

GRAMMAR FOR PURPOSEFUL COMMUNICATION

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GETPRESS INDONESIA

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ISBN : 978-634-255-183-7

Editor : Mila Sari, M. Si.

Desain Sampul dan Tata Letak : Tri Putri Wahyuni, S. Pd.

PENERBIT : GET PRESS INDONESIA

Anggota IKAPI No. 033/SBA/2022
Jl. Palarik RT 01 RW 06 Kelurahan Air Pacah
Kecamatan Koto Tangah Padang Sumatera Barat
website: www.getpress.co.id
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Cetakan pertama, Desember 2025

Hak cipta dilindungi undang-undang
Dilarang memperbanyak karya tulis ini dalam bentuk
dan dengan cara apapun tanpa izin tertulis dari penerbit.

PREFACE

Praise and gratitude we offer to the presence of God Almighty, who has given His grace and gifts so that the book entitled *Grammar for Purposeful Communication* can be completed. The contents of this book include discussions on grammar for purposeful communication: comparing and contrasting, characteristics of young learners, stating facts and opinions, hedging, paraphrasing, collocation, cohesion, and punctuation. Finally, we hope that this book can be a useful reference and an inspiration for all readers.

Padang, September 2025

Author

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CHAPTER 1

GRAMMAR FOR PURPOSEFUL COMMUNICATION: COMPARING AND CONTRASTING

1.1 Introduction

Language functions not only as a system of rules but also as a practical tool for purposeful communication. Every time people interact, they use language with specific goals in mind: to inform, to persuade, to express emotions, or to clarify ideas. As Halliday (1978) notes, *“language is a system of communication by which people express themselves and through which culture is transmitted from one generation to another.”* Grammar, often perceived merely as sets of prescriptive rules, actually provides the structural framework that enables speakers and writers to achieve those goals. In fact, Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) emphasize that *“grammar is not merely a set of prescriptive rules but a resource for making meaning.”* One of the most essential purposes of communication in both spoken and written contexts is the act of comparing and contrasting. By identifying similarities and differences, individuals are able to construct meaning, evaluate options, and present information in a way that is both logical and persuasive.

The role of comparing and contrasting extends beyond casual conversation. Gentner and Markman (1997) argue that *“comparison and contrast are fundamental cognitive operations that help individuals organize experience, understand new information, and make informed choices.”* In academic writing, students frequently compare theories, research findings, or methodologies to highlight strengths and weaknesses. In professional settings, business reports often contrast products, market strategies, or organizational models to inform decision-making. Even in everyday life, people naturally rely on comparison and contrast when choosing between restaurants, analyzing technological devices, or reflecting on cultural practices. These communicative acts demonstrate that comparison and contrast are not merely stylistic choices, but cognitive tools that shape how individuals perceive the world around them.

From a grammatical perspective, expressing comparison and contrast requires precision and clarity. The use of comparative adjectives, superlatives, correlative conjunctions, and contrastive adverbs allows language users to signal relationships between ideas effectively. However, the ability to choose the right structure depends on context, register, and communicative purpose. As Biber, Conrad, and Leech (2002) explain, *“the choice of grammatical structures is never neutral; it is always conditioned by the communicative purpose, social context, and level of formality.”* For example, while informal conversations may rely on simple connectors like *but* or *while*, academic discourse often employs more formal expressions such as *in contrast to* or *conversely*. Thus, grammar not only ensures correctness but also helps achieve appropriateness in different communicative domains.

This chapter therefore aims to explore Grammar for Purposeful Communication with a focus on comparing and contrasting. It will discuss the cognitive and rhetorical functions of comparison, present the grammatical structures

commonly used to express similarities and differences, and highlight the pragmatic and stylistic considerations that influence their use. As Hyland (2005) observes, *“in academic discourse, comparison and contrast are essential rhetorical strategies that enable writers to evaluate competing perspectives, highlight distinctions, and build persuasive arguments.”* In addition, pedagogical implications will be examined to provide practical strategies for teaching comparison and contrast in language classrooms. By combining theory, examples, and classroom practice, the discussion seeks to demonstrate how mastering comparison and contrast contributes to learners’ communicative competence in both academic and real-life contexts.

1.2 The Purpose of Comparing and Contrasting in Communication

1.2.1 Cognitive and Rhetorical Functions

The act of comparing and contrasting serves an important cognitive function in human communication. When individuals encounter new ideas, they often attempt to understand them by relating them to concepts they already know. For instance, when learning a new technology, a person may compare it with a familiar one in order to recognize improvements, limitations, or similarities. This process reduces cognitive load and facilitates comprehension because it activates prior knowledge and makes new input easier to process. As Gentner and Markman (1997) point out, *“comparison and contrast are fundamental cognitive operations that help individuals organize experience, understand new information, and make informed choices.”* In other words, comparison acts as a mental bridge that connects new knowledge with prior

experiences, allowing learners to make sense of complex or abstract information more effectively.

Beyond the cognitive dimension, comparing and contrasting also play a significant rhetorical function in discourse. Writers, speakers, and communicators frequently rely on contrastive structures to persuade their audience, highlight the superiority of one idea over another, or present balanced evaluations. Hyland (2005) emphasizes that *“in academic discourse, comparison and contrast are essential rhetorical strategies that enable writers to evaluate competing perspectives, highlight distinctions, and build persuasive arguments.”* For example, in an academic essay, a student might compare constructivist and behaviorist learning theories to argue that one provides more autonomy to learners, while in business communication, a manager may contrast two project proposals to convince stakeholders that one is more cost-efficient. These rhetorical strategies demonstrate that comparison and contrast are not simply tools for explanation but also for evaluation and persuasion, giving communicators greater influence over how their messages are received and interpreted.

Furthermore, the integration of both cognitive and rhetorical functions makes comparison and contrast a particularly powerful feature of purposeful communication. On the one hand, they enhance understanding by linking new and familiar knowledge; on the other hand, they shape perception by framing arguments in persuasive and evaluative ways. As Biber, Conrad, and Leech (2002) remind us, *“the choice of grammatical structures is never neutral; it is always conditioned by the communicative purpose, social context, and level of formality.”* In academic settings, this dual function is evident when students both grasp the differences between theories and strategically present

those differences to support a claim. In professional or intercultural contexts, it allows individuals not only to notice distinctions but also to articulate them diplomatically or convincingly. Thus, the ability to use comparison and contrast effectively contributes to clarity, critical thinking, and communicative success across a wide range of contexts.

1.2.2 Situations Requiring Comparison and Contrast

The need to compare and contrast arises naturally in a wide range of human activities, and one of the most prominent contexts is academic writing. Students and researchers are frequently required to analyze theories, models, or case studies to highlight their respective strengths and weaknesses. This is especially visible in literature reviews, where scholars must demonstrate how their research relates to existing studies by identifying similarities, differences, or gaps in the field. As Hyland (2005) observes, *“in academic discourse, comparison and contrast are essential rhetorical strategies that enable writers to evaluate competing perspectives, highlight distinctions, and build persuasive arguments.”* For instance, a researcher comparing qualitative and quantitative approaches must evaluate how each contributes differently to answering the same research question. By doing so, the act of comparing and contrasting not only supports comprehension but also lays the foundation for critical thinking and knowledge advancement in academia.

