These three principles are from the psychological theory of Associationism. For associationists, the human being stipulates connections between ideas when he perceives them frequently linked, when he has recently perceived them linked or when the experience of perceiving them linked has been very lively, powerful and exciting (DETONI, 2000; SCHULER et al., 2004).

Images have the ability to be stored, retrieved and resist a longer period of time when: a) images are repeated and accessed frequently; b) the comprehension of information happens recently and spaced over time (frequency); c) the data are organized in such a way that they have liveliness, meaning and meaning for the individual; d) some mnemonic techniques are used such as categorical grouping, interactive image and others (STERNBERG, 2000); e) the information refers to concrete and familiar knowledge, so that they are interrelated with schemes already contained in memory (LÉVY, 2000); f) representations that maintain close ties with "problems of life" are full of emotion, which includes the expectations and tendencies of the one who remembers (LEDOUX, 2001; DE TONI, 2000).

Frequency is related to how many times an information has been experienced or repeated by the person. The basis of frequency is that new information forms part of one or another information network if it is perceived often linked to data from that network. According to this foundation, data are linked in a stronger way the more often they are perceived together.

Thus, according to Kosslyn (1996), images are retained over time by the repeated activation of the



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adequate representation. For Klatzky (1980), the two essential functions of frequency or repetition are to keep the data in short-term memory and to pass part of the repeated data to long-term memory. Within this, one of the basic inferences is that repetition strengthens recall (DE TONI, 2000).

However, the three basic memory operations – encoding, storing and retrieving – do not operate in sequence. These are procedures that interact in a reciprocal way and are interdependent (STERNBERG, 2000). Within this, marketers can try to combat forgetfulness by repeating ads. But the repetition itself is limited, for the reason that repeating the same ad over and over can irritate the consumer. The model of excellence to escape oblivion is to have, in addition to a good product, messages that are meaningful, attract the consumer's attention, so that the data can be stored and organized in memory with vividness (DE TONI, 2000). And yet, according to Halbachs, for these memories not to be forgotten, they have to have a point of contact, with the groups we relate to. Make sense to us. To which we can add that this "liveliness" said by (Sternberg, 2000) is related to the maintenance of memories in the groups of which we relate to a broader collective memory that encompasses my memory and that of others in contact to make it alive and palpable for each one of us.

It is also worth considering memory within the individual, as stated by Bergson (1999, p. 31) about memory, "[...] while covering with a layer of memory a background of immediate perception, and also while it contracts a multiplicity of moments, constitutes the main contribution of individual consciousness in perception, the subjective side of our knowledge of things [...]" (HAMMERSCHMITT, A, 2012)

The process of remembering memory in this one reports to Benjamin (1998, p. 239) in Escavando e Rememberando, when he states that memory "is the medium where the experience took place, just as the soil is the medium in which the the ancient cities are buried. Anyone who wants to get closer to his own buried past must act like a man who digs". However, for this to happen Benjamin (1998) states that, before any conception, one should not be afraid of always returning to the same event, pouring it as one does with the earth, stirring it as one does with the soil. "For facts", they are nothing more than layers that only to the most careful exploration deliver what rewards the excavation" (HAMMERSCHMITT, A.; BENJAMIN, p. 329).

For Bergson (1999) there are two categories of memory: habit-memory and remembrance-memory. The first, the author says that he does not have any sign that demonstrates where it originates and that he should categorize it in the past, as it is part of the present. But beyond it, there is the representation memory or memory-remembering, which works through images, it is the conscious recall of everything that happened to us, which was recorded in the unconscious, but it differs from the past that it is capable of preserving. This memory-remembrance refers to the permanence of unique images "[...] the image itself, considered in itself, was necessarily what it will always be at first". This type of memory has no attribute of habit, on the contrary, it leads to discontinuity of habit. "To evoke the past in the form of an image, it is necessary to be able to abstract from the present action, it is necessary to know how to value the useless, it is necessary to want to dream" (HAMMERSCHMITT, A.; BERGSON, 1999, p. 90).

For Santos (2013), the fusion of affection with its representation expresses memory as a process and creation, that is, a creative activity. In which, the individual has memory and representation together: the representation giving meaning to affection, enters the sphere of sensitivities. And from recreations comes the aestheticization of affection. According to Benjamin (1994), this happens because the facts do not appear in isolation but are informed and carry a delicate and valuable truth: the image. (HAMMERSCHMITT, A., 2012).

Something that happens, because according to Santos (2013, p. 151): "memory produces subjectivities; and it is produced by subjectivities, one might add. There is always a subjectivity in them, which also mobilizes the deepest sensibilities of the experiences that were kept" (HAMMERSCHMITT, A., 2012.).

In the view of the researcher of this work, there is the choice to make an approach from the perspective of collective memory to verify the components of collective memory as postulated by Halbwachs (1990). For him, other people help us to remember, when they have memories in common with us, because we remember better, we appeal to them, we accept their points of view, we join their groups if we are still part of them. We are influenced by these groups, and we have ideas that we would not have reached on our own, which we keep in touch with. It is also considered, the author's thought that a statement will not make you remember anything if there is no trace of what happened in the past, something that is being sought at the moment in which you seek to remember.

However, this does not mean that the memory remains literally, but that we still have contact with a certain group, we identify with it and manage to blend our past. Regarding the scope of individual memory, it is worth saying that Halbwachs (1990) does not believe that there is individual memory as Bergson (1999) postulates as the main support of individual consciousness in perception, alongside the subjective side of our knowledge.

Halbwachs reflects whether there may be memories that are not possible to link to any group, because the fact occurred when we were really alone. And if we are really alone, not just apparently, we remember from a point of view that can only be ours,



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even if this is not common, it could serve to postulate that collective memory does not explain all our memories. Thus "nothing proves that all notions and images taken from the social media of which we are a part, and that intervene in memory, do not cover, like a movie screen, an individual memory, even in the case where we do not perceive it" ((HAMMERSCHMITT, A., 2012; HALBWACHS, 1990, p. 37).

For Halbwachs (1990), the big question is whether such a memory can exist after all. And he believes that all recollection is based on an appeal to a purely individual state of consciousness, which he calls sensible intuition, to differentiate it from ideas in which they are charged with principles of social thought. Thus, Halbwachs himself admits that the individual is part of two types of memory, the individual and the collective, but individual memory is just a combination of the countless collective memories that the person participates in. For him, however, memories are not in bodies or minds, but in society, in the groups that are part of it. (HAMMERSCHMITT, A., 2012.).

Regarding studies on society, Sarlo (2007) states that around the 1970s, there was a reorganization in the sociology of culture and cultural studies, in which the identity of subjects returned to the place occupied in the 1960s by structures. “The subject's reason was restored, which was, for decades, mere “ideology” or “false consciousness” [...]” (SARLO, 2007, p. 19). Thus, for this author, there was a “subjective turn” where the subjects and their testimonies were given a voice again, in a great appreciation of the individual memory of the witness. We linked the analysis with the authors Bergson (1999), Benjamin (1994), Santos (2013) who theorized about the subjectivity present in the subject's recollection (HAMMERSCHMITT, A., 2012.).

Regarding questions about individual and collective memory, Roma and Birminghan state in Social Memory (1992), that they gave this name to the book to oppose its content to the memory of individuals. Because for them a large part of memory is grouped with participation in various social groups. They postulate that Halbwachs has already said that all memory is organized into group identities and that the individual's memory only exists when this is a unique result of a certain participation in groups (HAMMERSCHMITT, A., 2012.).

Roma and Birminghan draws attention to the fact that Halbwachs was part of the Durkheim school and that for this reason he emphasized too much the collective nature of social conscience, relativizing the issues around the relationship between individual conscience and that of the collectivities of which these subjects were part. What for them resulted in a concept of collective consciousness disconnected from the real developments of the thought of a given person. Thus, for the authors, in relation to Halbwachs, it is to be able, through its postulate, to formulate a conception of memory that takes into account the collective side of each person's life, but that does not elaborate the subject with an automaton, which follows from passio way the internalized collective desires (HAMMERSCHMITT, A., 2012.).

So, Roma and Birminghan (1992) question how individual memory becomes social. In which they postulate that the memories we share with others are the ones that matter to us and them alike. They claim that Halbwachs was right in asserting that social groups create their own images of the world by generating a commonly agreed explanation of the past through communication. For these authors, our personal memories are undeniably social (HAMMERSCHMITT, A., 2012.).

Here we can think about the question of how a brand or product, when we share information about them, is retained in the consumer's memory. By the above postulates, the shared information that remains is the one that matters to us and to others.

But in Fentress and Wickham (1992, p. 32) they state that much of what we remember refers to ourselves personally, having no way of being anywhere else but in our heads. And if we tell a friend our memories, they remain our personal memories. “Personal memories are indissolubly ours, they are part of us” (HAMMERSCHMITT, A., 2012).

However, Fentress and Wickham (1992) warn that the assumptions of objective ideas tend to contextualize memory as naturally divided into an objective face that contains the facts and a subjective face that encompasses information and feelings that make up individuals and are located just inside them. The first aspect is somewhat passive and boils down to storing knowledge. The second aspect is more active appreciates and memorizes for the conscience (HAMMERSCHMITT, A., 2012).

Thus, the difference between objective postulates and subjective interpretation is located in the structure of memory. But Fentress and Wickham (1992) believe that objective memory is basically the best transmitter of information, it is a form of memory more available to others. (HAMMERSCHMITT, A., 2012)

And, for Fentress and Wickham (1992, p. 20), this distinction in relation to subjective memory not being linked with the structure of memory is, above all, a social fact. Thus, in the correlation between the two sides of memory, the objective part itself does not appear, but its social characteristic. “This implicit acceptance of Durkheim's doctrine, which says that ideas held collectively are social facts and, as such, the result of social and historical forces. We affirm that memory is also a social fact” (HAMMERSCHMITT, A., 2012)

Furthermore, Fentress and Wickham, the distinction between personal memory and social memory is relative, as most of the time our memories



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are mixed, having a social and a personal side. And this is insufficient to believe that one aspect of our memories is objective, and another is subjective. The authors postulate that memory is fundamentally subjective, but it is also structured by language, education, analysis, ideas that are collectively accepted, as well as ideas shared with others. And all of this, likewise, builds a social memory. (HAMMERSCHMITT, A., 2012).

For Fentress and Wickham (1992, p. 242):

> We are the ones who remember and it is us who, in the last analysis, refer to knowledge, emotions and images [...]. Whatever the nature of memory as a purely neurological or purely epistemological object, we cannot know or feel our memories unless we think of them "first"; and when we "think" our memories, evoking and articulating them, they cease to be objects and become parts of us. At that moment, we find ourselves indissolubly at the center. Only when our memories are part of us can we share them with others.

In this context, for these authors, memory plays a great social function by telling us who we are, incorporating our present to our past. Fentress and Wickham (1992) postulate that our memories are mixed, having a social and a personal side, they intersect. Thus, memory is individual and collective at the same time, being located within a larger aspect that encompasses the social, society in general.

Fentress and Wickham (1992) believe that it is obvious that memories that change past memories over time, but remain, are chosen from an infinite sum of possible memories, due to the importance they have for the individuals who remember. And exactly for what they help to build identity and personal relationships. For the authors, this is concrete both when individuals recall personal practices and when they recall events collectively stored. However, it is noticeable that the importance of memories for others is increased, when they are linked, when they are shared. And the procedure of sharing in itself, that is, the creation of narratives about the past, is what forms the meaning given by the group in which they are narrated (HAMMERSCHMITT, A., 2012).

For Fentress and Wickham (1992) the transmission and diffusion of images of social memory can be compared to a type of trade in which ideas are actually traded. And even if these ideas are somehow unattainable, their transmission and dissemination is a concrete path. For them, social memory is defined by the law of supply and demand, in which it is necessary to offer memories and memories must arise in specific places (HAMMERSCHMITT, A., 2012).

Here we can think that when marketers offer the image of a brand to a consumer audience, they are offering memories that can be remembered by that audience if what is offered makes sense to them and is retained in their memories in the long term.

But this offer, to go beyond the instantaneous present, and to survive transmission and exchange, must reflect a demand. It has to appear to the group that remembers as being only this one, the adequate version that includes sociological, cultural, ideological or historical elements (HAMMERSCHMITT, A., 2012). "The history of social memory is also the history of its transmission (...). (FENTRESS; WICKHAM, 1992, p. 243).

In this sense, for the present researcher, individual and collective memory is believed to be a social fact that mixes and encompasses a greater proportion, becoming social memory. That, in the same way as aforementioned authors postulate, needs to be offered to the society that composes it in a commerce of transmission and diffusion of images that build an imaginary around the offered memory.

## III. Final Considerations

As said in the first part developed Stern, Zinkhan and Jaju (2001) think the image is a negotiation operation between the stimuli offered by the brand and the perception of them by the consumer. As discussed here, based on Bazco's thinking the image that a person makes of a product, when shared by more people, for example, on social media, where diffusion is quick and instantaneous, tends to become a social imaginary around this brand.

According Tamiosso (2018) the Theory of Social Representations can be seen as the collected image of various conceptual objects that come together and also complement each other, generating a concept or mental scheme. When identifying something new associated experiences and memories are evoked so the individual can build a new image and associate it with their repertoire of experiences.

For Santos (2013), the fusion of affection with its representation expresses memory as a creative activity. In which, the individual has memory and representation together, because the representation gives meaning to affection, enters the sphere of sensitivities.

Also meeting Halbachs' thought that the memories that remain are those shared in a group, it is possible to consider that as said images are stored, retrieved and resist a longer period of time when are repeated and accessed frequently; they have meaning and meaning for the individual; are related to full of emotion (DE TONI, 2000). In the same way Roma and Birminghan (1992) said that the memories we share with others are the ones that matter to us and them alike.

So, also it possible to consider that memories should be offered aiming, therefore, to fix the desired image and imagery in the memory of target consumers of the products and services of our works that we produce in the society in which we live.



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# Educational Technology: From a Historical Perspective to an Empirical Exploration of Moroccan Learners' EFL Speaking Fluency

By Prof. El Morabit Nadir
*Al Imam Al Ghazali High School*

*Abstract-* One of the common challenges facing practitioners is the critical speaking fluency of EFL learners. Many students find immense challenges in communicating their ideas, let alone finding the appropriate and practical modalities to communicate authentically outside the classroom walls and measuring it. This paper aims at exploring the impact of educational technology on students' oral fluency. To gauge the intended impact, a quantitative method is used. Educational technology is used as an independent variable with an insightful historical overview of the term, whereas oral fluency, the dependent variable, is narrowed down into measurable descriptors. The findings of this study inform the literature with the importance of the implementation of educational (instructional) technology into refining the teaching practices via an empirical evidence on the one hand and improving the speaking (oral) skills by the affordances supplied by the app and software designed for testing the validity of the data. This paper is concluded with some limitations and recommendations to open more horizons for action research and investigate the debated topic under study.

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# Educational Technology: From a Historical Perspective to an Empirical Exploration of Moroccan Learners' EFL Speaking Fluency

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*Abstract-* One of the common challenges facing practitioners is the critical speaking fluency of EFL learners. Many students find immense challenges in communicating their ideas, let alone finding the appropriate and practical modalities to communicate authentically outside the classroom walls and measuring it. This paper aims at exploring the impact of educational technology on students' oral fluency. To gauge the intended impact, a quantitative method is used. Educational technology is used as an independent variable with an insightful historical overview of the term, whereas oral fluency, the dependent variable, is narrowed down into measurable descriptors. The findings of this study inform the literature with the importance of the implementation of educational (instructional) technology into refining the teaching practices via an empirical evidence on the one hand and improving the speaking (oral) skills by the affordances supplied by the app and software designed for testing the validity of the data. This paper is concluded with some limitations and recommendations to open more horizons for action research and investigate the debated topic under study.

## I. Introduction

Over few decades, the implementation of educational technology to improve the teaching and learning processes has been a thorny topic. It has been more than eight decades since the emergence of the term 'educational technology'. The same construct has been redefined several times by the AECT (Association for Educational Communications and Technology) and many other writers. It is high time we made a shift towards normalizing the use of the instructional modalities (Bax, 2003) regardless of the theoretical principles underpinning the term, which has been under a heated debate between authors who consider the concept as a theory and those who perceive it as a bunch of modalities adding nothing to the instructional process (Clark, 2007). The implementation of educational technology should be conducive to improving the learning process and refining the teaching practices to cater not only to the learner's needs, styles and preferences but also establishing the twenty first century digital classroom. It is the classroom that should boost the twenty-first century skills of students to prepare them for the real-life complexities. The first section of this paper provides a historical background of the terms under study (i.e., educational technology and fluency). The definitions listed below are chronologically reflecting the heated debate about the framework of the term since its emergence eight decades ago. Fluency as a sub-construct is also defined considering its ramifications and the instability of its foundations due to the lack of research in the field. Having investigated the framework of the terms, the concept used here as an independent variable (educational technology) is applied in the form of an integral digitizing project of the teaching-learning process. The speaking skill fluency is used as a dependent variable to measure the impact of instructional technology on the oral fluency of a sample of Moroccan learners. To do so, the SRM (Speech Rate Meter) software is used to measure the impact of educational technology (*Flipgrid* app as an element of the digitized project) on the oral fluency of students considering the basic descriptors (temporal variables) as embodied in the section of results. This paper is concluded by a thorough analysis of the primary data collected from my classes (First Baccalaureate students) and a set of recommendations for further research in the field and the required actions to be taken by stakeholders and policymakers.

*Author: EFL Teacher, Al Imam Al Ghazali High school, Tetouan, Morocco. e-mail: ndrmorabet@gmail.com*

## II. Definition of Terms

### a) Educational technology

#### i. Theoretical Background of the Term

In his attempt to trace back the term's history, Paul Saettler, the historian of educational technology, admitted having difficulty identifying the pioneer of the term (Saettler, 1990, as cited in Januszewski, 2001). However, he documented the years of the 1940s as the period of using the terms 'educational technology' and 'instructional technology'. Prior to this period, Saettler found out that 'educational engineering' as the coined term was in use in the 1920s (p. 1). Januszewski points out that there are three main trends influencing the emergence of educational technology as a field, namely engineering, science, and AV (audio visual) education.

Concerning engineering, Januszewski traced back the works of Saettler, who credited the term use 'educational engineering' to Franklin Bobbit and W.W. Charters, and the works of James Munroe. Having investigated the findings of Munroe in 1912 and Charters in the 1940s, Januszewski reached the conviction that Munroe was the leading figure to



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establish "a conceptual tie between scientific management in educational settings and educational engineering" (p. 3). Munroe argues that the educational setting is identical to a business plant on the level of the organizational structure. He was confident that schools would operate effectively when he explained that:

> Such [educational] engineers would make a thorough study of (1) the pupils who constitute the raw materials of the business of education; (2) the building and other facilities for teaching, which make up the plant; (3) the school boards and the teaching staff, who correspond to the directorate and the working force; (4) the means and methods of instruction and development; (5) the demands of the society in general and of the industry in particular (Munroe, 1912, as cited in Januszewski, 2001, p. 4).

Munroe believes that the scientific management of plants or business would trigger much effectiveness in schools. Moreover, educational engineers are the ones who can prepare youth to life and find out about the weaknesses and the strengths of the industry (i.e., school).

Unlike Munroe (1912), who seemed much interested in "engineering the overall schooling process, the central tenet of educational engineering for Charters was the systematic development of instructional methods and products" (p.6). Although both agree on adopting the scientific management of plants and businesses to transmit them to schools, Charters is still more systematic than Munroe due to his focus on methods, techniques, materials, and efficiency. Charters admires the adoption of scientific methods in engineering for the sake of productivity (i.e., wealth) in a short time. Januszewski cited a thought-provoking depiction of the role of the educational engineer for creating efficient instructional methods and materials by the following:

> The engineers will identify the idea to be worked upon, analyze it and select promising hypotheses concerning its practical uses. He will experimentally play with plans for building a structure that will use the full value of the idea. He will build a unit, an operational technique, an instructional method. He will operate the tool and try it out in practice. He will test the results to measure the efficiency and practicality of what he has constructed (Charters, 1951, as cited in Januszewski, 2001, p.6).

The analogy between engineer and educational engineer led to shaping the conceptual framework of instructional technology.

The second factor to influence the concept of educational technology was science. Januszewski argues that in 1987 the educational historian Herbert M. Kliebard "identified three distinct views that were held in the twentieth-century educators regarding the purpose of science as it related to education" (p.9). The first one pertained to G. Stanley Hall regarding the investigation of the "natural order of development in the child" which was based on data collection, data analysis and finally prescribing appropriate activities (Hall, 1987, as cited in Januszewski, 2001). Second, was Dewey's advocacy of the "scientific inquiry" (p.9), and the third one "was science of exact measurement" (p.10). Concerning the third view, Januszewski argues that it is still representative of the current practices namely the experimental methods, quantitative studies, laboratories, task analysis, criterion-referenced testing, etc.

