Online ISSN : 2249-460X
Print ISSN : 0975-587X
DOI : 10.17406/GJHSS

Global Journal

of Human Social Sciences: G

Linguistics & Education



Game-Based Brain-Computer Interface

Enhancing Cognitive Skills in Students

Highlights

Navigating the Intertextual Landscape

Study in Language & Literature Teaching

Discovering Thoughts, Inventing Future

VOLUME 24 ISSUE 1 VERSION 1.0

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Volume 24 Issue 3 was originally issued as G1

Global Journal of Human-Social Science: G
Linguistics & Education

Global Journal of Human-Social Science: G
Linguistics & Education

Volume 24 Issue 1 (Ver. 1.0)

Open Association of Research Society

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USA Toll Free: +001-888-839-7392
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Volume 24 Issue 3
Originally issued as G1

Global Journal of human-social science: G
Linguistics & Education
Volume 24 Issue 1 Version 1.0 Year 2024
Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal
Publisher: Global Journals
Online ISSN: 2249-460X & Print ISSN: 0975-587X

Beginning Literacy as the Object of Study of Language and Literature Teaching Research, from an Ethnographic Perspective: Contributions to Teacher Training and the Teaching Work

By Dr. Carolina Cuesta

Universidad Pedagógica Nacional

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Keywords: beginning literacy – language and literature - teaching research – ethnographic perspective – teacher training - distance learning in university.

GJHSS-G Classification: LCC Code: LB1-3640

BEGINNINGLITERACYASTHEOBJECTOFSTUDYOFLANGUAGEANDLITERATURETEACHINGRESEARCHFROMANETHNOGRAPHICPERSPECTIVECONTRIBUTIONSTOTEACHERTRAININGANDTHETEACHINGWORK

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Keywords: beginning literacy – language and literature - teaching research – ethnographic perspective – teacher training - distance learning in university.

I. Why Researching Language and Literature Teaching from an Ethnographic Perspective

Our research developments are settled in the Language and Literature teaching area, as it is called in Argentina and other Latin American countries.[1] The history of the constitution and institutionalization of these studies in our universities, which are too complex and extensive, has already been examined in other works (Cuesta, 2011 and 2019). We now highlight some aspects that we believe are central to characterizing and presenting the context of the scientific production in which the Language and Literature teaching research from an ethnographic perspective is inscribed and, in this way, how it defines itself.[2] One of these aspects is the close relation, straightforward in many cases, between the type of legitimate knowledge in the scientific systems and those required by educational policies, more precisely, the schools' curriculum and syllabus, the teaching practice, the reading promotion programs, or different state actions. Also from the private sphere, such as compensatory or remedial literacy programs, among others. These relations were enclosed in international organizations' guidelines for educational policies, with records from 1970 (Perla, 2021a) but consolidated in 1980 and reinforced up to the present (Perla, 2021b). They involve a type of specific knowledge about Language and Literature teaching and about Beginning Literacy[3], whose objectives relate more to the standardization of the teaching work rather than

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[1] This term is also used in Spain. Actually, in Spanish, the term is not *enseñanza* (teaching) but *didáctica* (didactics). Our lines of research began in the Faculty of Humanities and Educational Sciences from the Universidad Nacional de La Plata, where we were in charge as professor and researcher until 2022 of the subject *Didáctica de la Lengua y la Literatura I* (Didactics of Language and Literature I) from the Letters Department and, also, in charge of directing research projects in the Center for Linguistic Studies and Research belonging to the Research Institute in Humanities and Social Sciences. In 2013, the Humanities and Arts Department of the Universidad Pedagógica Nacional called us to work on teaching and research in the Area of Beginning Literacy and Language and Literature teaching in which we are currently.

[2] In this article, we cannot account for all the dimensions involved developing this perspective. We are talking about a long path that not only includes our training in ethnographic studies but also the significant number of examinations of the epistemological and methodological problems in the social sciences in general, also educational and teaching research in particular. All theoretical references in this regard are found in our already mentioned works (Cuesta, 2011 and 2019), and others that we will indicate throughout the article according to the most recently published (Cuesta, 2022a and b; Cuesta, 2023). Concerning the ethnographic studies themselves, we only cite the most significant ones for our current developments that to date we had not reported in any publication.

[3] As we explained in in another work (Cuesta, 2022b), at present the Spanish term *Alfabetización inicial* (Beginning Literacy) is mainly used by teachers in Argentina. In local curricular designs, even in scientific production, the use of the term is usually imprecise or does not exist at all, since it is replaced by reading and writing. Furthermore, all these uses do not necessarily mean the teaching and learning of the written language or of the writing system. This topic will be developed in detail as we move forward in this article.

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attending to the reality of education in our countries, its distinctive features, and needs. These processes established strictly normative conceptual frameworks that are linked to the restructuring of the Latin American Educational Systems, which were intensified because of "the implementation, since 1990, of policies that are related to teacher formation and the teaching work, which come from international organizations."[4] (Mercado and Espinosa, 2022, p. 184). Currently, as we will explain in this article, these normative frameworks continue although in local versions.

When we started with our research at the end of 1990 at Universidad Nacional de La Plata and nowadays at Universidad Pedagógica Nacional, both Argentine universities, the development of the research into the Language and Literature teaching was limited to a series of debates that focused on the objects and contents to be taught and learned. The way language, on the one hand, and literature, on the other, were defined expressed different interests from the academic communities involved. These communities include some areas of Linguistics and Literary Studies (Cuesta, 2011 and 2019), especially for children and young adult Literature (Dubin, 2019; Cuesta, 2023), and with the strong presence of the Educational Sciences' trend known as Psychogenesis of Written Language (Cuesta, 2019; Dubin, 2019; Perla, 2021a and b; Oviedo, 2021 and 2023), more commonly known as *Constructivismo* (Constructivism) in Latin America. This trend fully determines the theoretical orientations of teaching training (Fonseca de Carvalho, 2001 and 2020; Sawaya, 2018 and 2020) and especially Beginning Literacy in the entire region (Mortatti, 2010; Schwartz and Correa, 2011; Soares, 2017a and b; Vaca Uribe, 2020; Mercado and Espinosa, 2022)[5].

By 1990, what once was a conceptual dispute stopped being so when different theoretical approaches started to consolidate and unite as pedagogical technicism in educational policies took root in region's countries. Thus, as it has already been explained in previous works (Cuesta, 2011 and 2019), Language and Literature teaching in Argentina is reconfigured with significant effects on the teachers' training and work: it is no longer about teaching Language and Literature or Beginning Literacy, but rather about reading and writing as part of the curriculum and syllabus designs defined as *know-how knowledge*. In this way, the educational knowledge related to the "traditional" way of teaching is marginalized and treated as obsolete knowledge, both in scientific production and in the curriculum and syllabus designs. Such is the case of Grammar teaching and Literary Historiography, to name just a few. Moreover, it has been claimed that these school disciplinary knowledge would mainly attempt against "the construction of knowledge" by the students, "the processes of reading and writing texts," or "the pleasure of reading literature," among other similar claims. The possible sources of these claims are no longer quoted, or the exact quotes are used repeatedly, even if we refer to publications dated 30 or 40 years ago.[6] This why, together with other Argentinian researchers have particularly paid attention to a phenomenon that is usually omitted, maybe because it shows the tight and direct relations and alliances before mentioned. We are referring to the institutionalization of specialists in reading and writing who work in Universities and state and private institutions in charge of the design of educational policies. These specialists appear as messengers and spokespeople carrying the only proper, legitimate knowledge. It is knowledge that is not questioned regarding its conceptual and empirical foundations on how teachers should do work daily (Cuesta, 2011 and 2019; Dubin, 2019; Perla, 2021a and b; Oviedo, 2021 and 2023).

As a result, the educational reforms in the region around 1990 meant two things. On the one hand, it meant a reorganization of the Educational Systems and the teaching working conditions. On the other hand, as it was studied than twenty years ago by José Fonseca de Carvalho (2001) in Brazil, it meant the appearance of a pedagogical technicism program for teacher training and work, based on the implementation of contents presented as "new and innovative." However, as the author explains, they are *educational slogans*. This category has been used mainly for the research on Literature teaching in the context of Argentina (Dubin, 2019). But, this category is also helpful to summarize previous studies that were carried

[4] From now on, all the translations made from the original publication in Spanish and Portuguese into English are our responsibility.

[5] It is essential to mention that we constantly support our research with those of our Brazilian and Mexican colleagues, mainly dated from the end of 1980 to the present, concerning the critical reviews about Constructivism in the Beginning Literacy field. Because these reviews also apply to Argentina, especially in relation to the current approach known as *Prácticas del lenguaje* (Language Practices). We will list some of the works that have been fundamental to our current lines of research.

[6] Once more, we cannot mention all the dimensions involved. When referring to the approaches taken into account by educational policies, we are addressing three main approaches that we have studied within the context of Argentina. Briefly summarized, these are Psychogenesis or Constructivism, now called *Prácticas del lenguaje* (Language Practices) and predominant in the country, the *Textualismo cognitivista approach* (in English it could be translated Cognitivist Textualism), which integrates cognitive models of textual analysis with definitions of the Competency-Based Education and *Sociocultural approach* with definitions focused on the impact of Literature on students in the construction of subjectivities (Cuesta, 2011 and 2019). Over the past few decades, these three approaches started to intertwine, resulting in definitions of reading and writing, which originally came from one approach or the other but are replicated by those who adopt any of them. Therefore, due to space constraints, we chose not to include quotes from their specialists to validate our categorization and analysis of the approaches, which have already been studied, as we explain below.

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out in the field of Language and Literature teaching and Beginning Literacy regarding the constant repetition of educational slogans used in the curriculum and other documents belonging to Argentinian educational policies in different levels of the national and jurisdictional Educational System. Some examples of these slogans include "one learns to read by reading, and to write by writing," "children/student construct their knowledge/meaning," "it is necessary to develop reading/writing/linguistic competencies," "reading comprehension must be developed," "reading behavior must be developed," or "the tasks of the reader and the writer," "reading literature constructs subjectivities," "it is necessary to take pleasure in reading literature," "literature takes us to possible worlds," "to create reading and writing situations is necessary," "putting students in contact with books is necessary," "creating a literacy environment is necessary," "introducing children/young people/adults to written culture is necessary," among others (Cuesta, 2011, 2019, 2022a and b; 2023; Dubin, 2019; Perla, 2021a and b; Oviedo, 2021 and 2023; Morini, 2021). In fact, among these educational slogans, there is one with a particularly impactful role in beginning literacy: *One learns to read by reading and to write by writing*, which "was gradually incorporated into curricular reforms to teach children in the early stages of schooling. This tendency was strengthened by sociocultural studies and their conception of reading and writing as situated social practices." (Mercado and Espinosa, 2022, p. 193). We will get back to this topic later on.

Therefore, Fonseca de Carvalho (2001) defines educational slogans as "a set of expressions, rhetorical figures, and phrases which carry a big effect, whose reproduction generates an apparent consensus, broad but vague, regarding their meanings or their consequences for educational practice."[7] (p. 96). In this way, educational slogans can come from different trends and coexist harmoniously in the pedagogical discourses of educational policies, as their purpose is not to guide teaching work in a reflective sense, understanding teaching and learning. Fonseca de Carvalho (2020) explains in another recently published article:

> (…) in the same way Constructivism does, most discourses related to Competency-Based Pedagogy present a prescriptive rhetoric equally forged in the abstraction of school culture (pedagogical practices, values, and principles historically linked to the ideals of literate culture and schooling), indicating rather an uncritical continuity than an overcoming of preceding models. (p. 97).

To sum up, this issue of the *uncritical continuity based on the abstraction of school culture and pedagogical practices* has persisted to the present day in an accumulation of educational slogans reproduced by curriculum-related educational policies and other areas, endorsed by specialists, for at least the past four decades in Argentina. They have fueled an interest in the developing of research on language and literature teaching, as well as beginning literacy, from an ethnographic perspective. Unlike the mere reproduction of slogans, our career in teaching and research, especially in university degrees and continuing education programs for teachers, has revealed that when we pay attention to the everyday work that teachers carry out in schools, which includes their interactions with students, there is no mechanical application of these slogans. In ethnographic terms, the fieldwork in this area can be done only by accessing to how teachers at different levels and modalities of the educational system refer to their own work experiences with the task of literacy and teaching language and literature. In other words, this means how teachers put into words and give meaning to the difficulties they face every day, how they resolve them, or not, and what their achievements are, or not.

II. How to Study the Meanings of the Teachers' Descriptions of their Daily Work: Navigating between the *Reproduction* of Educational Slogans and the *Production* of what is Omitted in Teaching

In connection to what we talked about before, the ethnographic perspective enables the exploration of a broad universe of meanings through which teachers point out the problems they face in their lessons when trying to apply what is required by the syllabus and curriculum and the lack of specific helpful knowledge to explain the distinctive features of language and literature teaching and which dimensions are relevant for beginning literacy and the students' learning. Concerning the students, teachers try to consider the singularities of the social, cultural, and linguistic communities, which are very diverse in our country, and how these singularities are expressed in reading and writing. These meanings, which are repeated with different variations, often refer to the *reproduction* of educational slogans in the form of questions: "How can I ensure that my students learn to read by reading/ develop writing skills/construct knowledge/experience the pleasure of reading, etc.?" Moreover, teachers use expressions of discomfort or self-blame: "Don't tell me there are other forms of knowledge to explain what happens in my classes, I must stick to the curriculum design/we teachers fail because we cannot interpret the curriculum design, etc." In some cases, the discomfort or blame can also be directed towards the students and their families: "Since they were never read to at home,

[7] Fonseca de Carvalho takes the definition from Scheffler, Israel (1978). *A linguagem da educação*. São Paulo: Saraiva, EDUSP.

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they have had no contact with books/written culture," and therefore, "they are not literate," "they don't understand texts," "they lack the necessary reading/ writing/linguistic skills." Sometimes, the responsibility is attributed to the levels of the educational system preceding those where teachers are currently working: "Since Primary Education did not teach students to read and write, now in Secondary School, we cannot do anything," etc. We will clarify this point. From our ethnographic perspective, these meanings are not understood as a means to verify teachers' thoughts or ideologies, as if in this way, one could validate that they "think in that way" because they "lack a commitment to the task," "are not interested in professional development," or "are discriminatory." The point is not to speculate about their personalities and beliefs as a justification for why approaches are not successfully implemented. In any case, these interests are of another type of research that is not interested in reviewing ethical problems (Restrepo, 2015 and 2022). These meanings, for us and in reality, indicate teaching problems that, logically, do not find explanations in educational slogans, as we explained before, especially when control agencies insist on their mere application for the implementation of curriculum policies' approaches (Oviedo, 2021 and 2023).

However, while the reproduction of meanings happens, other significancies emerge in the teachers' comments. These meanings raise questions about the validity of making conceptual and methodological decisions regarding language and literature teaching and how to approach beginning literacy. In many cases, these meanings do not necessarily negate educational slogans but instead reveal the possibility of making changes and variations in their teaching proposals. In various cases refers to reinstating disciplinary knowledge that was omitted or resorting to other theoretical frameworks that offer more accurate and relevant explanations for everyday teaching work. Thus, some teachers report "I work with the syllables even though it is prohibited," or "with the relation between sounds and letters," or "with orthography" in the face of difficulties with their students' beginning literacy. Some express "I work with notions of traditional grammar," regarding the difficulties students face when writing texts, or "I work with canonical literature because it gives results," concerning the students' lack of interest in the latest trends in children or teenage literature. These meanings also highlight the students' particularities regarding their social, cultural, and linguistic diversity across Argentina, which is becoming increasingly complex. Many teachers mention that they do not know how to work in classrooms with students who speak Spanish and other languages from our country and neighboring ones, such as Guarani and Quechua (Dubin, 2023). Spanish is not even the vehicular language of some social groups. "Spanish" itself does not encompass all the Creole varieties present in Argentina, from its historical migrations (Bolivia, Paraguay, Perú) to the current ones (Venezuela and Colombia). We are providing a very brief and incomplete illustration of a broader outlook, as it would take an entire article to explain this diversity that teachers refer to in our fieldwork[8]. These meanings repeatedly mention the constant "not knowing how" or "not knowing very well how," acknowledging that these are teaching problems, as we already pointed out, which are systematically omitted in official guidelines for teacher training. These meanings are often expressed with concern or even anguish, as they show the absences in teacher training: "Why were we not taught anything about this in the course of studies or teacher training?", is a question that is repeated with frustration. However, for many teachers the possibility of accessing other knowledge that is relevant to the problems they constantly point out regarding their daily work is encouraging. In our terms, the teachers' meanings are the ones of the *production* that disrupt with its systematicity those meanings belonging to the reproduction of educational slogans, and they are the ones through which teachers generate doubts, questions, and observations about what they do not know but should know to carry out their work. In the following section, we present the current progress of our research regarding these logics of reproduction and production, specifically in the context of Beginning Literacy.

When asserting the adoption of an ethnographic perspective instead of doing ethnography, it is evident in our understanding that a fundamental distinction is highlighted. Our theoretical and methodological frameworks are a particular construction that ethnography sees as a research style that deals with the investigated realities, also the methodologies employed for data collection, analysis, interpretation, and subsequent written exposition (Cuesta, 2011, 2019 and 2022a). Our research focuses on the *trabajo docente cotidiano* (everyday teaching work) and specifically in how the teachers describe concerning to teach reading and writing, Language and Literature, at the different levels and modalities of the Argentine Educational System. These educators also bring forth the voices of their students and respective communities. We believe that constitutes a relevant problem for research on teaching that must be addressed.

[8] This diversity, as we briefly mentioned, is also cultural and social. It is expressed in the classrooms through oral narrative and cultural consumptions of the students, especially in Literature classes (Dubin, 2019; López Corral, 2020). At the same time, they involve different notions of reality, of what is considered fiction, true or false, in the appeal to different social discourses that we have deeply studied in other works about the reading materials of our students (Cuesta, 2011, 2019 and 2023).

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Concerning ethnography, we adopt current developments that allow us to justify our fieldwork methodologies. We face the practical limitation of being unable to be present in every school nationwide for an extended duration, but we believe that this is not the only way to carry out developments from an ethnographic perspective; otherwise, we would be reviving classical epistemological debates on the understanding of the investigated realities. In other words, represents a perpetuation of objectivist perspectives that do not apply to educational institutions today, as access to educational institutions is not easy for different reasons, such as schools being guarded against the entry of unfamiliar adults and the advance of regulations on students' physical well-being and identity preservation. Additionally, evaluative scrutiny imposed on teachers does not give any certainty that they will readily participate in the research. These objectivist perspectives ultimately fail to acknowledge that, in essence, we are constantly dealing with discourses and meanings mediated by others. The mere presence of the researcher in the classroom does not guarantee access to these discourses, as any conversation within the school occurs under surveillance on what can be said and what is not permitted to be said. At the same time, these perspectives involve particularisms that do not allow observation on which meanings are reproduced and which are produced within the diversity of the extensive National territory and its Educational System.

Consequently, it is not a question of the researchers being present physically inside the school and the classroom just to verify the truth of the collected data. It is not just about gathering data but interpreting them according to their validity. Validity is achieved once the recurrence of meanings becomes visible, therefore allows for confirmation. They are interpreted with the support of the conceptual framework that explains their reasons for existence, and the meanings are socialized with the same teachers who make sense to them. In this way, they contribute to their everyday teaching work. In response to the teachers' observations regarding the lack of knowledge concerning the specificities of Beginning Literacy in their workplaces, reiterated in our interactions with them, we have progressed in the study and search of research on the topic that addresses this need. This is research are not recognized in the local academic spheres, sometimes not even known.

May seem obvious, but it is not so evident within the framework of the reproduction of the educational slogans that we previously mentioned, which has solidified in the technicist conception of teacher training and work and does not allow teachers' suggestions that imply the possible discussion of these slogans. As opposed to this, our perspective tries to develop knowledge for teachers, assuming that "the ethical question in ethnographic research of who speaks for whom, from where and for what purpose, can no longer be evaded in the name of contributing to a supposed neutral knowledge." (Restrepo, 2015, p. 177). In our case, it is about wondering for whom and for what purpose the knowledge we develop contributes to Beginning Literacy and Language and Literature teaching. The ethnographic perspective provides answers to these questions that we understand are unavoidable and fundamental to the current research about teaching.