In professional and organizational contexts, comparison and contrast are integral to decision-making processes. Businesses compare financial models to select the most profitable option, assess different market strategies to maximize reach, or analyze competitors' performance to identify opportunities for growth.

According to Biber, Conrad, and Leech (2002), *“the choice of grammatical structures is never neutral; it is always conditioned by the communicative purpose, social context, and level of formality,”* which highlights why professionals often frame comparisons strategically to influence outcomes. Similarly, policymakers often contrast the potential impact of alternative policies before implementation, ensuring that chosen strategies are cost-effective and beneficial for society. Even within workplace communication, employees and managers regularly compare tools, processes, or outcomes to evaluate efficiency and determine best practices. These examples illustrate how comparison is not only analytical but also pragmatic, guiding decisions that shape organizational and economic outcomes.

Another crucial domain where comparison and contrast play a significant role is intercultural and daily communication. In intercultural settings, highlighting similarities and differences between traditions, values, or norms can promote mutual respect and foster understanding between communities. Halliday (1978) reminds us that *“language is a system of communication by which people express themselves and through which culture is transmitted from one generation to another,”* which explains why comparison often emerges in cross-cultural encounters. For example, when two individuals from different cultural backgrounds discuss holiday traditions, their comparisons provide insight into shared human experiences while also acknowledging diversity. In everyday life, comparisons occur constantly, whether people are choosing between public transport and private cars, selecting healthier meals, or evaluating different brands of electronic devices. As Gentner and Markman (1997) argue, *“comparison and contrast are fundamental cognitive operations that help individuals*

organize experience, understand new information, and make informed choices." These daily decisions reveal that comparison and contrast are deeply embedded in human interaction, serving as essential tools for navigating choices, building relationships, and making sense of the social world.

1.2.3 Communicative Value of Comparison and Contrast

The communicative value of comparison and contrast lies primarily in their ability to clarify ideas and make abstract concepts more accessible. When speakers or writers highlight similarities or differences, they provide their audience with a frame of reference that reduces ambiguity and enhances understanding. As Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) note, "*grammar is not merely a set of prescriptive rules but a resource for making meaning,*" which explains why comparative structures are so effective in clarifying usage and concepts. For example, when a teacher explains the function of the present perfect tense by contrasting it with the past simple tense, learners gain a clearer picture of when and how to use each tense. Similarly, in scientific writing, researchers often use comparisons to simplify technical findings for a broader audience. In both cases, comparison and contrast operate as explanatory tools that transform complex information into comprehensible messages.

Beyond clarification, comparison and contrast also enable communicators to evaluate options and form judgments. By weighing two or more alternatives, individuals are able to highlight strengths, weaknesses, advantages, or disadvantages, thus facilitating informed decision-making. Gentner and Markman (1997) emphasize that "*comparison and contrast are fundamental cognitive operations that help individuals*

organize experience, understand new information, and make informed choices." For instance, a student choosing between two universities may compare tuition fees, academic reputations, and campus facilities before arriving at a conclusion. In the same way, companies frequently compare marketing campaigns to determine which one yields better results. Through these evaluative functions, comparison and contrast help individuals move beyond surface understanding toward critical analysis and rational decision-making.

Finally, the value of comparison and contrast becomes particularly evident in their role as persuasive strategies. Communicators often frame arguments by presenting one idea in opposition to another, thereby guiding the audience to adopt a specific perspective. Hyland (2005) observes that *"in academic discourse, comparison and contrast are essential rhetorical strategies that enable writers to evaluate competing perspectives, highlight distinctions, and build persuasive arguments."* A public health campaign might contrast the dangers of smoking with the benefits of quitting to encourage behavioral change, while a politician may emphasize the weaknesses of an opponent's policy compared to the strengths of their own. In such contexts, contrast does more than describe differences it strategically shapes perception and influences choices. Thus, comparison and contrast are not only linguistic devices but also powerful rhetorical resources that enhance the clarity, evaluation, and persuasive impact of communication.

1.3 Implications for Purposeful Communication

Understanding the dual functions of comparing and contrasting highlights their centrality in purposeful communication. When learners, professionals, or academics develop the ability to use grammatical structures of comparison and contrast effectively, they not only achieve greater clarity but also increase their credibility and persuasiveness. As Biber, Conrad, and Leech (2002) remind us, *“the choice of grammatical structures is never neutral; it is always conditioned by the communicative purpose, social context, and level of formality.”* For instance, a student who writes “While both methods are effective, method A is more cost-efficient” demonstrates analytical thinking and precise expression. Therefore, comparison and contrast are not merely grammatical exercises but, as Hyland (2005) emphasizes, *“essential rhetorical strategies that enable writers to evaluate competing perspectives, highlight distinctions, and build persuasive arguments.”* In this sense, they become essential tools for building logical arguments, making informed decisions, and engaging in meaningful dialogue across contexts.

1.4 Grammatical Structures for Comparison

1.4.1 Comparative Adjectives

The most basic grammatical structure for comparison involves comparative adjectives. These indicate a higher or lower degree of quality between two entities.

- **Form:**
 - Short adjectives: add *-er* + *than* (e.g., *faster than*, *smaller than*).

- Long adjectives: use *more/less + adjective + than* (e.g., *more expensive than, less complicated than*).
- **Examples:**
 - *Online learning is cheaper than traditional classroom learning.*
 - *The new software is more user-friendly than the previous version.*

1.4.2 Superlative Forms

Although superlatives compare more than two, they are often used in contexts of contrast to emphasize extremes.

- **Form:**
 - Short adjectives: *-est* (e.g., *the fastest, the smallest*).
 - Long adjectives: *most/least + adjective* (e.g., *the most effective, the least reliable*).
- **Examples:**
 - *Among all available platforms, this is the most efficient.*
 - *She is the least confident speaker in the group.*

1.4.3 Comparative Adverbs

Adverbs can also form comparisons, highlighting differences in manner, frequency, or degree.

- **Form:**
 - Short adverbs: add *-er* (e.g., *faster*).
 - Long adverbs: *more/less + adverb* (e.g., *more effectively, less frequently*).

- **Examples:**

- *He speaks more fluently than his peers.*
- *Students participate less actively in online discussions than in face-to-face ones.*

1.4.4 Parallelism in Comparisons

For stylistic clarity, comparisons require grammatical parallelism. The elements being compared should follow the same grammatical structure.

- Incorrect: *The responsibilities of teachers are greater than a student.*
- Correct: *The responsibilities of teachers are greater than those of students.*

Parallelism avoids ambiguity and ensures logical clarity in communication.