The third impact on the shaping of the educational technology concept was the audio-visual education movement. This movement, according to Finn (1960), "was based on the hardware and equipment" which was available after World War II (Finn, 1960; Lange, 1969, as cited in Januszewski, 2001, p.12). This movement was principally criticized for being materials-driven and machine-based rather than being focused on methods and systematic approach to improve instructional practices. However, there was a remarkable shift from considering audiovisual communications (AV) as "teaching aids" to "audiovisual techniques" and mere "things" to "concrete experiences" by "visualizing the curriculum" (Hoban, 1937; Dale, 1946; McBeath, 1972, as cited in Januszewski, 2001).

ii. *Attempts to Establish a Grounded Definition*

The first official definition of the term goes back to 1963. The Association for Educational Communications and Technology (AECT) used the Audiovisual communications definition to describe the field (educational technology) "as it was evolving from the AV education movement to educational technology. Later, the leadership of the AECT acknowledged the 1963 definition as the first formal definition of educational technology, even though this statement was intended as a definition of audiovisual communications" (p. 18). However, the adaptation was systematic to establish theoretically grounded definition of the following definition of Audiovisual communications:

> Audiovisual communications is that branch of educational theory and practice primarily concerned with the design and use of messages which control the learning process. It undertakes: (a) the study of the unique and relative strengths and weaknesses of both pictorial and nonrepresentational messages which may be employed in the learning process for any purpose; and (b) the structuring and systematizing of messages by men [sic] and instruments in an educational environment. These undertakings include the planning, production, selection, management, and utilization of both components and entire instructional systems. Its practical goal is the efficient utilization of every method and medium of communication which can contribute to the development of the learner's full potential (Ely, 1963, as cited in Januszewski, 2001).

As noted from the definition, the selective words were slightly different than how the AV concept was viewed, namely on hardware and equipment orientation. The selective words this time were the words process, systematizing messages, planning, production,



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selection, management, utilization, etc. the principal intention was to establish theoretical principles and a self-contained field by a semantic shift of the AV definition.

In 1972, the AECT considered the critique accompanied the publication of the definition of 1963 to come up with the following revised definition:

> Educational technology is a field involved in the facilitation of human learning through the systematic identification, development, organization, and utilization of a full range of learning resources and through the management of these processes (Ely, 1972, as cited in Januszewski & Persichetti, 2008, p. 267).

What is new in the definition was the word "field" instead of "theory", which is open to interpretation. It seems that there was a reason behind hedging on the word theory implemented in the 1963 definition. This reason was revealed by Januszewski and Persichetti (2008) when they maintained that "the writers of 1972 definition chose to use "field" rather than "theory" in the definition because the use of the word field established a territory. It provided certain legitimacy to efforts to advance both products and processes" (pp. 273-74). It can be inferred from this that neither the writers of the 1963 definition, nor those of 1972 could specify whether educational technology was a theory or a field or any other congruent name. It should be noted, as being suggested above, that educational technology was not formally in use as a conceptual term till 1972. Perhaps this skepticism denotes a lack of research and content at that time. This issue of concept classification will be clear in the next published definitions by the AECT.

In 1977, the AECT published a revised definition after having taken into account the criticism to the previous definition and the research area:

> Educational technology is a complex, integrated process, involving people, procedures, ideas, devices and organization, for analyzing problems and devising, implementing, evaluating and managing solutions to those problems, involved in all aspects of human learning. In educational technology, the solution to problems takes the form of all the *learning resources* that are designed and/or selected and/or utilized to bring about learning; these resources are identified as Messages, People, Materials, Devices, Techniques, and Settings. The processes for analyzing problems, and devising, implementing, and evaluating solutions […] (AECT, 1977, as cited in Januszewski & Persichetti, p.270).

This definition was also criticized for two reasons. First, according to Januszewski and Persichetti (2008), the definition did not establish a demarcation between instructional technology and educational technology since the first was a subset of the second. Second, the term "process" was used basically to "connote the idea that educational technology could be viewed as a theory, a field, or a profession" (p.271). This criticism led to the reconsideration of the definition.

In 1994, there comes the following definition of educational technology after revising the previous one: "Instructional technology is the theory and practice of design, development, utilization, management, and evaluation of processes and resources for learning (Seels & Richey, 1994, as cited in Januszewski & Persichetti, p.279). The quoting authors admit that there are no new concepts, yet they still find that "there are some serious flaws in the reasoning of the theoretical framework" (p.274). The above definition included the term instructional technology rather than educational technology. This entails that the terms are used interchangeably though the second one is broader semantically than the first, as the 1977 definition points out:

> Instructional technology was to educational technology as instruction was to education. The reasoning was that since instruction was considered a subset of education then instructional technology was a subset to educational technology […] the concept of educational technology was involved in the solution of problems in all aspects of human learning. the concept of instructional technology was involved in the solution of problems where learning is purposive and controlled" (AECT, 1977, as cited in Januszewski & Persichetti, p.276).

The interchangeability of the terms denotes the instability of the framework of the definition. It is true this is one of the most economical definitions the AECT has come up with after considering the critique of all the former definitions. However, this official new label of the field of study from educational technology to instructional technology is a kind of surrender to finding an appropriate discipline to classify the new "study", "field", "process", or even a "theory" within its scope. Many authors accepted the term regardless of its unstable 'territory' but with much hesitance. Thus, among all the new concepts the AECT has implemented in the definition of educational technology, the term "theory" has been a thorny one. Januszewski and Persichetti (2008) argued that "educational technology is [certainly] a theoretical construct. [It] may also be a theory depending on what exactly is intended by the word *theory*" (p.281).

In 2008, another focused definition was released by the AECT which read as the following:

> Educational technology is the study and ethical practice of facilitating learning and improving performance by creating, using and managing appropriate technological processes and resources (Betrus et al 2008 as cited in Januszewski & Persichetti, p.1).

Again, the term educational technology is used instead of instructional technology. What characterizes this definition is the shift from mere hardware-based-process (1963) to focusing on the learning process.



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Moreover, the use of the word "study" instead of other terms implemented in the previous definitions on the one hand and the label shift from instructional technology to educational technology still denotes that this area of study is still in need of theoretical foundations and expanded research though it has been more than eight decades now since the emergence of the term as has been claimed above by Saettler in 1990. This mismatch in classifying the term under a particular discipline and grant it the badge of theory is recognized in the works of many authors. Unfortunately, these studies were claimed to have known some sort of "propaganda". In his foreword to Januszewski's book *Educational Technology: The Development of a Concept,* Yeaman, A. R. J. (2001) stated that:

> The historical definitions of educational technology have the qualities of propaganda. They tell us what the facts are and what questions about those facts are acceptable. Like Humpty Dumpty, meanings are given word by word and there remains, as with the complex texts produced by most committees, at least some vagueness-possibly because the social purpose is to gain consensus. There is an insistence on people joining together to support a good idea that should not be opposed (Yeaman, A.R.J., forword in Januszewski, 2001).

Yeaman considers that the profusion of definitions is the result of propaganda developed in "naïve optimism" (p.xii). He acknowledges that educational technology deserves analyses and more research rather than considering the "practical functionality" of it (p.xi).

In 2000 Delcloque refers to two types of researches in the field of CALL:

1. The properly researched, objective historical accounts with attempt to summarize the progression and might include precise dates and a comprehensive list of sources.
2. The interpretative type which tends to draw more subjective conclusions about advances and trends in the field, thus analyzing its progression in a less objective manner (Delcloque, 2000 as cited in Bax, 2003, p. 14).

It becomes clear that the historical background of educational technology has known some ramifications regarding the attempts to come up with a precise and accurate definition on the one hand, and to stick to subjective perspectives, which caused some kind of construction and deconstruction of the historical discourse of the term as being the case of Bax (2003) when he tries to deconstruct Warschauer's stages of CALL by describing it "to have a number of significant weaknesses" and his approach adds to "the conceptual confusion" (p 16) to introduce his common approach called "normalization". I am not here in a position to say who is better than who and who is more approachable than the other. However, I argue that for more than six decades now, the concept has known several refurbishments which persists up to the present. This process resulted in two teams. Those who favor the technology-approach in the classroom context with some skepticism and those who do not favor the implementation for subjective reasons.

*b) Fluency*

In foreign languages, fluency is used to gauge the oral fluency. However, the term should not be restricted to assessing the ability to produce language, but to write as well. Fluency is frequently contrasted in twofold way: fluency to accuracy and explicit to implicit knowledge (Richards, 2003), yet our concern here is to shed light on the concept of fluency in EFL/ESL context. The concept of fluency is not easy to define since it is confusingly related to oral proficiency (Chambers, 1997; Maisa, 2018). In her article, *What Do We Mean by Fluency?* Chambers did not come up with any definition of fluency because she admits that there is not any precise one according to the intertwined descriptors and variables related to the concept. Accordingly, she maintains that:

> Fluency is a commonly used notion in foreign language teaching and yet it is a concept difficult to define precisely. Its frequent use as a descriptor of oral performance in the course of assessment requires that we agree on what constitutes fluency. As teachers we also need to know how it develops in order to create the conditions in which foreign language learners increase their fluency (Chambers, 1997, p.535).

Given its complexity, we can infer from Chambers's article the following elements that constitute the fluency concept:

- It is frequently contrasted to accuracy.
- It is often used as synonym of oral proficiency.
- It is qualitative (flow, smoothness, ease, effortlessness, etc.).
- It is quantitative (speed, articulation rate, repetition, length of pauses, hesitations, etc.)
- It is traditionally perceived: language mastery (native-like performance).
- It is modernly perceived (natural language flow regardless of nativity).

Chambers makes it clear that due to the lack of precise definitions of the concept and considering the works of Raupach (1980), Riggenbach (1991), and Towel et al. (1996), she reached the conviction that the concept is "multi-layered and needs to be defined specifically" (p. 543).

In her thorough review of the existing literature concerning language fluency, Maisa (2018) posits that "the concept of fluency has been used with a distinctive meaning clearly opposed to overall proficiency or to an end state close to native performance. Fluency in CLT is about effectiveness of language use within the constraints of limited linguistic knowledge (Maisa, 2018, p.321).



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Brumfit defined fluency as "the maximally effective operation of the language system so far acquired by the students" (Brumfit, 1984, as cited in Maisa, 2018, p.321).

H.D. Brown refers to fluency as "saying or writing a steady flow of language for a short period of time without any self or other correction at all (Brown, 1994, as cited In Maisa, p.321).

What is more, Crystal defines fluency "as smooth, rapid, effortless use of language" (Crystal 1987, as cited in Maisa, 2018, p. 320).

It becomes clear from the above definitions that oral fluency is a real challenge since the criteria suggested to measuring the given construct maybe approved by some and disapproved by others. The concept can be summarized as follows:

- Fluency is measured according to 4 temporal variables (speaking rate, phonation time, articulation rate, and mean length of runs).
- Fluency is difficult to be separated from linguistic knowledge (strategic competence/procedural knowledge).
- Speed of articulation (steady flow) and frequency of pauses (hesitations and unfilled breakdowns) are the principal indicators agreed on by writers.
- Two views: modern vs traditional (language mastery in contrast to natural flow regardless of being native-like performance).
- The demarcation between L1 and L2 is a challenge.

The complexity of the concept resulted in three problems, the lack of a precise definition, the difficulty to gauge fluency, and the debatable criteria for measurement.

In 1979, Filmore proposed four parameters to make judgments about fluency:

a. The ability to talk at length with minimum pauses;
b. The ability to package the message easily into "semantically dense" sentences without recourse to lots of fillers (for example, "you know", "the thing is that", etc.);
c. The ability to speak appropriately in different kinds of social contexts and situations, meeting the social communicative demands each may have,
d. The ability to use the language creatively and imaginatively by expressing ideas in new ways, to use humor, puns, metaphors, and so on.

*(Fillmore, 1979 as cited in Maisa, 2018, p. 321)*

Fillmore adds something important to the existing literature about evaluating fluency. In contrast to the technical criteria suggested by other writers, he adds meaning (speaking appropriately) and the learning environment (social context). That is to say, the uttered message should not be regarded as a bunch of spoken words measured by time, yet these criteria ought to be revised and considered in light of the meaning conveyed and the social context the speaker (i.e., learner) is involved in. What is the use of speaking loads of words in a short time if the semantic dimension is absent?

## III. Literature Review

### a) Historical Overview

Many studies agree on the years of the 1960s as the starting point of the implementation of instructional technologies in the teaching-learning process with the development of PLATO system in the university of Illinois as the first computer-assisted instruction system which supplied students with tailored materials for practice accompanied with the required feedback (Levy, 1997; Beaty, 2003; Smith, 2016). This was delineated by the meta-analytic study conducted by Tamim et al. maintaining that "thousands of comparisons between computing and noncomputing classrooms ranging from kindergarten to graduate school, have been made since the 1960s" (Tamim et al., 2011, p.5). However, the booming of the educational technologies or the so-called computer-assisted language learning (CALL) did not become widespread till the 1980s "when computers become more of a commodity" (Smith, p. 2). Hubbard (2009) summarizes the 1980s which was characterized by the proliferation of microcomputers as follows:

> Early work with what were called "microcomputers", such as the BBC computer, Apple II, and IBM PC, began to proliferate in the early 1980s. this new wave continued to include academic projects involving teams of designers, programmers and language teachers, but this era was also marked by the emergence of teacher-programmers, typically using the basic language to create activities for their own students (p.3)

The development of educational technology witnessed another surge in the 1990s with the emergence of the World Wide Web (WWW) which is categorized according to different types. Web 1.0 which in known as the "read-only" where consumers are allowed to read (consume content) but cannot be content creators like the case of e-commerce sites targeting customers to purchase products rather than negotiating content (meaning). In 1999, Web 2.0 emerged with new affordances which granted it the name of "read-write-publish" web. Users could use Bloggs and social media to publish their thoughts and interact. It seems that the final stage was up with Web 2.0, yet web developers reached Web 3.0 known as "read-write-execute" which is characterized by "tailor made search, personalized search, evolution of 3D Web, deductive reasoning" (flatworldbusiness.wordpress.com). What is more, Web 4.0 is an adaptative version of the prior types but to mobile phones distinctive by the synchronous mode in a virtual real time talk. Finally, Web 5.0, known as "emotional Web", is going to be a revolutionary. Web-users will be



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able to interact with computers and smart phones; "the interaction will become a daily habit for a lot of people based on neurotechnology. For the moment web is "emotionally" neutral, which means web does not perceive the users feelings and emotions. This will change with web 5.0. One example of this is www.wefeelfine.org, which maps emotions" (flatworld business.wordpress.com). For the best example of the five types of Web (appendix B).

*b) Debate*

Since the widespread emergence of computers in the 1980s, the implementation of technology into the teaching-learning process was scrutinized thoroughly. Two opposing perspectives emerged between those who favored the implementation of the instructional technologies backing their convictions by the speed of change imposed by the inevitable fluctuation of instructional methods and approaches on the one hand, and the appealing affordances (i.e., features, abilities, and advantages) these mediums offer to enhance the second language acquisition by the profusion of user-friendly devices, software, and apps. On the other hand, those who disfavor the implementation of educational technology like Richard Clark claiming that "media are delivery vehicles for instruction and do not directly influence learning" (Clark, 1983, p. 453).

In the 1980s, Clifford welcomes the use of CALI Computer-Assisted Language Instruction though he was cautious about it. The opposing stand that happened in the 1970s he referred to in his article did not reflect his own. On the contrary, it reflects the practitioners' reaction to the "claims of CALL reducing faculty staffing by one-third to one-half" (p. 11). My focus here is on the advocates of educational technology rather than writers who disfavor the implementation of it.

i. *Cautious Advocates*

Clifford (1986) highlights the merits of Computer-Assisted Language Instruction (CALI) in the well-designed programs, the assistance for reticent students, motivational benefits, etc. however, he acknowledged that he is a cautious advocate "because of the interrelated issues of credibility and teacher acceptance" (p.15). By credibility, Clifford means the readiness of the system to accept the implementation of CALI and meeting the needs of teachers to make the language learning environment successful and not exposed to the prior failures. Hence Clifford puts his famous sentence: "computers will not replace teachers. However, teachers who use computers will replace teachers who don't" (Clifford, 1986, p.5).

Hubbard (2009) acknowledged the role of CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning) for "those who wish to incorporate it into their professional practice or understand its impact on the language teacher and learner" (p. 1). However, with the plethora of technological devices implemented in the classroom and the constant change of their affordances, Hubbard feels that we should direct our attention to the question of *how* to use technology rather than *what* technology to use. Moreover, he calls for the reconsideration of some definitions (Beaty, 2003) of technology or rather educational/instructional technology by "two additional questions: what do we mean by computer? And what do we mean by improve?" (p. 1)

Thorne and Smith (2011) acknowledged the considerable interest in social media and social networking environments to "support the meaningful language use [and] interpersonal engagement" (p.268). Thorne and Smith's maintained that "CALL is both exciting and daunting due to its rapidly changing tableau of tools, environments, cultures, and expressive possibilities" (p.274). That is, it is not the question of what mediums to use but how best "to integrate the right technology into […] specific L2 teaching and learning context" (Smith, 2016, p.2). This conviction was shared by Clifford, 1986; and Hubbard 2009.

*c) Rational and Purpose*

The main purpose of this study is not only to review the literature of CALL but to explore and investigate its feasibility on language skills. Our concern in this study will address the speaking skill. That is, we will attempt to gauge the impact of educational technology on speaking fluency. In doing so, this study will add an empirical inquiry to the body of literature as a decisive mechanism to test the impact of educational technology on the learning process. Therefore, educational technology will be treated as an independent variable whereas speaking fluency, the dependent variable, will be narrowed down into measurable descriptors.

*d) Research Questions*

1. Is educational technology implementation conducive to speaking fluency?
2. Does the digitization of the teaching-learning process result in remarkable oral fluency?

## IV. Methodology

Having reviewed some literature that has established the territory for the emergence of CALL (preferred in the US) or ICT (preferred in European countries), we will try to measure the impact of CALL on speaking skill. It should be considered that this skill was enhanced by the reading skill, which was part of the digitization of the teaching and learning processes project underpinning my teaching strategy to change the mode of delivering lessons and refining my teaching practices to cope with the new generation of students. We believe that from reading other skills and subskills stem out since language structures and vocabulary items are absorbed and acquired incidentally (El Morabit, 2021) eventhough the reading skill is not the



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focus line of the research, but it was an integral part of the whole project.

A quantitative method is used to gauge students' oral fluency. In doing so, the SRM (Speech Rate Meter) software is used since it is of utmost difficulty to measure the speech rate, pauses, length of pauses, hesitations, etc., manually and by impression. The Moroccan First Baccalaureate level is the population sample used for this study at Al-Imam Al-Ghazali High school in Tetouan city. Four classes with an approximate number of 100 hundred students were asked to participate on *Flipgrid,* yet the focus was oriented towards low proficiency level students with poor performance on oral fluency in class. It is an app where students film themselves responding to each other's comments or responding to a specific theme set by the teacher over a period of five months. All the activities were under the teacher's guidance and surveillance. At the end of each lesson or unit, the teacher posts a topic for discussion related to what students have covered in class to enrich their ideational system with some background knowledge to be able to lead an asynchronous speech. Students not allowed to read from papers. All they needed to do was to speak spontaneously and the posted instructions. The reason behind this is to stick to the input under measurement on the one hand and to encourage learners to adapt to the virtual community (digitization of learning). Maybe fluency should be measured in real- time talk (synchronously), yet the reason behind alternating the process was mainly for two reasons. First, to expand the teaching-learning process beyond the classroom walls by granting students more learning opportunities and more research to be conducted by the teacher to refine the teaching practices with the help of students' engagement and learning agency. Second, to help students being in an emotionally supportive environment to stimulate oral fluency which is sometimes affected by psychological factors such as nervousness, public phobia, reticence, demotivation, etc. These factors affecting the fluency are vivid when students undergo the public speaking activity in class which is an integral part of the formative assessment representing a challenge to many students.

It should be noted that the use of the app was supported by the standards and principles set by Hubbard (1988), namely the operational description, learner fit and teacher fit (appendix A), and some of the TESOL Technology Standards Framework (Healey et al., 2008).