As we said before, the meanings of both reproduction and production appear in exchanges with teachers and do not happen inside the educational institutions where they work. Since 2017, we have been in charge of courses in the Licenciatura en Enseñanza de la Lectura y la Escritura para la Educación Primaria (Bachelor's Degree in Reading and Writing Teaching for Primary Education) with distance learning modality[9] in Universidad Pedagógica Nacional de Argentina. It belongs to the Ciclos de Complementación Curricular (Curricular Complementation Cycles) offered by Universities in our country, Public University in our case, free of charge, destined to graduate teachers from Institutos de Formación Docente[10] (Teacher Training Institutes) to get a University degree in specific areas. This course of studies allows us be online with teachers from all over the country who work not only in Primary School but also in other educational levels and different modalities. At the same time, other professionals work in education, such as librarians, psychologists, educational psychologists, teachers of other areas such as English (a foreign language taught officially and compulsory from Primary School onward), and people in manager positions such as headmasters and headmistresses who carry out teacher training governmental programs, especially provincial ones. In a brief numerical representation: in 2017, 250 students began their studies and by 2024, 2.500 enrolled. It is a beneficial complementary course of studies for people with a college or University degree. In our teacher students' words, it is essential because it gives access to knowledge that is not present in their training and careers. In this context, Beginning Literacy is the most required one, as it will be explained in the following section.

[9] From 2006 to 2011, we were in charge of teacher training courses with distance learning modality in Universidad Nacional de San Martín (Argentina). This background is relevant to the research developments presented in this article (Cuesta 2011 and 2019).

[10] In Argentina, most teachers of different levels and modalities of the Educational System pursue a course of studies in *Institutos de Formación Docente*. These institutes are part of *educación superior*, higher non-university education, dependent on the provincial governments. They belong mainly to state management, but there are also privately managed ones.

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In essence, from an ethnographic perspective in its *multi-sited or multi-local* developments (Marcus, 2001; Restrepo, 2015 and 2022), which also includes the so-called *virtual ethnography* (Hine, 2004 and 2017; Ruiz Méndez and Aguirre Aguilar, 2015; Winocur, 2013) with those who study practices and relationships in virtual contexts, we conceptualize our fieldwork as researchers in conjunction with our active role as educators shaping the curriculum and engaging in its virtual environment. Because "multi-local research is structured around chains, paths, plots, conjunctions, or juxtapositions of locations" that do not align with postmodern anthropology, as it seeks to debate and re-conceptualize how it is understood empirically when "the ethnographer establishes some form of literal or physical presence with an explicit logic of association or connection between sites that indeed define the argument of ethnography" (Marcus, 2001, p. 118). In methodological terms, therefore, it involves "bringing together multiple sites within the same study context" because "the persuasiveness of the expansive field that any ethnography constructs and maps lies in its ability to generate connections through the translation and tracking of distinctive discourses from site to site" (Marcus, 2001, p. 119). Our research progress, then, reveals that teachers who work in different locations, in various sites across Argentina, find in the courses of studies of the Bachelor's degree, within their virtual classrooms, a space for exchanging ideas about their teaching concerns, the particular realities in which they work, the stories of their professional development, the educational and curricular policies of their provinces, and the possibility of digitally sharing teaching materials and students' written work, among other classroom records, through a constant recognition of their similarities or singularities. In this way, discussion forums, chat, and internal messaging serve as the spaces where exchanges occur, referring to experiences with beginning literacy and the teaching of language and literature, constituting what virtual ethnography calls *communities* (Ruiz Méndez and Aguirre Aguilar, 2015). They are specific forms of socialization carried out by teachers, with the purpose of what brings them together in the virtual environment of the course: accessing a type of continuous training in the field of literacy and language and literature teaching, which values their own territorially contextualized teaching experiences in different parts of the country, and can be shared as common aspects or differences. Thus, it is a form of socialization expressed through constant exchanges of common interests, which cannot occur in a face-to-face context. Only in the virtual environment of the course of studies teachers of different provinces of the country can gather outside their workplaces to talk about the interests that make them a community with other education professionals and who are part of all of the National Educational System. Therefore, it is not a matter of engaging in the debate on "the dualism between ethnography of the real and ethnography of the virtual" (Winocur, 2013, p. 16) as if virtual communities were fictitious in the sense of mere socialization simulations. Individuals who participate in virtual communities, particularly the type presented here, do not acknowledge the supposed separation between online and offline spheres because "even though they recognize the differences between both worlds and their ways of communication, the experience subjectively integrates them and gives them a meaning which transcends these differences" (Winocur, 2013, p. 20).

III. What it Means to *Know Nothing*, or *Very Little*, about Beginning Literacy in Argentina: The Effects of its *Reinvention* in Social Practices of Reading and Writing

We will summarize as clearly as possible some of the most relevant aspects of the current problems of Beginning literacy in Argentina, related to what was discussed in the first section of article. These aspects also explain why teachers of different levels and modalities of the National Educational System seek training in the perspectives of Beginning Literacy that we explore in this course of study.

The reconfiguration of Language and Literature teaching in reading and writing education has particularly affected Beginning Literacy, which historically in our country was added to Language teaching in the first three years of Primary School (Perla 2021a; Oviedo, 2021). Magda Soares (2017a) refers to this as the *reinvention of literacy*. This reinvention is explained as a displacement or a replacement of the term through the invention of others, motivated by the "necessity to recognize and name more advanced and complex social practices of reading and writing resulting from learning the writing system" (Soares, 2017a, p. 31). From a historical perspective, as the author explains, this "necessity" goes back to the academic debates in the USA, England, and France between the decades of 1970 and 1980. These debates were adopted and spread particularly in Latin America, to generate scientific arguments to define the "problems in mastering the abilities of the use of reading and writing," expressed at the same time as "precarious mastering of the abilities of reading and writing necessary to participate in literate social practices" (Soares, 2017a, p. 32). In the specific case of Argentina, the reinvention of literacy meant progressive neglect, which continues up to the present, of the term *beginning literacy* or the change of its historical reference as the "initial stage of written language learning" (Soares, 2017a, p. 31) concerning the correct mastery of the Spanish writing system. Whether one case or the other, and not being

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able to fully develop them here, drawing on other works (Cuesta, 2011, 2019 and 2022b), the definition that has been imposed throughout the National Educational System is the one that *students must engage in social practices of reading and writing*. Everything previously explained has had significant consequences for teacher training and work at all levels and modalities within the Educational System.

In the first section of this paper, we mentioned that reading and writing become teaching content. It involves reading and writing texts as know-how that will allow students in Primary School "to learn by themselves," "with autonomy," "discover or construct knowledge" about something we do not know. We are not being imprecise or unscientific in the expression "something we do not know." This expression summarizes the meanings derived from the production we have been examining in our fieldwork, as mentioned by teachers in different ways. However, they show the same emptiness of academic knowledge and erasure of the object of study brought about by the reinvention of literacy in our country. For instance, an observation repeated by teachers who work in the first two years of Primary School is that "they bring different types of texts to their classrooms and children cannot read or write." It can be seen that in this explanation there is no reference to Beginning Literacy: What is omitted between "bringing texts to the classroom" and having "children read and write"? Indeed, based on the definitions of reading and writing as social practices, coming back to educational slogans, teachers must "create reading and writing situations for children to enter the written culture" because, as we explained, "children learn to read by reading and to write by writing" has been become a dominant methodological premise in teaching. Once more, what do we teach? We have noticed that most teachers do not use the word *enseñanza* (teaching) or some use the word *intervención* (intervention) without explicit references to how it differs from the word teaching in terms of meaning. There is no mention of the concept of *language* in the sense of *written language*; instead, the emphasis is on the broader term language. Therefore, written language is not taught as something to be read and written but rather "promotes reflection on the language." Teachers often associate the definitions of reading and writing to "the development of competencies/capabilities/skills in understanding and producing texts." It is not that teachers are "confused," but instead that all these premises converge in the official guidelines on Beginning Literacy, which paradoxically denies, and thereby omits, that the specificity of Beginning Literacy implies the teaching and learning of the progressive mastery of the writing system. In Argentina, we are talking about the writing system of its official language, Spanish, which is also the common language of all the linguistic communities. In other words, it is the *political language* whose mastery is necessary for citizen participation in a graphocentric society (Soares, 2017b).

Magda Soares (2017a and b) and Luiz Cagliari (2011 and 2022) insist on how problematic all these omissions are for the teaching training and the curricular designs in Brazil. We find identical problems in Argentina. In this case, the approach is called *Prácticas del lenguaje* (Language Practices), whose constitution and reworking, always in harmony with the guidelines of international organizations, have an extensive history of cycles of policies at both jurisdictional and national levels (Perla, 2021a and b). Therefore, when we talk to teachers to discuss what is being taught and learned, when we claim that students "learn to read by reading and to write by writing," they answer "*las prácticas del lenguaje.*"[11] We will not reiterate because we have already studied this in-depth alongside other Argentine researchers mentioned earlier, concerning how *Prácticas del lenguaje* have impacted the entire National Educational System, and not just in Primary Education (Cuesta, 2011, 2019, 2022a and b; 2023; Dubin, 2019; Perla, 2021a and b; Oviedo, 2021 and 2023; Morini, 2021). What is important to point out is that the concision of the content and the teaching methodologies within this construct of *Prácticas del lenguaje* as a reinvention of literacy poses a succession of texts ranging from legends to cooking recipes. These texts are characterized by a series of *properties* that supposedly demand specific *behaviors* from students. Thus, the legend, presented as a literary text[12], should elicit enjoyment or pleasure from the text, while the cooking recipe should be followed step by step as an instructional guide. The *reflection on language* implies that students understand for themselves that legends use verbs in the past tense. In contrast, cooking recipes use infinitives, so then students proceed to write either a legend or a cooking recipe. In this way, classes unfold through *the creation of reading and writing situations* related to various texts, which are repeated since they are specified in the curriculum designs for the subsequent years of schooling. If, in the first grade of

[11] Not all curricular designs of the country's jurisdictions, as it occurs in the national one, have adopted the name *Prácticas del lenguaje* to designate this scholar area. Some still call it *Lengua* (Language) or *Lengua y Literatura* (Language and Literature), and in the last three years of Secondary School, the term *Literature* is used. However, the guidelines, contents and objectives reproduce the definitions of this approach or at least they use them connected to other approaches. On the other hand, it is necessary to clarify that in Spanish *lenguaje* does not have the same meaning as *lengua*. The use of the first term instead of the second one refers to the act of erasure of the language, in the sense of the *tongue* you speak or the *Spanish language*, as an object of teaching and learning and is replaced by *lenguaje* defined as the cognitive capacity of human development (Cuesta, 2019; Perla, 2021a and b).

[12] The conceptual mistake of curricular designs when presenting legends as if they were literary texts, without discriminating whether they are versions of authors, is studied in-depth by Mariano Dubin (2019).

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Primary School, reading and writing situations were created for the legend of *Yerba mate* and the cooking recipe for soup, in the second grade, it is done for the legend of the *Ceibo* flower and the cooking recipe for pizza. Honestly, there is not much more than this in the didactic sequences or official projects that teachers of the first three years of Primary School must work with, and nothing different is added when working with fairy tales or myths.

The above-mentioned reflects a situation of complete circularity to which teachers refer when they claim that, ultimately, they comply with these guidelines and students fail to read and write without being able to express with precision what exactly is not achieved in reading and writing. They often agree that in oral exchanges, students demonstrate an understanding of the storyline, what happens with each character of the legend or that, when preparing pizza, first we make the dough with flour, water, salt and yeast. In this way, the teachers begin to focus on the problem, and they start generating or feel confident in communicating descriptions of what they repeatedly observe in their courses, year after year. Some students, even in higher education, "especially struggle with reading aloud," and "almost the majority face various difficulties with writing, with the most concerning issues at the level of individual words." Because "many students do not write the words with all their letters, they do not just have orthographic mistakes," "they also often string words together," or "they cannot construct a syntactically correct sentence or short text." Consequently, many teachers label these recurrently observed difficulties as consequences of *not being literate* or *failures in beginning literacy.*

Thus, another line of meaning production regarding this everyday reality referred to by teachers is the debate on beginning literacy methods, which, as we have already examined (Cuesta, 2022b), is constantly evolving in Argentina. We cannot address now all the dimensions of the debate[13], but what we can recover from analyzing the meanings produced by teachers is how it manifests in their daily teaching practices. The discussion revolves around whether one should teach or should not teach letter-sound relationships, in some cases expressed as graphemes-phonemes or, in fewer instances, as "phonological consciousness", or if these relationships should be taught on demand, relying on students to discover them on their own; or, if it is accepted that they should be taught, the debate centers on how to teach them.

The reinvention of literacy in Argentina has particular effects because of the omission of specific linguistic knowledge about the teaching and learning of the written system, and this also explains why a university degree course designed for continuous training of teachers from Primary Education receives, as mentioned earlier, teachers from different levels and modalities of the Educational System. Furthermore, in conversations with teachers, it is not very clear what the writing system is as a segment of written language, even though the term has some usage in the curriculum policy documents that they must use for class planning. Therefore, our task has been to teach teachers what the writing system is, the principles that govern it when dealing with alphabetic and orthographic languages like Spanish, what it means for it to be graphophonemic, and, in this sense, what the grapheme and phoneme are, along with their relationships. We also cover what the letter is, as a graphic category, and why they identify that reading and writing words pose the main challenges in beginning literacy. Regarding the latter, we teach them that words, as distinct units in spoken language (phonological words) and written language (orthographic words), express the arbitrariness of the writing system, as their relationships are not natural. These linguistic insights have been addressed for decades by studies on Beginning Literacy by authors such as Soares and Cagliari. These studies share a linguistic perspective grounded in the extensive history of teacher training in Brazil that both researchers have consistently pursued. This background is crucial for our development because it goes beyond recovering historical knowledge from linguistic studies.

For example, Soares (2017b) demonstrates the impracticality of perspectives proposing the manipulation of the phoneme as if it could be delimited from the word and pronounced independently of the syllable. These studies not only draw on linguistic knowledge but also put it to work as relevant explanations for teachers regarding the problems they observe in their students. With detailed analyses of Portuguese in its different varieties, these studies allow us to address and systematize similar cases concerning

[13] We also cannot account for all its dimensions because we are still conducting surveys on the specific characteristics of the approach that currently opposes *Prácticas del lenguaje* in Argentina. This approach has reached some teachers in the country through compensatory programs that use the term "*lectoescritura.*" For now, we can only report that teachers familiar with these programs refer to them as *phonological consciousness* programs (the term used is not *awareness*). However, our initial analyses lead us to the characterization made by Soares (2017b) for similar lines in Brazil, which she identifies as particular developments of the *phonological paradigm*. In reality, inspired by research in English, postulate the possibility of manipulating phonemes in writing activities to reinforce their relationships with graphemes, such as lengthening sounds, among other techniques. This concept is debatable for Portuguese due to the characteristics of its syllabic structures, and we can also extend this discussion to Spanish. For instance, Spanish consonant phonemes are not pronounceable or audible separately in speech. It involves a conception of the phoneme that is not linguistic (Soares, 2017b). Similarly, Cagliari (2022) analyzes this problem of omitting the linguistic nature in the conception of the syllable in the psychogenesis of written language. It involves overlooking or misunderstanding that the syllable is not the same as the phoneme.

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to Spanish as both languages belong to the same alphabetic family, closely related, and with orthographic depth closer to transparency (Soares, 2017b). Therefore, it is not about supporting today's debates on the methods and approaches but rather about training teachers in the linguistic knowledge of Beginning Literacy that will allow them, in the case of Argentina, to understand why many children write in Spanish *PLO* and not *PELO* (HAIR), without speculations from a cognitive view that may categorize them. Rather, the question is what specific linguistic knowledge is at stake and which the student has not yet fully mastered. An explanation involves transferring the syllable as a phonological unit from the spoken word *PE* to the letter *P* once the alphabetic principle of the writing system is mastered: letters (graphemes) represent sounds (phonemes). Alternatively, a child may follow the acrophonic or iconic principle: the child thinks that the name of the letter is its sound. The name of the letter *P* is *PE* in Spanish. However, these principles are not the only ones. The orthographic principle, which supports why the spelling of the word in our example is *PELO* and not *PLO*, is the one that requires teaching: the phoneme of *P*, /p/, is a complete abstraction in Spanish, not pronounceable. It is different from the phoneme of the vowel *E*, /e/, which also coincides with the pronunciation of the letter's name. Therefore, the presence of the letter *E* in the written word must be made visible. For the authors, this represents an initial step for those learning to teach these dimensions strictly related to the writing system. It can be explained as the disunity of the phonological word from the orthographic word, revealing specific modalities of reading and writing that have been heavily questioned in the long history of methodological debates and current approaches. These modalities involve decipherment or decoding (reading) and cipher or encoding (writing), which, according to Soares (2017b), are reciprocally related, and according to Cagliari (2011 and 2022), are related in terms of implicature, as the modality of reading through decipherment is the one that initially enables the mastery of the principles that result positively in writing. Actually, the concepts used by the authors are *ciframento* (cipher) and *deciframento* (decipherment), not *codificação* (encoding) and *decodificação* (decoding) because, from the linguistic perspective and studies about the history of writing systems, written language is not a code in itself but a system of representation of spoken language.

We are briefly describing how we work alongside teacher students of the course of studies who, while displaying some differences, as previously mentioned, share a linguistic perspective regarding the specificity to master the writing system, such as reading and writing modalities that belong to Beginning Literacy and that require instruction. When one observes the characteristics of the written languages and their writing systems, it is impossible to say that people in the process of being literate will "naturally" discover the governing principles solely by being exposed to written materials in reading and writing situations, as mentioned earlier. Likewise, it is impossible to learn through exercises involving sound prolongation, in which sounds are thought to be isolated and manipulated concerning words, and consequently, the graphemes representing them will not be omitted in their writing. As the word is the unit of meaning, it will always guide its reading and writing. That being so, any artificial methodology applied to its development, understood as immersion or as reinforcement, will always lead to partial, incomplete, or misguided learning experiences that persist throughout a student's entire schooling (Soares, 2017a and b; Cagliari, 2011; 2022). As a result, many teachers Secondary and Higher Education observe these problems in reading and student writing. In numerous cases, these challenges do not involve serious comprehension issues or an absolute inability to write; instead, they manifest as being halfway between the mastery of various levels of written language. As we have already studied (Cuesta, 2011 and 2019) student's reading and writing are guided in social discursive terms, as social discourses always provide orientations of meanings that collaborate with understanding the meaning of the written text intends to transmit. However, these meaning orientations that support literary texts, as their specificity lies in the different possible interpretations (Cuesta, 2023), are not enough in the case of scientific texts organized through particular rhetorics and whose meanings, the way they are developed, may either lack broad social circulation or conflict with how they can be understood in various public disclosures, such as in the vast area of social media and the web.[14]

IV. Conclusions

In conclusion, especially in the last two years we have been studying, along with other teachers

[14] In our doctoral thesis (Cuesta, 2011) we study cases of instructions for reading and writing tasks, along with student-written texts, ranging from the first years of Primary Education up to University education. Concerning this last educational level, even though the literary texts contribute to the students reading and writing, it is impossible to affirm that its modalities are transferable to texts of, for instance, contemporary sociology, as a particular case we address in our thesis. In the case of these texts, the modalities of decipherment reading and cipher writing are determining factors. For instance, in the mentioned thesis, we examined a text written by beginning university student whose task required producing an argumentative text about Eastern European immigration to Argentina. At the beginning of the text, the student writes that the problem of Argentinians with immigration is their "indiosincrasia" (as if in English it were written "indiansyncrasy") instead of *idiosincrasia* (*idiosyncrasy*), thereby going back to the times of the conquest of America, showing knowledge in this field. The text was not completely misspelled, but this pseudo-word or non-existent neologism in Spanish leads to the student failing the task since it was not the topic the student was supposed to argue about.