1.5 Grammatical Structures for Contrast

1.5.1 Coordinating Conjunctions

The simplest contrastive structures involve **but**, **yet**, and **whereas**. These conjunctions signal opposition or unexpected results.

- Examples:
 - *She is hardworking, but she struggles with time management.*
 - *He is very intelligent, yet he lacks practical experience.*
 - *Whereas traditional classes are synchronous, online classes can be asynchronous.*

1.5.2 Subordinating Conjunctions

Subordination emphasizes contrast by embedding one clause within another. Common subordinators include **although, even though, while, whereas**.

- Examples:
 - *Although the theory is widely accepted, it has been criticized for lack of empirical evidence.*
 - *While both methods are effective, one is more cost-efficient.*

1.5.3 Prepositional Phrases

Contrast can also be expressed through prepositional phrases like **in contrast to, as opposed to, in comparison with**.

- Examples:
 - *In contrast to developed countries, developing nations face limited access to technology.*
 - *As opposed to passive learning, active learning engages students in problem-solving.*

1.5.4 Adverbs and Adverbial Phrases

Adverbs such as **however, on the other hand, conversely, instead** serve as strong discourse markers for contrast.

- Examples:
 - *The data suggest a positive trend; however, further research is needed.*
 - *Conversely, rural communities may rely more heavily on traditional practices.*

1.6 Comparative Constructions Beyond Adjectives and Adverbs

1.6.1 As ... as Constructions

The structure *as + adjective/adverb + as* highlights equality or inequality.

- Examples:
 - *Her performance is as impressive as his.*
 - *This book is not as comprehensive as the previous edition.*

1.6.2 Correlative Conjunctions

Pairs such as **both ... and**, **not only ... but also**, **either ... or**, **neither ... nor** establish comparisons and contrasts.

- Examples:
 - *The project is both innovative and sustainable.*
 - *The new curriculum is not only flexible but also inclusive.*

1.6.3 Comparative Idiomatic Expressions

Natural communication often employs idiomatic comparison:

- *like two peas in a pod* (very similar)
- *as different as night and day* (completely different)

These idioms enrich communication by adding imagery and cultural nuance.

1.7 Pragmatic and Stylistic Considerations

1.7.1 Formal vs. Informal Registers

Choice of comparative and contrastive structures depends on context.

- Formal: *In comparison with, conversely, nevertheless*
- Informal: *but, while, on the other hand*

1.7.2 Precision and Ambiguity

Ambiguity in comparisons can mislead. Consider:

- Ambiguous: *She likes her teacher more than her brother.*
(Does she like her teacher more than her brother likes the teacher, or more than she likes her brother?)
- Clear: *She likes her teacher more than she likes her brother.*

1.7.3 Cultural Variations

Some cultures prefer indirect contrasts to maintain politeness, while others use direct contrastive markers. Awareness of these differences is essential for intercultural communication.

1.8 Comparing and Contrasting in Academic Writing

1.8.1 Comparative Essays

In academic writing, the "compare-and-contrast essay" is a standard assignment. Grammar structures are chosen to maintain objectivity and logical coherence.

- Example Thesis: *Although both constructivist and behaviorist approaches contribute to language learning, constructivism emphasizes learner autonomy, whereas behaviorism relies on external reinforcement.*

1.8.2 Literature Reviews

Researchers compare and contrast prior studies to identify gaps. Contrastive adverbs and prepositional phrases are particularly useful.

- Example: *Smith (2020) reported a positive correlation, in contrast to Johnson (2019), who found no significant relationship.*

1.8.3 Argumentative Writing

In arguments, contrasts highlight weaknesses of opposing views.

- Example: *While opponents argue that technology isolates learners, evidence suggests it enhances collaboration in digital spaces.*

1.9 Pedagogical Approaches to Teaching Comparison and Contrast

1.9.1 Focus on Form

Teachers should explicitly teach grammatical rules for comparison and contrast, ensuring learners can form accurate structures.

1.9.2 Focus on Meaning

Activities should encourage learners to use comparative and contrastive forms for real

communicative purposes (e.g., debating two policies, comparing cultural customs).

1.9.3 Discourse Awareness

Students must be exposed to authentic texts to notice how writers combine grammatical and lexical signals for comparison and contrast.

1.9.4 Practical Classroom Activities

- **Pairwork:** Compare family traditions or hobbies.
- **Debates:** Contrast urban and rural lifestyles.
- **Writing tasks:** Compose comparative essays or research reports.
- **Games:** Spot differences in pictures ("Find 10 differences").

1.10 Error Analysis in Learners' Comparisons and Contrasts

Common errors include:

1. **Incorrect adjective form:** *more easier than* instead of *easier than*.
2. **Lack of parallelism:** *She is smarter than her brother is lazy*.
3. **Confusing equality structure:** *He is so tall as his father* instead of *as tall as*.
4. **Overgeneralization:** using *but* in formal academic writing where *however* is preferred.

Teachers must provide corrective feedback that balances accuracy with fluency.

1.11 Technological Support for Learning Comparison and Contrast

Digital tools can enhance mastery of grammar for purposeful comparison:

- **Concordancers:** Show real usage of comparative structures in corpora.
- **Writing assistants:** Provide suggestions for more formal contrastive markers.
- **Interactive platforms:** Quizzes and sentence-reordering tasks for practice.
- **AI-based tutors:** Give personalized feedback on student writing.

1.12 Conclusion

Grammar for purposeful communication emphasizes the functional use of grammatical structures in real-life contexts. Comparing and contrasting is an indispensable communicative purpose that appears across daily conversations, academic texts, and professional interactions. Mastery requires not only grammatical knowledge but also discourse awareness, stylistic sensitivity, and pragmatic competence. By integrating accurate forms, cohesive markers, and contextual appropriateness, learners can communicate similarities and differences effectively, achieving clarity, persuasion, and intercultural understanding.

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CHAPTER 2

CHARACTERISTICS OF YOUNG LEARNERS

2.1 Introduction

Teaching English to young learners (EYL) has gained global importance due to the increasing recognition of English as an international language. Many countries, including those where English is not a native language, have introduced English in early education to enhance children's communicative competence from a young age. The early exposure to English offers numerous cognitive, linguistic, and cultural benefits, such as improved pronunciation, vocabulary acquisition, and intercultural awareness.

However, teaching young learners is not simply about simplifying adult language instruction. Young learners have distinct cognitive, emotional, social, and linguistic characteristics that influence how they learn a new language. Understanding these characteristics is crucial for designing effective teaching strategies that align with their developmental needs.

Young learners are not miniature adults. They think, feel, and behave differently from older learners. They are curious, imaginative, energetic, and often emotionally expressive. These traits can be powerful assets in the language classroom when appropriately addressed. On the

other hand, their limited attention span, dependence on adults, and early-stage cognitive development pose challenges that teachers must navigate carefully.