## V. Results

Having used Speech Rate Meter (SRM) to measure the oral fluency of the First Bac students, the following charts embody the measures obtained from the students' speeches. As mentioned above, students were required to film themselves (selfie forms) in an application called *Flipgrid.* All the necessary instructions were posted in the app so that students can resort to them whenever they like. Once their talks on the app were posted, learners were categorized into two levels: By basic level, I mean students whose level of English, especially the oral fluency, is slow and developing level is used to describe students who are above the average in terms of oral fluency and the language proficiency. These talks were converted from MP4 to Wav format supported by SRM. All the data obtained from the software are documented in the following charts. Students' names were removed as agreed on in fulfillment of the ethical commitment. The transcribed data below is randomized:

*Table 1*

*Basic level*

| Students | Speech Rate (wpm*) | Articulation Rate (wpm) | Phrase Pauses (sec) | Speech Duration (sec) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Student 1 | 101 | 123 | 0.00 | 12 |
| Student 2 | 116 | 138 | 0.26 | 13 |
| Student 3 | 102 | 121 | 0.51 | 32 |
| Student 4 | 119 | 153 | 0.26 | 10 |
| Student 5 | 91 | 141 | 0.76 | 9 |
| Student 6 | 88 | 116 | 1.27 | 30 |
| Student 7 | 107 | 129 | 0.51 | 19 |
| Student 8 | 97 | 114 | 0.77 | 96 |
| Student 9 | 82 | 94 | 0.51 | 51 |
| Student 10 | 105 | 118 | 0.26 | 22 |
| Student 11 | 125 | 139 | 0.00 | 11 |
| Student 12 | 97 | 153 | 1.79 | 27 |
| Student 13 | 101 | 127 | 0.51 | 14 |
| Student 14 | 99 | 117 | 0.51 | 17 |
| Student 15 | 96 | 135 | 1.02 | 11 |



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| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Student 16 | 123 | 141 | 0.51 | 52 |
| Student 17 | 106 | 132 | 1.02 | 15 |
| Student 18 | 103 | 129 | 0.51 | 19 |
| Mean | 103.22 | 150.94 | 0.61 | 24 |

**Wpm: word per minute*

*Developing level*

| Students | Speech Rate (wpm) | Articulation Rate (wpm) | Phrase Pauses (sec) | Speech Duration (sec) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Student 1 | 107 | 141 | 1.28 | 30 |
| Student 2 | 120 | 167 | 0.76 | 11 |
| Student 3 | 100 | 123 | 1.02 | 66 |
| Student 4 | 78 | 96 | 0.76 | 42 |
| Student 5 | 108 | 129 | 0.77 | 59 |
| Student 6 | 103 | 121 | 0.51 | 21 |
| Student 7 | 118 | 135 | 0.25 | 17 |
| Student 8 | 94 | 129 | 1.53 | 23 |
| Student 9 | 99 | 119 | 0.51 | 64 |
| Student 10 | 89 | 114 | 1.28 | 64 |
| Student 11 | 105 | 132 | 1.02 | 39 |
| Student 12 | 99 | 128 | 0.76 | 24 |
| Student 13 | 84 | 145 | 1.02 | 21 |
| Student 14 | 100 | 128 | 0.76 | 17 |
| Student 15 | 80 | 100 | 0.51 | 17 |
| Student 16 | 103 | 119 | 0.51 | 20 |
| Student 17 | 92 | 116 | 1.02 | 22 |
| Student 18 | 138 | 152 | 0.26 | 13 |
| Mean | 100.94 | 127.44 | 0.76 | 31.66 |

## VI. Discussion

It seems from the results obtained above that the basic-level-students with higher speech duration make more pauses. That is, students who speak for more than 30 seconds their speech rate is slightly less speedy than students with fewer pauses except for student 16. By contrast, students whose speech duration bellow 20 seconds make relatively fewer pauses (e.g., S1, S2, S4, S11), and their speech rate is a bit higher than the rest. Generally, students whose speech rate is slow, their articulation rate decreases moderately, whereas students whose speech rate is higher witness some increase in speech articulation (e.g., S2, S4, S11, S16).

As for the developing level, students who talk for 40 seconds make more pauses (S3, S4, S5, S10, S11). Their speech rate is moderately not speedy, but their articulation rate is above the average. However, students who talk less than 20 seconds are confusing in terms of the number of pauses. They are remarkably higher in contrast to the speech duration. This is maybe due to the topic assigned to the two levels under study. That is, the same students (developing level) who contributed to the topic of the basic level students their speech rate was higher with less pauses and higher in articulation rate though they are not documented in the charts above. Moreover, what characterizes the students' speech below 20 seconds is the higher speech rate and the articulation one as well.

We can deduce that the rates scored by the SRM software are not highly consistent as there are many implausible cases. All in all, we may conclude from the obtained rates that whenever a speech duration is higher, students make more pauses, and their articulation rate is moderately less than students whose speech duration is lesser in time whose speech rate is higher somehow and so the articulation rate as the mean rates provide evidence for this analysis.

We may say that the rates scored above are relatively consistent with the research questions. To explain, students welcome first the project of the digitization of the teaching-learning process. Second, learners using *Flipgrid* app find it appealing since they can still feel engaged in the learning process outside the classroom walls. Moreover, students who did not participate in the class started doing so as the strategy of using the app was a stepwise beginning towards more participation and more oral fluency, and this was noted by class observation, too.

## VII. Limitations and Recommendations

There are many limitations to this study which provides some opportunities to conduct more research in the future. There are very few reliable softwares to



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help conduct research, and some of them need a lab to control the whole process. Moreover, the study results in many inconsistencies, which are possibly due to the small sample of students, the criteria for measuring the speaking fluency, or even the validity of the software which still under development. It becomes clearer that speaking duration is an important element in the criteria compared to the other ones. Even the articulation rate of the basic level students is somehow higher than the developing level students which questions the previous studies providing evidence about the fluency of native speakers above non-native speakers. How come that basic level students surpass the developing ones in the articulation rate considering the low-proficiency level of these students? For further investigation of the issue, there should be more research focusing on the speech duration of basic, developing and expanding levels. Learners should be divided into three levels, each level with at least 20 students to be assigned the same topic and the same speech duration with strict surveillance from the teachers' side. Moreover, the criteria for judging speaking fluency should be reconsidered in order to confirm or disconfirm the mastery of the native speakers over the non-native speakers.

## VIII. Conclusion

In summary, along with the history of educational technology, many advocates were hesitant about the impact of the revolutionary modalities on either the learning improvement or the language fluency particularly. However, the speed of change we are living in today imposes more use of educational technology and thinking about the best possible ways to make them compatible with our teaching practices and appealing to students' needs. On the other hand, stakeholders and policy-makers should supply schools with the required materials and softwares to encourage teachers to implement more technological devices into their teaching practices. We cannot be living in the twenty-first century if our classrooms are not digitized. Our students may not find it engaging if their surrounding uses technology whereas their classrooms are low-tech or not tech at all. Educators should undertake more action research if they want to improve their teaching practices and cater to their students' differentiated learning styles, needs, and preferences.

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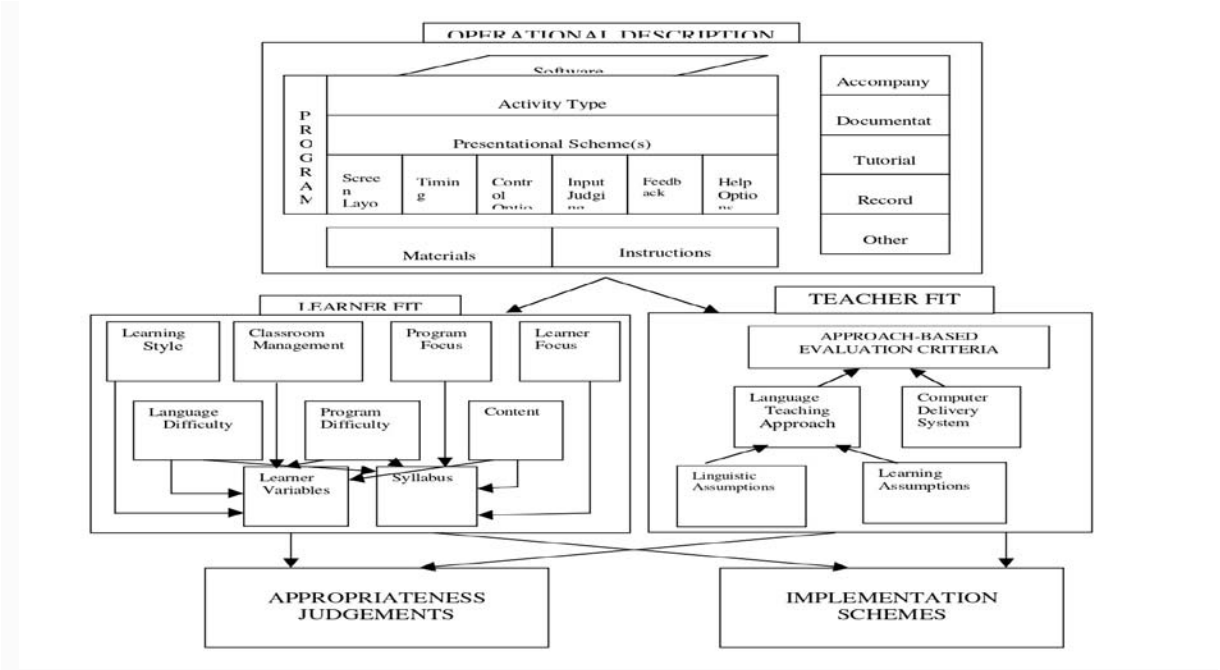
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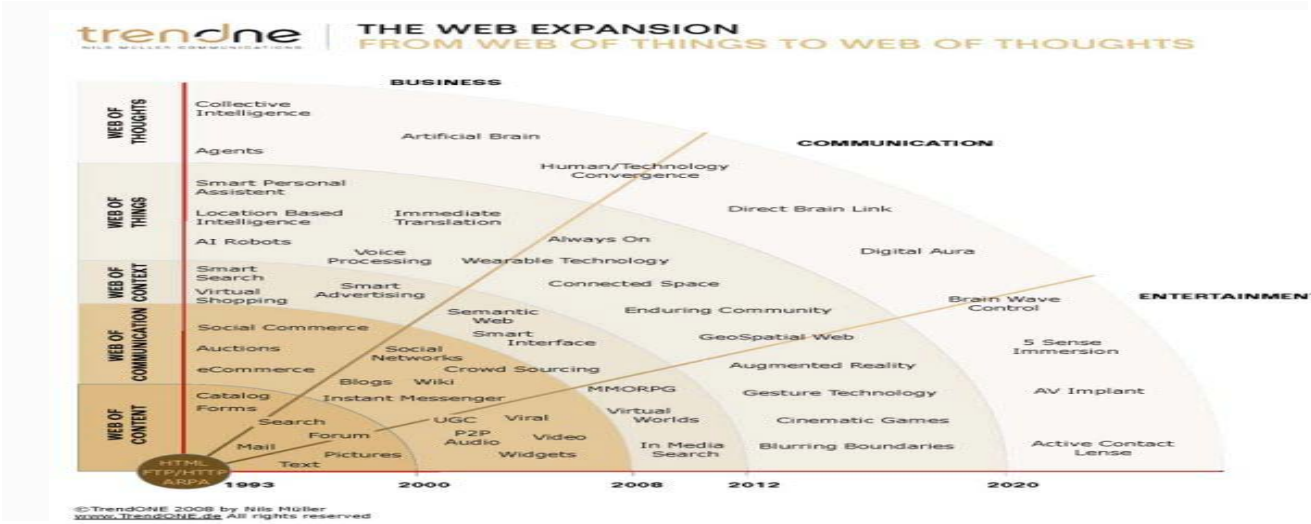
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## Appendix A




## Appendix B






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# The Literary Connection between the Color Purple, by Alice Walker and Push, by Sapphire: African American Literature

By Adriana Claudia Martins

*Abstract-* The aim of the text is to show that two fictional novels, such as The Color Purple, written by Alice Walker and Push, written by Sapphire, present dialogical relations between their narratives and they can project critical reflections based on representations they bring. Methodologically, the analysis is organized from Alice Walker (2003) and Sapphire's (1997) literary manifestations and from the scope of theoretical studies linked to sociocultural and literary criticism. The results confirm that the studied novels express thematic approaches, in addition to making explicit human invisibilities, like exclusions and oppressions. Meaningful literacy and sharing contexts among women were necessary for the protagonists: Celie and Precious, to become fully self-conscious and ultimately self-emancipate.

*Keywords: the color purple; push; violence; literacy; african american literature; denial of educational opportunities.*

*GJHSS-G Classification: FOR Code: 380299*




*Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:*

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## I. Overlapping First Words in the Lives of Writers Alice Walker and Sapphire

African American literature is drawn from a sociocultural and historical group that seeks to denounce and display how oppression resulting from colonial procedures developed; and how they are depicted in social structures until the present. New and unique ways of reflecting and acting are suggested in narratives of Alice Walker and Ramona Lofton, artistically known as Sapphire. The novels *The Color Purple*, written by Alice Walker and *Push,* written by Sapphire contain, apart from social denunciation, the possibility of reading the history of African descended women who lived in the 20th century.

In conversation with Mikhail Bakhtin (2013), based on his work Problems of Dostoevsky's Poetics, it can be inferred that Alice Walker and Sapphire's works can be interwoven with the stories of their lives, or can be exchanged with their experiences. They produce meanings impregnated with "the words of others. They introduce their own expressiveness, their evaluative tone"[1] (BAKHTIN, 2013, p. 314). In her narrative, Walker rescues the history of her African American ancestors; Sapphire uses as a basis, testimonies of her young students who suffered violence, abuse, prejudice, silencing, and familial/social exclusion.

*The Color Purple*, first published in 1982, is configured as epistolary fiction, whose adaptation to the cinema was produced by Steven Spielberg[2]. This is a novel that considers the southern makeup of the United States in the early years of the 20th century. Walker's work is a chronotope of how her ancestors lived in a historical time of oppression of black women. By interweaving other Walker scriptures with *The Color Purple*, it is possible to add what Margaret Homans clarifies in her article entitled "Racial *Composition" Metaphor and the Body in the Writing of Race;* 'Walker mentions her claim to embody the 'ancestors' whose blood runs in her veins'[3] (HOMANS, 1997, p. 85). The basis on which Homans is capable of understanding that Walker overlaps the story of her family to its literary production and thus trajectory values, the culture, and the memory of their ancestors.

The work *Push* may be related to Sapphire's teaching experiences, as the author states in a *YouTube* video[4]*,* that she listened to her students when they told their sad life stories. Sapphire displays elements in her interview that are easily identified in the narrative of *Push*. Although the novel is considered fictional, in another interview conducted by Kelvin Christopher James (Bombmagazine.org) Sapphire states that her literary work was born when she was writing to save memories of her students in Harlem. What the author did not imagine is that her scripture gave voice to oppressed women and transmuted into a winning novel, and an Oscar winning Lee Daniels film produced by Oprah Winfrey.

In this scenario, the objective of this text[5] is to show that two fictional literary works, such as *The Color*

*Author: e-mail: teacheradrianacm@hotmail.com*

[1] All cited translations from the originals and the titles of the books translated, which were in the Portuguese language, are responsivities from the author of this paper.

[2] The film, nominated for 11 Academy Awards, featuring Danny Glover, Whoopi Goldberg, Margaret Avery, Oprah Winfrey, Willard E. Pugh, Akosua Busia, Dana Ivey, and Leonard Jackson.

[3] Walker mentions his claim to incorporate the 'ancestors' whose blood runs in his veins.

[4] https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Hj5gbFecRFw

[5] This text is an offshoot of the thesis *African American Literature: dialogical relations between the novels The Color Purple, by Alice Walker and Push, by Sapphire,* defended at the Department of Letters:



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*Purple* and *Push,* written by African American women, activists, and novelists can project critical reflections from the proposed representations; ultimately showing that there are dialogic relations between these narratives. In order to trace a relationship with the objective, the text brings representations that make explicit the life of the protagonists Celie and Precious, the invisibilities and the possibilities of overcoming trajectories of young women.

Methodologically, the analysis is organized from the narratives of Alice Walker and Sapphire (1997) and from the scope of theoretical studies linked to literary and sociocultural criticism: Davis (2016), Cândido (2011), Santos (2000), Carneiro (2005), Bakhtin (2010a, 2013), Freire (2001) and bell hooks[6] (2017), among others. The present text is organized with this initial approach, followed by a theoretical dialogue with the sociocultural and historical contexts and a theoretical-analytical discussion based on fragments of the literary narratives *The Color Purple* and *Push* that embrace the American contexts at the beginning and end of the twentieth century, respectively, and that display representations of family and social violence.

## II. From Silence to Literacy and Sorority: The *Color Purple* and *Push* Novels

When embarking on the first pages in the narrative of *The Color Purple*, the reader identifies that Celie, the protagonist, lives in a context of violence and injustice. Similarly, in relation to the narrative of *Push*, it is possible to identify that the protagonist Precious also lives immersed in prejudice and oppression. Celie and Precious narrate predominantly in first person and tell their life stories in a complex scenario for black women, specificity of the American context in the twentieth century.

With the analysis performed, silencing, oppressive, violent, prejudiced, excluding, racist social and institutional structures are evidenced, which cause suffering to Celie and Precious. They internalize feelings of inferiority because of the depreciation they face when people from family and society silence and exclude them. Socially structured mechanisms legitimize oppression, generate and control it so that violence is maintained, in different guises; a fact that the history of humanity has recorded with colonization, racial segregation, and the degradation of people. From the literary manifestations *The Color Purple* and *Push* and the issues related to the sociocultural and historical environment of the United States, educational, family, and social exclusion suffered by the protagonists can be identified.

The narrative of *The Color Purple* features the rural American chronotope and is narrated by Celie, for the most part. Through a structure of 92 letters, the reader follows the trajectory, memories, and testimony of the protagonist and her sister, Nettie. Of the total epistles, 56 are Celie's writings to Dear God. Through the course of the narrative, as Celie becomes emancipated, she declares to God, "You must sleep" (WALKER, 2003, p. 178). In this enunciation Celie demonstrates that she has given herself that she is not heard, and she goes on to add other recipients, such as her sister Nettie. Later in the last epistle, the protagonist enunciates: "Dear God. Dear stars, dear trees, dear sky, dear peoples. Dear Everything. Dear God" (WALKER, 2003, p. 291). Walker's work is an epistolary narrative, which draws on approximately 40 years of Celie's life; time that almost in its entirety, the protagonist confides to God her suffering and imagines reuniting with her sister Nettie.

In addition, the epigraph of the novel, it is possible to identify that Celie suffers domestic violence and that she cannot confide in anyone. The protagonist hears from the one she imagined to be her father, but who was her stepfather, Pa, who threatens her: "You better not ever tell nobody but God. It'd kill your mammy" (WALKER, 2003, p. 1). In The *Color Purple* there is the representation of violence, such as rape that resulted in Celie's two pregnancies and the separation between her and her children, carried out by Pa, who took them to the city as soon as they were born. The protagonist relates that she "[...]was in town sitting on the wagon while Mr. __was in the dry good store. I saw my baby girl. I knew it was her. She look just like me and my daddy" (WALKER, 2003, p. 13). In this silencing, Celie declares to God: "Maybe you can give me a sign letting me know what is happining to me" (WALKER, 2003, p. 1). In the epistle number 47, Celie demonstrates her anguish and loneliness experienced in the family: "My mama die [...] My sister Nettie run away. Mr. _____ come git me to take care his rotten children. He never ast me nothing bout myself. He clam on top of me and fuck and fuck, even when my head bandaged. Nobody ever love me [...]" (WALKER, 2003, p. 114).

Celie also suffers in social contexts, when she is excluded from school during her pregnancy. The narrator says: "The first time I got big Pa took me out of school. He never cared that I loved it. Nettie stood there at the gate holding tight to my hand. I was all dressed for first day" (WALKER, 2003, p. 9). In The *Color Purple* narrative, Celie's departure from school is represented in the moment the teacher Miss Beasley comes to Celie's house to find out why she was not at school. Pa determines that only Celie's sister could continue

Literary Studies, at the Federal University of Santa Maria/RS, under the supervision of Dr. Vera Lucia Lenz Vianna.

[6] The author's name is written in lower case because the author identifies herself that way.

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studying, because Nettie would be intelligent. In this scenario, the denial of educational opportunities for the young girl is identified in the epistemicide practiced by Pa.

From the perspective of analysis, one can approximate the representation of *The Color Purple to* the studies of Angela Davis, from the chapter "Education and freedom: the perspective of black women" of her work *Women, race, and class* (2016). Davis records the story of Susie King Taylor, whose writing of self exhibited "her persistent efforts as a self-taught woman during slavery" (DAVIS, 2016, p. 114). According to Davis, Taylor autobiographed that

> [...] many female slaves took the risk of passing on clandestinely acquired academic skills to their sisters and brothers. Even when they were forced to teach in the early morning hours, the women who managed to gain some knowledge tried to share it with their people (DAVIS, 2016, p. 114).

If we immerse Davis's text into the narrative of *The Color Purple*, we can recognize Walker's suggestion of her protagonist Celie's literacy, as it appears through reading letters, books, and reading the world, in addition to her sister Nettie's hidden efforts. Before Nettie was taken away from Celie by Ms___, literacy was the responsibility of the protagonist's sister, who secretly teaches Celie what she knows, encouraging her to reflect and emancipate herself so that she no longer needs to be at the mercy of her oppressive husband.

Walker's literary manifestation provokes reflections about what has been enacted around the world education, which raises apprehensions about the lack of valuable options for all in the social structure. According to Boaventura Santos (2000, p. 329), "after modernity was reduced to capitalist modernity, there preceded the systematic liquidation of alternatives, when they, both epistemologically and practically, are not compatible with hegemonic practices" (SANTOS, 2000, p. 329).