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currently taking the course of studies, research about Beginning Literacy. Our research shows the omissions and gaps in language knowledge operated in the region through teacher training and educational reforms perpetuating the definitions of reading and writing that we previously presented with the concept of reinvention of literacy proposed by Soares (2017a). It is a reinvention that has been giving structure for more than forty years to the pedagogical project based on hegemonic perspectives about the teaching work that insist it is merely a *mediator for individual development* (Sawaya, 2020). This hegemonic perspective, often highlighted by researchers in the context of Beginning Literacy, began with integrating Constructivism into schools' curriculum policies and teacher training within the field. Nowadays, it has been trying to control the teachers' work with very negative results for students and teachers. Our advances in the research from an ethnographic perspective allow us to show and conceptualize them to study their singularities. As we said before, it is not enough to study the educational policy documents to point out their inconsistencies, the materials produced by specialists in the field, the official didactic materials, or those of big publishers that replicate its guidelines (Cuesta, 2019). From our point of view, it is relevant for the student teacher of the course to share concrete examples of the difficulties they face so that they can describe them, name them, and understand them with specific linguistic knowledge of the Spanish written system. The aim is for them to be able to develop their teaching proposals according to the language varieties spoken by their students. Within this context, the graphophonemic level presents a linguistic diversity concerning phoneme-grapheme relationships that extend beyond cases of neutrality, such as the previously mentioned example of the word *PELO*. However, it is more than just a neutral case. The following question becomes significant: Why are occurrences like *PLO* instead of *PELO* or *PLOTA* instead of *PELOTA* (BALL) recurrent in the writings of school-going children when these words are pronounced the same way in all varieties of Spanish?[15]

Based on what we have presented throughout the entire article, it is clear that we are developing a perspective on Language and Literature teaching, as well as Beginning Literacy, that allows us to train teachers in the states of affairs regarding educational policy approaches as historical processes and in terms of how they affect their daily teaching work. In this dimension, changes can occur that have positive results in the teaching and students learning. It is no longer about waiting for a new miraculous approach from specialists who, as Soares (2017b) argues, they continue to clash between Constructivism and the Phonological approach. It is about providing teachers with knowledge that is not in their training because it was omitted or neutralized. As Sandra Sawaya (2020) explains in the context of teacher training and work concerning Beginning Literacy, in the case of Brazil, as can also be seen in Argentina:

> We are witnessing the resurgence, with full vigor, of psychological assessment measures for each student and the revival of behavioral categorization of skills, abilities, and human competencies based on the analysis of their cognitive and linguistic processes and types of reasoning [...] This involves not only sharing theoretical concepts rooted in the subject's psychogenetic-based psychology, which has been part of the teacher training courses since the 1980s, but also a new kind of investment in their training (p. 3).

It is means that any current initiative to change approaches in the educational policies of the area under study does not imply changes in the matrix of ideals aimed at modifying behaviors, in students and teachers, regardless of the paradigm they claim to support. Moreover, it is always in the pursuit of withdrawing specific disciplinary knowledge in the name of the know-how knowledge that is supposed to overcome teaching problems. However, it is clear that the more this pedagogical project is affirmed and reworked under its technocratic and control mechanisms, the more it fails. Or it only remains successful in perpetuating a state of affairs in which failure is helpful because it allows all those interested, mainly specialists, to continue an educational market based on the constant demand for their expertise to solve the problems that they continue to promote (Cuesta, 2011 and 2019).

Finally, it is worth asking, then, what exactly has happened for a teacher not to be able and not be authorized to teach a student what letter is missing in a word they are writing, which words are written separately, or which word is missing in a sentence, or how to read a particular word and what meaning it assumes in the text. In other words, what has happened for their daily work to be a constant dilemma based on complying with the directives of one approach or another or on making decisions regarding the knowledge their students need to master the written language? One explanation for this could be the discourses of power, which articulate the analyzed definitions of reading and writing, that deliberately exclude "those who could speak about education as an experience that is theirs: the teachers and students" (Chauí, 2016, p. 249 in Sawaya, 2020, p. 6). We insist,

[15] It should be noted that *PELOTA* is not necessarily found in the vocabulary of all varieties of Spanish, as it could be *BALÓN*. However, if any of its speakers pronounced it, they would do the same concerning the syllable *PE* just like so many other words in Spanish that begin with the same syllable. In addition, it is made clear that there are several pronunciation variations in the different varieties of Latin American Spanish. We cannot explain in this moment all the cases of these variations that our research is observing in the written texts of children, young people as adults about the progressive mastery of the writing system.

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regardless of the previous or current approach since 1980 in the field of Beginning Literacy, there has been a search to "develop a rationality of teaching action by establishing certain ways of organizing their thinking and the meanings of their own experiences." Because it is presupposed that "the problems of teaching practice arise from an alleged lack of rationality, planning, and competence," so each approach proclaims itself as the solution "by proposing actions guided by objectives, specific purposes, modes of thought, and predetermined actions to achieve them" (Sawaya, 2020, p. 7).

To conclude, there is still a large amount of research development that is ongoing with the genuine intention of understanding, together with teachers, what the specific problems of Beginning Literacy are that they identify in their daily teaching work. We do not know if this is "the solution". Still, we do know that it is not possible to start to think about alternatives in the continuity and increasing sophistication of the standardization and the emptying of disciplinary knowledge in teacher training.

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Global Journal of human-social science: G
Linguistics & Education
Volume 24 Issue 1 Version 1.0 Year 2024
Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal
Publisher: Global Journals
Online ISSN: 2249-460X & Print ISSN: 0975-587X

Enhancing Cognitive Skills in Students with Autism Spectrum Disorder through Game-based Brain-Computer Interface Training

By Izabel Cristina Fernandes de Oliveira, Edgar Marçal, Carlos Eduardo de Souza Menezes, Rafael Bráz Azevedo Farias & Meline Mesquita de Carvalho

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Abstract- Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD) is a neurodevelopmental disorder that involves a series of behavioral aspects. Individuals with ASD have atypical development in the areas of learning, communication, social interaction, detection and handling of emotions, motor coordination and concentration. They may also have difficulty thinking flexibly and dealing with changes. With the advancement of information and communication technologies, an alternative used to assist in treating these children is the brain-computer interface (BCI). In this context, this article aimed to create a mental game controlled via ICC that would enable the monitoring of brainwave behavior and promote an improvement in the cognitive performance of children with ASD. To this end, a mixed methods experimental study was carried out with a sample of 21 children aged 9 to 11 years. The study was carried out in schools in the city of Fortaleza - Brazil. The children in the Experimental Group (EG) were exposed to a game that involved memorizing images to develop and improve reasoning by creating relationships between the images and the sequence of arranged cards.

Keywords: *brain-computer interface; autism spectrum disorder; games; cognition; memory.*

GJHSS-G Classification: *FOR Code: 1701*

ENHANCINGCOGNITIVESKILLSINSTUDENTSWITHAUTISMSPECTRUMDISORDERTHROUGHGAMEBASEDBRAINCOMPUTERINTERFACETRAINING

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Enhancing Cognitive Skills in Students with Autism Spectrum Disorder through Game-based Brain-Computer Interface Training

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Abstract- Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD) is a neurodevelopmental disorder that involves a series of behavioral aspects. Individuals with ASD have atypical development in the areas of learning, communication, social interaction, detection and handling of emotions, motor coordination and concentration. They may also have difficulty thinking flexibly and dealing with changes. With the advancement of information and communication technologies, an alternative used to assist in treating these children is the brain-computer interface (BCI). In this context, this article aimed to create a mental game controlled via ICC that would enable the monitoring of brainwave behavior and promote an improvement in the cognitive performance of children with ASD. To this end, a mixed methods experimental study was carried out with a sample of 21 children aged 9 to 11 years. The study was carried out in schools in the city of Fortaleza - Brazil. The children in the Experimental Group (EG) were exposed to a game that involved memorizing images to develop and improve reasoning by creating relationships between the images and the sequence of arranged cards. We investigated the cognitive abilities using the SON-R 6-40 Nonverbal Intelligence Test. Cognitive gains were observed in the participants of the Experimental Group (EG), including greater concentration, improved attention, and enhanced logical reasoning. Additionally, changes in some aspects of personal hygiene were noted in these children.

Keywords: brain-computer interface; autism spectrum disorder; games; cognition; memory.

I. Introduction

The right to education must be ensured for every child, especially those with disabilities, a group historically excluded from the educational process. Through advocacy for rights and acknowledgment of their human dignity, the disability rights movement has progressed and gained recognition in society. During these efforts, autism has emerged as a prominent focus.

Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD), as defined by the American Psychiatric Association - APA (2014), is a neurodevelopmental disorder involving various behavioral aspects with enduring psychosocial implications. It is characterized by limitations in social interaction and communication, specific interests, and restricted behavioral patterns, as noted by Teo et al. (2021).

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Casanova et al. (2021) underscore the challenges faced by individuals with autism in organizing thoughts and executing communication, leading to social isolation. They emphasize the need for support in the teaching and learning process, underscoring that knowledge can become abstract for individuals with disabilities, including those with ASD. This underscores the importance of using materials and methodologies that facilitate access to learning.

Research suggests that digital technology presents an opportunity to enhance the quality of education by providing new avenues for teaching and learning, along with innovative methodologies. Digital games, designed as innovative alternatives, indicate that these systems can become adequate resources in meeting the specific needs of individuals with ASD (COELHO NETO et al., 2017).

An alternative employed to assist in the treatment of children with ASD is the Brain-Computer Interface (BCI). It involves an external device placed on the user's head to monitor brain activities and facilitate interaction through neurofeedback (BASTOS, 2020; Marçal et al., 2023).

According to Dias (2010), neurofeedback is an operant conditioning modality to re-establish appropriate electrophysiological patterns for treating certain neurological, psychiatric, or psychological disorders. It enhances normal cognitive abilities and promotes a sense of well-being. In neurofeedback treatment, the patient's brain activity is measured using Electroencephalography (EEG), and the neural wave data can be processed and analyzed in real-time. EEG records the amplified electrical impulses responsible for the body's activities, transmitted as brain commands through neurons (BASTOS, 2020).

As an option to contemporary traditional treatments, neurofeedback therapy stands out for its innovative, non-invasive nature without using medications. Research indicates benefits such as the reorganization of the brain's functional network from regular to more random configurations, improved focus and mental concentration, highly successful results in attention, and gains in social and self-control skills (COSTA et al., 2021; Mota et al., 2023). Literature highlights the advancing use of Brain-Computer

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Interfaces in clinical and diagnostic contexts, showing possibilities for educational applications (CAVALCANTE et al., 2020; MARÇAL et al., 2022).

Recently, BCIs have been integrated into fields such as education, including computer interface design, games, and research in neuroeducation (BOS et al., 2019). While brain wave analysis is highly advanced in the clinical setting, it remains underexplored in environments like the classroom (AMARAL et al., 2017; CARELLI et al., 2017; FAN et al., 2017; ARPAIA et al., 2020).

In this context, this article aims to describe the development and evaluation of a digital game controlled via BCI that allows monitoring of brain wave behavior and promotes improved cognitive performance in students with ASD: the MemoTea[1]. It involved a multidisciplinary team of professionals, including a psycho-pedagogue, neuropsychologist, statistician, and information technology professionals.

The game's scenario focused on hygiene and health due to its significance as a public health issue that enhances individuals' autonomy in caring for their bodies, a challenge often faced by children with autism (CASANOVA et al., 2021). This theme is of utmost importance and is addressed in Brazil's National Common Curriculum Base (BNCC), which aims to explore the reasons why maintaining body hygiene habits is essential for overall health (BRASIL, 2017).

II. Methodology

This article presents a descriptive study using an experimental mixed-methods approach (qualitative-quantitative). This approach involves collecting and analyzing qualitative and quantitative data, integrating information within an experiment or intervention that combines qualitative data collection with pre and post-test experimental interventions (CRESWELL; CRESWELL, 2021, p.189).

The study focused on students diagnosed with Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD), enrolled in the elementary school (early years, 1st to 5th grade) of the municipal network of Fortaleza - CE. Participants were randomly and voluntarily selected, meeting the necessary criteria for participation. The study included 21 children between the ages of 9 and 11, who were divided into two groups: the experimental group (n=11) and the control group (n=10).

Data collection took place from March 2023 in the Multifunctional Resource Rooms (MRR) of public schools in Fortaleza, Brazil, with autistic students enrolled in the Specialized Educational Assistance (SEA) program. Academic research authorization in the Fortaleza Municipal Network required administrative processing through the Municipal Education Secretariat (MES) and approval from the Research Ethics Committee (REC).

The research was authorized by the Municipal Secretary of Education (MSE) through the Academic Research Authorization Term, under administrative process no. P011111/2023, registered on Plataforma Brasil under substantiated opinion no. 6.024.525 (Research Ethics Committee).

As this study involves individuals, particularly minors, parental or guardian consent was obtained through the Free and Informed Consent Form (FICF), allowing the participation of the minor under their responsibility. Additionally, children signed the Free and Informed Assent Form (FIAS), both explained and provided by the researcher during the signing process.

A semi-structured interview (anamnesis) with guardians was conducted to investigate relevant aspects of the participants' lives, providing insights into their personal and clinical history. Subsequently, a neuropsychological test was administered to all participants in the experimental group (n=11) and the control group (n=10) to assess their cognitive levels.

The applied neuropsychological test was the SON-R 6-40 (LAROS et al., 2022), a non-verbal instrument for assessing general intelligence. It consists of four subtests: Categories and Situations (reasoning subtests) and Mosaics and Patterns (execution subtests). It suits individuals with hearing difficulties, language problems, developmental disorders, and immigrants. However, only the analogies, categories, and mosaics subtests were applied due to time constraints and their relevance to this study's objectives.

The BCI was validated and used exclusively with children in the experimental group (n=11). During the validation process, children engaged in the MemoTea game, focusing on memorizing images to enhance reasoning, concentration, and logical thinking.

Finally, the neuropsychological test was reapplied to all participants in both groups to analyze the results and their relationship with the use of BCI in improving cognitive abilities and personal hygiene in children with ASD. It is essential to note that neuropsychological tests were conducted with the assistance of psychology undergraduate students and a neuropsychologist.

The research took place in the multifunctional resource rooms of schools, with support from the Specialized Educational Assistance (SEA) teacher. These rooms are equipped with furniture, educational materials, and resources for specialized educational assistance (BRAZIL, 2011).

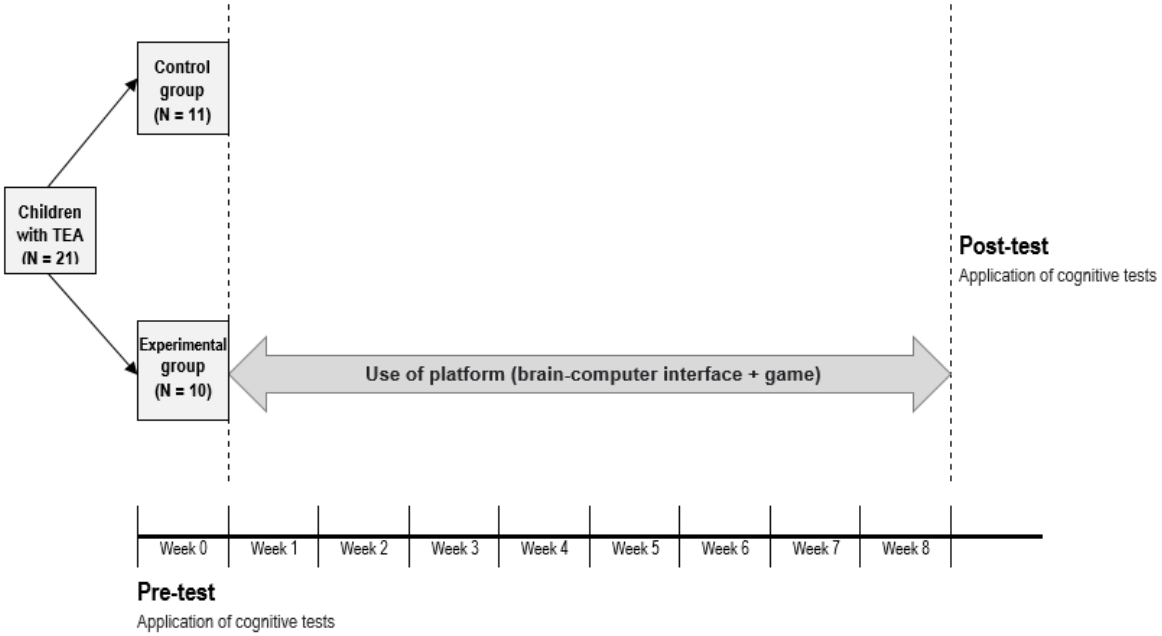
A semi-structured interview (anamnesis) with the child's guardian was conducted. The researcher explained the entire process to the participant and their legal guardian. Afterward, both the experimental group (n=11) and the control group (n=10) of children

[1] The game was titled MemoTea, combining the Portuguese word 'MEMÓRIA' (in English, 'memory') and 'TEA' - Transtorno do Espectro Autista (in English, Autistic Spectrum Disorder).

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underwent a neuropsychological test at the start and conclusion of the monitoring period.

The experimental group (n=11) participated in sessions using the BCI platform twice weekly, each lasting 30 to 40 minutes. Before each session, participants received instructions on the game and the Brain-Computer Interface's functioning. The ICC was configured and calibrated for each participant at the beginning of each session. Each participant underwent an average of eight weeks of training, comprising 16 sessions each. In the end, the researcher, in collaboration with a neuropsychologist, analyzed the test data (Figure 1).



Source: Prepared by the authors (2023)

Figure 1: Research Design

After the Experimental Group (EG) members participated in ICC sessions, both groups (Control Group - CG and Experimental Group - EG) underwent the neuropsychological test again. The obtained results were analyzed using Hotelling's T^2 parametric test (Nel and Merwe, 1986), a non-parametric ANOVA test, and two marginal tests (univariate): the Welch's parametric t-test and the non-parametric Wilcoxon test. Statistical analyses were conducted according to conventional scientific methodologies.

III. Results and Discussion

This section presents the study results, divided into three subtopics: the digital game presentation, description of skills highlighted in the neuropsychological test, and evaluation and analysis of MemoTea game impact concerning BCI use.

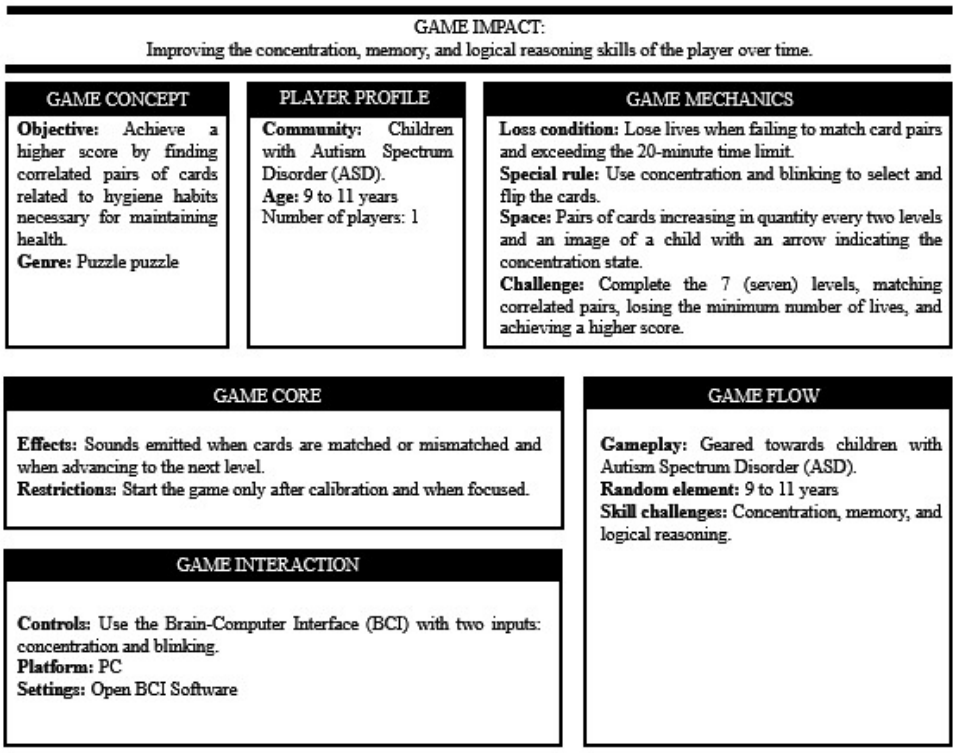
a) Presentation and Usage of the Digital Game

This study focuses on 'MemoTea,' a digital memory game that explores themes related to hygiene and health. It was developed to enhance the cognitive performance of children diagnosed with Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD) and improve their understanding of personal hygiene. Barasoul (2022) notes that memory games are widely used due to their connection to audiovisual material, fostering visual discrimination, logical thinking, identification, and association of images and words, among other aspects.