By identifying the key characteristics of young learners, educators can tailor instructional approaches to:

- Make learning engaging and meaningful
- Foster language acquisition through play and interaction
- Build a classroom environment that supports both emotional and academic growth

Understanding learners' characteristics also helps teachers choose appropriate materials, classroom management techniques, and assessment methods.

2.2 Characteristics of Young Learners

Understanding the unique characteristics of young learners is essential for designing effective English language instruction. These characteristics span various developmental domains cognitive, affective, social, and linguistic and directly impact how children engage with language learning. This section describes each domain in detail.

1. Cognitive Characteristics

Young learners typically between the ages of 5 to 12 are at the early stages of cognitive development. Their thinking is:

- **Concrete rather than abstract:** Young learners understand concepts that are tangible and visible. They learn best when ideas are connected to real-life experiences, objects, or actions. Abstract grammar rules

or theoretical explanations are usually too complex for their level of understanding.

- **Egocentric and literal:** Children often interpret language literally and from their own perspective. Idioms, metaphors, or sarcasm may confuse them unless explained in simple terms.
- **Curious and explorative:** They are naturally curious and eager to explore new things. Teachers can leverage this curiosity by incorporating discovery-based activities and hands-on learning.
- **Short attention span:** Typically, young learners can only focus for 10–20 minutes at a time. This necessitates varied, engaging, and dynamic lesson activities to maintain their interest.
- **Good memory for patterns:** Children are adept at memorizing and imitating songs, chants, rhymes, and routines, especially when these are rhythmic or accompanied by actions.

2. Affective Characteristics

Emotional factors significantly influence how young learners approach language learning. Their affective traits include:

- **High sensitivity to environment:** Young learners respond strongly to classroom atmosphere and the teacher's mood or behavior. A safe, supportive, and cheerful environment encourages participation and risk-taking.
- **Enjoyment is crucial:** Children are motivated by enjoyment. If a learning activity is fun, they are more likely to engage deeply and retain language.

- **Need for encouragement and praise:** Positive reinforcement helps build confidence. Criticism or high-pressure correction can discourage learners and create anxiety.
- **Emotional dependency:** Young children often rely on adults for approval and reassurance. The teacher plays a central role as both instructor and emotional supporter.

3. Social Characteristics

Social development shapes how children interact in the classroom. Key traits include:

- **Learning through interaction:** Children develop language by interacting with others through conversation, collaboration, and imitation.
- **Preference for group activities:** They often enjoy learning in pairs or small groups, where they can share ideas, play, or solve problems together.
- **Imitation of social behaviour:** Young learners tend to imitate not just language but also behaviour and social norms modelled by the teacher or peers.
- **Developing sense of fairness and rules:** While they may not always follow instructions perfectly, children are beginning to understand rules and structure, which can help in classroom management when applied consistently.

4. Language Acquisition Characteristics

Young learners have a natural capacity for acquiring new languages. Their language-related traits include:

- **Strong ability to mimic:** They can easily imitate pronunciation, intonation, and rhythm, often more accurately than older learners.
- **Implicit learning over explicit instruction:** Children absorb language through exposure and use rather than formal grammar instruction. They pick up vocabulary and structures through repetition and meaningful use.
- **Need for contextualized language:** Language must be embedded in context (e.g., a story, game, or real-life task) for it to be understood and retained.
- **Tolerance for ambiguity:** Unlike adults, children are comfortable with not understanding every word. This tolerance allows them to continue engaging without being discouraged by unfamiliar language.

By acknowledging these characteristics, teachers can create developmentally appropriate English language instruction that is meaningful, engaging, and effective for young learners. The following sections of the chapter will explore how these traits inform teaching strategies, methods, and classroom innovations.

2.3 Implications for Teaching English to Young Learners

Understanding the developmental characteristics of young learners (cognitive, affective, social, and linguistic) is not merely theoretical; it should directly influence how English is taught in early education. This section discusses how these characteristics translate into practical teaching

implications, specifically in the areas of **language use** and **learning environment design**.

1. Age-Appropriate Language Use

Given young learners' limited abstract thinking and developing cognitive abilities, teachers must adjust the way they use English in the classroom.

a. Use of Simple and Clear Language

- Young learners grasp concrete and simple language more easily than abstract or complex structures.
- Teachers should use **short, clear sentences** and familiar vocabulary, gradually increasing complexity as learners develop.
- Repetition and paraphrasing help reinforce understanding and build retention.

b. Visual and Contextual Support

- Young children learn best when language is accompanied by **visuals**, such as pictures, real objects (realia), flashcards, or gestures.
- **Demonstrations and modeling** help learners understand instructions or meanings without needing translations.
- For example, instead of explaining the verb "*jump*," the teacher can perform the action while saying the word.

c. Use of Repetition and Routine

- Repeated exposure to the same language structures in different contexts reinforces learning.

- **Classroom routines** (e.g., greetings, songs, instructions) provide a sense of stability and reinforce language patterns naturally.

2. Creating a Supportive Learning Environment

The emotional and social needs of young learners must be addressed to create a positive learning atmosphere where language learning can flourish.

a. Safe and Supportive Atmosphere

- Young learners are sensitive to their surroundings. A **warm, encouraging environment** fosters confidence and willingness to participate.
- Teachers should build **trust and rapport**, showing patience and empathy.
- Encouraging risk-taking and celebrating effort (not just correct answers) helps children overcome fear of making mistakes.

b. Use of Praise and Positive Reinforcement

- Positive reinforcement (e.g., verbal praise, stickers, points) motivates children and affirms their progress.
- Feedback should focus on what the child did well, using phrases like *"Good job trying!"* or *"Great sentence!"*

c. Classroom Management Through Structure

- Clear routines and predictable classroom structures help reduce anxiety and improve behaviour.
- Visual schedules, consistent rules, and familiar transitions support young learners' need for order and clarity.

d. Interactive and Collaborative Activities

- Activities that allow **peer interaction**, such as pair work, group games, or collaborative storytelling, align with children's social learning tendencies.
- These activities promote both language development and social-emotional growth.

By aligning teaching practices with the developmental needs of young learners, educators can make language learning more effective and enjoyable. The next section will explore specific **strategies** that put these implications into action.

2.4 Effective Strategies for Teaching English to Young Learners

Young learners thrive in environments where learning is active, engaging, and emotionally supportive. Effective teaching strategies for this age group should align with their developmental characteristics such as their short attention span, preference for play, and strong memory for patterns. This section presents key strategies that are widely recognized as effective in English language teaching for children.

1. Play-Based Learning

a. Learning Through Games

- Games are a natural part of children's lives and can serve as powerful tools for language learning.
- Language games (e.g., *Simon Says*, *word bingo*, *memory card games*) make learning fun while targeting specific language functions such as

vocabulary recall, following instructions, and turn-taking.

b. Songs and Chants

- Music, rhythm, and repetition are highly effective for language acquisition.
- Songs help children internalize sentence patterns, pronunciation, and vocabulary.
- Chants and rhymes provide rhythmic structure that enhances memorization, especially when combined with actions.

c. Storytelling and Drama

- Children love stories and narratives, which help make language meaningful and memorable.
- Storytelling exposes them to natural language patterns and broadens vocabulary in context.
- Role-play or dramatization of stories (with puppets, costumes, or props) encourages creative use of language and boosts speaking confidence.