Besides having her possibility of literacy suppressed, in the trajectory of the young protagonist, she is traded by Pa for a cow and begins to live as the wife of Mr___, a widower and father of four children. Celie narrates: "I spend my weeding day running from the oldest boy. He twelve. […]. He pick up a rock and laid my head open. The blood run all down tween my breasts" (WALKER, 2003, p. 12). It is observed that there are no options for the protagonist, as if there is a key point between the oppressors and the protagonist (hooks, 2017). Violence and oppression continue in the life of the protagonist, who does housework and takes care of Mr___'s children. In return she suffers from violence from everyone in the house.

By interweaving the history of the enslaved into the narrative, it is possible to identify that the structure of slavery still spills over into humanity, behaviors, and prejudices. The works The *Color Purple* and *Push* can be literary manifestations that make explicit the violence and its different discriminatory garments throughout the history of humanity.

This violence is also present in the family environment, when analyzing the narrative of *Push*, whose setting is between 1983 and 1989, in Harlem. Precious' mother is exploited by her husband, Carl, Precious' abuser. Mary herself relates: "Carl come in the night, take food, what money they is, fuck us bofe" (SAPPHIRE, 1997, p. 85). The protagonist of *Push*, besides contracting the HIV virus from these rapes, gets pregnant and suffers school exclusion similar to that suffered by Celie. It is identified that the prejudices and oppressions are renewed in the works, which is in line with what Martins Fighera (2021, p. 152) states, the "acceptance of the condition of exclusion, passive attitudes and excluding speeches of teachers and managers have marked school violence". In this vein, one can apprehend that the violence suffered by Precious may have been experienced by her parents, since the black and poor class of American society has been socially oppressed and considered incapable.

In attempting to analyze the novels *The Color Purple* and *Push*, approximations appear in the study. Just as Celie suffers denial of educational opportunities, one day Precious is called out by Mrs. Lichenstein, the principal of the 146 institution, and is expelled from school. Precious's exclusion is linked to her pregnancy, but *Push*'s protagonist also feels excluded when she takes assessment or grading tests because she feels stupid and incapable. For Precious the student, "[...] nuffin' new. There has always been something wrong wif the tesses. The tesses paint a picture of me wif no brain. The tesses paint a picture of me an' my muver - my whole family, we more than dumb [...]" (SAPPHIRE, 1997, p. 30).

It is in the 146 school setting that Precious occupies the lowest class, does not see the picture and it is also not seen, and is thus silenced and excluded. She mentions her sadness at the invisibility that the educational system and the exclusionary tests bring her. These tests and evaluation structures used in schools all over the world are ways to classify human beings; to take away from teachers' autonomy and the possibilities of contextualization and democratization of teaching.

The structure of education, through exclusionary assessments, removes hope and perspective for people like the protagonists of *The Color Purple* and *Push* to be emancipated and build their free trajectories. The denial of educational opportunities in the literary representations of *The Color Purple* and *Push* can be imbricated to what Boaventura de Souza Santos (2000) defines as epistemicide. For this author (2000, p. 329), epistemicide is one of the great "crimes against humanity". Besides the unspeakable suffering and devastation, it has produced in peoples, groups and social practices targeted by it, it has meant an



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irreversible impoverishment of the horizon and possibilities of knowledge. In this context, there is an epistemological model that denies other knowledges and manifests the colonialist purpose of extinguishing and excluding certain knowledges and cultures.

In this vein, Sueli Carneiro (2005), a Brazilian philosopher, studies the occurrence of epistemicide in the Brazilian scenario and describes it as the absence of opportunities for black men and women to build their own knowledge. For the author, the opportunities were denied "by devaluing, denying or hiding the contributions of the African continent and the African Diaspora to the cultural heritage of humanity; by imposing cultural whitening and by producing school failure and dropout" (CARNEIRO, 2005, p. 324).

The literary manifestations of Walker and Sapphire suggest that the American educational environment commits epistemicide, a gear that is connected to the history of the United States, to the racist structure naturalizes, to the human (un) valuation, to education. In this perspective, Angela Davis (2016), in *Women, Race, and Class* states that: "according to the dominant ideology, the black population was supposedly incapable of intellectual progress. After all, these people had been owned, naturally inferior when compared to the white epitome of humanity" (DAVIS, 2016, p. 109). The exclusion of educational opportunities is, in this way, one of the arms of epistemicide, because it prevents human visibility, social emancipation, and recognition of different cultures and people.

Davis (2016) further explains that the enslaved people desired to learn, and even though they were forbidden to learn how to read and write, they sought knowledge, and ventured secretly, since they knew they needed knowledge to free themselves. However, in the face of black men and women's desire and need for knowledge, "slave owners resorted to the torso and whip to restrain the irrepressible desire that slaves had for learning" (DAVIS, 2016, p. 113).

During the narrative of *The Color Purple* there are people who in a sisterly way help Celie in the construction of her emancipation and freedom. In addition to the important interlocution with the wife of her stepson Harpo, her friend Sofia, with whom Celie dialogues and builds resistance and strength to fight, it is Shug Avery, lover of Mr. __, Celie's husband, who encourages the protagonist in her self-discovery, her sexuality as a woman, and her boldness to leave home and confront her husband. Mr. ___ - or Albert - at one point brings Shug into the house, the place where he lives with Celie. Shug is sick and Celie is the one who takes care of her. In the narrative of *The Color Purple*, the letters that the protagonist receives from her sister, albeit belatedly, and the dialogue with other women, allow Celie to become aware of herself and the world.

This movement of awareness and encouragement also occurs in *Push*, when Precious goes to the Alternative school, where each class is taught by a student. This change brings anguish to Precious about what the new class will think of her: "I stays standing at door. I swallow hard, start to, I think I'm gonna cry. I look at Miz Teacher's long dreadlocky hair, look kinda nice but look kinda nasty too. My knees is shaking, I'm scared I'm gonna pee on myself[...]. I don't know how I'm gonna do it, but I am (SAPPHIRE, 1997, p. 39-40).

In the paragraphs that follow in the narrative, she describes her actions, reactions, and emotions in this new setting. It is possible to follow the insecurity and fear she has regarding the new school. She states: "An' my feet stop. At the first row. Na' for the first time in my life I sit down in the front row (which is good'cause I never could see the board from the back)" (SAPPHIRE, 1997, p. 40). Thus, the girl begins to be part of the chronotope of her own life story, where she lives another and distinct process of teaching-learning at the proposition of the teacher Ms. Rain, as noted by the protagonist herself, who says: "time is easy. Fractions, percents, multiplying, dividing is EASY. Why no one ever taught me these things before" (SAPPHIRE, 1997, p. 108).

Ms Rain is the one who introduces a critical methodology in her classes, negotiating knowledge as it is constituted, meant, and valued. In Ms Rain's pedagogical proposal, she explains to Precious that "Every day [...], we gonna read and write in our notebooks. How we gonna write if we can't read? Shit, how we gonna write if we can't write! I don't remember never doing no writing before. My head spinning I'm scared [...]" (SAPPHIRE, 1997, p. 49). Thus, with her journals and the sharing, the protagonist comes to recognize herself in a strengthened identity as she feels included and sees herself in her own story. In class, Precious meets people with similar problems to hers, classmates who slowly gain Precious' trust, and then she sets herself in a constitutive and emancipating movement. Sitting in class with Ms. Rain and her classmates, Precious related:

> Miz Rain calm. Rain, nice name for her. Ack like she don't mind cursing, say. 'It's just a way of breaking the ice, a way of getting to know each other better, by asking nonthreatening questions that allow you to share yourself with a group without having to reveal more of yourself than might be comfortable.' She pause. 'You don't have to do it if you don't want to.'/'I don't want to', beautiful girl say./Everybody looking at me now. In circle I see everybody, everybody see me. I wish for back of the class again for a second, then I think never again, I kill myself first 'fore I let that happen./'My name Precious Jones. I was born in Harlem. My baby gonna be born in Harlem. I like what color - yellow, thas fresh.' N I had a problem at my ol' school so I come here (SAPPHIRE, 1997, p. 46).

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In Bakhtin's (2010a, p. 109) notes, "to become actively aware of oneself means to cast upon oneself the light of the meaning to come, outside of which I do not exist for myself." The protagonist recognizes herself in a circle and admits she no longer wants to stay in the back of the classroom, she includes herself in the group and slowly visualizes herself. There are meanings imbued in the relationship between Precious and the experiences in the study group in class. Precious' pains are slowly shared in front of the understanding and close gaze of her classmates and teacher. In becoming aware of herself and the world, there is a shift that contributes to Precious' positioning herself in a new perspective in relation to her life.

By entering this phase of self-recognition, Celie and Precious listen, share and, finally, are heard by women who contribute to their emancipation. Bakhtin's (2010a, p. 33) explanation collaborates in this sense, by understanding that in the "category of the self, my external image cannot be experienced as a value that encompasses and ends me, it can only be so experienced in the category of the other, and I must place myself under this category in order to see myself as an element of a plastic-pictural and unique external world."

In this direction, the literacy of the world allows the practice of freedom, which, equate to Nettie's attempts to help her sister read and learn about the world and her own story, and related to Ms. Rain's didactic proposal, make explicit the movements of a new consciousness based on engaged and altruistic methodologies. For Freire it is the possibility of the construction of "world-consciousness" (FREIRE, 2001, p. 31). Ms Rain states:

> Dear Ms Precious, You make my day! You don't just don't know how much I love having you in class, how much I love you period. And I am proud of you; the whole school is proud of you. I'm sure you'll be able to find a job when you get your G.E.D. And maybe your social worker could help you get a nice place for you, Little Mongo, and Abdul. I don't know what you mean by your question, "Why me?" Please explain. Ms. Rain 1/9/89 (SAPPHIRE, 1997, p. 89-90).

The construction of the word shared and signified in the praxis makes it possible to raise awareness and endorse courage in the face of the silencing suffered and imposed in patriarchal, sexist, and racist societies. For Ms. Rain, the student is an important person and, thus, the teacher motivates her to fight and become independent from the oppression suffered.

It is identified that the writing and reading of letters and diaries have important outcomes in the analysis, because they are means by which the protagonists Celie and Precious build literacy and encourage themselves in a new identity of being someone respected in family and society. The *corpus of* this study can be considered an example of the complex reality that was the twentieth century in the United States for black women, both in the rural and southern parts of the country, and in the urban areas, because the social complexity and oppression are current in the twenty-first century.

Therefore, literary art can be the space-time for humanity to reflect on social practices and can thus give visibility to unresolved asymmetries in contemporary world context. In this perspective, African American literature, representing themes that submerge from conflicts and tensions that mark global history in different times, becomes a means of disclosure of human social practices, apart from proposing reflection.

## III. Final Approach to Text

In order to show that the literary works, *The Color Purple* and *Push*, present dialogic relations between their narratives and can project critical reflections from the representations of violence, silencing, exclusion and oppression. The *Color Purple* and *Push* present similar themes in their narratives: violence that happens in the family and in social institutions. If we observe the trajectories of the protagonists, Celie and Precious, both are African American and have their lives narrated from conflicting and prejudiced contexts of the twentieth century, as they seek to fight against the oppression suffered.

The oppression identified in the study of representations in *Color Purple* and *Push* can be connected to the history of the European invasion of America and, consequently, to the inferiorization that human and racial segregation generated. According to Martins Fighera's (2021, p. 151) studies, through "language, discourses, laws, systems of government and education, violence is articulated and realized in a visible or invisible process, architected to actualize itself in social relations."

The results indicate that the novels studied show human invisibilities and exclusions, such as epistemicide, as it permeates the oppressive structure. Significant contexts of sharing with other women were necessary for the protagonists, Celie and Precious, to become aware of themselves and, thus, to enter an emancipating and liberating movement, which is interconnected to the condition of the literacies constructed.

It is worth problematizing and highlighting, in this perspective, the importance of the presence of literary reading in school and university institutions of works by black writers. The results indicate that literature is a possibility to become aware of the social tensions and distortions that cause prejudice. Literary art "confirms and denies, proposes and denounces, supports and combats, providing the possibility of living dialectically the problems" (CÂNDIDO, 2011, p. 175). In view of this experience of analysis, it is opportune to demarcate.



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It is believed that debating and exposing the culture and social practices of humanity, democratically pointing out their successes and deviations, whether through literature or other historical and cultural sources, is one of the possible ways for tolerance in the face of diversity to be better undertaken. Therefore, literary art is an indispensable spokesperson when it comes to vulnerabilities, as those presented in *The Color Purple* and *Push*, in order to propose critical and reflective discussion so that humanity gets to know the victims of exclusion from family and social spaces and educational systems that are prejudiced, violent, and oppressive.

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# Challenging Sexism and Gender Inequality in the Kenyan Electronic Media

By Dr. Boke Wambura
*Tom Mboya University College*

*Abstract-* This paper examines sexism and gender representations in the Kenyan electronic media. It focuses on how gender inequalities and social stereotypes are challenged in a media context by critically analysing the linguistic choices used in Kenyan popular radio programmes to describe women and men. Anchored on critical discourse analysis, the paper analyses linguistic choices from Classic 105 Morning Show hosted by Maina Kageni and Daniel Ndambuki (Mwalimu King'ang'i). Focus is on metaphors, adjectives and nominals that have been purposively selected and which are used to describe men and women in different ways. These are critically scrutinized using Fairclough's (2010) Textually Oriented Discourse Analysis procedure, together with Sunderland's (2004) Gendered Discourse approach; these are key in revealing how language is used to break ideological assumptions which have been taken to be commonsensical; expected and even good, and which contribute to changing existing unequal power relations. The argument foregrounded in this paper is that relentless sexism, particularly in its subtle form, drives people- women- away from being ambitious and achieving their potential in business, politics and other social spheres hence it needs to be uncovered, discussed and challenged - this has been achieved.

*Keywords:* *sexism, gender, critical discourse analysis, classic 105.*

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# Challenging Sexism and Gender Inequality in the Kenyan Electronic Media

Dr. Boke Wambura

*Abstract-* This paper examines sexism and gender representations in the Kenyan electronic media. It focuses on how gender inequalities and social stereotypes are challenged in a media context by critically analysing the linguistic choices used in Kenyan popular radio programmes to describe women and men. Anchored on critical discourse analysis, the paper analyses linguistic choices from Classic 105 Morning Show hosted by Maina Kageni and Daniel Ndambuki (Mwalimu King'ang'i). Focus is on metaphors, adjectives and nominals that have been purposively selected and which are used to describe men and women in different ways. These are critically scrutinized using Fairclough's (2010) Textually Oriented Discourse Analysis procedure, together with Sunderland's (2004) Gendered Discourse approach; these are key in revealing how language is used to break ideological assumptions which have been taken to be commonsensical; expected and even good, and which contribute to changing existing unequal power relations. The argument foregrounded in this paper is that relentless sexism, particularly in its subtle form, drives people- women- away from being ambitious and achieving their potential in business, politics and other social spheres hence it needs to be uncovered, discussed and challenged - this has been achieved. As a representative of the Kenyan media, the hosts and call-in participants of the Classic 105 Breakfast Show reveal alternative opposing discourses which shape and are shaped by the existing wider sociocultural Kenyan context where changes in gender roles and positions seem to be taking place.

*Keywords: sexism, gender, critical discourse analysis, classic 105.*

## I. Introduction

Men and women in the 21st century continue to experience a juxtaposed ideological representation on matters masculinity and femininity. Language, particularly Discourse Analysis, provides a means of analyzing these discourses and how they are perpetuated. One field where sexist discourses are perpetuated in Kenya is the electronic media, more so the Radio. Being a vibrant forum for exercising gender and power struggles, Radio offers a ground where gender inequalities are portrayed and broadcast. Daily conversations, call in sessions and topical discussions provide a rich source of sexist discourses.

Since 1980s, when there was only one radio station, Voice of Kenya, to date, when there are 158 radio stations in Kenya, Radio industry has generated a fair amount of scholarly attention, with research focusing on the harmful depictions of gender that portray men and women as different and men being better than women. The potential effects of such portrayal on the audience is that when repeatedly presented, such discourses tend to be accepted as the norm and transferred from one context to the other leading to repeated proliferation of stereotypical gender differences, with regard to gender roles and expectations.

Given the rise of FM stations in the last 15 years, sexist discourses have been advanced with the focus being on the expected masculine/ feminine body, roles and behaviours. Previously, women were portrayed as thin/slim, home makers and nurturers, while men were portrayed as strong full of muscles, providers and protectors. The image of strong man verses beautiful women has for long existed in discourse analysis (Wen, 2003). There is clear evidence that most radio stations air gendered topics and expect callers to participate in these discussions. And listeners, in their safety of anonymity express the opinion and feeling without fear of judgement. Using one popular radio station (Classic 105 FM), an analysis of lexical items and metaphors that challenge sexism and binary hierarchical representations of men and women is carried out.

Radio Call in Sessions conventionally construct and reproduce asymmetrical gendered relations in both domestic and social spheres. They therefore provide a forum through which gendered ideals can be scrutinised. I analyse them for linguistic features and discourses (viewed as language reflecting and shaping sociocultural norms and practices). Another reason is that radio conversations would be easily available during morning call in sessions, appropriate in answering my questions and analysable using my CDA methodologies. They constitute sexism related vocabulary, are rich in sociocultural aspects and are empirically original since they have not been researched before.

## II. Sexist Language

Sexist language is one that reinforces and perpetuates gender stereotypes and status differences between men and women (Swim et al 2004). Sexist language condones unequal treatment of women and men (but mostly women). This can occur overtly, covertly or in subtle forms. Subtle sexism is a form of sexism that is hidden but exhibits unequal and unfair

*Author: Tom Mboya University College, Kenya.*
*e-mail: joyce.boke@gmail.com*



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treatment of women (and men). It is not recognized by many people because it is perceived to be customary, normal and harmless, it does not appear unusual. Subtle sexist language is difficult to change because people don't believe that such a language exists or that it is problematic because people are used to it. In most instances, subtle sexism goes unnoticed. This form of sexism is different from overt sexism which is readily apparent, visible and observable. It is also slightly different from covert sexism which is defined as the hidden and clandestine unequal and harmful treatment of women (Swim and Cohen 1997). This paper focuses on sexism generally on the basis that it is difficult to recognize and consequently difficult to critique in social contexts because it is accepted. This makes its effects to be lethal. Individuals may not notice when they are being sexist until their perpetuation becomes common knowledge and unquestionable. Perpetrators may not realize that their behaviors contribute to unequal and harmful portrayal and treatment of women.

## III. Discourse and Gender Representation

While earlier research (see Lakoff 1975) revolved mainly around how language is used by women and men differently, more recent approaches are concerned with how women and men create identity in and through discourse (Wodak 1997; Sunderland & Litosseliti 2002) and how gender identities are constructed in texts. Research questions have changed in recent years from how men and women speak to the kinds of linguistic resources men and women employ to present themselves and others as certain kinds of people, and the kinds of linguistic practices that support particular gender ideologies and norms, or challenge them (Cameron 1998; Litosseliti & Sunderland 2002; Sunderland 2004).

Recent studies on language and gender (see Atanga 2013; Ellece 2011) have shifted focus from differences between men's and women's use of language, that is, from *who* and *how*, to *what* is talked about (which includes gender) and *how*, rather than by *whom* thus de-emphasising gendered speakers and writers as agents and focusing on what is said/written to and especially about women, men, boys and girls (Sunderland & Litosseliti 2008). Weatherall (2002) explains that research has moved from language to discourse by considering how language in use reflects and perpetuates or challenges gender stereotypes. While earlier gender and language work documented how individual words could be considered sexist, current works examine how texts are used to challenge sexist positions. Research (see for example Kosetzi 2012) that focuses on constructions of gender and which inform this paper include those that have questioned constructions and representations of men as logical, intelligent, responsible and challenge portrayals of women as inferior, stupid, unreliable, irresponsible, emotional, less rational and vulnerable.

The terms, construction and representation, cannot be exhaustively discussed without mentioning Butler's (1990) gender performativity concept. Butler argues that gender is a performance and people normally perform their gender thus constructing their identities. In Kenya for instance, women perform duties (such as cooking, washing pots) which are perceived to be feminine, in this way they are performing their gender and with time these chores tend to be associated with femininity and any male performing them is labelled as weak. Individuals also perform their gender in speech, for instance, through supporting arguments that contain messages of gender roles and responsibilities. However, this paper will not focus on gender performativity but on representation and construction, that is, how gender is represented and constructed in the media. I view representation as showing the attributes without necessarily stating what one is or what they are perceived to be and construction when direct description is given or a speaker presents what is perceived to be the norm, the expected, the anticipated. Both cases of representation and construction are evident in the data.