A literature review was conducted to understand the researched theme and identify the requirements for developing a digital game using BCI for children with autism. GAIA (Guide for Accessibility of Web Interfaces focused on Autism aspects) stood out, offering 28 recommendations to aid software developers and digital educators in creating websites suitable for children within the autism spectrum (BRITTO, 2016).

Schell (2019) was selected as a starting point for product development due to his relevance in the game design field. The author presents a set of questions called "lenses." For this study, the following lenses were focused on: lens #2, essential experience; lens #4, surprise; lens #7, endogenous value; lens #8, problem-solving; and lens #9, elemental tetrad. The game design was developed based on the identified requirements (see Figure 2).

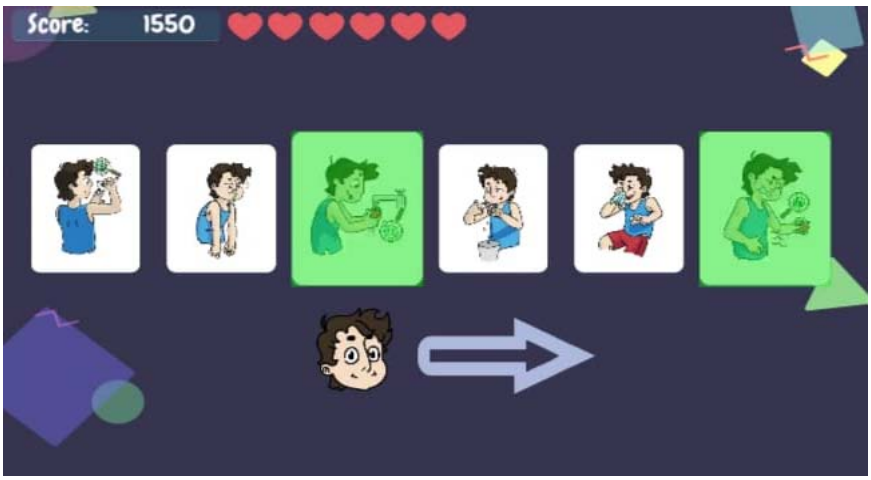
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Source: Adapted from Monteiro and Adamatti (2021).

Figure 2: Game Design

The game's objective is to match pairs containing illustrations of hygiene and health situations, such as a card showing risks of disease-causing agents (child with dirty and bare feet, toothless child, etc.) paired with an image of the related hygiene habit (child wearing shoes, brushing teeth, etc.), as illustrated in Figure 3.



Source: Prepared by the authors (2023)

Figure 3: MemoTea Game

MemoTea consists of seven stages. The user initiates by moving an indicator through concentration captured via BCI. As the student concentrates, the indicator shifts between the game cards. When the indicator is on the desired card, the user should blink, sending a command to reveal the chosen card. Figure 4 displays a student playing MemoTea.

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Source: Prepared by the authors (2023).

Figure 4: MemoTea Game Interface

For each correct pair, the student earns points, and for each mistake, they lose "lives," indicated at the top of the screen. Concentration is essential for gameplay, monitored by a filled arrow in red. If the student loses concentration, the game pauses, resuming only when concentration is regained. All data, including errors and correct answers, concentration and distraction, scores, and game duration are stored.

The difficulty of the stages increases based on the number of cards. The first stage starts with two pairs, and the final stage has four pairs. At the end, participants can view their scores. The data collection system records the EEG data obtained by the BCI, allowing the entire session to be replayed.

Regarding field observations of student participation, there was significant interest and motivation in the activities. Initially, some individuals found it challenging to understand the correlation between pairs, even with explanations. However, as the game progressed, they understood and completed all stages. Most participants finished sessions before the allotted time (20 minutes), averaging between 15 and 18 minutes.

During sessions, differences were noticed among students despite all having an ASD diagnosis. Two students dropped out in the early sessions. They had to be replaced: one due to discomfort with the gel used on electrodes placed on the prefrontal part of the head and the other due to discomfort with the concentration indicator arrow.

b) Evaluation and Analysis of Results and their Relationship with BCI Use

The study included 21 individuals diagnosed with ASD, aged between 9 and 11 years (Mean=10.16; Standard Deviation=0.77), with 11 individuals (Mean=10.33; Standard Deviation=0.60) allocated to the experimental group (EG) and ten individuals (Mean=9.98; Standard Deviation=0.92) to the control group (CG). The individual application test was composed of three subtests: Analogies (36 items divided into three series of 12); Mosaics (26 items divided into two series of 13); and Categories (36 items divided into three series of 12). The total IQ, representing overall cognitive functioning, was obtained from these subtests.

Everyone participated in three subtests (Analogies, Mosaics, and Categories) at the beginning of the experiment. The results of the subtests for the same individual may exhibit a correlation structure. Therefore, two multivariate tests were conducted to assess whether individuals behaved similarly in the initial administration of the subtests across groups, as per the results presented in Table 1.

The test was the parametric Hotelling's T^2 test, and the second was the non-parametric ANOVA-type test (Burchett et al., 2017). Two marginal (univariate) tests were conducted to assess the difference between EG and CG for each of the subtests and for the total IQ. These tests included the parametric Welch's t-test and the non-parametric Wilcoxon test. Both a parametric and a non-parametric test were considered to enhance the robustness of the study, as the sample sizes are not significant.

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Table 1: P-values of Multivariate Tests for Independent Samples

Multivariate Tests for Independent samples	P-value
Hotelling's T^2 Test	0.435
Non-parametric Anova tupe test	0.234

Source: Author herself (2023).

The null hypothesis for each of the two multivariate tests is: There is no difference between the groups when the tests are evaluated jointly, and the alternative hypothesis is: There is a difference between the groups when the tests are evaluated jointly. Considering that the p-values presented in Table 1 were more significant than 0.05, we can state that the null hypothesis should not be rejected, and the groups can be considered similar. To better understand the performance results in each subtest, marginal tests are presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics for Subtests and Total IQ in the Groups

Subtests	EG (n=11)			CG (n=10)			Difference	P-value	
	average	DP	Amplitude	average	DP	Amplitude		Welch	Wilcoxon
Analogies	11.36	4.67	4 – 18	10.30	4.24	4 – 18	1.06	0.645	0.591
Mosaics	11.55	4.37	1 – 17	8.20	4.71	2 – 15	3.35	0.138	0.109
Categories	12.55	7.67	3 – 30	10.30	6.40	7 – 28	2.25	0.188	0.474
IQ	95.45	15.90	63 – 119	89.90	14.24	71 – 111	5.55	0.417	0.409

Source: Author herself (2023).

The null hypothesis in the eight marginal tests (one Welch test for each subtest and one Wilcoxon test for each subtest) is: There is no significant difference between the results of the subtests among the groups, and the alternative hypothesis is: There is a considerable difference between the results of the subtests among the groups. Considering that the p-values presented in Table 2 were all greater than 0.05, we can state that the null hypothesis should not be rejected, and the groups can be considered similar in each subtest.

It is observed that there is a slight performance variation in the experimental group, as indicated by the data in Table 2. However, this slight variation is insignificant as both test p-values are greater than 0.05 for each subtest, demonstrating no statistical significance between the groups.

After completing the sessions, the subtests Analogies, Mosaics, and Categories were re-administered. The first statistical test applied to compare the results in the SON R-40 tests before and after sessions with the game was the paired Hotelling's T2 test (RENCHER, 2003). It is observed that the T^2 yielded satisfactory results, proving to be conservative under the proposed conditions, as demonstrated in Table 3, presenting p-values lower than the nominal value (0.05) for the general case (without group distinction) and for the experimental group, with a p-value exceeding 0.05 in the control group.

Table 3: P-values of Hotelling's T^2 Tests for Paired Multivariate Data

Group	Hotelling's T^2 test for paired samples (p-value)
General (n=21)	0.005
Experimental Group (n=11)	0.004
Control Group (n=10)	0.194

Source: Author herself (2023).

A significant difference in the mean scores of the test application was observed, as indicated in Table 3, when comparing the control group and the experimental group. This also contributed to a change in the overall group mean (CG + EG). The results of 0.005 (general group) and 0.004 (experimental group) concretely express this improvement in performance. It is worth noting that the control group exhibits no discernible change in test performance.

Following the implementation of the multivariate paired test, two separate paired tests were carried out to evaluate cognitive improvements between the initial and subsequent test administrations within the Experimental Group (EG), Control Group (CG), and the overall groups, considering each subtest and the total IQ. These tests include the parametric Welch's t-test for paired samples and the non-parametric Wilcoxon test for paired samples. Additionally, the effect size of the

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mean differences was calculated using Cohen's d for paired samples. The effect size of mean differences for paired data was calculated using the formula for Cohen's d by Gibbons et al. (1993), incorporating the correction proposed by Borenstein et al. (2009). According to Cohen (1988), the effect size values should be interpreted as follows: $0.0 < |d| \leq 0.20$ = very weak effect; $0.20 < |d| \leq 0.50$ = weak effect; $0.50 < |d| \leq 0.80$ = moderate effect; $|d| \geq 0.80$ = strong effect. Table 4 presents these numbers based on two hypotheses: a) null hypothesis, where no difference occurred in values between administrations, and b) alternative hypothesis, where the difference was positive, indicating cognitive gain.

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics and P-values of Wilcoxon and Welch Paired Tests

Group	Subtestes	Average		Differenc (Post - Pre)			p-value (paired samples)		Cohen's d (paired samples)
		Pre	Post	Average	DP	Ampli	Wilcoxon	Welch	
General (n=21)	Analogies	10.86	13.14	2.29	3.12	-2 9	0.0023	0.0016	0.4796 (weak)
	Mosaics	9.95	10.14	0.19	2.42	-6 3	0.2438	0.3611	0.0412 (v. w.)
	Categories	11.48	13.43	1.95	4.54	-10 10	0.0159	0.0315	0.2818 (weak)
	IQ	92.81	99.10	6.29	7.52	-10 26	0.0008	0.0005	0.3827 (weak)
EG (n=11)	Analogies	11.36	14.82	3.45	2.70	0 9	0.0045	0.0008	0.6835 (mode)
	Mosaics	11.55	11.18	-0.36	2.01	-3 3	0.7253	0.7187	-0.0837 (v. w.)
	Categories	12.55	15.09	2.55	3.96	-3 9	0.0370	0.0294	0.3164 (weak)
	IQ	95.45	103.73	8.27	7.48	-2 26	0.0029	0.0022	0.4048 (weak)
CG (n=10)	Analogies	10.30	11.30	1.00	3.16	-2 9	0.2607	0.1717	0.2370 (weak)
	Mosaics	8.20	9.00	0.80	2.78	-6 3	0.1147	0.1933	0.1736 (v. w.)
	Categories	10.30	11.60	1.30	5.25	-10 10	0.1195	0.2269	0.2254 (weak)
	IQ	89.90	94.00	4.10	7.29	-10 13	0.0479	0.0546	0.2986 (weak)

Subtitle: Ampli – Amplitude
Mode – moderante
v.w. – very weak
Source: Author herself (2023).

Considering the data from the table above, we observe agreement between the paired Welch t-test and Wilcoxon test, indicating cognitive gain. However, it did not occur significantly, as the values remained below the threshold of p=0.05. There is only one item in which Cohen's d showed a "moderate effect". This item corresponds to the Analogies subtest, representing the best performance result following the application of the sessions.

In this specific subtest (Analogies), the result is significant as it addresses areas of fluid intelligence development. In other words, there is notable progress in the cognitive processes of participants in the experimental group, which is the focus of the Brain-Computer Interface (BCI) intervention. The Analogies subtest addresses aspects related to abstract reasoning, including the ability to pay attention (observe), organize (process information), and plan (execute) actions. In the case of this subtest, participants identify the transformation process in a pair of figures and carry out the proposed transformation.

The other considered satisfactory result, even though it is not explicitly shown in the table when considering Cohen's d, pertains to the results of the Categories subtest: the mean value jumped from 12.55 to 15.09 after the intervention with the game and the BCI. This item also addresses reasoning ability, monitoring, and inhibition of inappropriate responses. It is worth noting that inevitably, aspects related to cognitive development are intertwined with socio-emotional aspects. An enhanced cognitive response or development implies an improvement in the development of emotional skills for children with ASD.

The presented results align with the primary aspects addressed in the MemoTea game, particularly concentration and logical reasoning (Analogies and Categories subtests). This is evident in the noticeable improvement in overall IQ performance, which increased from 95.45 to 103.73 in the experimental group (EG). The presented game aims to stimulate the concentration process by linking the child's perception of what is being asked in the game to their prompt response, such as "blink to select a card; concentrate on passing the card." These aspects are related to the development of fluid intelligence—the ability to identify and solve problems without prior knowledge. The game, therefore, incorporates elements related to reasoning and action execution: attention (perception of what is happening), concentration (the ability to focus, control impulses, and monitor—given as a possible response to a specific problem), and logical reasoning (the ability to associate images and shapes with previously seen items, also aiming to work on memorization).

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The use of Brain-Computer Interface (BCI), mainly targeting the prefrontal cortex, aligns with the improvement in the performance of children in the experimental group—given that this brain region is one of the most affected in individuals diagnosed with Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD) (Gomes et al., 2014). This clarifies the difficulties these individuals encounter in the brain's executive functions, although not all these functions are exclusively confined to this brain area.

Conversely, the less significant improvement in overall IQ can be attributed to Mosaics subtest results being notably lower. This justification is warranted as the subtest focuses on aspects related to spatial vision, a dimension not covered in this study.

IV. Conclusion

This article presented the development and validation of a system to enhance cognitive performance by using a brain-computer interface-controlled digital memory game with 21 children with Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD). Neuropsychological tests administered both before and after the use of the system (Game + BCI) revealed noteworthy cognitive improvements in the experimental group. Improvements were noted in concentration, logical reasoning, memorization, problem-solving, and increased self-confidence.

Furthermore, concerning the theme of hygiene and health, teachers reported observing some positive changes in students' behavior in the experimental group, such as acquiring the habit of handwashing or not removing footwear in the school environment.

It is worth noting that these improvements were observed and substantiated after only 16 sessions. Hence, there is a belief that extending the application of this solution (Game + Brain-Computer Interface) over a longer duration could potentially amplify cognitive benefits in this population.

Additionally, some improvements were noted that could be implemented in future tests, including the use of different games to help maintain students' interest and motivation, expanding the sample size to reinforce the confirmation of benefits achieved, conducting training in a more suitable physical environment to avoid external interferences, and employing procedures to minimize participant fatigue.

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Global Journal of human-social science: G
Linguistics & Education
Volume 24 Issue 1 Version 1.0 Year 2024
Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal
Publisher: Global Journals
Online ISSN: 2249-460X & Print ISSN: 0975-587X

Strategy for the Evaluation, Diagnosis, and Support of Children and Adolescents with Intellectual Disabilities in Colón, Panama

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Abstract- The evaluation and diagnosis of a person with intellectual disability implies establishing the existence of significantly limiting indicators both in intellectual functions and adaptive behaviors in different contexts of daily life. This article aims to identify the strengths and weaknesses of people with intellectual disabilities, in order to propose an evaluation and diagnosis strategy not only to obtain a characteristic or classification, but also aimed at improving the programs and support services of people with intellectual disabilities at the institutional level. This study was conducted in the city of Colón, Panama. Through a non-experimental design, with a single group, quantitative, qualitative-explanatory longitudinal; of the 51 children and adolescents with intellectual disabilities from the Panamanian Institute of Special Education of Colón. Each child and adolescent were evaluated through the Adaptive Behavior Assessment System test (ABAS-II 2013). The analyzed findings of the results of the evaluation and diagnoses of the study revealed the importance of optimizing and strengthening the support systems of people with intellectual disabilities focused on an inclusive environment interrelated with the community, school, family, and society.

Keywords: *evaluation, diagnosis, intellectual disability, adaptive skill, support.*

GJHSS-G Classification: *FOR Code: 130312*



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Strategy for the Evaluation, Diagnosis, and Support of Children and Adolescents with Intellectual Disabilities in Colón, Panama

Estrategia de Evaluación Diagnóstico y Apoyo Para Niños y Adolescentes Con Discapacidad Intelectual en Colón, Panamá

Simón Barrera Ávila

Resumen- La evaluación y diagnóstico de persona con discapacidad intelectual implica establecer la existencia de indicadores de limitaciones significativamente tanto en las funciones intelectual como las conductas adaptativas en diferente contexto de la vida diaria. Este articulo pretende identificar los puntos débiles y fuertes de las personas con discapacidad intelectual, con el fin de proponer una estrategia de evaluación y diagnostico no solamente para obtener una característica o clasificación, sino también dirigida a mejorar los programas y servicios de apoyo de las personas con discapacidad intelectual a nivel institucional. Este estudio se realizó en la ciudad de Colón, Panamá. En donde a través de un diseño de tipo no experimental, con un solo grupo, de tipo cuantitativo, cualitativo – explicativo longitudinal; de los 51 niños y adolescentes con discapacidad intelectual del Instituto Panameño de Habilitación Especial de Colón. Cada niño y adolescente fue evaluado a través de la prueba de sistema de Evaluación de la Conducta Adaptativa (prueba ABAS–II 2013). Los hallazgos analizados de los resultados de la evaluación y diagnósticos del estudio revelaron la importancia de optimizar y fortalecer los sistemas de apoyo de las personas con discapacidad intelectual enfocados en un entorno inclusivos interrelacionado con la comunidad, la escuela, familia y la sociedad.

Palabras clave: evaluación, diagnostico, discapacidad intelectual, habilidades adaptativas. apoyo.

Abstract- The evaluation and diagnosis of a person with intellectual disability implies establishing the existence of significantly limiting indicators both in intellectual functions and adaptive behaviors in different contexts of daily life. This article aims to identify the strengths and weaknesses of people with intellectual disabilities, in order to propose an evaluation and diagnosis strategy not only to obtain a characteristic or classification, but also aimed at improving the programs and support services of people with intellectual disabilities at the institutional level. This study was conducted in the city of Colón, Panama. Through a non-experimental design, with a single group, quantitative, qualitative-explanatory longitudinal; of the 51 children and adolescents with intellectual disabilities from the Panamanian Institute of Special Education of Colón. Each child and adolescent were evaluated through the Adaptive Behavior Assessment System test (ABAS-II 2013). The analyzed findings of the results of the evaluation and diagnoses of the study revealed the importance of optimizing and strengthening the support systems of people with intellectual disabilities focused on an inclusive environment interrelated with the community, school, family, and society.

Keywords: evaluation, diagnosis, intellectual disability, adaptive skill, support.