2. Multi-Sensory Approaches

Young learners learn best when they engage multiple senses. A multi-sensory approach makes language more tangible and accessible.

a. Total Physical Response (TPR)

- TPR is a method where children respond to verbal commands with physical movement (e.g., "Stand up", "Touch your nose").
- It connects language input to bodily movement, reinforcing understanding through action.

- Ideal for beginners who are still developing listening comprehension.

b. Visual and Tactile Activities

- Use of flashcards, puppets, posters, and realia (real objects) helps children associate language with concrete images and experiences.
- Craft activities, such as making masks or drawing scenes from a story, engage learners kinaesthetically while practicing target language.

c. Use of Senses in Exploration

- Activities that involve seeing, hearing, touching, and even smelling (e.g., describing objects in a sensory box) make lessons more immersive and memorable.

3. Use of Authentic and Meaningful Materials

Children benefit from engaging with materials that reflect real-life language use and are meaningful to them.

a. Picture Books and Stories

- Well-illustrated storybooks are excellent tools for contextualized language input.
- Repeated readings of the same book allow for familiarization and confidence in understanding.

b. Songs and Videos

- Short, animated videos or educational cartoons can expose learners to authentic pronunciation, intonation, and conversational phrases.

c. Real-Life Contexts

- Embedding language in real situations (e.g., pretending to go shopping, having a birthday party) gives learners a purpose for communication.
- Classroom routines (e.g., asking for help, expressing needs) are also great opportunities for functional language use.

By applying these strategies consistently and thoughtfully, teachers can support not only language development but also children's cognitive, social, and emotional growth. The next section will delve into **teaching methods** that support and structure these strategies in pedagogically sound ways.

2.5 Teaching Methods Suitable for Young Learners

In teaching English to young learners (EYL), it is essential to use methods that are developmentally appropriate and aligned with their learning characteristics. The right teaching methods help structure learning activities, promote interaction, and create meaningful language experiences. This section introduces three widely accepted methods that are particularly effective in EYL classrooms: **Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)**, **Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT)**, and **The Natural Approach**.

1. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

Core Principles

- CLT emphasizes the ability to **communicate meaningfully** in real-life contexts.
- The focus is on **fluency and interaction**, not just grammar or accuracy.

- It encourages **student-centered learning**, where learners actively use language in authentic situations.

Why CLT Works for Young Learners

- Children enjoy talking and interacting with others. CLT activities such as **pair work, group games, and simple dialogues** provide a natural platform for language use.
- Language is learned through **doing** rather than memorizing rules.
- CLT integrates skills speaking, listening, reading, and writing in a meaningful context.

Classroom Activities

- **Role plays** (e.g., going to the doctor, buying food)
- **Information gap activities** (e.g., students have different pieces of information and must communicate to complete a task)
- **Classroom surveys and interviews**

2. Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT)

Core Principles

- TBLT focuses on the use of authentic language to complete meaningful tasks.
- The goal is for learners to use language as a **tool to achieve a purpose**, not just as a subject of study.
- Tasks typically involve **problem-solving, decision-making, or information exchange**.

Why TBLT Works for Young Learners

- Children are naturally active and curious. Tasks give them a **goal** that motivates participation.

- Language is learned **incidentally** as learners focus on completing the task, which mimics how language is acquired in real life.
- Tasks are often collaborative, supporting **social interaction and teamwork**.

Classroom Activities

- **Making a birthday card**
- **Planning a class party**
- **Creating a weather chart**
- **Solving a puzzle or treasure hunt with English clues**

3. The Natural Approach

Core Principles

- Developed by Stephen Krashen and Tracy Terrell, the Natural Approach emphasizes **language acquisition through exposure to comprehensible input**.
- It promotes a **low-anxiety** environment, allowing learners to absorb language naturally before being forced to speak.
- The focus is on **understanding** and **gradual language production**, similar to how children acquire their first language.

Why It Works for Young Learners

- Young children are still developing their confidence and may be reluctant to speak. This approach allows them to listen and observe until they are ready to speak.
- It aligns with the idea that **listening comes before speaking**, and **comprehension precedes production**.

- Activities are **non-threatening** and based on fun, familiar contexts.

Classroom Activities

- **Listening to stories or teacher talk with pictures and gestures**
- **Participating in Total Physical Response (TPR) activities**
- **Singing songs and repeating chants**
- **Responding with actions rather than words in the early stages**

By selecting and combining these methods, teachers can create a rich, engaging, and supportive learning environment tailored to young learners' needs. In practice, a flexible mix of methods adapted to classroom context, learner age, and proficiency level tends to yield the best results.

2.6 Innovations in Teaching English to Young Learners

In the evolving landscape of education, innovative practices have become increasingly important to meet the needs of modern young learners. Technological advancements, shifts in educational paradigms, and a better understanding of how children learn have led to the development of new tools and approaches in the field of English language teaching (ELT). This section explores key innovations that are transforming the way English is taught to young learners, focusing on **technology integration, blended and digital learning models, and cross-curricular and project-based approaches.**

1. Integration of Technology in EYL Classrooms

Digital tools and platforms can make language learning more interactive, visual, and personalized qualities that align well with young learners' preferences and learning styles.

Educational Apps and Games

- Language learning apps such as **Duolingo Kids**, **Fun English**, and **Lingokids** offer interactive, game-like experiences that help children practice vocabulary, listening, and pronunciation.
- These platforms often use **rewards, animations, and sound effects** to keep learners engaged and motivated.

Interactive Whiteboards and Smart Devices

- Smartboards can display multimedia materials such as videos, images, and interactive games that enhance language exposure.
- Tablets can be used for **group work, storytelling apps, and phonics games**, enabling more student-centered learning experiences.

Augmented Reality (AR) and Virtual Reality (VR)

- AR/VR technologies offer immersive environments where children can **explore virtual settings** (e.g., zoo, city, space) and learn context-based vocabulary.
- These tools provide **multisensory input**, which is ideal for young learners who benefit from visual and experiential learning.

2. Blended and Digital Learning Models

The COVID-19 pandemic accelerated the adoption of **blended** (combining face-to-face and online instruction) and

fully digital learning models. These models continue to play an important role in EYL settings today.

Blended Learning

- In blended classrooms, learners participate in traditional in-person activities supplemented by **online resources and platforms**.
- For example, vocabulary introduced in class can be reinforced at home via digital flashcards or online quizzes.

Flipped Classroom

- In the flipped model, learners are introduced to content (e.g., through a short video or story) at home and then apply it during in-class activities.
- This approach allows **more time for interaction and practice in class**, which is vital for young learners' oral language development.
-

Distance Learning for Young Learners

- Platforms such as **Zoom, Google Meet**, and learning management systems like **Seesaw or ClassDojo** have been used to deliver lessons remotely.
- While challenging for very young learners, remote learning can be effective when it includes **visuals, short sessions, interactive tasks, and parental support**.