Gendered discourses are 'discourses that say something about women and men, girls and boys and about their gendered actions, behaviours, positions, choices, relations and identities. More specifically, gendered discourses are discourses that represent and (re)constitute, maintain and contest gendered social practice' (Litosseliti 2006:58). For instance, the gender difference discourse that represents men as aggressive and active and women as inactive in certain aspects is said to be gendered. A discourse is gendered if it suggests or states that men or women do things or behave in certain ways because they are men/women or because they are expected to behave so since they are men/women. Actual behaviour may or may not correspond to those representations and expectations (Wetherell et al 2002).

Gendered discourses are articulated by both men and women in different ways and different situations. They position men and women in certain ways and people take up (or challenge) such positions that constitute gender more widely. Discourses can therefore be gendered as well as gendering (Sunderland 2004). Common gendered discourses include: discourses of parenthood, femininity, heterosexuality, feminism, female emotionality and crises of masculinity.

## IV. Challenging Gendered Discourses

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In order for an analyst to argue that a discourse is gendered, they must provide evidence from the language used by identifying the linguistic items used or linguistic cues/traces that are in a text. Linguistic realisations of discourses are called traces of discourse and are listed by Fairclough (2015) as lexical items, modality, agency, process types and how social agents are represented. I will identify and analyse some of these linguistic traces of gendered discourses in my data. It is worth noting that discourses exist in relation to other discourses (Litosseliti 2006), they co-exist in contradicting and conflicting relationships (Jorgensen & Phillips 2002) and some discourses are dominant while others are marginal in different texts and contexts.

## V. Theoretical and Analytical Framework

### a) *Fairclough's Textually Oriented Discourse Analysis*

Textually-oriented discourse analysis is a linguistically based approach that focuses on any sort of discourse, both written and spoken – conversation, classroom discourse, media discourse and so on (Fairclough 1992). Fairclough (2003) proposes a critical discourse analysis that focuses on a problem, identifies the obstacles in the efforts to solve the problem; considers whether the social order needs the problem; identifies ways past the obstacle and reflects critically in the analysis. CDA has been selected because of its explicit concern with social issues and problems (Fairclough 2001). The social problem in this paper is sexism and gender inequality.

Fairclough advocates for an analysis of actual conversations, interviews, written texts, media programs and other forms of semiotic activity. His three-tier analysis model states that the first step involves close examination of linguistic features (vocabulary, grammar and textual features). He lists a comprehensive list of textual features to focus on and suggests that analysts do not have to examine all of them but can analyse a limited number relevant to their text, context and purpose of the research. The following is a list of guiding questions during textually oriented discourse analysis.

A. *Vocabulary*

1. What experiential values do words have?
   - Are there words that are ideologically contested?
   - Is there *rewording* and *over wording*?
   - What ideologically significant meaning relations are there between words?
2. What relational values do words have?
   - Are there euphemistic expressions?
   - Are there markedly formal or informal words?
3. What metaphors are used?

*(Fairclough 2015:129-130)*



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From Fairclough's framework and list of guiding questions, an analysis guideline, is developed as summarised in the table below.

*Table 1:* Framework for Textually Oriented Discourses Analysis

| Linguistic Features | Experiential Values | Relational Values | Expressive Values |
|---|---|---|---|
| *Textual analysis*<br><br>Lexical items | How is reference allocated?<br><br>What is the classification scheme of word categories?<br>Are there rewordings?<br>Are there absent lexical items?<br>Are there meaning relations between words?<br>What knowledges and beliefs are re(produced)/confirmed? | What relational values do words have?<br>What social relations are produced/affirmed/ challenged? | What expressive values do words have?<br>What social identities are constructed |
| Metaphors | Which metaphors are used?<br>How are they allocated to the social actors? | What social relations are reinforced/legitimised? | What social identities are constructed? |
| *Discourse analysis* | How does the data borrow from other texts?<br>Which discourses are dominant?<br>Which minor discourses shore up dominant discourses? | | |
| *Social analysis* | What gender relations common in Kenya are rearticulated in the data?<br>What power relations are evident in the data?<br>What is the effect of the textual features on the power and gender relations?<br>What is the effect on the perpetuation of subtle sexism?<br>How is discourse determined by social structures (and practices) and what effects does it have on those structures (does it contribute to their sustenance or change/challenge them?) | | |

These guideline questions were employed in the analysis of the data as stated earlier, my focus is at three levels of analysis: description, interpretation and explanation. In the description stage, I identify lexical items and metaphors in the data. In the interpretation stage, I explore intertextuality how data from the conversation draws from other outside texts in the Kenyan context, and interdiscursivity I look at how some discourses shore up others. In the explanation stage, I examine the effect of the linguistic representations on social and power relations in Kenya and on the perpetuation (or not) of sexism and gender inequalities.

*b) Sunderland's Gendered Discourses: Identifying and Naming Discourses*

The process of discourse identification is always interpretive because there is no finite set of discourses. Sunderland (2004:28) argues that discourses are not always recognised easily; they 'are not simply out there waiting to be spotted' but are 'in flux' (see also Litosseliti 2006). There is, therefore, no discourse that self-evidences itself as a discrete chunk of a given text in its entirety. Instead, as (Baker 2008:95) argues, 'what is there are linguistic features: 'marks on the page', words spoken or even people's memories of previous conversations […] which - if sufficient and coherent may suggest that they are 'traces' of a particular discourse'.

There are no specific traces for certain discourses; the same linguistic features can be identified and interpreted as cues and traces of different discourses by different analysts. There are also no definite criteria for deciding that a linguistic feature is a trace of a certain discourse either. We can however, 'detect a discursive structure because of the systematicity of ideas, opinions, concepts, ways of thinking and behaving which are formed within a particular context and because of the effects of those ways of behaving' (Mills 2004:15). This systematicity of ideas can be manifested through repetition of words or phrases (Atanga 2010) which show that meanings are not 'merely personal and idiosyncratic but widely shared in a discourse community' (Stubbs 2001:215). Repeated patterns tend to acquire a common sense, taken-for-granted status and with time they are no longer questioned but become part of a people's vocabulary and hegemonic discourse. To be powerful, therefore, discourses must have the characteristic of repetition (Baker 2008) although single instances (and absences) are also considered. An analyst does not only consider repetition but also the articulation of a discourse by a powerful speaker and how accessible the discourse is to a large number of people.

Identification requires co-construction by the language user of the text and elements of its production. Sunderland (2004) posits that some discourses can be pervasive, widely recognisable and therefore dominant while others will be marginal, supporting or shoring up the dominant discourses. To verify the presence of a



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particular gendered discourse in a text, the analyst should provide evidence that suggests the presence and workings of that particular discourse. Linguistic traces can be identified by applying the categories given by Fairclough (2015) such as vocabulary as well as intertextual features.

Fairclough and Sunderland's approaches are therefore interdependent in the sense that while Sunderland's is used to identify discourses, Fairclough's provides the categories of the linguistic traces of the discourses. Text analysis is the main way of justifying an interpretation. To be sure that discourses have been correctly identified, an analyst should check that the identified discourses are recognised by others within and outside the same field, as suggested by both Fairclough (1992) and Sunderland (2004), because discourses can only exist if they are socially acceptable to some people, and provisionally recognisable (Jaworski & Coupland 1999).

Linked to discourse identification is the naming of discourses. The analyst may often name discourses according to which particular stand point they come from. Although Chouliaraki & Fairclough (1999) argue that the label used is not that important as long as a discourse is recognisable, Fairclough (2003) warns that the lack of a 'closed-list of discourses' does not mean that every single representation of the world should be named as a separate discourse. The analyst can use existing names that are familiar and instantly recognisable to others, or can come up with their own, however they must then give evidence to justify why a discourse has been identified and named as discourse of X or X discourse. Naming can be based on the discourses' functions (e.g. damaging, liberating, resistant, subversive, conservative discourses) or their relation to other discourses (e.g. challenging, contradicting, competing, dominant, alternative et cetera (Baker 2008)). Both identification and naming of discourses are interpretive acts.

Although there are many discourses, this work focuses on discourses that that challenge gendered ones because any human experience can be gendered (meaning that there is something in them that has to do with gender) and consequently can be challenged. Gender discourses exist in relation to other discourses (Litosseliti 2006), for instance to patriarchal discourses, conservative discourses and egalitarian discourses, in different ways. The term 'gender discourse' is different from (yet related to) 'gendered discourse' used in this paper. The former referring to general discourses about gender while the latter being used to specifically mean those discourses about gender which are destructive and discriminative against women (and men sometimes).

Once a discourse has been identified and named, it is important to look at its social significance, to find out how it positions social actors, in this case, women and men. This is because any discourse is not just a concept but also a social and constitutive process. From a gender perspective, particular discourses construct women and men in gendered ways, and such gendered subject positions are taken up as the norm and go unchallenged. Gendered discourses have been found to put both women and men in unfavourable subject positions, though Sunderland (2004) argues that it is women who tend to be constructed in more conservative ways; such discourses are referred to as damaging discourses. Examples of damaging discourses are traditional discourses which have been circulating in more or less the same form and have become naturalised in a particular community, for instance, those that present women's subordinate position to men as natural and normal. The 'woman as object discourse' and 'gender difference discourse' are other damaging discourses, because, through them, the society legitimates gender-based hierarchies by normalising unequal gender relations and positions. Of focus in this paper are those discourses that are challenged. A challenge to a discourse occurs when the specific discourse has been criticised without being explicitly substituted by another one (Kosetzi 2012).

*c) Data*

Data for this paper constituted 20 words selected purposively from a corpus of 100 words collected from many sessions of tuning into Classic 105 FM morning drive hosted by Maina and King'ang'i (Maina Kageni and Daniel Ndambuki). The researcher tuned in from 8am to 9am on weekdays when the hosts engaged listeners in discussing various topics ranging from: relationships, crime, corruption, family, marriage, education among others. The researcher focused on the lexical items and metaphors relating to sexism, gender and unequal representation of men and women. Data collection took place between June 2017 and June 2020 with breaks from time to time. Maina and King'ang'i host the call-in session where the audience is given an opportunity to call in and opine on the topic of the day. Classic 105 FM morning drive is a major site for exploration of sexism and gender discourses.

*d) Procedures*

On every session, the researcher had a pen and paper where she took statistics of gender related lexical items; words that described men and women in binary hierarchical ways and paid attention to those instances where they were from men or women. She also focused on metaphors and proverbs that were deemed to be gendered. Once satisfied that the data was enough, a list was made with distinctive columns based on gender and frequencies. The researcher then analysed the 20 words which were perceived to be appropriate to answer the questions posed using CDA procedures. See Table I for a list of the analysed words.



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*Table I:* List of Analysed Words

| | Lexical Items and Metaphors Referring to Men | Lexical Items and Metaphors Referring to Women |
|---|---|---|
| 1. | Simba (lion) | Slayer |
| 2. | Woman eater | Slay queen |
| 3. | Eater | Poor Cook |
| 4. | Hit and run | Monster |
| 5. | Kupe (pest) | Silent murderer |
| 6. | Rider | Difficult |
| 7. | Absentee | Not a Slave |
| 8. | Empty pocket man | Failures (married women) |
| 9. | Stingy | Stingy |
| 10. | Hyena | Madam boss |
| 11. | Boxer | Msupa (beautiful) |
| 12. | John walker | Wanderer |

## VI. Discussion

### a) *Proper Woman*

The *proper woman* discourse is a conservative discourse which supports the subservient position of women. It sets the ground for asymmetrical arrangements whereby women are assigned specific gender roles, responsibilities and expectations to fulfil for them to fit in the proper Kenyan woman category. From the discussions in the Call-in-Sessions, a proper woman is one who performs her ascribed feminine duties in her homestead once married. Such duties include washing pots, cooking, serving and minding about others affairs. However, the discussers (mostly men callers) argue that Kenyan women are no longer proper women, they are not wife material, they are 'slayers' and 'slay queens' whose only concern is on whether they have appeared beautiful enough to attract the next man, whom they slay and dump. Callers argue that Kenyan women have transgressed from their conventional feminine roles and are now 'wanting to be men'.

Shoring this discourse are others such as '*woman as independent*' '*woman as breaking the ceiling*' among others which describe women duties as no longer confined to the kitchen. Ability to go out and seek for employment has ensured that women no longer stay at home to wait for their husbands to provide. Traces of this discourses include the lexical items and metaphors identified and discussed in Table I such as slay queen, independent, madam boss among others.

Through the '*boss*' metaphor, a Kenyan woman is constructed as strong and in control. She is fearless and resistant to intimidation; she calls the shots. She is not shaken or pained even when she has been left by her lover, like an employer she 'sacks' her lovers and 'employs' others in a twinkle of an eye. She does not cry when her relationship is broken because doing this would be interpreted as weakness and disqualify her from being the boss, a position that she has created for herself. She quickly accepts that the relationship is over and 'moves on'.

The discussers argue that crying or showing signs of fear are considered as weakness and feminine and the Kenyan woman no longer wants to be perceived as weak. Crying and other emotions are associated with cowardice and are described as women attributes which symbolise weakness. By not crying, when abandoned the Kenyan woman is elevating herself to the status of 'maleness' because men are not allowed to cry or show fear. Therefore, by not showing weak emotions such as crying, the status of a woman is raised towards that of a man.

A proper Kenyan woman is also constructed as *non-domestic*. This is in contrast with what Sunderland (2004) and Atanga (2012) have identified and named as *woman as domestic* discourse. This woman as non-domestic discourse is manifested in linguistic features used in the data. Women are constructed as staying away from conventional titles such as mothers, wives, carers, family cooks, and family servers. Women are no longer the primary domestic servers whose key role is housework. They are active outside their homes, and employ home managers to assume their domestic duties. Main traces of this discourse are lexical items such as poor cook, not a slave, madam boss among others.

### b) *'Woman as poor cook*

This discourse is prominent in the discussions. The Kenyan woman is described as being unable to peel onions or chop tomatoes due to her long nails. Instead, she asks 'mama *mboga*' to chop all the ingredients and mix them such that her only duty is to place the mixture in a cooking pot and boil. The end result as described by one man is 'a horrendous *mkorogo*' that no man in his senses can tolerate. Apart from being unable to cook, a Kenya woman is described as being unable to wash. 'They would rather buy a new bed sheet than wash a dirty one,' says one man in one of the discussions on who should do domestic chores.



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In the data, Kenyan women are described as improper. Through the word murderer which is used both directly and metaphorically (to mean women have ability to kill the wallet) and monster which has been used to describe women as aggressive and dangerously destructive. One caller, a male had this to say, *'Kenyan women have become worse than the devil, they eat even their own children. Maina, let me tell you, I know of a lady who has aborted five times, this one if you marry she will kill you live live'.*

In the African and Kenyan context giving birth has conventionally been taken to be a form of 'taking root' in a husband's home. When a woman has given birth, she has established herself in her matrimonial home. Her husband will have no reason to send her away, since she is reproductive. The woman is also expected to give birth quickly to many children, one after another. In the Kenyan society, as is the case in many African societies, a woman who gives birth as quickly as possible earns respect among her peers and honour in the society at large. However, this conventional position is challenged in the discussion where having many children is viewed as a form of slavery for the modern woman. Women are now avoiding giving birth to more than one or two children because, '…we don't have time to care for many and you cannot get a house manager easily if you have more than two children Maina. Many children mean slavery; you will never go out to do anything.' Giving birth comes with caring responsibilities that are shouldered mostly by the woman. Child care is discursively constructed as a natural responsibility of women only (Atanga 2010). But this duty has largely been delegated to baby sitters, meaning that not even child birth will keep women in domestic spheres.

A proper Kenyan woman is also constructed as brazen, confident and unafraid. Traits which make her appear resilient and independent. This challenges the 'woman as timid discourse', a discourse that positions women as lesser objects that need protection and assurance (from men). Woman as brazen, confident and unafraid discourse is mainly advanced through the lexical item 'boss' which is found in the data where the woman is described as 'boss lady' or 'madam boss'.

This description positions women as secure and in no need of protection and validation from men. It depicts the Kenyan woman as an increasingly confident and power-wielding being who is not subject to control by others (especially not by men). It is an example of reaffirmation of the modern woman's position in the society as having defeated asymmetrical gendered conventions, especially where men have always been constructed as spending time outside the house and the compound, women now spend more time outside the kitchen: in the office, in businesses in salons and women group meetings.

The phrase, *not wife material,* is a trace of the discourse that challenges the 'woman as wife discourse' that has been identified by most gender scholars. As a wife, a Kenyan woman has her roles and expectations predetermined. She is expected to bear her husband children, look after them, fetch water and firewood, cook, sweep the compound and cultivate fields. Women who do not fulfil these roles are ridiculed and they suffer socially and psychologically. However, in the current study, the 'woman as wife' discourse is challenged through the word *wanderer* where a Kenyan woman is constructed as unable, or unwilling, to do house chores because she is always away/ out searching and looking for the next man to maul. Through linguistic items women are depicted as failing to perform the expected duties that a married woman is to do for her matrimonial family by virtue of the fact that she is married there. She is not expected to wake up before everyone else in the morning, to greet her husband and his relatives and prepare breakfast for the household, she can have a lie-in and have her breakfast in bed.

Proper womanhood is no longer attached to being someone's wife, neither is marriage a necessary step to a woman's happiness. In this way, marriage and becoming someone's wife have been described as unnecessary by discussers, it is not something a Kenyan woman perceives to be natural; 'I cannot die for marriage, if it comes, fine, if it doesn't, life must go on', says one of the female callers.

*c) Men don't commit*

From the discussions, this discourse was prevalent. It was discovered that men do not want to commit to marital relationships. Through the lexical items *hit and run*, *eater* and *woman eater.* The discourse was found to be prevalent. The argument put forth is that the modern Kenyan man does not want to be tied down with responsibility, he wasn't to be independent, and marriage is perceived to be a way of taming men. They are therefore unwilling to commit to anything more than sex and would put any effort to bar commitment to relationships and marriage (see a similar finding in Kosetzi 2012). The Kenyan man therefore meets a girl/lady has sex with her and 'disappears into this air, you think he enjoyed it and the two of you had a good time, but when you call him in the morning, Maina, you find that you have already been blocked', says a female caller. On their part men agree that they fear commitment because they don't see 'wife material' in Kenyan women. Through the cues/traces of slayer and slay queen one man says 'these are not women you can take home to your people as a wife, they cannot cook or wash, what they do better is keep long nails and apply make-up; we can only use them for sexual satisfaction and move on'.

This discourse is supported by a 2009 research which indicated that 60% of men run from a relationship when the partner attempts in a cunning way to make them commit/marry.



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*d) Contradicting Discourses/Discourses Challenging Traditional Discourses*

Sunderland (2004) describes contradicting discourses as those that challenge traditional ideologies. They criticise conservative discourses, challenge patriarchal values and are progressive in nature; they show a change or subversion from the norm. While studying Chola gang-girls, Mendoza-Denton (1996) found that the girls used make up to exert a form of power and reject sexualised femininity. The eyeliner, lipstick and hair styles worn by the members of the gangs portrayed them as hard, tougher and more masculine. The girls use makeup not to entice men nor for men's admiration (male gaze) as seen in Kosetzi & Polyzou (2009) and Atanga (2012) studies but to establish themselves as powerful, intimdidating and ready to fight. This challenge the traditional 'makeup-as-a-form-of- beauty discourse' which has always portrayed made up women as beautiful and soft (objects of gaze), as is the case in Kosetzi's (2007) work. Challenges to traditional discourses in the circumcision data occur when, for instance, subjects are presented in a manner which would, in normal circumstances, be interpreted as going against the norm. Men are often stereotypically represented as strong and powerful whereas women are always weak and powerless. However, there are instances in the data where this is the opposite.

*e) Men have no Backbone*

This discourse is anchored on the argument that the modern Kenyan man is not afraid to live off a woman's sweat. It contradicts the age old belief that men are providers thus challenging the 'men as providers and men as protectors' discourses (see Wambura 2018). Through the cues/traces such as *kupe, stingy, rider* and *dependent.* Most female callers, and some men too, construct the Kenyan man as one who has lost his ego. He is not embarrassed to sit in the house and flip through the TV channels as his woman goes to work or business

Other traces of contradicting discourses in the data include the metaphorical use of the *wanderer, silent murderer* and *slayer* while referring to women. These traces are associated with freedom, and 'murderer' relates to destruction which is not a feminine trait. Destruction is associated with masculinity and it is men who show destructive attributes through traces such as *strong*, *macho* among others. However, when these metaphors are used for women, there are objectives to be achieved. The reference of *wanderer*, *murderer* and *slayer* to women shows that the modern Kenyan woman is evolving into a form of '*manness*' and can now possess a form of power that only lies with men hence challenging the *timid*, *naïve* and *subordinate* attributes initially associated with women.

As stated earlier, it presumed that it is the sole responsibility of a man to provide for his family. African and Kenyan men go out to bring home what the family needs and women stay at home to prepare, cook and serve what has been brought. However, in the data women have been constructed as doing more chores and duties than their husbands on average. They have also been constructed as providers of material needs with men being lazy and just depending on them. With the traces such as *'kupe' (pest) dependent, empty pocket*. I view this as a contradictory discourse as it presents a deviation from the norm. Satia (2014) found a similar situation while studying letters of inmates in Kenyan prisons. In his case women constructed themselves as breadwinners. They shouldered the responsibility of providing for their families and parents while their brothers remained unconcerned.