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I. Introducción

Ciertamente, existe un amplio consenso entre los profesionales que atienden estudiantes con discapacidad intelectual, en cuanto al modelo de evaluación psicopedagógica. Sin embargo, en este sentido cualquier valoración va a requerir el establecimiento de un enfoque multidimensional de valoración, acorde con la nueva definición de discapacidad intelectual que aborda dos aspectos importantes para la evaluación, diagnostico y apoyo relacionado con déficits significativo en las funciones intelectuales y las funciones conducta habilidades adaptativas en el área conceptual, área social y área práctica. Cabe señalar que la valoración cumple la finalidad de detección de las necesidades individuales en los diferentes contextos, pero además de concreción de los apoyos requerido para cubrir esas necesidades. Este enfoque actual se relaciona directamente con la denominada planificación centrada en la persona, se define como la herramienta en la que se plasma el proceso por el que una persona con discapacidad intelectual adquiere un proyecto de vida de carácter inclusivo, por lo tanto, los apoyos que se determinan una vez realizada la evaluación, cumplen la finalidad de facilitar el camino hacia la consecución de los objetivos específico.

El proceso de evaluación de la discapacidad intelectual se debe realizar en torno a tres funciones: 1. diagnóstico, 2. clasificación y descripción, 3. y planificación de apoyos. Conforme a la función diagnóstica desempeña una función importante en la identificación de la discapacidad intelectual a través de los criterios que se establecen en la nueva definición, a saber: las limitaciones significativas del funcionamiento intelectual, las limitaciones significativas de la conducta adaptativa y la edad de aparición antes de la edad de mayoría. Sin embargo, la función de clasificación y

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descripción se orienta a identificar las capacidades y limitaciones es decir a la descripción de los puntos fuertes y de los puntos débiles en cada una de las dimensiones de acuerdo con las capacidades (Capacidades intelectuales, conductas adaptativas, salud física y mentales, participación, interacción, contexto social etc. (Arellano, 2022).

A pesar que puedan existir diferencias importantes entre fortalezas y debilidades de una habilidad adaptativa u otra (por ejemplo, las personas con discapacidad intelectual presenta mayor debilidad que fortaleza en el área académica, sin embargo en área practica y social evidencias mayor fortaleza etc.), sin embargo el mínimo de fortaleza en una área de las habilidades adaptativas, evidencia significativamente estas habilidades para su funcionamiento en diferentes contextos de la vida diaria (Barrera, 2023, pag.139), los estudios de Oakland (2013) y Harrison (2013) sostiene que identificar los punto fuertes y limitaciones de un área y otra permiten las asistencia y planificación de otras áreas de conductas y habilidades adaptativas de las personas con discapacidad intelectual.

Según Arellano (2022) la finalidad identificar las debilidades y fortalezas de esta función adaptativas, evidencian las necesidades que presenta la persona con discapacidad intelectual, lo cual, permite planificar los apoyos que mejoren el funcionamiento individual.

La función de planificación de apoyos: esta juega un rol importante en las personas con discapacidad intelectual porque va dirigida a ayudar y concretizar el tipo de intensidad de apoyos que necesita la persona en cada una de las áreas de calidad de vida, especificando aspectos como el desarrollo personal, autodeterminación, relaciones interpersonales, la inclusión social, el derecho, desarrollo emocional, bienestar físico y material (Arellano, 2922).

Coincide con otros estudios referente al valor e identificar áreas de fortaleza y debilidad que guardan relación con las habilidades funcionales tiene un precio incalculable, ya que ayudaría a profesionales, centros educativos y familias a comprender de qué forma se puede propiciar servicios de apoyo para beneficio de población infantil, adolescente y adulta con discapacidad intelectual

Por otro lado Verdugo (2021) reafirma la necesidad de apoyo planteando que los objetivos principales del diagnóstico de discapacidad intelectual son: identificar y comunicar con precisión la presencia de los componentes de la discapacidad intelectual en una persona; establecer la elegibilidad para las presentaciones, apoyos y servicios pertinentes; monitorizar la salud y hacer un seguimiento de incidencia y la prevalencia; y estudiar aspectos importantes de la discapacidad intelectual y la vida de las personas.

Cabe señalar" que Organismo internacional sustentan en sus proyectos y programas, (en ese entonces Asociación Americanas Retraso Mental, 2004, (AAMR) en la actualidad Asociación de Discapacidades Intelectuales y del Desarrollo, 2019 (AAIDD, 12ª edición), que los apoyos "son recursos y estrategias destinados a promover el desarrollo, la educación y el bienestar personal, e incrementar el funcionamiento individual" de las personas con discapacidad.

De acuerdo Verdugo (2021, pág. 27) los sistemas de apoyo son recursos y estrategia que promueven el desarrollo e interés de la persona y mejoraran su funcionamiento y bienestar personal. Los sistemas de apoyos eficaces: a) están centrados en la persona, son integrales y están coordinados y orientados a resultados; b) se basan en valores, condiciones facilitadoras y relaciones de apoyo; c) incorporan la lección y autonomía personal, entornos inclusivos, apoyos genéricos y especializados; y d) los objetivos personales, las necesidades de apoyo y los resultados de los valorados.

Los sistemas de apoyo eficaz son una red interconectada de recursos y estrategias que fomentan el desarrollo e interés de una persona, mejora su funcionamiento individual y bienestar personal, y están centrados en la persona, son exhaustivo, coordinar, y están orientados a resultados. Una estructura eficaz de sistemas de apoyo promueve la identificación de recursos y estrategias que pueden implementar para atender las necesidades individuales de apoyo y alcanzar las metas personales (Braddock, et., al 2015; Larson et., al 2018, citado por Verdugo, 2021, pág. 96).

En Panamá aún hace mayor énfasis en el modelo psicopedagógico basado en las habilidades escolares en el área de la escritura y lectura, cálculos, aun dependiendo de los resultados del nivel coeficiente intelectual (CI) que se obtiene de una prueba psicométrico, que no dejan de ser importante en la evaluación y diagnostico; sin embrago las habilidades y conductas adaptativas, en cambio, se dejan a un segundo plano, aunque ambas son importantes para el proceso de evaluación y diagnostico e intervención de apoyo a las personas con discapacidad intelectual, sin embargo contamos con un sistema institucional educativos que promueve una política que favorece el uso de valoración del coeficiente intelectual (CI), que no ofrece mayor alternativa en función de brindar un programa de apoyo a las personas con discapacidad intelectual, basadas en otra habilidades adaptativas (Barrera, 2023), a pesar que existe trabajos y estudios basados en los nuevos criterios para la evaluación y diagnostico que hace mención a la discapacidad intelectual e incluyendo la conducta y habilidades adaptativas, aun no se le sigue dando importancia (Barrera, A, 2023).

Al momento de referirnos al concepto de conducta adaptativa nos estamos refiriendo al conjunto

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de habilidades conceptuales, sociales y prácticas aprendidas por una persona con tal que pueda funcionar de manera practica en su vida diaria (Shalock et al., 2010, citado Pimentel, 2022). Por ejemplo, es oportuno mencionar que una de las características esenciales del diagnóstico de la discapacidad intelectual es que no únicamente hay que basarse en los resultados de pruebas de inteligencia, sino que también es oportuno evaluar su conducta adaptativa desde una perspectiva de independencia, funcionalidad y socialización. Recordemos que los anteriores problemas pudiesen estar afectando la adaptación del paciente en múltiples áreas de su vida, como lo pueden ser el área familiar, escolar, laboral y social (Morrison y Flegel, 2018, citado por Pimentell, 2022). Vale la pena aclarar que la evaluación de conducta adaptativa no solo resulta útil en casos de Discapacidad Intelectual (DI), sino que también resulta importante durante la evaluación de otros trastornos del neurodesarrollo o síndromes, tal es el caso del Trastorno del Espectro Autismo (TEA), Trastorno de Hiperactividad con déficit de atención o hiperactividad (TDAH), Síndrome de Down etc. (Pimentel, 2022).

La evaluación de la conducta adaptativa y habilidades funcionales ayuda a planificar programas de intervención, ya que se habría identificado los servicios y apoyos que requiere el paciente para funcionar de forma óptima en su entorno (Pimentel, 2022).

La discapacidad intelectual es de los tipos de condiciones de mayor prevalencia en sector educativo panameño. Por ejemplo, basado en datos del Departamento de Estadística del IPHE (2021) de un total de 16,078 estudiantes que recibieron algún tipo de apoyo por docentes del IPHE en centros educativos a nivel nacional durante el año 2021, al menos 9,920 estudiantes presentaban discapacidad intelectual. Esto refleja que Panamá enfrenta múltiples retos: en primera instancia, detectar de forma oportuna estos casos, y, en segundo lugar, brindar apoyo terapéutico y educativo que permita a este grupo poblacional obtener herramientas que le ayuden a adaptarse de mejor forma a las demandas del ambiente (Pimente, 2022).

Dentro de este orden de idea existen tres propósitos fundamentales de introducir en el diagnostico una clasificación que contemple:

a) La intensidad de la necesidad de apoyo; b) el alcance de las limitaciones en las habilidades adaptativas conceptuales, sociales, practicas; o c) el grado de limitación en el funcionamiento intelectual.

Especialista coinciden sobre el impacto que puede tener una clasificación de la intensidad de las necesidades de apoyo de las personas con discapacidad intelectual, teniendo en cuenta una puntuación a partir de un instrumento estandarizados de pruebas que obtengan puntuación igual o inferior adquirido por la persona evaluada. En caso de que sea necesario clasificar a las personas en función del nivel de intensidad de sus necesidades de apoyo, se utilizaría los términos intermitentes (nivel leve) limitado (nivel moderado) extenso (nivel grave) y generalizados (nivel profundo) teniendo en cuenta las puntuaciones percentiles de necesidades de apoyo que definen cada uno de estos subgrupos de clasificaciones (Verdugo, 2021).

Pimentel (2022) plantea que conocer la capacidad de una persona para adaptarse al medio, actuando de forma independiente y autónoma probablemente tenga un mayor beneficio e impacto en el tratamiento que únicamente conociendo su diagnóstico. Esto ayudaría a especialistas, colegios y familia entender los servicios de ayuda que deben ponerse en práctica para el fortalecimiento de áreas funcionales (Pimentel, 2022)

El propósito de la evaluación y diagnóstico es mejorar los resultados personales vinculado con la independencia, relaciones, contribuciones, participación escolar y comunitaria y bienestar personal. La evaluación de los apoyos puede tener una relevancia diferente dependiendo de si se realiza con objetivos clasificadores o de planificación de apoyos. Las escalas de evaluación de los apoyos, los autoinformes, algunos componentes de la evaluación y del plan individual son medidas para la planificación de los apoyos (Bertrand, 1989).

No intento desvalorizar el uso de las pruebas psicométricas de coeficiente intelectual; sino disminuir el estima de la persona con discapacidad intelectual asociado solamente a una habilidad académica (por ejemplo, aprender a escribir y leer, sumar) es de allí la necesidad de emplear otras valoraciones como las pruebas de las conducta adaptativas, para obtener un diagnóstico más claro y eficaz de las personas con discapacidad intelectual en el proceso de aprendizaje y entrenamiento en sus actividades prácticas de la vida diaria, y poder brindarle un mejor desarrollo personal, y contribuir al mantenimiento de su calidad de vida dentro de un sistema de apoyo cónsono con su debilidad y fortaleza. Emplear otras pruebas estandariza para medir los niveles de necesidades de apoyo de las personas con discapacidad intelectual, planteado en otro estudio (Barrera. Á, 2023).

Es fundamental señalar que para realizar un diagnóstico de discapacidad intelectual debe existir 3 (tres) criterios: 1) limitaciones significativas en el funcionamiento intelectual, 2) junto con limitaciones significativamente en las conductas y habilidades adaptativas y una 3) edad de inicio durante el periodo de desarrollo, de acuerdo con nuevo criterio, lo cual se define operativamente como antes que la persona cumpla los 22 años. Para determinar cuando existen limitaciones significativamente en el funcionamiento

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intelectual se debe utilizar la puntuación total CI obtenida a partir de la aplicación de una escala inteligencia completa y estandarizadas (Verdugo, 2021, pág.51). En caso de complicarse la evaluación por la presencia otros trastornos, se debe emplear los criterios del juicio clínicos. El juicio clínico se exige como una buena práctica en el campo de la discapacidad. Su uso adecuado permite mejorar la precisión, exactitud e integración de las decisiones y recomendaciones de los profesionales (Regader, 1989).

Cabe resaltar que uno de los criterios diagnósticos de discapacidad intelectual que aparecen reflejados en la Guía de Consulta de los Criterios Diagnostico (DSM -5, 2014) dice así *"en la discapacidad intelectual se producen deficiencias en el comportamiento adaptativo, de forma que se interfiere con el cumplimiento de estándares de desarrollo que son necesarios para llevar a cabo una vida autónoma e independiente (Pimentel, 2022)*

Según Verdugo (2021, pág. 58) sostiene que el funcionamiento intelectual y las conductas adaptativas son dos constructos diferentes e independiente, que están correlacionado solo de manera moderada. En el diagnostico de discapacidad intelectual el funcionamiento intelectual y la conducta adaptativa debe ser considerada de manera conjunta y se les debe dar el mismo peso para el diagnóstico.

¿La evaluación y diagnóstico de las debilidades y fortalezas de las personas con discapacidad intelectual favores los sistemas de apoyo en diferentes contextos de la vida cotidiana?

II. Material y Métodos

En la primera etapa inicial de este estudio, lo cual el mismo es continuidad de otro (ver 1 estudios Fortaleza Y Debilidad de las Conducta Adaptativas de Niños Y Adolescentes Con Discapacidad Intelectual) igualmente se respetó el tema de la carta de consentimiento informado y el formato para el posterior seguimiento. Este trabajo fue efectuado en Colón, Panamá, con 51 niños y adolescentes entre 11 a 18 años diagnosticados con discapacidad intelectual entre leve, moderado y profundo del Instituto Panameño Habilitación Especial (IPHE) de los que el 66.5% eran varones y un 33.5% mujeres. En la recolección de datos se realizaron los siguientes procedimientos: una entrevista corta a los padres, educadores, psicólogos, trabajador social, sobre la importancia de la evaluación y diagnostico e incluyendo los sistemas de apoyo.

La otra prueba que se empleo fue la prueba de evaluación y diagnóstico de la conducta y habilidades adaptativas ABAS -II en versión en español (Oakland, 2013; Harrison, 2013) es una prueba estandariza utilizadas para evaluar las fortalezas y debilidades generales de las personas con discapacidad intelectual diferentes contexto (escolar, comunicación, usos de los servicios de la comunidad, supermercados, almacenes etc.) de las personas entre 0 y 89 años de edad.

III. Resultados y Discusiones

Los resultados de la evaluación y diagnostico basado en diferentes contextos de la vida (académica, social, practica) diaria de las personas con discapacidad intelectual (Escala de Evaluación de Conductas y Habilidades Adaptativas, Harrison, 2013) tiene la finalidad de brindar una estrategia de evaluación y diagnostico contemplando aspecto relacionado con un proyecto de inclusión centrado en sistema de apoyo cónsono con sus fortalezas y debilidades. Fueron nueve subáreas que se evaluaron de los estudiantes con discapacidad intelectual: la interacción social, comunicación, el uso de los servicios de la comunidad, las habilidades académicas funcionales, autodirección, ocio, vida en el hogar, salud y seguridad.

De acuerdo con los trabajos de Harrison, 2013 & Oakland (2013), esta prueba psicométrica puede cuantificar áreas de fortalezas y debilidades en diferente ambiente, asimismo han sido normalizada por alguna clasificación internacional para la evaluación y diagnostico y apoyo de las personas con discapacidad intelectual (Asociación de Discapacidades Intelectuales y del Desarrollo, AAIDD, 12ª edición 2019).

De la evaluación y diagnostico realizados en los estudiantes con discapacidad intelectual del Instituto Panameño de Habilitación Especial (IPHE) alcanzaron los siguientes resultados:

Análisis de las evaluaciones de las áreas de fortalezas y debilidades de las habilidades adaptativas de los niños y adolescentes con discapacidad intelectual en diferente contexto de la vida diaria (área conceptual, área social, área practica)

AREA CONCEPTUAL	Debilidad	Fortaleza	AREAS SOCIAL	Debilidades	Fortaleza	AREA PRACTICA	Debilidades	Fortaleza
Comunicación	76.47 %	23.53%	Social	62.75%	37.25%	Utilización de los recursos comunitarios	72.55%	27.45%
Habilidades académicas	96%	3.92%	Ocio	69.55%	27.45%	Vida en el hogar	29.42%	70.58%
Autodirección	74%	24.49%				Salud y seguridad	80.39%	19.61%
						Autocuidado	68.62%	31.38%
N=51								

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Área conceptual: De acuerdo con los resultados obtenidos en el área conceptual que implica tres contextos diferentes relacionado con las habilidades del uso del idioma, lenguaje basado en la comunicación, se encontró en la sumatoria un 76.47 % debilidad y 23.53% de fortalezas. Por otro lado, se encontró en la sumatoria un 96% debilidad en la habilidad académica y 3.92% fortaleza en la misma habilidad; mientras que la habilidad de autodirección reflejó en la sumatoria 74% debilidad, 24. 49%. fortaleza, esto representa el área conceptual de la vida diaria de los niños y adolescentes con discapacidad intelectual.

Área social: De acuerdo con la sumatoria los resultados evidencian en las habilidades social 62.75% debilidad 37.25% fortaleza en la misma habilidad. Las habilidades de ocio revelaron 69.55% debilidades y 27.45% de fortalezas.

Área practica: De acuerdo con la sumatoria de la habilidad de utilización de los recursos comunitarios revelaron 72.55% de debilidades, 27.45% fortaleza, mientras que Vida en el hogar evidencia 29.42%, debilidad, 70.58% fortaleza, indica que los niños y adolescentes presentan mayor fortaleza en la vida en el hogar, representa el área practica de las habilidades adaptativas de los niños y adolescentes, mientras que en el área de la habilidad de salud y seguridad la sumatoria revelo 80.39% debilidad, 19.61% fortaleza, autocuidado revelo 68.62%.

IV. Discusiones

Este análisis de evaluación y diagnóstico de niños y adolescentes con discapacidad intelectual a permitido un panorama de manera general de las habilidades que presenta en diferentes áreas (conceptual o académico, social, practico), asimismo como se adapta a su ambiente y donde está su mayor fortaleza y debilidad para lograr una funcionalidad e independencia y responder mejor a un sistema de apoyo que ofrezcan programas basados en proyecto de vida considerando competencias cónsono con los recurso que cuenta las personas con discapacidad intelectual.

La importancia del contexto en la vida del ser humano se entiende por las condiciones interrelacionadas en la que la persona vive su vida cotidiana. Los desarrollos posteriores han ampliado la comprensión de la función que desempeñan el contexto en un enfoque integrador de la persona con discapacidad intelectual (Shongren, Luckasson et., al, 2014 citado por Verdugo, 2021).

V. Conclusión

Estos resultados reflejan como estos sujetos con discapacidad intelectual están interactuado de manera genérica con su ambiente en diferente contexto, lo cual le permite ser más funcional e independiente en su comunidad, en la escuela, en la familia y así poder diseñar programas de apoyo que impacte en la inclusión social y el bienestar psicológico de las personas con discapacidad intelectual.

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Global Journal of human-social science: G
Linguistics & Education
Volume 24 Issue 1 Version 1.0 Year 2024
Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal
Publisher: Global Journals
Online ISSN: 2249-460X & Print ISSN: 0975-587X

Navigating the Intertextual Landscape: KPD Maphalla's Poetry in Dialogue

By Sol Chaphole
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Abstract- The view that a text is an autonomous, hermetic, selfcontained system is a myth. Every text is constituted by 'a mosaic of citations, every text is the absorption and transformation of another text'(Kristeva, 1986: 37). Our purpose in this article is to show that there is an intertextual relation between the later poetry of KPD Maphalla and the earlier poems of KE Ntsane, BM Khaketla and MA Mokhomo; that a text has the meaning it does only because certain things were written before. This calls our attention to the importance of prior texts and how they relate to later texts. Hillis Miller (1979: 225), writing about the symbol of host and parasite in literature, says later texts contain long chains of parasitical presences. This view of intertextual relations suggests that there is cannibalism between texts where the later work simply feeds on the earlier work without shame. On the contrary, there is more to intertextuality in literature than the symbol of hosts and parasites. The analytical approach we adopt in this paper, derives from the theory of intertextuality as initiated and developed by Julia Kristeva (1966, 1967, 1980, 1986) together with the Tel Quel group.