3. Cross-Curricular and Integrated Learning Approaches

Innovative teaching also involves **integrating English with other subjects**, making learning more holistic and meaningful.

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)

- CLIL involves teaching **academic subjects (e.g., science, math, art)** through English.
- For example, students might learn about animal habitats in science while developing related English vocabulary and structures.
- This approach helps learners acquire language **in context**, while also developing content knowledge.

STEAM and English

- Combining English with **Science, Technology, Engineering, Art, and Mathematics (STEAM)** projects allows children to **explore and create while using English**.
- For instance, building a simple structure or conducting a basic experiment can be paired with language use such as giving instructions, describing materials, or making predictions.

Project-Based Learning (PBL)

- PBL encourages learners to work on extended tasks such as making a weather report, creating a mini book, or planning a class event where English is used for **real communication and production**.
- Projects promote **collaboration, creativity, and critical thinking**, while also integrating multiple language skills.

These innovations not only make English learning more exciting for children but also prepare them for the demands of the 21st century. By combining traditional methods with modern tools and interdisciplinary approaches, teachers can create a **rich, dynamic, and child-centered English learning environment**.

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CHAPTER 3

STATING FACTS AND OPINIONS

3.1 Introduction

In the era where information circulates rapidly and extensively, the ability to distinguish between fact and opinion has become an essential academic and life skill. Whether navigating news articles, research reports, blog posts, or classroom arguments, individuals must critically evaluate statements and identify those grounded in objective evidence against those based on subjective judgments. In language education, particularly in the context of teaching academic writing and reading comprehension, explicit instruction in identifying and expressing facts and opinions not only enhances communication competence but also nurtures critical literacy (Freeman & Kurelja, 2022). This chapter explores the concept of stating facts and opinions, its relevance in language learning, pedagogical strategies, and current trends in research.

In today's digitally interconnected world, vast amounts of information are disseminated on a daily basis through multiple channels such as social media platforms, online news outlets, scholarly databases, and personal blogs. As a

result, individuals are constantly exposed to a mixture of factual information and subjective commentary, often presented side-by-side and sometimes indistinguishable at first glance. This rapid circulation of information has made it increasingly difficult for readers to interpret and evaluate messages accurately, especially when they are not equipped with robust critical thinking skills.

From an educational standpoint, the ability to distinguish between fact and opinion represents one of the most fundamental competencies for developing critical and reflective individuals. It allows learners not only to understand what is being said, but also to evaluate how and why certain ideas are presented in specific ways. When students recognize which statements are supported by evidence and which constitute personal judgments or interpretations, they are better prepared to assess the reliability of a source, detect bias, and construct informed responses.

This distinction is particularly vital in the domain of language education. In academic reading and writing courses, students must engage with a wide range of texts that range from purely expository to highly argumentative. Being able to identify factual statements helps learners grasp the core content of a text, while the recognition of opinion statements enables them to interpret the author's stance, assumptions, and intentions. In addition, students need to express their own ideas clearly in writing and to differentiate between claims that report established knowledge and those that reflect their own interpretations or evaluations.

Consequently, this chapter aims to offer a comprehensive overview of how facts and opinions are stated in academic contexts. It begins by clarifying the

conceptual distinction between the two, followed by a discussion of their significance in academic communication. Next, it examines a range of pedagogical strategies commonly used to teach fact–opinion recognition and expression in the language classroom. The chapter concludes with a review of recent research (2020–2025) that explores digital, corpus-based, and AI-supported approaches to teaching this essential skill. Taken together, the chapter seeks to provide educators, researchers, and students with practical insights and evidence-based recommendations for fostering critical and effective communication in today’s information-rich world.

3.2 Understanding the Concept

3.2.1 What Is a Fact?

A fact is a statement that is grounded in objective reality and can be observed, verified, and measured. It is based on reliable sources such as scientific research, historical records, statistical data, or universally accepted laws and principles. Unlike opinions, which may vary between individuals, facts remain true even when people disagree with them. They are objective in nature and can be tested and proven to be true or false using established procedures or methods.

In other words, a factual statement does not rely on beliefs, preferences, or emotions. It is supported by concrete evidence and can be confirmed by consulting trustworthy sources such as expert studies, official reports, or documented data. Facts are also stable over time unless new and stronger evidence emerges to

replace previously accepted knowledge (for example, in the natural sciences when new discoveries are made).

Because of their objectivity, facts form the foundation of academic writing, research reports, and informed decision-making. When writers present factual information, they aim to convey accurate information that others can verify and use as a basis for further interpretation or discussion.

Example:

“Water boils at 100 degrees Celsius at sea level.”

This is a fact because it can be measured and reproduced under controlled conditions. Anyone with the appropriate equipment can conduct an experiment and confirm that water reaches its boiling point at 100°C when the atmospheric pressure is at sea level. The statement is not influenced by a person’s beliefs or experiences it is verified by scientific testing and evidence. Additional Examples of Facts can be seen as follow.

Table 3. 1. Examples of Facts and Opinion

Statement	Why It Is a Fact
“The capital city of Japan is Tokyo.”	Supported by geographical records and official government information.
“The human heart has four chambers.”	Anatomically verified by medical science.
“The COVID-19 pandemic was declared a global pandemic by WHO on 11	Recorded in official World Health Organization documentation.

Statement	Why It Is a Fact
March 2020.”	

3.2.2 What Is an Opinion?

An opinion is a statement that expresses a person’s own belief, judgment, or evaluation about a topic or situation. Unlike facts, opinions are subjective, meaning they are shaped by an individual’s values, background, preferences, and emotional responses. Because opinions are based on personal interpretation rather than objective evidence, they cannot be universally verified as true or false. What one person considers “good,” “useful,” or “beautiful” might be viewed very differently by someone else.

Opinions are common in everyday communication, and they play an important role in argumentation and persuasive writing. In academic contexts, however, opinions should be clearly distinguished from factual claims, and they usually need to be supported with relevant evidence, logical reasoning, or references to credible sources.

Example:

“Water tastes better when chilled.”

This is an opinion because it reflects a personal preference. Some people may prefer room-temperature water, while others find chilled water more refreshing. There is no objective or scientific test that can determine which view is universally correct. Additional Examples of Opinions are explained in the following table.

Table 3. 2. Additional Examples of Opinion

Statement	Why It Is an Opinion
“Online classes are more effective than face-to-face instruction.”	Depends on personal experience and perspective.
“The novel by X is the best piece of literature written in the last decade.”	Reflects individual taste and literary preference.
“Students should not be allowed to use mobile phones in school.”	Represents a judgment that can differ between individuals and communities.