Traces of this discourse in the data include instances where women are constructed as working harder than men hence enacting the 'woman as hard worker' discourse which challenges the 'women as dependent' discourse. Here, women are portrayed as the main source of labour in their matrimonial homes, as seen in the description of what a woman does daily.

*f) Woman as Wanderer*

This discourse challenges the dominant discourse of women confinement within the walls of the house. Apart from being hard-workers, women are also constructed as uncaged. The main trace of this discourse lies in the '*wanderer*' lexical item whereby discussers state that women do a lot of things in the day ranging from dropping kids off to school, going to work, shopping, picking kids up, cooking and performing wife and mother-related chores, they are always on the move trying to get what the family will eat while most men go to waste time and drink in bars, 'men have turned to john walker literally, they frequent bars after work every day only to go home in the evening drunk and asking for their food'. They have left all the responsibilities to women in and out of the home.

## VII. Summary

The first objective was to find out 'which lexical items and metaphors are employed in the Classic 105FM morning drive. I categorised lexical items and metaphors identified in the data into two categories: those that referred to men, and those referring to women. Categorisation aimed at giving a broader picture of how the two groups that form a binary hierarchical gender structure in the Kenyan community, were being portrayed and what the perception was about their position in relation to each other and to the society in general.

The results showed that men's position is no longer higher; they are not dominant. They are

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represented as being inactive and dependent, they are always away from home drinking and not performing their manly duties. They are no longer involved in activities that require action, strength and courage; they have left these to their women. Women on the other hand are no longer subordinated; they are represented as being active both in and outside the domestic spheres. This aspect of the findings, I argue, challenges the broader picture of existing gender relations and positioning in most societies. Men are no longer active in doing things and women are no longer waiting for things to be done to them or done for them. Women are out to compete and beat men in activities that were initially male-oriented. They are the executors and they direct actions while men wait for food on the table. This has been achieved through the analysis of linguistic traces (micro level), the gendered discourses (meso level) and the existing social structures in Kenya (macro level).

Again, women are constructed as being no longer interested in cooking, serving, bearing children and minding about the interests of others (they are not other-centred). They are not confined to chores within domestic spheres. These findings are a critique to previous studies on representation of gender (see Kosetzi 2007; 2008; Wambura 2018) where women have been constructed as dependent on men and as domestic (Atanga 2010; Ellece 2012). The non-binary representations in the data shows that a Kenyan woman no longer stays at home so that when her husband comes back he finds she has cooked his food. In fact, women now demand for an equal share in doing house chores. They are no longer naïve nor do they bow to pressure or accept to be hit/caned as a form of love. Women are no longer concerned about what their husbands would eat neither do they throw tantrums when he has slept out. This is supported by a common phrase that 'sharing is caring' and 'he is only yours when he is with you'. Viewed critically, such constructions still legitimate unequal gender and power relations and disadvantage women, in the sense that they have to do both what was conventionally considered to be 'men duties' together with their duties, hence being disadvantaged even more.

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# Focalization in Musey

By Brahim Adam
*University of Maroua*

*Abstract-* In this paper, we tackle the focalization in musey language. We analyze musey data in terms of Kayne's (1994) Antisymmetry. We uncover two focusing strategies (à la clause final comp and clause initial comp): the one sets the focused constituent at the end of the clause and the other moves the focused constituent to the beginning of the clause. In the focalization à la clause final comp, we observe two movements. The first moves the focused constituent from its initial position to the Specifier of the Focus Phrase. The second brings the rest of the clause to the Specifier of the Cleft Phrase. As regards the focalization à la clause initial comp, we observe one movement which goes from the initial position of focused constituent to the Specifier of the Focus Phrase.

*Keywords:* *focalization, musey, antisymmetry, focus phrase, cleft phrase.*

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Brahim Adam

*Abstract-* In this paper, we tackle the focalization in musey language. We analyze musey data in terms of Kayne's (1994) Antisymmetry. We uncover two focusing strategies (à la clause final comp and clause initial comp): the one sets the focused constituent at the end of the clause and the other moves the focused constituent to the beginning of the clause. In the focalization à la clause final comp, we observe two movements. The first moves the focused constituent from its initial position to the Specifier of the Focus Phrase. The second brings the rest of the clause to the Specifier of the Cleft Phrase. As regards the focalization à la clause initial comp, we observe one movement which goes from the initial position of focused constituent to the Specifier of the Focus Phrase.

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## I. Introduction

Since Chomsky (1973, 1977, 1986a), it is known that some syntactic constituents move from their initial position to a higher position. For example, Chomsky (1986) indicates that when a head is merged, movement into its specifier is obligatory. It is observed that movement goes always to the left. Kayne (1994) maintains that all movement must be leftward. It is what is known as Antisymmetry. This viewpoint was based on Indo-European languages analysis: English and Italian. However, some African languages seem to reject the left condition. Some moved constituents are rightward at the surface structure. For example, we can notice *musgum* language in which focused constituents and negation markers occupy the end of the clause (Brahim, 2018 and 2021). We want to analyze the focalization in mosey language which is spoken in Chad and Cameroon. The main question is to know whether the musey focusing strategies allow for Kayne's (1994) left condition. We organize this work in four sections. The first section is interested in mosey language family and words order. The second section tackles the focalization. The third section studies features checking and movement triggers. The last section approaches the semantic contents of functional heads.

### *a) Musey Language Family and Words Order*

Musey is a chadic language from afro-asiatic family. Its words order is SVO:

(1) *Sinà u viná zúm zoyrà.*
Dog and monkey plow + perf. groundnuts
"The dog and the monkey plowed groundnuts."

In this structure, we have the subject *sinà u viná* (the dog and the monkey), the verb *zúm* (plowed) and the object *zoyrà* (groundnuts).

### *b) Focalization*

Let us consider the following musey basic structure:

(2) *Aikomu hí ɓusla maŋ Sukasya ká'à.*
Aikomu give + perf. cow to Sukasya yesterday
"Aikomu gave a cow to Sukasya yesterday."

This sentence has the subject *Aikomu*, the verb *hí* (gave), the direct object *ɓusla* (a cow), the indirect object *maŋ Sukasya* (to Sukasya) and time circumstantial complement *ká'à* (yesterday). Excepting the verb, all the other functions can be focalized.

#### i. *Focalization à la clause final comp*

This focusing strategy brings the focused constituent at the end of the clause. Let us observe the following structures:

(3) a. ____ *Hí ɓusla maŋ Sukasya ká ni Aikomu.*
Give + perf. cow to Sukasya yesterday Foc Aikomu
"It is Aikomu who gave a cow to Sukasya yesterday."
*b. Aikomu hí ____ maŋ Sukasya ká'à ni ɓuslá.*
Aikomu give + perf. to Sukasya yesterday Foc cow
"It is a cow that Aikomu gave to Sukasya yesterday."
*c. Aikomu hí ɓusla ____ ká'à ni maŋ Sukasya.*
Aikomu give + perf. cow yesterday Foc to Sukasya
"It is to Sukasya that Aikomu gave a cow yesterday."
*d. Aikomu hí ɓusla maŋ Sukasya ____ ni ká'à.*
Aikomu give + perf. cow to Sukasya Foc yesterday
"It is yesterday that Aikomu gave a cow to Sukasya."

*Author:* *University of Maroua (Cameroon). e-mail: docteurbrahim89@gmail.com*



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In the first structure (3a), the focused constituent is *Aikomu*. It is preceded by focus marker *ni*. The focused constituent concludes the clause. In the second structure (3b), the focused constituent is *ɓusla* (a cow). It is also preceded by focus marker *ni*. Focused constituent closes the clause. In the following structure (3c), we focalize the prepositional phrase *maŋ Sukasya* (to Sukasya). It is preceded by the focus marker *ni*. In the last structure (3d), the focused constituent is the verb *ká'à* (yesterday). It is preceded by the focus marker *ni* and ends the clause.

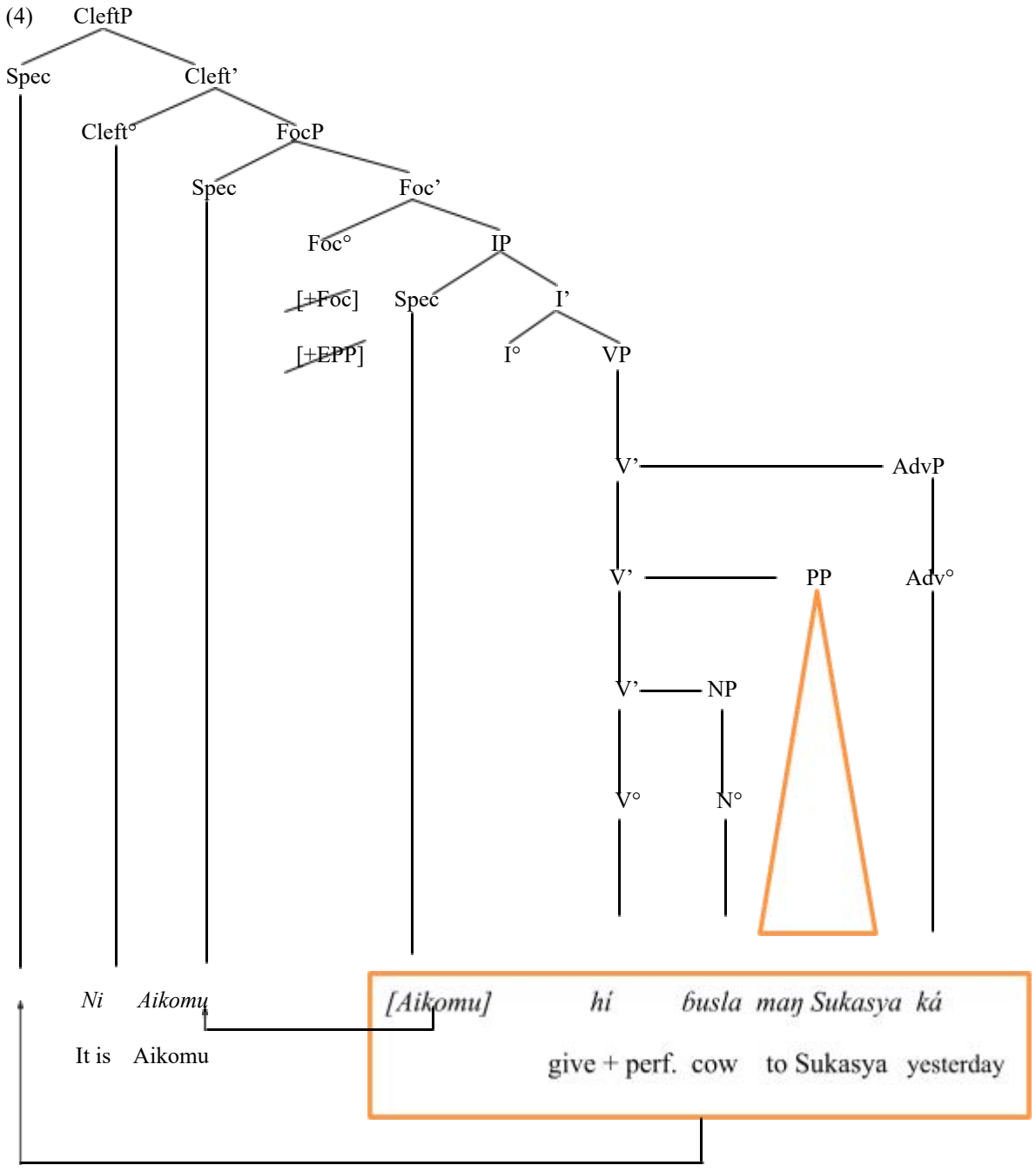
We notice that one of the focusing strategies in musey language moves constituents from their basic positions to the end of the clause. The focused constituents occupy a low position. This fact seems to reject Kayne's (1994: 4) Antisymmetry Condition:

> *If syntactic theory allowed lowering a phrase to a position c-commanded by the original position, such movement would have to be rightward. If lowerings are not available at all, as Chomsky's (1993) proposals would lead one to expect then that possibility can be set aside.*

Then, Kayne (1994: 4) defends the "Antisymmetric prohibition against right-hand specifiers": "All movement must be leftward".

As from this fact, we can think that in the surface structure, the focused constituent occupies a low position but in the deep structure, it is a high position. Let us observe the following tree representation of (3a):

(4)






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We notice that the focus marker *ni* (it is) is generated in the Cleft Phrase (CleftP) head. This fact can be accounted for by Koopman (2000), Biloa (2012b) and Brahim (2018) viewpoints. Koopman (2000) suggests that if the Focus Phrase cannot accommodate the focus marker or if the focus marker precedes the focus constituent, it occupies a higher position that she calls: YP. Biloa (2012b) and Brahim (2018) state that this position is Cleft Phrase (CleftP).

The focused constituent *Aikomu* moves from Spec-IP position to Spec-Foc. FocP head is only endowed with implicit features [+Foc] and [+EPP]. After the first movement of the focused constituent, IP goes to Spec-Cleft. It is what is known in the literature as heavy pied-piping (see Nkemnji, 1995). This latter raising movement is called remnant movement (den Besten and Webelhut, 1987; Cecchetto, 2004).

The focusing strategy à la clause final comp is not specific to musey language. It is found in *musgum*, another Chadic language mainly spoken in Cameroon and Chad:

(5) *À sà yém gírná á Sali*. (Brahim, 2018:195 (10a))
SM drink + perf. water today Foc Sali
"It is Sali who drank water today."

ii. *Focalization à la clause initial comp*

This focusing strategy *sets* the focused constituent at the beginning of the clause. We have the following structures:

(6) a. *Ni Aikomu* _____ *hí ɓusla maŋ Sukasya ká.*
Foc Aikomu give + perf. cow to Sukasya yesterday
"It is Aikomu who gave a cow to Sukasya yesterday."

b. *Ni ɓusla Aikomu hí* _____ *maŋ Sukasya ká'à.*
Foc cow Aikomu give + perf. to Sukasya yesterday
"It is a cow that Aikomu gave to Sukasya yesterday."

c. *Ni maŋ Sukasya Aikomu hí ɓusla* _____ *ká'à*.
Foc to Sukasya Aikomu give + perf. cow yesterday
"It is to Sukasya that Aikomu gave a cow yesterday."

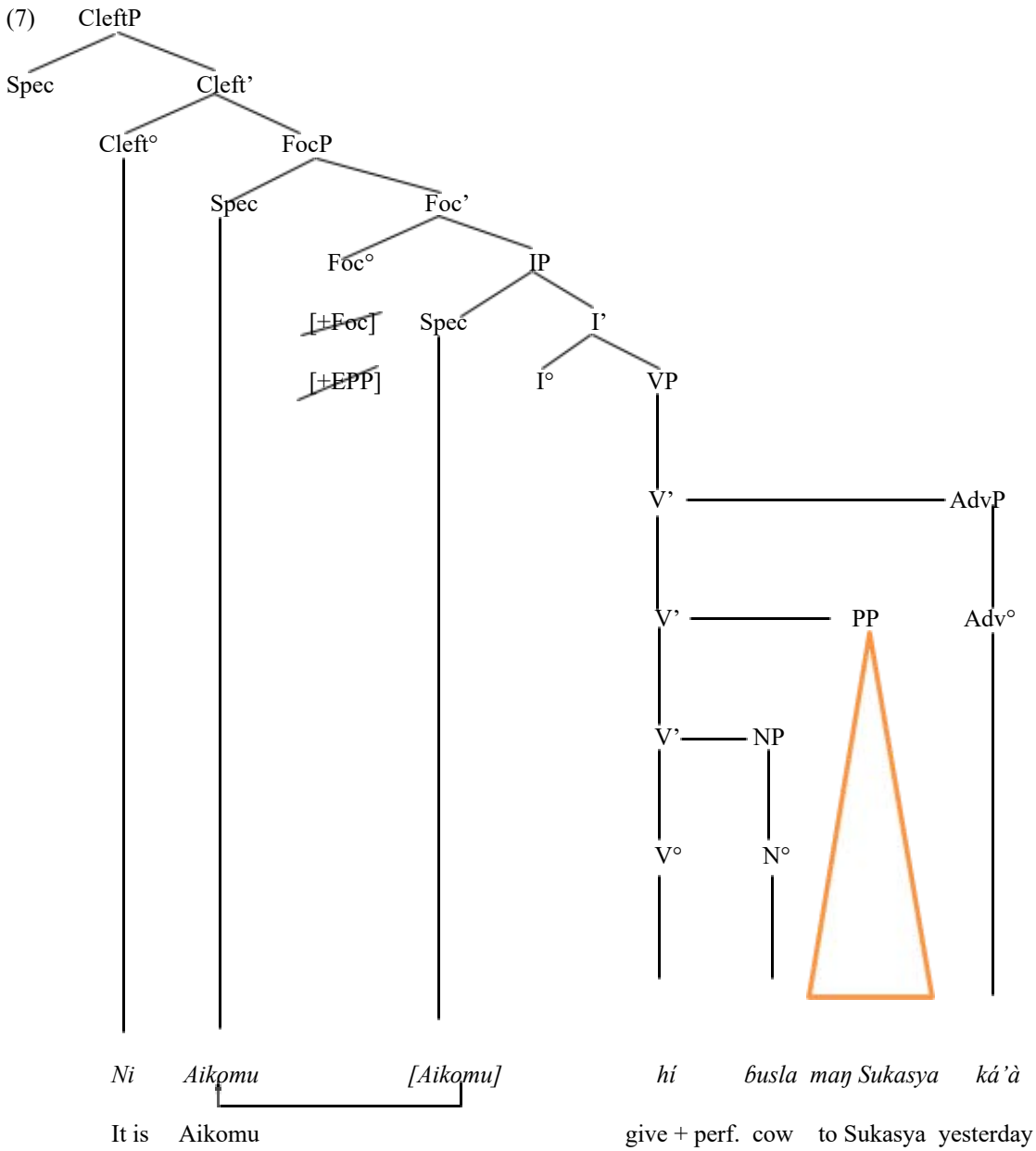
d. *Ni ká'à Aikomu hí ɓusla maŋ Sukasya* ____.
Foc yesterday Aikomu give + perf. cow to Sukasya
"It is yesterday that Aikomu gave a cow to Sukasya."

In the first structure (6a), the focused constituent is *Aikomu*. It is preceded by focus marker *ni* (it is). We notice that the focused constituent is at the beginning of the sentence. In the second structure (6b), the focused constituent is *ɓusla* (a cow). It is preceded by *ni* and begins the sentence. In the following structure (6c), the focused constituent is the Preposition Phrase *maŋ Sukasya* (to Sukasya). It is preceded by focus marker *ni* and starts the sentence. In the last structure (6d), the focused constituent is *ká'à* (yesterday). It is preceded by focus marker ni and also begins the clause.

In the focusing strategy à la clause initial comp, the focused constituent moves from its initial position to a higher position. It occupies Spec-Foc as follows:



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This diagram represents (6a). We notice that what we call focus marker occupies the head of CleftP seeing that it precedes the focused constituent. The focused constituent *Aikomu* moves from Spec-IP to Spec-Foc. FocP head is endowed with implicit features [+Foc] and [+EPP].

In the focalization à la clause initial comp, we have one movement which raises focused constituent to Spec-FocP. It apparently respects the Left Condition of Kayne (1994).

*c) Features Checking and Movement Triggers*

We previously indicated that the focused constituent à la clause final comp occupies Spec-FocP. We also show that the focused constituent à la clause initial comp occupies the same position. The focused constituent goes to this position by the focalization.

When we observe the focalization à la clause final comp, we notice a heavy pied-piping of IP (clause) to Spec-Cleft. Both focused constituent movement and pied-piping constitute what is known in the literature: Move Operations. These movements depend on certain conditions. One of these conditions is that movement is triggered. The movement intervenes for checking features of a lexical head.

So, can we think that checking features condition determines movement triggering in focalization à la clause final comp in musey?