Keywords: *intertextuality, theory, plurality of meaning, autonomous text, host and parasite.*

GJHSS-G Classification: *FOR Code: 2005*



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Navigating the Intertextual Landscape: KPD Maphalla's Poetry in Dialogue

Sol Chaphole

Abstract- The view that a text is an autonomous, hermetic, self-contained system is a myth. Every text is constituted by 'a mosaic of citations, every text is the absorption and transformation of another text'(Kristeva, 1986: 37). Our purpose in this article is to show that there is an intertextual relation between the later poetry of KPD Maphalla and the earlier poems of KE Ntsane, BM Khaketla and MA Mokhomo; that a text has the meaning it does only because certain things were written before. This calls our attention to the importance of prior texts and how they relate to later texts. Hillis Miller (1979: 225), writing about the symbol of host and parasite in literature, says later texts contain long chains of parasitical presences. This view of intertextual relations suggests that there is cannibalism between texts where the later work simply feeds on the earlier work without shame. On the contrary, there is more to intertextuality in literature than the symbol of hosts and parasites. The analytical approach we adopt in this paper, derives from the theory of intertextuality as initiated and developed by Julia Kristeva (1966, 1967, 1980, 1986) together with the *Tel Quel* group. Here, intertextuality is viewed as a dynamic site where earlier and later texts intersect, enter a dialogue, negotiate a plurality of meaning, and enrich one another. In our methodology, data will be derived from the poetry of the four poets mentioned above where textual relations will be revealed between earlier and later texts. The expected results of this research will, indeed, show that a text is a multi-dimensional space in which a variety of writings, none of them original, blend and clash (Barthes, 2001).

Keywords: intertextuality, theory, plurality of meaning, autonomous text, host and parasite.

"The good of a book lies in its being read.
A book is made up of signs that speak of other signs,
which in their turn speak of things.
Without an eye to read them,
a book contains signs that produce no concepts,
therefore, it is dumb."
Umberto Eco *(1980), 'The Name of the Rose'.*

I. Introduction

Moleleki ([1988: 182] 2020) says Maphalla, like any other author, has fed on the work of other authors like a parasite, especially his predecessors in the genre of poetry. To support his statement, Moleleki quotes Miller (1979:225) who writes:

'any poem, however, is parasitical in its turn on earlier poems,
or contains earlier poems within itself as enclosed parasites,
in another version of perpetual reversal of parasite and host.
If the poem is food and poison for the critics,
it must in turn have eaten.
It must have been a cannibal consumer of earlier poems'.

Moleleki's statement is a hunch, an inspired guess, because he has not investigated what he claims. He does, however, suggest that future research should find out if Maphalla is a parasite whose poetry has fed on earlier poems of his predecessors. Alternatively, investigate if there is a perpetual reversal of parasite and host in Maphalla's poetry. This research will investigate none of Moleleki's suggestions as supported by Miller (1979). Rather, our analysis will focus on the theory of intertextuality as initiated and developed by Julia Kristeva (1966, 1967, 1980, 1986) which Culler (1981: 103) describes as follows:

'Intertextuality thus has a double focus.
On the one hand it calls our attention to the importance of prior texts,
insisting that the autonomy of texts is a misleading notion,
and that a work has the meaning it does
only because certain things have previously been written.
Yet in so far as it insists on intelligibility, on meaning,
intertextuality leads us to consider prior texts as contributions,
to a code which makes possible the various effects of signification'.

Our aim then, in this research, is to explore through Kristeva's theory of intertextuality that a text is more than a chain of parasitical presences as Moleleki (1988) suggests. Moleleki's view of intertextuality hinges on looking at an earlier text as a host and a later text as a parasite. The symbol of host and parasite suggests that an earlier text (host) is destroyed by the later text (parasite, thief). Kristeva's theory of intertextuality on the other hand, views textual relations as complementary where texts 'support', nourish, and nurture one another.

According to Makhubela (1999: 16–17), Maphalla's oeuvre includes the following collections of poetry: *Tsie lala* (1982), *Mahohodi* (1983), *Fuba sa ka* (1984), *Kgapha tsa ka* (1984), *Dikano* (1985), *Ditema* ((1987), *Ntekeletsane* (1989), *Makgaolakgang* (1991), *Sentebale* (1991), *Ditlabotjha* (1992), *Ntetekeng* (1992), *Mphe leihlo* (1993), Seitebatso (1993), *Pinyane* (1994), *Sentelele* (1994). It is from some of this output of Maphalla's poetry that data will be drawn for the purpose of analysis in this article.

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II. Origin of the Concept of Intertextuality

The concept of *intertextuality* goes very far back to the writings of the classics, to the works of Plato, Aristotle, Socrates, Cicero, and others. It should be noted though, that *intertextuality* as a concept, was not referred to explicitly as such at that time. According to Worton and Still (1990), neither Platonic nor Aristotelian theory of imitation is to be understood as imitation of nature. In the case of Plato, the poet always copies an earlier act of creation, which is itself already a copy. For Aristotle, dramatic creation is the reduction, and hence intensification of a mass of texts known to the poet and probably to the audience as well. This is what Kristeva came to christen intertextuality. We do not have space here to discuss the classics in detail in relation to Kristeva's theory of intertextuality. (see Martinez, 2011; Kehinde, 2003; among others).

Allen (2000) teaches that modern literary theory is often viewed as having stemmed from the Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure (1857–1913) in his groundbreaking work '*Course in General Linguistics*' (1915). (see also Zengin, 2016; Mavengano and Hove, 2019). Saussure's linguistic theories first recognized language as a system of syntax, phonology, and semantics; and then applied the theories to literature much later (see Enkvist and Gregory, 1964; Austin, 1969; Searle, 1969; Chatman, 1971; Enkvist, 1973). The theory of language as style is a case in point here. For instance, Enkvist (1975) offers succinct summaries of Saussurean views on *langue* and *parole* and Chomsky's notions of *competence* and *performance*; and comments interestingly on ways of describing styles within grammar.

Viewing language as an intricate web of signs, as a structured system of linguistic elements, Saussure established the bases for structuralism. The theory of structuralism challenged the long-established beliefs and assumptions that a literary work expresses its author's mind and personality and that it gives its readers an objective reality, an essential truth about human life (Allen, 2011). Clearly, the reader is passive in the process of reading a literary work according to this claim. Structuralism, for its part, offers a structural analysis of a literary text to reach its meaning. It emphasizes the structural elements of the text and closes it down rather than opening it up, considering no outside context such as historical and biographical contexts. Kristeva then developed Saussure's innovating ideas to challenge the closure of the text. She also questioned the notion that a text is a closed off entity, and forwarded the notion that a literary text is not a product of an author's original ideas with one referential meaning, rather it is a construction of various ideas with diverse meanings embedded in the text (Zengin, 2016).

The origin of the concept of intertextuality is not only rooted in Saussure's structural linguistics but also in Mikhail Bakhtin's interest in the poetics of language. Poetics of language is understood here as the theory of techniques, structure, form, and discourse, particularly within poetry. Kristeva combines Saussure's and Bakhtin's theories of language to query the transparency of signs in relation to reality. As an instance, it can be said that the post-structuralist theories of Bakhtin led to the conception of text in the theory of intertextuality (Allen, 2000). Bakhtin's theory of dialogism and heteroglossia lies at the core of Julia Kristeva's theory of intertextuality. Bakhtin did not use the term intertextuality; this term was first used by Kristeva with reference to his dialogism and heteroglossia. For Bakhtin, it is the dialogic aspect of language which foregrounds class, ideological and other conflicts, divisions, and hierarchies within society (Allen, 2011). Bakhtin stresses the notion of *otherness* in words. In his view, the self is always in dialogue with the other**,** with the world and with others. The self is always in dialogue with the word of the other. Because the words we select both in speech and writing have an *otherness* about them, and because they belong to specific genres, it is inevitable for the words to bear traces of previous utterances (Bakhtin, 1935). Bakhtin's insistence on *otherness* is related to the theory of intertextuality because for him the meaning of every word or utterance is formed through the speaker's [or writer's] relation to other people, other people's words and expressions experienced in a specific time and place (Mavengano and Hove, 2019).

III. Julia Kristeva's Theory of Intertextuality

Julia Kristeva is a Bulgarian-born French literary critical theorist, best known for her writings in structural linguistics, semiotics, psychoanalysis, and philosophical feminism. Kristeva was born on June 24, 1941, in Sliven, Bulgaria. She received her degree in Prague School linguistics from the University of Sofia in 1966. Later in that year, she immigrated to France on a doctoral fellowship. In Paris she worked with the structuralist and Marxist critic Lucien Goldman, the literary critic Roland Barthes, and the structuralist anthropologist Claude Levi-Strauss. Kristeva received her doctorate in linguistics in 1973 titled '*Revolution in Poetic Language'*. The thesis was partially translated into English in 1974 (Oliver, 2010).

Shortly after she arrived in Paris, from her native Bulgaria, Kristeva wrote *'Word, Dialogue and Novel'* (1966) and '*The Bounded Text*' (1967). These essays were later included in her volume of essays titled '*Desire in Language*' (1980). The concept of *intertextuality* that Julia Kristeva initiated was first discussed in these debut essays (Martinez, 2011). Philippe Sollers (2016) writes

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that Julia Kristeva *is able to gain recognition in linguistics with major innovations, astonish Jakobson, Levi-Strauss, Benveniste, Barthes, and Lacan, become a well-known psychoanalyst and an international academic. She is now a star in England, the United States, Japan, and Norway.* Julia Kristeva married Philippe Sollers, founder of the *Tel Quel* French journal, on August 2, 1967. After 56 years of marriage, 'Philippe Sollers, novelist, critic, essayist, died on Saturday, May 6, 2023, in Paris, France at the age of 86' (Philippe Forest, May 6, 2023).

Julia Kristeva (1966) proposed the text as a dynamic site in which relational processes and practices are the focus of analysis instead of static structures and products. She writes in '*Word, Dialogue, and Novel',* that the *literary word* is an intersection of textual surfaces rather than a point of fixed meaning. [It is] a dialogue among several writings. There are always other words in a word, other texts in a text (Kristeva, 1980: 65). The concept of intertextuality requires, therefore, that we understand texts not as self-contained systems but as differential and historical, as traces and tracings of *otherness*, since they are shaped by the repetition and transformation of other textual structures (Kristeva, 1980:66). Rejecting the New Critical principle of textual autonomy, the theory of intertextuality insists that a text cannot exist as a self-sufficient whole, and so, it cannot function as a closed system.

There have appeared a wide range of attitudes towards the concept of intertextuality and what it implies. One of the most immediate consequences of such a proliferation of intertextual theories has been the progressive dissolution of the text as a coherent and self-contained unit of meaning. This view has led in turn to a shift of emphasis from the individual text to the way in which texts relate to one another (Martinez, 2011).

McAfee (2004) observes that Kristeva never separates the study of language from subjectivity. This is because she sees language as personal utterance, as the choice of the speaker or the writer. Language cannot be objective because it depends on the subjectivity of the speaker, writer, or reader. Different readers, she says, bring different experiences to a text in the same way as writers write their texts putting across their own experiences, assumptions, insights and so on. By extension, Kristeva is saying there is no identical reader, and therefore no identical reading of a text. Kristeva (1986: 86) emphasizes the point that the author and the reader or the critic of the text join the process of continual production. They are on trial over the text. Barthes (2001) agrees and puts the reader into an active, productive reading process. For Barthes, it is the writerly text which makes readers of the text productive in their reading. We round off this brief discussion of Kristeva's theory of intertextuality by taking a walk into the inner space of the *Tel Quel* French journal:

"*With its essays working on poststructuralism and deconstruction, Tel Quel, an avant-garde literary magazine founded in 1958 by Phillipe Sollers and Jean-Edern Hallier changed radically the traditional approach to text. It challenged the conventional beliefs in the uniqueness of the text and the authorial originality, and the respects for the originality of the author's creativity. Tel Quel authored and collaborated with such thinkers and theorists as Roland Barthes, Jacques Derrida, Jean-Pierre Faye, Phillipe Sollers, Umberto Eco, Gérard Genette along with Julia Kristeva, investigated literature's radical relation to political and philosophical thought. The Tel Quel group's contribution to the generation of the intertextual theory is its resistance to 'the stabilization of the signifier/signified relation' (Allen, 2000: 33). Thus, the text has become something that resists stable signification. This is perhaps one of the most significant pronouncements of intertextuality: In a text there is no original thought, no unique intended meaning created by a unified authorial consciousness and a unique meaning to be discovered and deciphered by the reader. As the text is 'a tissue of quotations drawn from the innumerable centres of culture' (Barthes in Leitch, 2001: 1468), it has a plurality of meaning, i.e., it embraces the layers of meaning. With Kristeva, along with the other members of the Tel Quel, intertextuality made a fundamental reversal of the traditional relation between a work and its author, where work is seen as a product and an author a producer, and work is made the object of interpretation, behind which a deep meaning is supposed to be lying waiting to be deciphered. Intertextual interpretations' emphasis on a text's meaning forming processes rather than the meaning in the text which was traditionally thought to be the object of interpretation is a significant paradigm shift that owes much to Kristeva's ideas"* (Zengin, 2016: 317–318).

IV. Literature Related to the Topic

Nolte and Jordaan (2011) utilised the theory of intertextuality to investigate the way in which religious texts, specifically Judith 16, generate meaning in the production of texts. The authors affirm and embrace Julia Kristeva's theory of intertextuality as groundbreaking work. They write further that they 'know now that a religious text is not a line of words releasing a single theological meaning (the message of the Author-God) but a multi-dimensional space in which a variety of writings, none of them original, blend and clash' (Barthes, [1977: 146] 2001). Indeed, in this space, texts enter a dialogue and negotiate a plurality of meaning. This article serves to prove the relevance of Kristeva's theory of intertextuality in disciplines other than literature.

Ayo Kehinde (2003) clears the haze between the concept of *influence* and that of *intertextuality*. He says the concept of influence was jettisoned in favour of intertextuality because of some inherent flaws in it. Because of its excessive emphasis on authorship, the concept of influence gave way to intertextuality. However, the shift from influence to intertextuality does

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not totally bracket off the author-centred criticism. It will be interesting though, to see how this view will unfold and hold in the future in relation to Roland Barthes's (2001) '*The Death of the Author*'. Barthes like Kristeva places emphasis on the text rather than the author. An example is Barthes's insistence that a text is a tissue of quotations without quotation marks.

In '*Intertextuality and African Writers*', Abiodun Olofinsao (2017) shows a leaning towards influence rather than intertextuality. He says it is a general misconception that influence of one literary work on others is a denial of the author's claim to originality. That a writer influences another author, does not mean that the newly produced work lacks originality. Olofinsao (2017) concludes that no writer could actually claim that he has not been influenced by another writer. Therefore, he says, borrowing is not a sin, but failure to acknowledge others' influence on you is hypocritical and condemnable. The author of this article seems to be saying influence happens when a writer borrows from another writer. Olofinsao places emphasis on the writer rather than the text.

The authors, Esther Mavengano and Muchativugwa Hove (2019), argue that reading fictional narratives is a complex process that has been a preoccupation of scholars and critics in linguistics and literary criticism since Plato and Aristotle. These authors argue further that the contention that texts are constructed through a network of prior and concurrent discourses, problematizes the view that a text functions as a hermetic, self-sufficient closed system. The article draws from critical insights on intertextuality, which as a theory, is rooted in Saussurean structuralist linguistics and Mikhail Bakhtin's poetics of language. The authors have put together an honest, well-written and extremely well-informed research article.

V. An Intertextual Analysis of KPD Maphalla's Poetry

The literature review just presented has created extant space for the current article. The rationale for this paper has been established; this research has not been done before. As we set out to present an intertextual analysis of KPD Maphalla's poetry, we admit upfront that our analysis will be both bumpy and gropy. Julia Kristeva's theory of intertextuality, elegant as it is, is not without limitations. Its main criticism lies in its inability to provide critics with a clear analytical tool when they approach texts (see Culler, 1976; Riffaterre, 1980; Genette, 1989).

Ntsane, KE (Mmusapelo II)

'Mmusapelo II' is Ntsane's second collection of poetry. The data we consider below will first come from this book, followed by examples from Khaketla, and lastly Mokhomo.

The literary element, *satire,* is Ntsane's main weapon for reprimanding society. This technique is also found in abundance in Maphalla's later texts. Examples:

Ke re ha o tshaba, o tshabe *hwenene*,
0 tshabe le mosadi wa *hiki,* Mmanyeo,
Basadi bana le ritelang *hiki* le baloi,

(Mmusapelo II: 67)

(I say you should fear liquor completely,
You should fear the woman who brews 'hiki'.
Mother-of-so-and-so!
You women who brew hiki, are witches.)

compare with *Maphalla*

Kgabane di ketotswe ke *hiki, mokankanyane,*
Tjhefu ya tsoho la mosadi wa *kgera*.

(Kgapha tsa ka: 21)

(Gentlemen have been dethroned by hiki,
an intoxicating drink.
Poison from a woman who brews a strong drink).

Moleleki ([1988: 184] 2020) says Ntsane refers to liquor in several names as though it is worthy of praise. It is not just '*hwenene'*, but it is also called '*hiki*' and '*bodila*'. These are names given to liquor by those who 'enjoy' it. The very object of their praise is the source of their misery. Further, the woman who is also a mother, is the one who brews the poisonous stuff as if she does not know the pain of seeing one's child in misery. This is satire at its best. Maphalla also satirically elevates liquor to the same level as Ntsane: he too refers to it as '*hiki*', '*mokankanyane*' and *'kgera'.* Moreover, he indirectly equates it with gentlemen who are also worthy of praise. The irony is that these respectable men are dethroned from their fragile pedestals by a stronger gentleman, liquor. In the last line, Maphalla calls liquor what it ought to be called: a poisonous stuff.

There is a relational connection between Ntsane's text and that of Maphalla. Julia Kristeva (1966) proposes a text as a dynamic site in which relational processes are the focus of analysis instead of static structures and products. Maphalla was able to produce the texts he did because Ntsane's prior text, was not a static and closed-off system. Further, Kristeva writes in '*Word*, *Dialogue*, *and Novel'* that there are always other words in a word, other texts in a text (Kristeva, 1980: 65). In the implied superordinate term/word (MacCawley, 1975) *'jwala'* (liquor), there are other words/collocates: *hwenene, hiki, bodila, mokankanyane, kgera* which relate, interact, and collaborate in the dynamic space of continual textual production (Barthes, 2001).

Ntsane, KE (Mmusapelo II)

Declaration of love for a young woman is made in almost similar terms in Ntsane's and Maphalla's texts.

Ka re, ngwana, ha ke o rate ke a petsoha.

(Mmusapelo II: 33)

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(I said, maiden, I love you so much that I can split/ crumble).

See *Maphalla*

Ka re ha ke o rate ke a shwa ngwana ditjhaba,

(Mahohodi: 45)

(*I said I am dying of your Love, child of foreign lands).*

This manner of declaring one's love for a young woman is typical of how, within the Sesotho culture, a young man puts across his proposal to a young woman. What we notice here is that the prior poet, Ntsane, is not original in any way. His text has inter-texted what has been said before in the oral tradition of Sesotho culture. He has drawn from the sociolinguistic repertoire of Sesotho as a language and as a culture. There are other oral forms through which a young man would declare his love to a maiden. Examples include:

Ke lekopokopo ke a koposela.
(I am an empty tin sounding nothing).
Ke metsi a noka ke a lelemela/Ke metsi a foro ke a forosela.
(I am river-water flowing along).

For Kristeva (1980: 66), the concept of intertextuality requires that we understand texts not as [hermetic], self-contained systems, but as differential and historical, as traces and tracings of otherness since they are shaped by the repetition and transformation of other textual structures. In the last two examples given above, we see textual relations going far back into pre-literate Sesotho.

Khaketla, BM (Dipjhamathe)

The iconic potential of the Sesotho language exploited by Khaketla is evident in

Maphalla's works:

Ba ile, ba ile, re boMolahlehi,
Ba ile, ba ile, jo motso qhalane;

(Dipjhamathe: 54)

(They are gone, they are gone,
we are the lost ones,
They are gone, they are gone,
alas! the household has disintegrated).