3.2.3 Why Distinguish Between the Two?

Being able to distinguish between fact and opinion is a fundamental skill for critical reading and effective writing. When readers fail to recognize the difference, they may accept subjective viewpoints as objective truths, which can lead to misinterpretation, bias, or misinformation. In contrast, informed readers evaluate whether a statement is supported by evidence or simply reflects the author’s personal judgment.

For writers, the distinction is equally important. When authors present opinions without clearly differentiating them from factual information, the credibility of their arguments is weakened. Academic and professional readers expect writers to support their opinions with relevant facts, appropriately referenced and logically explained. As Tarnopolsky (2023) notes, clearly signalling whether a statement is factual or

evaluative is a key aspect of academic literacy and persuasive communication.

In summary, recognizing the difference between fact and opinion:

- helps readers assess the reliability and objectivity of information;
- allows writers to build strong, evidence-based arguments;
- promotes critical literacy by encouraging learners to evaluate and question what they read.

3.2.4 Importance in Academic Reading and Writing

A clear awareness of the difference between factual and evaluative is a key aspect of academic literacy and persuasive communication. In academic contexts, the reliability and credibility of a written work are highly dependent on the author's ability to distinguish between what is objectively verifiable and what constitutes a personal interpretation or evaluative comment. Academic writing therefore prioritizes the presentation of facts and data that are supported by research evidence. Opinions are not excluded, but they must be framed as informed interpretations that are grounded in, and justified by, reliable sources.

From the learner's point of view, mastering this distinction yields several important benefits:

Table 3.3. Importance of Academic Reading and Writing

Skill	Outcome
Identify facts	Enables students to analyze texts more critically and evaluate the credibility and trustworthiness of different information sources
State facts	Allows students to convey accurate information and support their arguments with verifiable evidence
Express opinions	Helps students develop critical thinking by evaluating data, drawing their own conclusions, and presenting informed arguments

3.3. Classroom Strategies

Effective instruction in distinguishing facts and opinions requires the use of carefully planned classroom strategies that combine explicit teaching, practice, reflection, and application. The following four strategies are among the most widely used and pedagogically effective approaches.

3.3.1 Explicit Instruction

In this initial stage, the teacher clearly explains the theoretical distinction between fact and opinion. This includes defining both terms, showing examples, and contrasting correct and incorrect usage. Authentic materials such as online news reports, short academic articles, and textbook excerpts can be used to illustrate the difference. Teachers may pause after individual sentences and ask students:

“Is this a fact or an opinion? How do you know?”

Through teacher modeling and questioning, learners develop an awareness of linguistic clues (e.g., “according to...”, “research shows...”, “I believe...”, “in my view...”) that help identify factual and opinion statements in real communicative contexts.

3.3.2 Guided Practice

Once students are familiar with the distinction, they engage in controlled tasks that allow them to *apply* the concepts with teacher support. One effective technique involves using highlighting or color-coding activities. For example, students receive a short paragraph and are asked to highlight all factual statements in blue and opinion statements in yellow. The teacher then leads a discussion to confirm the correct answers and explain why each statement falls into a particular category. These tasks help learners notice patterns and develop analytic reading skills in a structured environment before moving to more independent tasks.

3.3.3 Argumentative Writing Tasks

At this stage, the focus shifts from reading to writing. Students are given a simple argumentative prompt (e.g., *“Should school uniforms be mandatory?”*). They are asked to produce short paragraphs that contain both facts and opinions. The objective is not simply to express a personal view, but to support it with factual information. After drafting, peers exchange their writing and use a checklist to identify (a) where facts are used, (b) where opinions are stated, and (c) whether the facts appropriately support the opinions. This peer

review activity encourages students to critically evaluate their own writing and that of others, reinforcing the importance of evidence-based argumentation.

3.3.4 Digital Literacy Tasks

In modern classrooms, it is also essential to incorporate digital literacy. Students are asked to search for information online and compare sources such as Wikipedia, blogs, online newspapers, and peer-reviewed journal articles. They evaluate whether statements from these sources are factual, opinion-based, or biased. For example, students may read two articles on the same topic (e.g. climate change) one from a scientific journal and one from a personal blog and identify differences in tone, evidence, and credibility. These activities help students develop critical reading strategies suitable for digital environments where fact and opinion are often blended or presented without clear boundaries.

3.4 Challenges for Learners

While the distinction between fact and opinion may appear straightforward in theory, many learners encounter difficulties when applying this skill in real-world reading and writing contexts. These challenges arise from a combination of linguistic, cultural, and informational factors.

3.4.1 Linguistic Difficulty

Learners particularly those at lower proficiency levels often struggle to identify the subtle language devices that signal opinion, such as hedging (e.g., “might,” “could,” “seems”) and evaluative adjectives (e.g.,

“important,” “effective,” “beneficial”). These expressions do not directly state that something is an opinion, but they indicate a degree of subjectivity or uncertainty. As a result, students may mistakenly interpret these statements as factual simply because they sound formal or academic. Without explicit instruction in recognizing these linguistic markers, learners can easily overlook the author’s stance or intention.

3.4.2 Cultural Variation

In some cultures, indirectness and collective viewpoints are valued in communication, and opinions are often expressed implicitly rather than explicitly. This can blur the boundary between fact and opinion in both production and interpretation. For example, learners from high-context cultures may interpret general statements such as *“It is well known that...”* as factual even when no specific evidence is provided, because in their cultural context such phrasing is used to signal agreement or shared understanding. These cultural differences may affect how learners perceive the purpose and validity of different types of statements.

3.4.3 Bias in Information Sources

In the digital age, online information frequently blends factual reporting with editorial commentary. News websites, blogs, and social media posts often present opinions in ways that appear factual, using persuasive language and selective evidence. This can make it difficult for learners to determine whether a statement is an objective report or a subjective interpretation. Milton and Cheng (2024) emphasize that

even experienced language users can be misled by biased sources when factual and opinion statements are not clearly differentiated. Without training in critical digital literacy, learners may accept opinions as facts or fail to notice underlying bias.

3.5 Practical Examples

Example Text 1

Many experts believe that regular physical exercise is essential for maintaining mental health. Regular exercise reduces stress and improves overall well-being, according to a 2022 World Health Organization report.

Analysis:

“Regular physical exercise is essential...” → Opinion (belief)

“Reduces stress...” → Fact (supported by WHO report)

Example Text 2

It is obvious that electric cars are much better than gasoline cars because they are cheaper and more efficient for all users.

Analysis:

“Obvious” → stance marker (opinion)

“Cheaper and more efficient” potentially factual, but needs supporting evidence. Without citation, it remains an opinion.

Practical Examples

The following examples illustrate how fact and opinion can co-occur in academic or informational texts. The analysis shows how to identify key language cues and evaluate whether statements are based on objective evidence or personal judgement.

Example Text 1

“Many experts believe that regular physical exercise is essential for maintaining mental health. Regular exercise reduces stress and improves overall well-being, according to a 2022 World Health Organization report.”