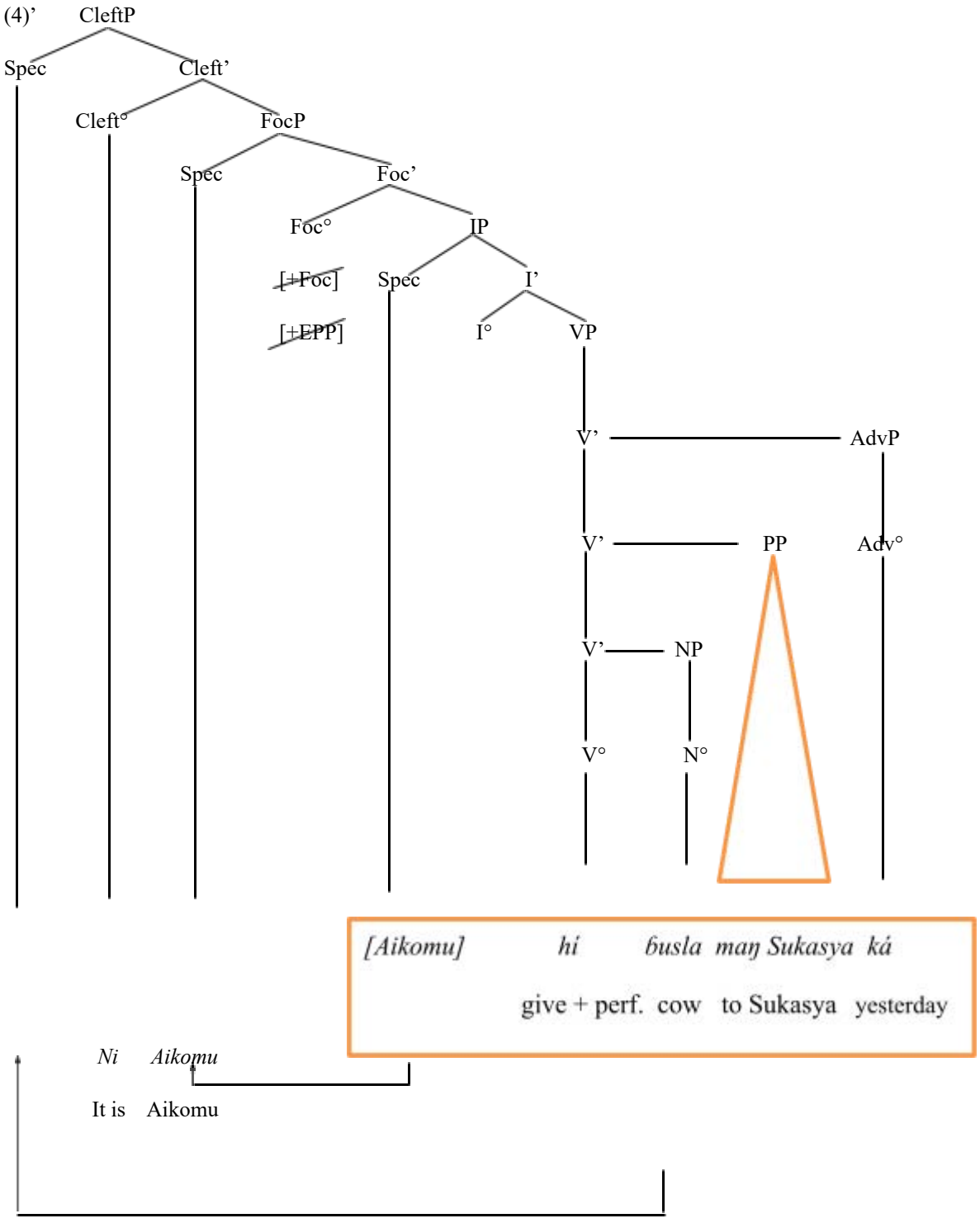
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Let us re-observe (3a) and its tree representation (4):

(4a)'_____*Hí ɓusla maŋ Sukasya ká ni Aikomu.*

Give + perf. cow to Sukasya yesterday Foc Aikomu

"It is Aikomu who gave a cow to Sukasya yesterday."






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In the diagram, we notice that Foc and EPP in Foc head attract focused constituent to Spec-FocP. [Foc] and [EPP] are crossed out when this condition is satisfied. Thus, we can say that in (4)', *Aikomu* moves from Spec-IP to Spec-FocP. The condition of [Foc] and [EPP] features is satisfied. That is why they are crossed out as it is indicated in (4)'.

In the focalization à la clause initial comp in mosey, the focused constituent goes to Spec-FocP. But, there is not remnant movement. Let us re-observe (6a) and (7):

(6a)' *Ni Aikomu* _____ *hí ɓusla maŋ Sukasya ká.*

Foc Aikomu give + perf. cow to Sukasya yesterday

"It is Aikomu who gave a cow to Sukasya yesterday."

(7)' CleftP

We also notice that in the focalization à la clause initial comp, [Foc] and [EPP] features trigger the focalization of the subject position *Aikomu*.

*d) Semantic Contents of Functional Heads*

In both focusing strategies (à la clause final comp and clause initial comp) in mosey language, the focus marker *ni* precedes focus constituent. Since it precedes, it moves to a higher position: CleftP-Cleft. The focused constituent occupies Spec-FocP. We identify two functional heads: FocP and CleftP. Which are the semantic contents of these functional heads?

In fact, Rizzi and Cinque (2016: 139-157) indicate that the functional elements make up the functional lexicon and they partake in the triggering of syntactic actions: "Functional heads endowed with the appropriate morphosyntactic features trigger syntactic actions" (Rizzi and Cinque, 2016: 141).

As for Rizzi and Cinque (2016: 143), "functional structures are richly articulated objects". Their heads are endowed with semantic contents. After analyzing Italian, Rizzi and Bocci (2015) bring out a functional sequence in which the criterial positions have a specific order within the Complementizer domain.

As we say, the focusing strategies analysis in mosey language revealed the existence of two functional projections in the complementizer field: FocP and CleftP. FocP is already uncovered by Rizzi (1997). CleftP is relatively recent in the specialized literature. Biloa (2012b), for example, talked about it. At the internal interface with meaning, functional heads express how their specifier and complement must be interpreted. Let us comment both heads:

. *Foc.* In musey language, Foc can express new information focus or corrective focus. The focused constituent occupies Spec-FocP. The movement is triggered by [Foc] and [EPP] features that are not expressed phonetically by material element.

. *Cleft.* In mosey language, CleftP head precedes FocP. The interpretation of clause is such that it is the element in Cleft head that is in fact Foc head. CleftP precedes FocP when the focus marker precedes the focused constituent.

In focusing strategy à la clause final comp, when the focused constituent merges to Spec-FocP, the rest of the clause is massively pied-piped to Spec-CleftP. Whereas in focusing strategy à la clause initial comp, remnant movement of the rest of the clause does not exist. Pragmatically, the focalization à la clause initial comp determines and defines more what we are talking about. Let us re-observe the previous structures (3a and 6a):

(4a)'_____*Hí ɓusla maŋ Sukasya ká ni Aikomu.*

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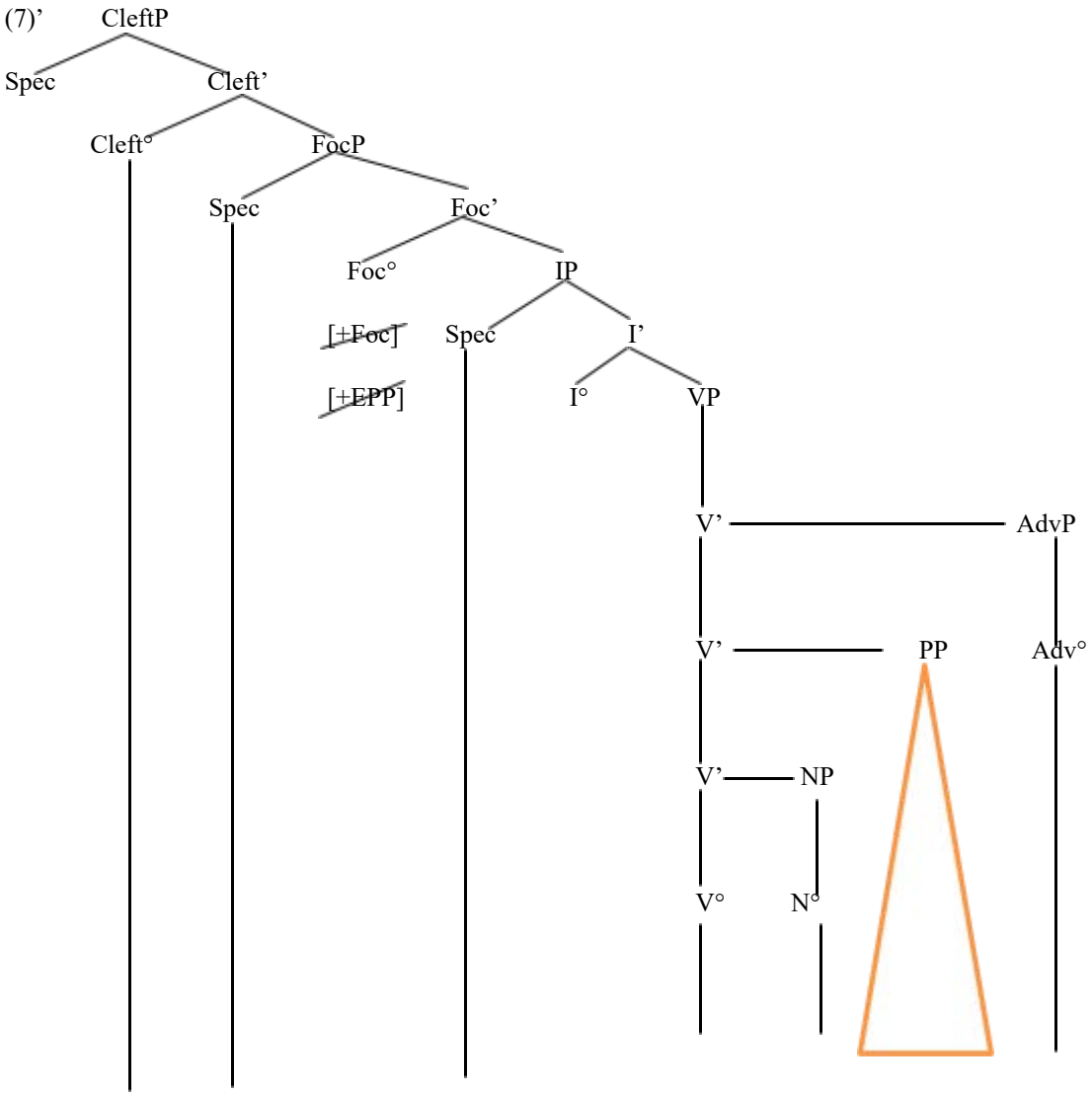
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Foc Aikomu give + perf. cow to Sukasya yesterday

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*e) Semantic Contents of Functional Heads*

In both focusing strategies (à la clause final comp and clause initial comp) in mosey language, the focus marker *ni* precedes focus constituent. Since it precedes, it moves to a higher position: CleftP-Cleft. The focused constituent occupies Spec-FocP. We identify two functional heads: FocP and CleftP. Which are the semantic contents of these functional heads?

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"It is Aikomu who gave a cow to Sukasya yesterday."

(6a)' *Ni Aikomu _____ hí ɓusla maŋ Sukasya ká.*
Foc Aikomu give + perf. cow to Sukasya yesterday
"It is Aikomu who gave a cow to Sukasya yesterday."

In the first structure, we talk about *Aikomu* who is known. Meanwhile in the second structure, we suppose that there are persons whose name is *Aikomu*. We identify one we talk about.
The complement of Cleft should be interpreted as focus.

## II. Conclusion

There are two focusing strategies in musey language: à la clause final comp and clause initial comp. the one sets the focused constituent at the end of the clause and the other moves the focused constituent to the beginning of the clause. In the focalization à la clause final comp, we observe two movements. The first moves the focused constituent from its initial position to the Specifier of the Focus Phrase. The second brings the rest of the clause to the Specifier of the Cleft Phrase. As regards the focalization à la clause initial comp, we observe one movement which goes from the initial position of focused constituent to the Specifier of the Focus Phrase. The focused constituent is attracted by Focus Phrase head for checking [Foc] and [EPP] features. So, these features trigger the movement of the focused constituent. We bring out two functional heads: Foc and Cleft. Both heads have semantic contents: Foc expresses new information focus and corrective focus; Cleft should be interpreted as focus.

This research concerning musey language enriches the theories about the movement. It shows that the movement is leftward. Deep structure analyzing is important for identifying the real direction of the movement. The study of more African languages can be important for explaining movement theory.

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FELLOW OF SOCIAL SCIENCE RESEARCH COUNCIL is the most prestigious membership of Global Journals. It is an award and membership granted to individuals that the Open Association of Research Society judges to have made a 'substantial contribution to the improvement of computer science, technology, and electronics engineering.

The primary objective is to recognize the leaders in research and scientific fields of the current era with a global perspective and to create a channel between them and other researchers for better exposure and knowledge sharing. Members are most eminent scientists, engineers, and technologists from all across the world. Fellows are elected for life through a peer review process on the basis of excellence in the respective domain. There is no limit on the number of new nominations made in any year. Each year, the Open Association of Research Society elect up to 12 new Fellow Members.

# Benefit

## To the institution

### Get letter of appreciation

Global Journals sends a letter of appreciation of author to the Dean or CEO of the University or Company of which author is a part, signed by editor in chief or chief author.



## Exclusive Network

### Get access to a closed network

A FSSRC member gets access to a closed network of Tier 1 researchers and scientists with direct communication channel through our website. Fellows can reach out to other members or researchers directly. They should also be open to reaching out by other.

Career | Credibility | Exclusive | Reputation




## Certificate

### Certificate, LOR and Laser-Momento

Fellows receive a printed copy of a certificate signed by our Chief Author that may be used for academic purposes and a personal recommendation letter to the dean of member's university.

Career | Credibility | Exclusive | Reputation




## Designation

### Get honored title of membership

Fellows can use the honored title of membership. The “FSSRC” is an honored title which is accorded to a person’s name viz. Dr. John E. Hall, Ph.D., FSSRC or William Walldroff, M.S., FSSRC.

Career | Credibility | Exclusive | Reputation

## Recognition on the Platform

### Better visibility and citation

All the Fellow members of FSSRC get a badge of "Leading Member of Global Journals" on the Research Community that distinguishes them from others. Additionally, the profile is also partially maintained by our team for better visibility and citation. All fellows get a dedicated page on the website with their biography.

Career | Credibility | Reputation

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## Future Work

### Get discounts on the future publications

Fellows receive discounts on future publications with Global Journals up to 60%. Through our recommendation programs, members also receive discounts on publications made with OARS affiliated organizations.

Career | Financial



## GJ Account

### Unlimited forward of Emails

Fellows get secure and fast GJ work emails with unlimited forward of emails that they may use them as their primary email. For example,
john [AT] globaljournals [DOT] org.

Career | Credibility | Reputation



## Premium Tools

### Access to all the premium tools

To take future researches to the zenith, fellows receive access to all the premium tools that Global Journals have to offer along with the partnership with some of the best marketing leading tools out there.

Financial

## Conferences & Events

### Organize seminar/conference

Fellows are authorized to organize symposium/seminar/conference on behalf of Global Journal Incorporation (USA). They can also participate in the same organized by another institution as representative of Global Journal. In both the cases, it is mandatory for him to discuss with us and obtain our consent. Additionally, they get free research conferences (and others) alerts.

Career | Credibility | Financial

## Early Invitations

### Early invitations to all the symposiums, seminars, conferences

All fellows receive the early invitations to all the symposiums, seminars, conferences and webinars hosted by Global Journals in their subject.

Exclusive




## Publishing Articles & Books

### Earn 60% of sales proceeds

To take future researches to the zenith, fellows receive access to all the premium tools that Global Journals have to offer along with the partnership with some of the best marketing leading tools out there.

Exclusive | Financial

## Reviewers

### Get a remuneration of 15% of author fees

Fellow members are eligible to join as a paid peer reviewer at Global Journals Incorporation (USA) and can get a remuneration of 15% of author fees, taken from the author of a respective paper.

Financial

## Access to Editorial Board

### Become a member of the Editorial Board

Fellows may join as a member of the Editorial Board of Global Journals Incorporation (USA) after successful completion of three years as Fellow and as Peer Reviewer. Additionally, Fellows get a chance to nominate other members for Editorial Board.

Career | Credibility | Exclusive | Reputation

## And Much More

### Get access to scientific museums and observatories across the globe

All members get access to 5 selected scientific museums and observatories across the globe. All researches published with Global Journals will be kept under deep archival facilities across regions for future protections and disaster recovery. They get 10 GB free secure cloud access for storing research files.

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# ASSRC

## ASSOCIATE OF SOCIAL SCIENCE RESEARCH COUNCIL

ASSOCIATE OF SOCIAL SCIENCE RESEARCH COUNCIL is the membership of Global Journals awarded to individuals that the Open Association of Research Society judges to have made a 'substantial contribution to the improvement of computer science, technology, and electronics engineering.

The primary objective is to recognize the leaders in research and scientific fields of the current era with a global perspective and to create a channel between them and other researchers for better exposure and knowledge sharing. Members are most eminent scientists, engineers, and technologists from all across the world. Associate membership can later be promoted to Fellow Membership. Associates are elected for life through a peer review process on the basis of excellence in the respective domain. There is no limit on the number of new nominations made in any year. Each year, the Open Association of Research Society elect up to 12 new Associate Members.

# Benefit

## To the institution

### Get letter of appreciation

Global Journals sends a letter of appreciation of author to the Dean or CEO of the University or Company of which author is a part, signed by editor in chief or chief author.



## Exclusive Network

### Get access to a closed network

A ASSRC member gets access to a closed network of Tier 2 researchers and scientists with direct communication channel through our website. Associates can reach out to other members or researchers directly. They should also be open to reaching out by other.

Career | Credibility | Exclusive | Reputation




## Certificate

### Certificate, LoR and Laser-Momento

Associates receive a printed copy of a certificate signed by our Chief Author that may be used for academic purposes and a personal recommendation letter to the dean of member's university.

Career | Credibility | Exclusive | Reputation




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Career | Credibility | Exclusive | Reputation

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Career | Credibility | Reputation

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Career | Financial



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Career | Credibility | Reputation



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Career | Credibility | Financial

## Early Invitations

### Early invitations to all the symposiums, seminars, conferences

All associates receive the early invitations to all the symposiums, seminars, conferences and webinars hosted by Global Journals in their subject.

Exclusive




## Publishing Articles & Books

### Earn 60% of sales proceeds

Associates can publish articles (limited) without any fees. Also, they can earn up to 30-40% of sales proceeds from the sale of reference/review books/literature/publishing of research paper.

Exclusive | Financial

## Reviewers

### Get a remuneration of 15% of author fees

Associate members are eligible to join as a paid peer reviewer at Global Journals Incorporation (USA) and can get a remuneration of 15% of author fees, taken from the author of a respective paper.

Financial

## And Much More

### Get access to scientific museums and observatories across the globe

All members get access to 2 selected scientific museums and observatories across the globe. All researches published with Global Journals will be kept under deep archival facilities across regions for future protections and disaster recovery. They get 5 GB free secure cloud access for storing research files.

| Associate | Fellow | Research Group | Basic |
|---|---|---|---|
| $4800<br>**lifetime designation** | $6800<br>**lifetime designation** | $12500.00<br>**organizational** | APC<br>**per article** |
| **Certificate,** LoR and Momento<br>**2** discounted publishing/year<br>**Gradation** of Research<br>**10** research contacts/day<br>**1 GB** Cloud Storage<br>**GJ** Community Access | **Certificate,** LoR and Momento<br>**Unlimited** discounted publishing/year<br>**Gradation** of Research<br>**Unlimited** research contacts/day<br>**5 GB** Cloud Storage<br>**Online Presense** Assistance<br>**GJ** Community Access | **Certificates,** LoRs and Momentos<br>**Unlimited** free publishing/year<br>**Gradation** of Research<br>**Unlimited** research contacts/day<br>**Unlimited** Cloud Storage<br>**Online Presense** Assistance<br>**GJ** Community Access | **GJ** Community Access |

# Preferred Author Guidelines

**We accept the manuscript submissions in any standard (generic) format.**

We typeset manuscripts using advanced typesetting tools like Adobe In Design, CorelDraw, TeXnicCenter, and TeXStudio. We usually recommend authors submit their research using any standard format they are comfortable with, and let Global Journals do the rest.

Alternatively, you can download our basic template from https://globaljournals.org/Template.zip

Authors should submit their complete paper/article, including text illustrations, graphics, conclusions, artwork, and tables. Authors who are not able to submit manuscript using the form above can email the manuscript department at submit@globaljournals.org or get in touch with chiefeditor@globaljournals.org if they wish to send the abstract before submission.

## Before and during Submission

Authors must ensure the information provided during the submission of a paper is authentic. Please go through the following checklist before submitting:

1. Authors must go through the complete author guideline and understand and *agree to Global Journals' ethics and code of conduct,* along with author responsibilities.
2. Authors must accept the privacy policy, terms, and conditions of Global Journals.
3. Ensure corresponding author's email address and postal address are accurate and reachable.
4. Manuscript to be submitted must include keywords, an abstract, a paper title, co-author(s') names and details (email address, name, phone number, and institution), figures and illustrations in vector format including appropriate captions, tables, including titles and footnotes, a conclusion, results, acknowledgments and references.
5. Authors should submit paper in a ZIP archive if any supplementary files are required along with the paper.
6. Proper permissions must be acquired for the use of any copyrighted material.
7. Manuscript submitted *must not have been submitted or published elsewhere* and all authors must be aware of the submission.

**Declaration of Conflicts of Interest**

It is required for authors to declare all financial, institutional, and personal relationships with other individuals and organizations that could influence (bias) their research.