Maphalla says:

0 ile, o ile wa hlooho ya kgomo,
0 ile, o ile ke setse lepalapaleng.

(Dikano: 38)

(He is gone, he is gone, my bosom friend.
He is gone, he is gone, I remain stranded).

and

Ba ile bonnake, ba ile,
Ba tswile letsholo ho sela bophelo.

(Sentebale: 70)

(They are gone dear ones, they are gone,
They have gone out in search of a livelihood).

Both poets use '*ile'* for iconic effect to create a gloomy atmosphere associated with loss through death. The iconic effect of '*ile*' seems to have more presence in Maphalla's poetry so that when the reader goes back to Khaketla's text, he has a better understanding of the eerie atmosphere evoked by this word.

The New Critical principle of textual autonomy is called into question here. Rejecting this principle, Kristeva (1980: 66) insists that a text cannot exist as a self-sufficient whole, and so, it cannot function as a closed system. This shows a shift of emphasis from the individual text to the way in which texts relate to one another. The examples from Khaketla and Maphalla given above, are an intersection of textual surfaces rather than points of fixed meaning.

Khaketla, BM (Dipjhamathe)

Khaketla and Maphalla evoke extreme pain through the image of coagulated blood which clogs the heart:

Bohloko ba pelo, mohlohlwa-mahlwele,

(Dipjhamathe: 51)

(*Heartache stuffed with coagulated blood),*

Maphalla says:

Ke hlatse mahlwele a nkimetse pelo,

(Kgapha tsa ka: 8)

(So that I vomit blood clots that weigh heavily on my heart).

Khaketla, says Moleleki ([1988] 2020), uses the image of coagulated blood stuffed into his heart to portray excruciating pain emanating from the death of his loved ones. Maphalla's image is conveyed in a more explicit way than Khaketla's, so that his image sheds light on Khaketla's image, which remains obscure until the reader has come across Maphalla's text. Taking the comparison of the two texts further, Barthes says a text is 'a tissue of quotations drawn from innumerable centres of culture' (Barthes in Leitch, 2001: 1468); a text, he says, embraces layers of meaning. Looking at Khaketla's text we see an image of coagulated blood sitting in the heart (symbolic dynamic space) and causing excruciating pain. Maphalla's text arrives in this space and takes the image of coagulated blood to the next layer of meaning. Here, the heart is *relieved* of pain through vomiting coagulated blood. Vomiting is both disgusting and debilitating, yet relief from pain comes through the very disgusting act. Going back to Barthes's mention of cultural centres of meaning, we recall a cultural practice of treating a boil (relief of pain). Painful and stuffed with thick pus, a boil will be treated by placing hot, stiff porridge on it to help ooze the pus (Mtshali, 1971) and thereby provide relief from pain.

Mokhomo, MA (Sebabatso)

Mokhomo's anthology of poetry, *Sebabatso* (A beautiful thing), opens with a poem titled

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'*Mopherathethana'* (An unpalatable dish); through which she appeals to fellow poets to lend her support so that her dish could be palatable. On the surface, she seems to doubt that her poetry will rise to the expected standard. Maphalla also opens one of his collections of poetry, *Fuba sa ka* (My feelings) with a poem titled '*Bopepele ntlohele*!'(Bad-speaking leave me alone) in which he voices doubt concerning his ability to compose poetry of good quality. He says the inherent tendency to speak badly should leave him alone. The similarity in the cherished ideal in both poets is remarkable. Both poets seem to be saying their poetry cannot be regarded as creations of a high standard without assistance from other poets. (Nonyana e haha sehlaha sa yona ka ditshiba tsa dinonyana tse ding. *A bird builds its nest using the feathers of other birds)*. This cultural observation confirms Kristeva's (1966) insistence that no text is a self-sufficient closed off entity. We stay with Mokhomo for a moment and read this stanza from her opening poem:

Mopherathethana

Bashanyana ba heso ntoisetseng
Ke phehile mopherathethana.
Bana ba bohadi ba hana ho ja,
Ba re ke phehile ntswetle.
Bona ba ja masutsa a baholo,
Ba ja tsa boMofolo le Khaketla.

(Sebabatso: 1)

(An unpalatable dish

My brothers, lend me a helping hand,
I have cooked an unpalatable dish.
My husband's siblings are refusing to eat,
They say I have prepared a half-cooked dish.
They prefer delicious dishes from elders,
They enjoy dishes by the likes of Mofolo and Khaketla).

Mokhomo uses the metaphor of a cooking pot. She equates her book of poetry, *Sebabatso*, with a cooking pot; and the contents (the poems) with an unpalatable dish. If we invoke the principle of a plurality of meaning, the stanza given above can reveal various layers of meaning (Barthes, 2001). The most obvious available meaning is that Mokhomo was in doubt of her own poetic talent when she wrote *Sebabatso* (Moleleki, [1988] 2020; Lechesa, 2021). At the level of philosophical feminism (Oliver, 1998; 2010), Mokhomo could have been ironically announcing the demise of the male-dominated writing fraternity. Upon entering the textual dynamic space (Kristeva, 1966), she could have said in the most modest yet biting tone: *here I am*, *taste my dish. The dish is safe to eat* (Ke tlositse boloi). The opening poem 'Mopherathethana', is written in time past, a completed action: Ke phehile mopherathethana. (*I have cooked an unpalatable dish*). As a cook, she must have tasted her dish (read her poems) before dishing it out; and Oh God! What a mouth-watering *dish* it is!! (See also Kunene, 1971; Moleleki, 1988; 1992). Creators of texts, rely on their own intuitions, on their own judgements. Why is there a contradiction between the name of the book, *Sebabatso* (A beautiful thing) and the opening poem '*Mopherathethana*' (An unpalatable dish)? Who gave the book its title? Genette (1993) will answer and say the author did.

Lastly, we come to mundane issues to see if there are intertextual relations between the poetry of Mokhomo and that of Maphalla. Kristeva (1980: 66) says creators of texts are in dialogue with other texts constantly, even if they are not consciously aware of it. Both poets see an eagle as a symbol of spirit, courage, and freedom: freedom to soar and explore the creative firmament; and most importantly courage and spirit to continue to intertext as the following examples indicate:

Ntsu, tsubella o nkuke·, nnake,

(Sebabatso: 10)

(Eagle, snatch me up, my dear,)

compare with

Ntsu, nkadime mapheo ke tsebe ho rura,

(Dikano: 41)

(*Eagle, lend me wings so that I can fly,)*

and

Rona re tla fofa sa ntsu,

(Sentebale: 22)

(We will fly like an eagle),

These examples suggest that up there, in the dynamic space of the eagle, there is a textual intersection where both Mokhomo and Maphalla are in conversation with the most powerful bird:

(Eagle, snatch me up, my dear,

and

Eagle, lend me wings so that I can fly).

In this conversation, the two poets admit, as Barthes did, that they 'know now that a [poetic] text is not a line of words releasing a single [poetical] meaning (the message of the Author-God) but a multi-dimensional space, in which a variety of writings, none of them original, blend and clash' (Barthes [1977: 146] 2001). Indeed, in this multi-dimensional space, poetical writings, none of them original, meet and negotiate a plurality of meaning.

VI. Conclusion

Kristeva (1986: 37) says every text is constituted by 'a mosaic of citations, every text is the absorption and transformation of another text'. A text's meaning, she argues, is not specific to itself because every text is an intertext. Kristeva employs the metaphor of a mosaic to describe her interpretation of the insights of Bakhtin (1935). A mosaic presents an interplay of a wide variety of colour and different sizes and types of material. Although a mosaic is a historically specific display of someone's interpretation or creation of an idea, the

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mosaic itself is not a static, fixed point in time. It can be developed further. It is, itself, an intersection of different patterns and colours and styles which form part of the creator's repertoire. It takes over *stylistic* features from earlier and/or contemporary artists and masters. *But it is always a new creation*. It carries the signature, as it were, of the person who created it.

In the same way, says Kristeva (1980:66), creators of texts are in dialogue with other texts constantly, even if they are not consciously aware of it. They draw upon an array of information on the same *theme* or related themes, societal and cultural forces and discourses, prejudices, and personal experiences. This wide range of relations plays a significant role in shaping the way texts are created. Texts take up, incorporate, and absorb other texts and, at the same time, these intertextual threads are altered and remodelled into something else - into the text the author wants it to be. For Kristeva, meaning cannot be viewed as a finished product, but it is always in a process of production. The metaphor of a mosaic demonstrates the non-closure of a text. Just as a mosaic is an intersection of different patterns, texts can also intersect and negotiate a plurality of meaning.

Our intertextual analysis of KPD Maphalla's poetry has clearly demonstrated the relevance of Julia Kristeva's theory of intertextuality. The analysis has demonstrated further that KPD Maphalla's poetry is in dialogue with the poetry of Ntsane, Khaketla, and Mokhomo. Kristeva's theory of intertextuality overrides Miller's (1979) view that later texts are parasites and earlier texts are victims.

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Global Journal of human-social science: G
Linguistics & Education
Volume 24 Issue 1 Version 1.0 Year 2024
Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal
Publisher: Global Journals
Online ISSN: 2249-460X & Print ISSN: 0975-587X

Enhancing Cross Border Crime Investigations through the Application of Mother Tongue

By Nji Theodora Ika Bey & Joseph Ule Ule. Domche Teko

Abstract- This article explores the benefits of using mothertongue languages in cross-border criminal investigations. It highlights the importance of linguistic ability and cultural awareness in detecting international crimes. Mother-tongue languages can improve information accuracy, trust, and communication. However, they can also lead to communication breakdowns, language barriers, and incorrect interpretation of evidence. The article also discusses the challenges of using dominant languages, such as resource requirements, technology's role in multilingual communication, and legal and ethical requirements. The article concludes that embracing linguistic diversity in law enforcement can improve investigations, promote cooperation, and enhance community safety and security.

Keywords: *cross border crime, investigation techniques, language analysis, linguistic intelligence, multilingual law enforcement, mother tongue proficiency, language barriers, interpreting and translation, cultural sensitivity, international cooperation in crime.*

GJHSS-G Classification: *FOR Code: 1801*



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I. Introduction

Effective communication is crucial in cross-border criminal investigations, as it keeps investigators, witnesses, and suspects connected and helps unravel complex criminal activities. However, language barriers pose significant challenges for law enforcement agencies, as they can lead to misunderstandings, misidentification, and misevaluation of evidence. Language barriers can also hinder the translation and interpretation of documents and evidence, causing delays and gaps in evidence collection. Cultural differences and communication practices can also cause misunderstandings and interpretation problems. To overcome these challenges, law enforcement agencies should invest in linguistic and cultural training for their investigators and partner with qualified translators and interpreters. Integrating these skills can improve investigative capabilities and ensure fair justice in cross-border scenarios. The use of native languages in cross-border surveys can facilitate communication, build trust, and improve information accuracy. By using the native language of suspects, witnesses, and affected communities, investigators can establish closer connections, foster mutual understanding, and capture linguistic and cultural nuances. This also facilitates translation and interpretation, eliminating the need for intermediaries and reducing translation errors. However, the use of the mother tongue should not be seen as a universal problem, and investigators should always have access to qualified translators when necessary. Integrating native languages into investigative practices can overcome language barriers, improve cross-cultural communication, and enhance the effectiveness of cross-border investigations.

II. Aim of Study

The aim of this article is to explore how the use of mother tongue can enhance cross-border crime investigations.

- It will discuss the potential benefits of utilizing the native language of individuals involved in criminal activities across different countries.
- The article will examine how language barriers can hinder investigations and explore strategies that can be implemented to overcome these challenges.
- The goal is to highlight the importance of incorporating the mother tongue in investigations to improve communication, information gathering, and overall effectiveness in combating cross-border crimes.

III. Methods Use

Suggested methodology for enhancing cross-border crime investigation using the mother tongue.

- The methodology involves a research design, literature review, data collection, language proficiency assessment, quantitative analysis, qualitative analysis, case studies, and recommendations.
- The research design is focused on different regions or type of cross-border crime, and the literature review identifies gaps in current knowledge and theories.
- Data collection is ethically and data security-conscious.
- The qualitative analysis involves interviews with law enforcement professionals to understand the benefits and challenges of incorporating the mother tongue in cross-border crime investigations.
- The study's findings should provide practical recommendations for law enforcement agencies and policymakers.

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IV. Main Results Obtain

- This article suggests that utilizing the mother tongue in cross-border crime investigations can improve communication, information gathering, trust, and cooperation.
- It suggests that native speakers can access critical intelligence, leading to faster identification of suspects and criminal networks.
- The use of the mother tongue can also overcome language barriers, enabling effective questioning, interpretation, and interrogation without reliance on third-party translators.
- This can reduce miscommunications, inaccuracies, and delays. Additionally, the integration of the mother tongue can enhance investigative efficiency, as investigators can streamline processes and reduce translation efforts.
- The study also highlights the role of forensic linguistics in cross-border crime investigations.

a) Understanding the Importance of Language in Cross-Border Crime Investigations

Effective communication is crucial in solving cross-border crimes, facilitating the sharing of information, strengthening international cooperation, and presenting evidence in court. It helps overcome challenges related to linguistic and cultural differences, building trust and obtaining valuable information. Language barriers pose complex challenges in collecting evidence, conducting interviews, and collaborating with international law enforcement agencies. Accurate translations and interpretations are essential for accurate evidence interpretation and the validity of evidence. Interviews with suspects, witnesses, and victims can also be complicated due to language differences. Collaboration with international law enforcement agencies can be hampered by language barriers. To overcome these complexities, qualified translators and interpreters must be rely on, along with linguistic and cultural training for investigators. Advanced translation and interpretation technologies can also help overcome language barriers, enabling more fluid and accurate communication during investigations and international collaboration. In conclusion, language barriers significantly impact the resolution of cross-border crimes, emphasizing the importance of accurate translation, cultural sensitivity, and advanced technologies in facilitating communication and improving efficiency.

b) Statistics

According to Europol, almost 80% of cross-border investigations require cooperation between law enforcement agencies from different countries, highlighting the importance of effective communication. A study carried out by Interpol found that language barriers were one of the main factors limiting international cooperation in the fight against organized crime.

Examples:

In 2019, an investigation into cross-border drug trafficking was hampered by language barriers between law enforcement agencies in several European countries. Communication difficulties delayed the collection of crucial information, allowing traffickers to continue their activities for a longer period of time.

In an international financial fraud case, investigators encountered difficulties understanding financial documents due to the language used. Language barriers caused delays in analyzing evidence and made it difficult to prosecute those responsible.

A positive example is the use of qualified interpreters during human trafficking investigations. The use of interpreters speaking the victims' native languages made it possible to gather crucial information, obtain accurate testimonies, and successfully prosecute the traffickers.

These examples clearly demonstrate how language barriers can hinder the resolution of cross-border crimes. Delays in information gathering, translation errors, and communication difficulties can compromise investigations and allow criminals to continue their illegal activities.

It is essential to recognize the impact of these language barriers and take steps to invest in the language training of investigators, the use of qualified translators, and the adoption of advanced translation and interpretation technologies to overcome these challenges and strengthen international cooperation in the fight against crime.

The Role of Mother Tongue in Resolving Cross-Border Crimes:

The mother tongue is a language learned at a young age, allowing individuals to develop their understanding of the world, language skills, culture, and identity. It is crucial in communication for deep understanding, expressiveness, facilitation of interpersonal communication, identity construction, and cultural preservation. The native language allows for a richer understanding of thoughts, emotions, and ideas, as it is closely linked to personal experiences and culture. It also facilitates interpersonal communication, reduces language barriers, and helps in the construction of cultural and social bonds. Recognizing and valuing the mother tongue contributes to more effective communication and cultural preservation.

Mother tongue refers to the first language a person learns at a young age, often in a family context. It is the language in which a person develops their understanding of the world, their language skills, their culture, and their identity.

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- The mother tongue is of great importance in communication for several reasons:
  - *Deep understanding:* The native language is often the one in which one can express one's thoughts, emotions, and ideas in a more natural and profound way. It allows for a richer and more nuanced understanding because it is closely linked to our personal experience and culture.
  - *Expressiveness:* The mother tongue offers a wide range of vocabulary, expressions, and linguistic nuances that we master naturally. This allows you to communicate more accurately, convey emotions, and share ideas more authentically.
  - *Facilitation of interpersonal communication:* When a person communicates in their native language, they generally feel more comfortable, which facilitates interpersonal communication. Language barriers and misunderstandings are reduced, promoting smoother and more efficient communication.
  - *Construction of identity and social bond:* The mother tongue plays an essential role in the construction of a person's cultural and social identity. It allows you to connect to your community, share traditions and values, and strengthen ties with other speakers of the same language.
  - *Cultural preservation:* The mother tongue is often the vehicle for the transmission of traditions, customs, and cultural knowledge from one generation to another. It contributes to preserving cultural diversity and keeping cultural heritage alive.

It is important to recognize the value of the mother tongue in intercultural communication and understanding. In multilingual contexts, giving importance to the mother tongue can promote better understanding, more precise communication, and greater openness to linguistic and cultural diversity.

- Using the native language has several advantages when it comes to collecting information in cross-border crime investigations. Here are some of these benefits:
  - *Clear and Precise Communication:* When an investigator uses the native language of a suspect, witness, or victim, communication is more clear and precise. This allows you to ask relevant questions, understand the answers accurately, and avoid misunderstandings that can compromise the investigation.
  - *Increased trust and cooperation:* Using the native language facilitates the establishment of a relationship of trust with those involved in the investigation. Individuals feel more comfortable and confident sharing sensitive information, leading to greater cooperation and openness in information gathering.
  - *Understanding cultural and linguistic nuances:* Investigators who are fluent in the native language of a suspect or witness are better equipped to understand the cultural and linguistic nuances associated with that language. This allows them to grasp the subtleties of expressions, behaviors, and cultural norms, which can be crucial to correctly interpreting the information collected.
  - *Reduced risk of translation errors:* The use of translators or intermediaries may result in translation errors, omissions, or distortions of information. By using the native language, investigators can avoid these risks and ensure an accurate understanding of the information collected.
  - *Speed and efficiency:* When an interviewer uses a person's native language, the exchange of information is faster and smoother. This saves time in the investigation and makes more efficient progress in gathering crucial information for solving the crime.
  - *Better use of resources:* By using the native language, investigators can reduce dependence on external translators, allowing available resources to be better managed. This can be particularly important in cross-border investigations, where it may be difficult to find qualified translators in all the languages involved.
  - Lastly, there are certain cognitive advantages to speaking in one's native tongue. It supports cognitive flexibility, problem-solving skills, and critical thinking. Being proficient in our mother tongue helps us deal with complexity since language and thought processes are closely related.
  - To sum up, speaking one's mother tongue offers a deep understanding of language and culture that goes much beyond simple communication. It keeps us linked to our past, protects our identities, promotes cross-cultural understanding, and sharpens our minds. For a truly varied and inclusive global society, mother tongue usage must be prioritized and promoted.
- Here are a few success stories where the application of mother tongue has aided in the resolution of cross-border crimes:
  - *Multilingual Cooperation:* Law enforcement agencies from several nations worked together to share intelligence and evidence in a case involving an international drug smuggling network. In order to decipher encrypted conversations and comprehend regional dialects, investigators needed to speak the person's native tongue in order to obtain useful information. Several important members of the drug network were apprehended as a result of this cooperation.

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– *Linguistic expertise in translation:* It was difficult for law enforcement to look into a human trafficking case since the victims were being transported across countries. Linguists fluent in a variety of mother tongues were called in to translate intercepted communications in order to overcome language difficulties. Accurately deciphering local language discussions enabled the identification of trafficking network participants, leading to successful arrests.

– *Cultural insights and comprehension:* When looking into a global criminal network, investigators found it difficult to comprehend the suspects' motivations and mentalities. Investigators learned important details about the suspects' sociocultural backgrounds and online behavior by working with mother-tongue speakers who were familiar with the regional quirks. Because of this, law enforcement was able to disrupt the criminal group and stop further cyberattacks by identifying possible targets.