## Policy on Plagiarism

Plagiarism is not acceptable in Global Journals submissions at all.

Plagiarized content will not be considered for publication. We reserve the right to inform authors' institutions about plagiarism detected either before or after publication. If plagiarism is identified, we will follow COPE guidelines:

Authors are solely responsible for all the plagiarism that is found. The author must not fabricate, falsify or plagiarize existing research data. The following, if copied, will be considered plagiarism:

- Words (language)
- Ideas
- Findings
- Writings
- Diagrams
- Graphs
- Illustrations
- Lectures

- Printed material
- Graphic representations
- Computer programs
- Electronic material
- Any other original work

## Authorship Policies

Global Journals follows the definition of authorship set up by the Open Association of Research Society, USA. According to its guidelines, authorship criteria must be based on:

1. Substantial contributions to the conception and acquisition of data, analysis, and interpretation of findings.
2. Drafting the paper and revising it critically regarding important academic content.
3. Final approval of the version of the paper to be published.

**Changes in Authorship**

The corresponding author should mention the name and complete details of all co-authors during submission and in manuscript. We support addition, rearrangement, manipulation, and deletions in authors list till the early view publication of the journal. We expect that corresponding author will notify all co-authors of submission. We follow COPE guidelines for changes in authorship.

**Copyright**

During submission of the manuscript, the author is confirming an exclusive license agreement with Global Journals which gives Global Journals the authority to reproduce, reuse, and republish authors' research. We also believe in flexible copyright terms where copyright may remain with authors/employers/institutions as well. Contact your editor after acceptance to choose your copyright policy. You may follow this form for copyright transfers.

**Appealing Decisions**

Unless specified in the notification, the Editorial Board's decision on publication of the paper is final and cannot be appealed before making the major change in the manuscript.

**Acknowledgments**

Contributors to the research other than authors credited should be mentioned in Acknowledgments. The source of funding for the research can be included. Suppliers of resources may be mentioned along with their addresses.

**Declaration of funding sources**

Global Journals is in partnership with various universities, laboratories, and other institutions worldwide in the research domain. Authors are requested to disclose their source of funding during every stage of their research, such as making analysis, performing laboratory operations, computing data, and using institutional resources, from writing an article to its submission. This will also help authors to get reimbursements by requesting an open access publication letter from Global Journals and submitting to the respective funding source.

## Preparing your Manuscript

Authors can submit papers and articles in an acceptable file format: MS Word (doc, docx), LaTeX (.tex, .zip or .rar including all of your files), Adobe PDF (.pdf), rich text format (.rtf), simple text document (.txt), Open Document Text (.odt), and Apple Pages (.pages). Our professional layout editors will format the entire paper according to our official guidelines. This is one of the highlights of publishing with Global Journals—authors should not be concerned about the formatting of their paper. Global Journals accepts articles and manuscripts in every major language, be it Spanish, Chinese, Japanese, Portuguese, Russian, French, German, Dutch, Italian, Greek, or any other national language, but the title, subtitle, and abstract should be in English. This will facilitate indexing and the pre-peer review process.

The following is the official style and template developed for publication of a research paper. Authors are not required to follow this style during the submission of the paper. It is just for reference purposes.

***Manuscript Style Instruction (Optional)***

- Microsoft Word Document Setting Instructions.
- Font type of all text should be Swis721 Lt BT.
- Page size: 8.27" x 11'", left margin: 0.65, right margin: 0.65, bottom margin: 0.75.
- Paper title should be in one column of font size 24.
- Author name in font size of 11 in one column.
- Abstract: font size 9 with the word "Abstract" in bold italics.
- Main text: font size 10 with two justified columns.
- Two columns with equal column width of 3.38 and spacing of 0.2.
- First character must be three lines drop-capped.
- The paragraph before spacing of 1 pt and after of 0 pt.
- Line spacing of 1 pt.
- Large images must be in one column.
- The names of first main headings (Heading 1) must be in Roman font, capital letters, and font size of 10.
- The names of second main headings (Heading 2) must not include numbers and must be in italics with a font size of 10.

***Structure and Format of Manuscript***

The recommended size of an original research paper is under 15,000 words and review papers under 7,000 words. Research articles should be less than 10,000 words. Research papers are usually longer than review papers. Review papers are reports of significant research (typically less than 7,000 words, including tables, figures, and references)

A research paper must include:

a) A title which should be relevant to the theme of the paper.
b) A summary, known as an abstract (less than 150 words), containing the major results and conclusions.
c) Up to 10 keywords that precisely identify the paper's subject, purpose, and focus.
d) An introduction, giving fundamental background objectives.
e) Resources and techniques with sufficient complete experimental details (wherever possible by reference) to permit repetition, sources of information must be given, and numerical methods must be specified by reference.
f) Results which should be presented concisely by well-designed tables and figures.
g) Suitable statistical data should also be given.
h) All data must have been gathered with attention to numerical detail in the planning stage.

Design has been recognized to be essential to experiments for a considerable time, and the editor has decided that any paper that appears not to have adequate numerical treatments of the data will be returned unrefereed.

i) Discussion should cover implications and consequences and not just recapitulate the results; conclusions should also be summarized.
j) There should be brief acknowledgments.
k) There ought to be references in the conventional format. Global Journals recommends APA format.

Authors should carefully consider the preparation of papers to ensure that they communicate effectively. Papers are much more likely to be accepted if they are carefully designed and laid out, contain few or no errors, are summarizing, and follow instructions. They will also be published with much fewer delays than those that require much technical and editorial correction.

The Editorial Board reserves the right to make literary corrections and suggestions to improve brevity.

## Format Structure

***It is necessary that authors take care in submitting a manuscript that is written in simple language and adheres to published guidelines.***

All manuscripts submitted to Global Journals should include:

**Title**

The title page must carry an informative title that reflects the content, a running title (less than 45 characters together with spaces), names of the authors and co-authors, and the place(s) where the work was carried out.

**Author details**

The full postal address of any related author(s) must be specified.

**Abstract**

The abstract is the foundation of the research paper. It should be clear and concise and must contain the objective of the paper and inferences drawn. It is advised to not include big mathematical equations or complicated jargon.

Many researchers searching for information online will use search engines such as Google, Yahoo or others. By optimizing your paper for search engines, you will amplify the chance of someone finding it. In turn, this will make it more likely to be viewed and cited in further works. Global Journals has compiled these guidelines to facilitate you to maximize the web-friendliness of the most public part of your paper.

**Keywords**

A major lynchpin of research work for the writing of research papers is the keyword search, which one will employ to find both library and internet resources. Up to eleven keywords or very brief phrases have to be given to help data retrieval, mining, and indexing.

One must be persistent and creative in using keywords. An effective keyword search requires a strategy: planning of a list of possible keywords and phrases to try.

Choice of the main keywords is the first tool of writing a research paper. Research paper writing is an art. Keyword search should be as strategic as possible.

One should start brainstorming lists of potential keywords before even beginning searching. Think about the most important concepts related to research work. Ask, “What words would a source have to include to be truly valuable in a research paper?” Then consider synonyms for the important words.

It may take the discovery of only one important paper to steer in the right keyword direction because, in most databases, the keywords under which a research paper is abstracted are listed with the paper.

**Numerical Methods**

Numerical methods used should be transparent and, where appropriate, supported by references.

**Abbreviations**

Authors must list all the abbreviations used in the paper at the end of the paper or in a separate table before using them.

**Formulas and equations**

Authors are advised to submit any mathematical equation using either MathJax, KaTeX, or LaTeX, or in a very high-quality image.

**Tables, Figures, and Figure Legends**

Tables: Tables should be cautiously designed, uncrowned, and include only essential data. Each must have an Arabic number, e.g., Table 4, a self-explanatory caption, and be on a separate sheet. Authors must submit tables in an editable format and not as images. References to these tables (if any) must be mentioned accurately.

**Figures**

Figures are supposed to be submitted as separate files. Always include a citation in the text for each figure using Arabic numbers, e.g., Fig. 4. Artwork must be submitted online in vector electronic form or by emailing it.

## Preparation of Eletronic Figures for Publication

Although low-quality images are sufficient for review purposes, print publication requires high-quality images to prevent the final product being blurred or fuzzy. Submit (possibly by e-mail) EPS (line art) or TIFF (halftone/ photographs) files only. MS PowerPoint and Word Graphics are unsuitable for printed pictures. Avoid using pixel-oriented software. Scans (TIFF only) should have a resolution of at least 350 dpi (halftone) or 700 to 1100 dpi (line drawings). Please give the data for figures in black and white or submit a Color Work Agreement form. EPS files must be saved with fonts embedded (and with a TIFF preview, if possible).

For scanned images, the scanning resolution at final image size ought to be as follows to ensure good reproduction: line art: >650 dpi; halftones (including gel photographs): >350 dpi; figures containing both halftone and line images: >650 dpi.

Color charges: Authors are advised to pay the full cost for the reproduction of their color artwork. Hence, please note that if there is color artwork in your manuscript when it is accepted for publication, we would require you to complete and return a Color Work Agreement form before your paper can be published. Also, you can email your editor to remove the color fee after acceptance of the paper.

## Tips for writing a good quality Social Science Research Paper

Techniques for writing a good quality homan social science research paper:

***1. Choosing the topic***: In most cases, the topic is selected by the interests of the author, but it can also be suggested by the guides. You can have several topics, and then judge which you are most comfortable with. This may be done by asking several questions of yourself, like "Will I be able to carry out a search in this area? Will I find all necessary resources to accomplish the search? Will I be able to find all information in this field area?" If the answer to this type of question is "yes," then you ought to choose that topic. In most cases, you may have to conduct surveys and visit several places. Also, you might have to do a lot of work to find all the rises and falls of the various data on that subject. Sometimes, detailed information plays a vital role, instead of short information. Evaluators are human: The first thing to remember is that evaluators are also human beings. They are not only meant for rejecting a paper. They are here to evaluate your paper. So present your best aspect.

***2. Think like evaluators:*** If you are in confusion or getting demotivated because your paper may not be accepted by the evaluators, then think, and try to evaluate your paper like an evaluator. Try to understand what an evaluator wants in your research paper, and you will automatically have your answer. Make blueprints of paper: The outline is the plan or framework that will help you to arrange your thoughts. It will make your paper logical. But remember that all points of your outline must be related to the topic you have chosen.

***3. Ask your guides:*** If you are having any difficulty with your research, then do not hesitate to share your difficulty with your guide (if you have one). They will surely help you out and resolve your doubts. If you can't clarify what exactly you require for your work, then ask your supervisor to help you with an alternative. He or she might also provide you with a list of essential readings.

***4. Use of computer is recommended:*** As you are doing research in the field of homan social science then this point is quite obvious. Use right software: Always use good quality software packages. If you are not capable of judging good software, then you can lose the quality of your paper unknowingly. There are various programs available to help you which you can get through the internet.

***5. Use the internet for help:*** An excellent start for your paper is using Google. It is a wondrous search engine, where you can have your doubts resolved. You may also read some answers for the frequent question of how to write your research paper or find a model research paper. You can download books from the internet. If you have all the required books, place importance on reading, selecting, and analyzing the specified information. Then sketch out your research paper. Use big pictures: You may use encyclopedias like Wikipedia to get pictures with the best resolution. At Global Journals, you should strictly follow here.



***6. Bookmarks are useful:*** When you read any book or magazine, you generally use bookmarks, right? It is a good habit which helps to not lose your continuity. You should always use bookmarks while searching on the internet also, which will make your search easier.

***7. Revise what you wrote:*** When you write anything, always read it, summarize it, and then finalize it.

***8. Make every effort:*** Make every effort to mention what you are going to write in your paper. That means always have a good start. Try to mention everything in the introduction—what is the need for a particular research paper. Polish your work with good writing skills and always give an evaluator what he wants. Make backups: When you are going to do any important thing like making a research paper, you should always have backup copies of it either on your computer or on paper. This protects you from losing any portion of your important data.

***9. Produce good diagrams of your own:*** Always try to include good charts or diagrams in your paper to improve quality. Using several unnecessary diagrams will degrade the quality of your paper by creating a hodgepodge. So always try to include diagrams which were made by you to improve the readability of your paper. Use of direct quotes: When you do research relevant to literature, history, or current affairs, then use of quotes becomes essential, but if the study is relevant to science, use of quotes is not preferable.

***10. Use proper verb tense:*** Use proper verb tenses in your paper. Use past tense to present those events that have happened. Use present tense to indicate events that are going on. Use future tense to indicate events that will happen in the future. Use of wrong tenses will confuse the evaluator. Avoid sentences that are incomplete.

***11. Pick a good study spot:*** Always try to pick a spot for your research which is quiet. Not every spot is good for studying.

***12. Know what you know:*** Always try to know what you know by making objectives, otherwise you will be confused and unable to achieve your target.

***13. Use good grammar:*** Always use good grammar and words that will have a positive impact on the evaluator; use of good vocabulary does not mean using tough words which the evaluator has to find in a dictionary. Do not fragment sentences. Eliminate one-word sentences. Do not ever use a big word when a smaller one would suffice.

Verbs have to be in agreement with their subjects. In a research paper, do not start sentences with conjunctions or finish them with prepositions. When writing formally, it is advisable to never split an infinitive because someone will (wrongly) complain. Avoid clichés like a disease. Always shun irritating alliteration. Use language which is simple and straightforward. Put together a neat summary.

***14. Arrangement of information:*** Each section of the main body should start with an opening sentence, and there should be a changeover at the end of the section. Give only valid and powerful arguments for your topic. You may also maintain your arguments with records.

***15. Never start at the last minute:*** Always allow enough time for research work. Leaving everything to the last minute will degrade your paper and spoil your work.

***16. Multitasking in research is not good:*** Doing several things at the same time is a bad habit in the case of research activity. Research is an area where everything has a particular time slot. Divide your research work into parts, and do a particular part in a particular time slot.

***17. Never copy others' work:*** Never copy others' work and give it your name because if the evaluator has seen it anywhere, you will be in trouble. Take proper rest and food: No matter how many hours you spend on your research activity, if you are not taking care of your health, then all your efforts will have been in vain. For quality research, take proper rest and food.

***18. Go to seminars:*** Attend seminars if the topic is relevant to your research area. Utilize all your resources.
Refresh your mind after intervals: Try to give your mind a rest by listening to soft music or sleeping in intervals. This will also improve your memory. Acquire colleagues: Always try to acquire colleagues. No matter how sharp you are, if you acquire colleagues, they can give you ideas which will be helpful to your research.

***19. Think technically:*** Always think technically. If anything happens, search for its reasons, benefits, and demerits. Think and then print: When you go to print your paper, check that tables are not split, headings are not detached from their descriptions, and page sequence is maintained.

***20. Adding unnecessary information:*** Do not add unnecessary information like "I have used MS Excel to draw graphs." Irrelevant and inappropriate material is superfluous. Foreign terminology and phrases are not apropos. One should never take a broad view. Analogy is like feathers on a snake. Use words properly, regardless of how others use them. Remove quotations. Puns are for kids, not grunt readers. Never oversimplify: When adding material to your research paper, never go for oversimplification; this will definitely irritate the evaluator. Be specific. Never use rhythmic redundancies. Contractions shouldn't be used in a research paper. Comparisons are as terrible as clichés. Give up ampersands, abbreviations, and so on. Remove commas that are not necessary. Parenthetical words should be between brackets or commas. Understatement is always the best way to put forward earth-shaking thoughts. Give a detailed literary review.

***21. Report concluded results:*** Use concluded results. From raw data, filter the results, and then conclude your studies based on measurements and observations taken. An appropriate number of decimal places should be used. Parenthetical remarks are prohibited here. Proofread carefully at the final stage. At the end, give an outline to your arguments. Spot perspectives of further study of the subject. Justify your conclusion at the bottom sufficiently, which will probably include examples.

***22. Upon conclusion:*** Once you have concluded your research, the next most important step is to present your findings. Presentation is extremely important as it is the definite medium though which your research is going to be in print for the rest of the crowd. Care should be taken to categorize your thoughts well and present them in a logical and neat manner. A good quality research paper format is essential because it serves to highlight your research paper and bring to light all necessary aspects of your research.

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## Informal Guidelines of Research Paper Writing

***Key points to remember:***

- Submit all work in its final form.
- Write your paper in the form which is presented in the guidelines using the template.
- Please note the criteria peer reviewers will use for grading the final paper.

**Final points:**

One purpose of organizing a research paper is to let people interpret your efforts selectively. The journal requires the following sections, submitted in the order listed, with each section starting on a new page:

*The introduction:* This will be compiled from reference matter and reflect the design processes or outline of basis that directed you to make a study. As you carry out the process of study, the method and process section will be constructed like that. The results segment will show related statistics in nearly sequential order and direct reviewers to similar intellectual paths throughout the data that you gathered to carry out your study.

**The discussion section:**

This will provide understanding of the data and projections as to the implications of the results. The use of good quality references throughout the paper will give the effort trustworthiness by representing an alertness to prior workings.

Writing a research paper is not an easy job, no matter how trouble-free the actual research or concept. Practice, excellent preparation, and controlled record-keeping are the only means to make straightforward progression.

**General style:**

Specific editorial column necessities for compliance of a manuscript will always take over from directions in these general guidelines.

**To make a paper clear:** Adhere to recommended page limits.



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*Mistakes to avoid:*

- Insertion of a title at the foot of a page with subsequent text on the next page.
- Separating a table, chart, or figure—confine each to a single page.
- Submitting a manuscript with pages out of sequence.
- In every section of your document, use standard writing style, including articles ("a" and "the").
- Keep paying attention to the topic of the paper.
- Use paragraphs to split each significant point (excluding the abstract).
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- Present your points in sound order.
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- Use past tense to describe specific results.
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**Title page:**

Choose a revealing title. It should be short and include the name(s) and address(es) of all authors. It should not have acronyms or abbreviations or exceed two printed lines.

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An abstract is a brief, distinct paragraph summary of finished work or work in development. In a minute or less, a reviewer can be taught the foundation behind the study, common approaches to the problem, relevant results, and significant conclusions or new questions.

Write your summary when your paper is completed because how can you write the summary of anything which is not yet written? Wealth of terminology is very essential in abstract. Use comprehensive sentences, and do not sacrifice readability for brevity; you can maintain it succinctly by phrasing sentences so that they provide more than a lone rationale. The author can at this moment go straight to shortening the outcome. Sum up the study with the subsequent elements in any summary. Try to limit the initial two items to no more than one line each.

*Reason for writing the article—theory, overall issue, purpose.*

- Fundamental goal.
- To-the-point depiction of the research.
- Consequences, including definite statistics—if the consequences are quantitative in nature, account for this; results of any numerical analysis should be reported. Significant conclusions or questions that emerge from the research.

**Approach:**

- Single section and succinct.
- An outline of the job done is always written in past tense.
- Concentrate on shortening results—limit background information to a verdict or two.
- Exact spelling, clarity of sentences and phrases, and appropriate reporting of quantities (proper units, important statistics) are just as significant in an abstract as they are anywhere else.

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The introduction should "introduce" the manuscript. The reviewer should be presented with sufficient background information to be capable of comprehending and calculating the purpose of your study without having to refer to other works. The basis for the study should be offered. Give the most important references, but avoid making a comprehensive appraisal of the topic. Describe the problem visibly. If the problem is not acknowledged in a logical, reasonable way, the reviewer will give no attention to your results. Speak in common terms about techniques used to explain the problem, if needed, but do not present any particulars about the protocols here.

*The following approach can create a valuable beginning:*

- Explain the value (significance) of the study.
- Defend the model—why did you employ this particular system or method? What is its compensation? Remark upon its appropriateness from an abstract point of view as well as pointing out sensible reasons for using it.
- Present a justification. State your particular theory(-ies) or aim(s), and describe the logic that led you to choose them.
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**Approach:**

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As always, give awareness to spelling, simplicity, and correctness of sentences and phrases.

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- Report the method and not the particulars of each process that engaged the same methodology.
- Describe the method entirely.
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- Simplify—detail how procedures were completed, not how they were performed on a particular day.
- If well-known procedures were used, account for the procedure by name, possibly with a reference, and that's all.

**Approach:**

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Use standard style in this and every other part of the paper—avoid familiar lists, and use full sentences.

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- Skip all descriptive information and surroundings—save it for the argument.
- Leave out information that is immaterial to a third party.



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The principle of a results segment is to present and demonstrate your conclusion. Create this part as entirely objective details of the outcome, and save all understanding for the discussion.

The page length of this segment is set by the sum and types of data to be reported. Use statistics and tables, if suitable, to present consequences most efficiently.

You must clearly differentiate material which would usually be incorporated in a study editorial from any unprocessed data or additional appendix matter that would not be available. In fact, such matters should not be submitted at all except if requested by the instructor.

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- Explain results of control experiments and give remarks that are not accessible in a prescribed figure or table, if appropriate.
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- Never confuse figures with tables—there is a difference.

**Approach:**

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**Approach:**

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| ***References*** | Complete and correct format, well organized | Beside the point, Incomplete | Wrong format and structuring |

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