– *Witness Testimony and Victim Support:* It is critical to provide a secure setting for victims to provide their testimonies in cross-border criminal proceedings involving victims from several nations. Using translators and interpreters who speak the victim's native tongue during victim interviews helps guarantee truthful and sympathetic communication. Allowing victims to communicate in their own tongue allows law enforcement to obtain comprehensive investigative capabilities and improve collaboration with international counterparts.

– These success tales demonstrate how crucial it is to use mother-tongue communication while settling international crimes. Law enforcement organizations can strengthen their investigation capacities and collaborate more effectively with their overseas counterparts by leveraging linguistic competence and surmounting language obstacles.

➢ Empowering Law Enforcement Agencies with Language Skills:

Training law enforcement personnel in relevant mother tongues is crucial for several reasons:

Training law enforcement officers in relevant mother tongues enhances their communication, interpretation, cultural understanding, and collaboration skills. This not only improves rapport and information gathering but also reduces language barriers during investigations. Accurate interpretation is crucial, as it prevents miscommunication and potential legal issues. Training also helps officers recognize cultural norms and social dynamics, fostering trust and cooperation. This training also facilitates faster investigations, especially in cross-border crimes involving complex networks. Furthermore, it fosters victim support, as it allows officers to empathetically communicate with victims, fostering a safe environment for sharing testimonies and seeking justice.

➢ Here are several strategies and initiatives that can be implemented to equip law enforcement officers with language skills:

Law enforcement agencies can enhance their officers' language proficiency through various strategies. These include language courses, cultural immersion programs, language exchange programs, collaboration with local communities, technology use, and incentives and recognition. Language courses focus on essential phrases, vocabulary, and grammar, while cultural immersion programs expose officers to diverse communities and help build cultural competency. Language exchange programs pair officers with native speakers of the targeted mother tongues, promoting conversational skills. Collaboration with local organizations, cultural centers, and language schools is essential for effective language skill development. Technology can be used to provide accessible and interactive language training, and incentivizing officers for language proficiency can motivate them to invest in learning. These strategies can foster trust, facilitate investigations, and support community policing, ultimately leading to safer and more inclusive environments.

Promote the concept of multilingual forces to improve communication and efficiency in the investigation of cross-border crimes.

➢ The concept of multilingual forces is a promising approach to improving communication and efficiency in the investigation of cross-border crimes. Here are some reasons to promote this concept:

– *Smooth Communication:* Multilingual forces allow for investigators who are fluent in different languages, making it easier to communicate with suspects, witnesses, and victims who speak different languages. This reduces language barriers and promotes smoother and more accurate communication, enabling more efficient information gathering.

– *Cultural Understanding:* Multilingual forces include interviewers who have in-depth knowledge of the cultures associated with each language. This allows them to understand cultural norms, behaviors, and linguistic subtleties, which is essential to correctly interpreting information and making relevant connections in investigations.

– *Strengthened International Cooperation:* Multilingual forces promote better cooperation between law enforcement agencies from different countries. Investigators who can communicate directly in the native language of their foreign counterparts

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facilitate the exchange of information, coordination of efforts, and sharing of best practices, thereby strengthening international cooperation in the fight against cross-border crime.

- *Increased Speed and Efficiency:* Multilingual forces save time in investigations by avoiding delays related to translation and interpretation. Investigators can conduct interviews, collect evidence, and share information more quickly and efficiently, speeding up the resolution of cross-border crimes.
- *Skills Synergy:* Multilingual forces bring together investigators with varied language skills and expertise. This promotes skill synergy, allowing the specialist knowledge of each investigator to be combined to resolve cross-border crimes more comprehensively and efficiently.
- *Awareness of Linguistic and Cultural Diversity:* Multilingual strengths value linguistic and cultural diversity, which contributes to a better understanding and appreciation of different cultures. This increases awareness of diversity and promotes mutual respect between investigators and the communities they serve.

➢ Addressing Challenges and Concerns:

Recognize potential challenges and concerns related to the use of the native language in the investigation of cross-border crimes, such as resource limitations, the availability of interpreters, and the accuracy of translations.

The use of native language in the investigation of cross-border crimes presents certain challenges and concerns that merit consideration. Here are some of these challenges:

- *Resource Limitations:* It can be difficult to have the resources to have investigators who are fluent in all relevant languages in a cross-border investigation. Human and financial resources may be limited, making it difficult to build comprehensive multilingual forces.
- *Availability of Interpreters:* When it is not possible to use investigators who are directly fluent in the native language of the person involved, it is often necessary to use interpreters. However, there may be challenges related to the availability and quality of interpreters, particularly in less common languages.
- *Accuracy of Translations:* When it is necessary to translate written documents or evidence, there is a risk of translation errors. Linguistic and cultural nuances can be difficult to convey accurately, which can lead to misunderstandings or misinterpretations of the information collected.
- *Complexity of Regional Languages:* In some cases, investigations into cross-border crimes may involve regions where regional languages are spoken. Mastering these languages can be even more difficult and requires additional resources to ensure effective communication.
- Training and Language Skills: Ensuring that investigators are fluent in the native language of those involved in an investigation may require extensive language training. It is important to ensure that interviewers have the language skills to understand linguistic and cultural subtleties to avoid misunderstandings.
- Cultural Sensitivity: Apart from language skills, it is also essential that interviewers are sensitive to the cultural differences associated with each language. A thorough understanding of cultural norms, traditions, and behaviors may be necessary to conduct interviews and correctly interpret the information collected.

It is important to recognize these challenges and take steps to overcome them. This may include investing in language training for interviewers, establishing partnerships with qualified interpreters, and establishing verification mechanisms to ensure the accuracy of translations.

Propose solutions, such as using technology for real-time translation services, increasing funding for language training programs, and international cooperation to share language resources.

To overcome the challenges associated with the use of the native language in the investigation of cross-border crimes, several solutions can be considered:

- *Use of technology for real-time translation services:* Technological advancements such as machine translation and voice recognition can be leveraged to facilitate real-time communication. Translation software can be used on mobile devices or tablets to provide instant translations during interviews or information exchanges.
- *Increased funding for language training programs:* Investing in language training programs for investigators is crucial. This would help develop their language skills, cultural understanding, and sensitivity to linguistic nuances specific to each language. Law enforcement agencies should allocate sufficient resources to support these training programs.
- *International cooperation for sharing linguistic resources:* Countries and law enforcement agencies can collaborate to share their linguistic resources. This could include establishing databases of qualified translators and language specialists, as well as creating networks for sharing linguistic

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expertise to facilitate communication between countries during cross-border investigations.

– *Use of professional interpreting services:* When the presence of an interpreter is necessary, it is important to ensure the availability of qualified professionals. Law enforcement agencies can partner with professional interpreting agencies to ensure the delivery of high-quality interpreting services and avoid translation errors.
– *Development of specialized language databases:* Law enforcement agencies can work together to create specialized language databases, including glossaries, terminologies, and cultural references for each language relevant to cross-border investigations. These databases can be shared and updated regularly to facilitate communication and ensure accurate translations.

By implementing these solutions, law enforcement agencies can improve communication in the investigation of cross-border crimes. The use of technology increased funding for language training, international cooperation in sharing language resources, and the use of professional interpretation services will help overcome language barriers and increase the effectiveness of investigations.

c) *Specific case studies, highlighting how the application of the native language has helped solve cross-border crimes:*

Case Study 1: The International Drug Trafficking Case

In an international drug trafficking case, investigators used the suspects' native languages to gather crucial information. The investigators were fluent in the suspects' native language, which allowed them to establish direct communication and gain the trust of the interviewees. Thanks to this seamless communication, investigators were able to obtain detailed information about the drug trafficking network, routes, contacts, and methods used. This information led to the arrest of several key suspects and the seizure of significant quantities of drugs, helping to dismantle the international drug trafficking network.

Case Study 2: The cross-border financial fraud case

In a cross-border financial fraud case, using the native language was essential to understanding the complex details of the scam. Investigators recruited language experts fluent in the native languages of suspects and victims. These experts analyzed financial documents, banking transactions, and communication records in their native language, allowing them to detect fraud patterns and identify those responsible. With this in-depth understanding of the native language, investigators were able to recover stolen funds, pursue fraudsters, and bring justice to victims.

These case studies demonstrate the importance of applying native language in the investigation of cross-border crimes. By understanding and mastering the native language of those involved, investigators can establish fluid communication, gather accurate information, and make connections relevant to solving cross-border crimes. This highlights the importance of valuing language skills and providing the necessary resources to support the effective use of the mother tongue in surveys.

➢ Focus on diverse examples from different regions to highlight the universality and effectiveness of this approach.

Case Study 1: The Eastern European Human Trafficking Case

In a human trafficking case in Eastern Europe, investigators used the victims' native languages to gather accurate and detailed testimony. By understanding their native language, investigators were able to build trust with victims and encourage them to share their traumatic experiences. This information made it possible to identify key members of the human trafficking network, locate places of detention, and rescue victims. The use of the mother tongue played a crucial role in the success of this cross-border investigation.

Case Study 2: The Southeast Asian Cybercrime Case

In a cybercrime case in Southeast Asia, investigators called on linguistic specialists fluent in different native languages in the region. These experts analyzed online messages and conversations in their respective native languages to understand ongoing cybercrime operations. With this in-depth understanding of native languages, investigators were able to identify the individuals involved, track financial transactions, and coordinate joint operations between countries to stop cybercriminals. The native language application was essential in solving this complex cross-border cybercrime case.

These diverse examples demonstrate that the application of the mother tongue is a universal and effective approach in the investigation of cross-border crimes. Whether in human trafficking cases in Eastern Europe or cybercrime in Southeast Asia, mastery of the native language has allowed investigators to gather valuable information, establish relevant connections, and solve crimes. This highlights the importance of valuing and supporting the use of the mother tongue in cross-border investigations, regardless of the Discuss the positive impact of language proficiency on building trust with local communities and improving intelligence gathering.

Language proficiency is a key element in establishing trust with local communities and improving intelligence collection in the investigation of cross-border crimes. Here are some of the positive impacts of language proficiency:

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- *Effective communication:* Fluency in the local language allows investigators to communicate directly and effectively with members of local communities. This eliminates language barriers and facilitates mutual understanding, thereby building trust between investigators and communities.
- *Cultural sensitivity:* Language proficiency often goes hand in hand with a thorough understanding of the culture and social norms of the community. Interviewers who are fluent in the language are better able to understand local issues, connect with interviewees, and respect cultural traditions, leading to a more open and honest exchange of information.
- *Access to crucial information:* Local communities are often key witnesses to suspicious activities or crimes. When investigators are fluent in the local language, they can gather valuable and specific information that would otherwise be difficult to access. This in-depth knowledge of the language allows them to ask the right questions, elicit precise details, and gather tangible evidence.
- *Strengthening Cooperation:* Mastery of the local language also improves cooperation between investigators and local communities. Community members are more likely to collaborate and share information with investigators who make the effort to learn their language, making it easier to gather intelligence and dismantle criminal networks.
- *Fight against Stereotypes and Discrimination:* Mastery of the local language demonstrates the interviewers' respect and commitment to the community. This helps to combat stereotypes and discrimination by building trust and fostering closer cooperation between investigators and community members.

V. Conclusion

The use of native languages in cross-border crime investigations presents challenges such as resource limitations, interpreter availability, and translation accuracy. Solutions can be implemented through technology for real-time translation services, increasing funding for language training programs, and international cooperation to share language resources. Case studies demonstrate the effectiveness of using the mother tongue in international drug trafficking and cross-border financial fraud cases. The application of the mother tongue in cross-border crimes is crucial for precise communication, trust building, gathering valuable information, cultural sensitivity, and preventing translation errors. It is essential to promote and support the use of the mother tongue in these investigations to strengthen efficiency and confidence. Collaboration between law enforcement agencies, policymakers, and international organizations is necessary for sharing linguistic resources, promoting language training and awareness, harmonizing investigation protocols, and exchanging best practices .By strengthening language skills and cultural understanding in cross-border crime investigations, we can create a safer and more effective global crime-fighting ecosystem. By understanding interviewees' native languages, establishing accurate communication, and developing trusting relationships, we can gather crucial information, dismantle criminal networks, and promote international justice. Improving language skills and cultural understanding will allow investigators to overcome linguistic and cultural barriers, prevent translation errors, and better understand local dynamics. This will pave the way for closer cooperation between law enforcement agencies, policymakers, and international organizations, promoting cross-border coordination and effective crime-solving. Investing in language training, sharing resources, harmonizing investigation protocols, and exchanging best practices can create an environment where investigators are empowered to act with precision, respect, and cultural sensitivity. Together, we can build a future where linguistic borders are no longer an obstacle to solving cross-border crimes, creating a safer, more effective, and fairer global crime-fighting ecosystem.

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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.

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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.

.

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).
- Align the primary line of each section.
- Present your points in sound order.
- Use present tense to report well-accepted matters.
- Use past tense to describe specific results.
- Do not use familiar wording; don't address the reviewer directly. Don't use slang or superlatives.
- Avoid use of extra pictures—include only those figures essential to presenting results.

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.

Abstract: This summary should be two hundred words or less. It should clearly and briefly explain the key findings reported in the manuscript and must have precise statistics. It should not have acronyms or abbreviations. It should be logical in itself. Do not cite references at this point.

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.

Introduction:

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.
- Briefly explain the study's tentative purpose and how it meets the declared objectives.

Approach:

Use past tense except for when referring to recognized facts. After all, the manuscript will be submitted after the entire job is done. Sort out your thoughts; manufacture one key point for every section. If you make the four points listed above, you will need at least four paragraphs. Present surrounding information only when it is necessary to support a situation. The reviewer does not desire to read everything you know about a topic. Shape the theory specifically—do not take a broad view.

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

Procedures (methods and materials):

This part is supposed to be the easiest to carve if you have good skills. A soundly written procedures segment allows a capable scientist to replicate your results. Present precise information about your supplies. The suppliers and clarity of reagents can be helpful bits of information. Present methods in sequential order, but linked methodologies can be grouped as a segment. Be concise when relating the protocols. Attempt to give the least amount of information that would permit another capable scientist to replicate your outcome, but be cautious that vital information is integrated. The use of subheadings is suggested and ought to be synchronized with the results section.

When a technique is used that has been well-described in another section, mention the specific item describing the way, but draw the basic principle while stating the situation. The purpose is to show all particular resources and broad procedures so that another person may use some or all of the methods in one more study or referee the scientific value of your work. It is not to be a step-by-step report of the whole thing you did, nor is a methods section a set of orders.

Materials:

Materials may be reported in part of a section or else they may be recognized along with your measures.

Methods:

- Report the method and not the particulars of each process that engaged the same methodology.
- Describe the method entirely.
- To be succinct, present methods under headings dedicated to specific dealings or groups of measures.
- 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:

It is embarrassing to use vigorous voice when documenting methods without using first person, which would focus the reviewer's interest on the researcher rather than the job. As a result, when writing up the methods, most authors use third person passive voice.

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

What to keep away from:

- Resources and methods are not a set of information.
- 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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Results:

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.

Content:

- Sum up your conclusions in text and demonstrate them, if suitable, with figures and tables.
- In the manuscript, explain each of your consequences, and point the reader to remarks that are most appropriate.
- Present a background, such as by describing the question that was addressed by creation of an exacting study.
- Explain results of control experiments and give remarks that are not accessible in a prescribed figure or table, if appropriate.
- Examine your data, then prepare the analyzed (transformed) data in the form of a figure (graph), table, or manuscript.

What to stay away from:

- Do not discuss or infer your outcome, report surrounding information, or try to explain anything.
- Do not include raw data or intermediate calculations in a research manuscript.
- Do not present similar data more than once.
- A manuscript should complement any figures or tables, not duplicate information.
- Never confuse figures with tables—there is a difference.

Approach:

As always, use past tense when you submit your results, and put the whole thing in a reasonable order.

Put figures and tables, appropriately numbered, in order at the end of the report.

If you desire, you may place your figures and tables properly within the text of your results section.

Figures and tables:

If you put figures and tables at the end of some details, make certain that they are visibly distinguished from any attached appendix materials, such as raw facts. Whatever the position, each table must be titled, numbered one after the other, and include a heading. All figures and tables must be divided from the text.

Discussion:

The discussion is expected to be the trickiest segment to write. A lot of papers submitted to the journal are discarded based on problems with the discussion. There is no rule for how long an argument should be.

Position your understanding of the outcome visibly to lead the reviewer through your conclusions, and then finish the paper with a summing up of the implications of the study. The purpose here is to offer an understanding of your results and support all of your conclusions, using facts from your research and generally accepted information, if suitable. The implication of results should be fully described.

Infer your data in the conversation in suitable depth. This means that when you clarify an observable fact, you must explain mechanisms that may account for the observation. If your results vary from your prospect, make clear why that may have happened. If your results agree, then explain the theory that the proof supported. It is never suitable to just state that the data approved the prospect, and let it drop at that. Make a decision as to whether each premise is supported or discarded or if you cannot make a conclusion with assurance. Do not just dismiss a study or part of a study as "uncertain."



Research papers are not acknowledged if the work is imperfect. Draw what conclusions you can based upon the results that you have, and take care of the study as a finished work.

- You may propose future guidelines, such as how an experiment might be personalized to accomplish a new idea.
- Give details of all of your remarks as much as possible, focusing on mechanisms.
- Make a decision as to whether the tentative design sufficiently addressed the theory and whether or not it was correctly restricted. Try to present substitute explanations if they are sensible alternatives.
- One piece of research will not counter an overall question, so maintain the large picture in mind. Where do you go next? The best studies unlock new avenues of study. What questions remain?
- Recommendations for detailed papers will offer supplementary suggestions.

Approach:

When you refer to information, differentiate data generated by your own studies from other available information. Present work done by specific persons (including you) in past tense.

Describe generally acknowledged facts and main beliefs in present tense.

The Administration Rules

Administration Rules to Be Strictly Followed before Submitting Your Research Paper to Global Journals Inc.

Please read the following rules and regulations carefully before submitting your research paper to Global Journals Inc. to avoid rejection.

Segment draft and final research paper: You have to strictly follow the template of a research paper, failing which your paper may get rejected. You are expected to write each part of the paper wholly on your own. The peer reviewers need to identify your own perspective of the concepts in your own terms. Please do not extract straight from any other source, and do not rephrase someone else's analysis. Do not allow anyone else to proofread your manuscript.

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Criterion for Grading a Research Paper (Compilation) by Global Journals

Please note that following table is only a Grading of "Paper Compilation" and not on "Performed/Stated Research" whose grading solely depends on Individual Assigned Peer Reviewer and Editorial Board Member. These can be available only on request and after decision of Paper. This report will be the property of Global Journals

Topics	Grades		
	A-B	**C-D**	**E-F**
Abstract	Clear and concise with appropriate content, Correct format. 200 words or below	Unclear summary and no specific data, Incorrect form Above 200 words	No specific data with ambiguous information Above 250 words
Introduction	Containing all background details with clear goal and appropriate details, flow specification, no grammar and spelling mistake, well organized sentence and paragraph, reference cited	Unclear and confusing data, appropriate format, grammar and spelling errors with unorganized matter	Out of place depth and content, hazy format
Methods and Procedures	Clear and to the point with well arranged paragraph, precision and accuracy of facts and figures, well organized subheads	Difficult to comprehend with embarrassed text, too much explanation but completed	Incorrect and unorganized structure with hazy meaning
Result	Well organized, Clear and specific, Correct units with precision, correct data, well structuring of paragraph, no grammar and spelling mistake	Complete and embarrassed text, difficult to comprehend	Irregular format with wrong facts and figures
Discussion	Well organized, meaningful specification, sound conclusion, logical and concise explanation, highly structured paragraph reference cited	Wordy, unclear conclusion, spurious	Conclusion is not cited, unorganized, difficult to comprehend
References	Complete and correct format, well organized	Beside the point, Incomplete	Wrong format and structuring

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ISSN 975587

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