Analysis:

- “Many experts believe that regular physical exercise is essential for maintaining mental health.”
→ This is an opinion (or evaluative judgement). Although it refers to what “experts believe,” the adjective *essential* signals a value judgment and reflects an interpretation. The word “believe” also indicates that the statement expresses a professional opinion, not a universally verified fact.
- “Regular exercise reduces stress and improves overall well-being, according to a 2022 World Health Organization report.”
→ This is a fact-based statement, because it explicitly refers to a specific source (a WHO report). The verbs *reduces* and *improves* describe measurable effects that have been supported by research and documented in an official publication. The reader can verify this information by accessing the WHO report.

This example illustrates a common pattern in academic texts: authors often introduce an opinion or general belief and then follow it with factual evidence from reliable sources to support and validate the claim.

Example Text 2

"It is obvious that electric cars are much better than gasoline cars because they are cheaper and more efficient for all users."

Analysis:

- "It is obvious..."
→ The expression *it is obvious* is a stance marker that signals the writer's opinion or belief. It expresses certainty, but that certainty is subjective, as it is not backed by referenced evidence.
- "...electric cars are much better than gasoline cars because they are cheaper and more efficient for all users."
→ Phrases like *much better*, *cheaper*, and *more efficient* are comparative judgments. These may appear factual, but without any supporting data, statistics, or references, they remain opinions. The statement could become a fact if it were supported with specific evidence (e.g., "According to the International Energy Agency (2023), electric cars have 40% lower operational costs compared to gasoline cars..."). In its current form, the claim reflects the writer's personal evaluation.

This second example highlights the importance of evidence in transforming an opinion into an acceptable academic claim. Even if a statement might be true in a general sense, the absence of supporting data means it cannot be accepted as a fact in an academic context.

3.6 Tips for Writers

Successfully distinguishing and appropriately presenting facts and opinions in academic writing requires purposeful choices about language and evidence. The following strategies can help writers maintain clarity, accuracy, and credibility.

1. Distinguish Source vs. Interpretation

Writers should make a clear separation between what the source says and how they interpret that information.

- Source-based statements introduce factual information that originates from a published report, study, or dataset. These statements are often marked by phrases such as *“According to...,” “Data from... show that...,”* or *“A report by...”*
- Interpretative statements reflect the writer’s evaluation of the information and typically appear with phrases such as *“This suggests that...,” “These findings imply...,”* or *“It can be argued that...”*

Example:

- *Source:* “According to OECD (2023), the student-teacher ratio in primary schools has decreased over the past five years.”
- *Interpretation:* “This suggests that educational authorities are prioritizing smaller class sizes to improve learning outcomes.”

By separating source information from interpretation, writers demonstrate academic transparency and allow

readers to clearly see which part of the statement is a verifiable fact and which part is a reasoned conclusion.

2. Use Evidence for Opinions

In academic writing, opinions are acceptable but only when supported by evidence. Unsupported generalizations such as *“Online learning is always ineffective”* weaken the argument and may be seen as biased or overly simplistic. A more effective approach is to base opinions on empirical findings or published research.

Avoid: *“Online learning is always ineffective.”*
→ This is a broad, unqualified opinion that does not acknowledge contextual factors or empirical evidence.

Better: *“Several studies (e.g., Brown, 2024; Chen & Li, 2023) have indicated that online learning may be less effective for students with limited self-regulation skills.”*
→ Here, the opinion is informed by credible empirical research and clearly specifies the conditions under which the conclusion applies.

By linking opinions to scholarly sources, writers increase the credibility and persuasiveness of their arguments.

3. Use Hedging Language

Academic writing rarely presents claims as absolute. Instead, writers use hedging expressions to indicate degrees of certainty and avoid overgeneralization. This shows intellectual caution and encourages the reader to interpret the claim as an informed evaluation rather than an unquestionable fact.

Common hedging expressions include:

- *"This could indicate..."*
- *"It is possible that..."*
- *"The findings may suggest..."*
- *"To some extent..."*

Example:

"It is possible that increased exposure to digital media has influenced students' preference for multimodal learning materials."

Using hedging language not only softens the claim but also signals to the reader that other interpretations are possible and that the writer is aware of the limitations of the evidence.

3.7 Conclusion

The ability to distinguish between fact and opinion represents a fundamental component of critical reading and effective academic communication. In an era where both accurate information and personal viewpoints are widely circulated, learners and writers need the capacity to analyse whether a statement is objectively verifiable or merely reflects a subjective interpretation. As discussed in the earlier sections, a fact is grounded in empirical data, verified knowledge, or formal documentation. It remains true regardless of individual perspectives. An opinion, on the other hand, conveys the author's interpretation, belief, or judgment and may vary depending on values, experiences, and context.

Within academic discourse, opinions are both welcomed and necessary but they must be presented responsibly. This means they should be clearly signaled through appropriate stance or hedging language, and supported by credible evidence. Failure to distinguish clearly between fact and opinion may result in weak or misleading arguments, and can undermine a writer's credibility in scholarly communities.

For this reason, teaching fact–opinion distinction should be viewed as a key element of language and literacy education. Classroom approaches such as explicit instruction, guided practice activities (e.g., colour-coding of texts), argumentative writing tasks, and corpus-informed instruction have been shown to effectively develop students' analytical abilities and promote reflective engagement with texts. By gradually moving from controlled identification exercises to independent production and evaluation, learners develop the confidence to engage critically with complex information.

Looking to the future, the educational landscape is increasingly shaped by digital media and AI-assisted writing tools. These developments offer new opportunities for learning, but also present new challenges, especially as factual information can be easily mixed with persuasive or biased commentary online. As such, future research and instructional practice should continue to focus on helping learners develop: the ability to critically evaluate online information and recognize bias, the skills to express their own evaluations responsibly, using appropriate academic language, and the competence to integrate multiple perspectives when constructing arguments. Ultimately, fostering these skills will contribute to the development of

more critical, autonomous, and ethically responsible readers and writers.

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CHAPTER 4

ARGUING AND PERSUADING

4.1 Introduction

People communicate to convey message they want to deliver to the person they talk to. A purposeful communication in English needs several powerful strategies. Communication is a purposeful process that goes beyond simply exchanging words; it is the means by which individuals express ideas, influence others, and achieve mutual understanding. Among the strategies used in communication, arguing and persuading hold significant importance because they allow speakers to defend viewpoints and guide others toward agreement or action. According to O’Keefe (2006), arguing is not merely conflict but a reasoned exchange of ideas supported by evidence and logic. (O’Keefe, 2006). In contrast, persuading is often linked to appealing to values, emotions, and beliefs in order to influence attitudes or behaviors (Perloff, 2020). Both skills are vital in academic, professional, and social contexts, where clear and impactful communication is essential.

At the same time, arguing and persuading are not only about proving one’s correctness or gaining compliance. Instead, they serve a broader purpose of fostering understanding, cooperation, and respectful dialogue. Effective communicators know how to balance logic with

empathy, facts with emotions, and assertiveness with respect for opposing views. As Fisher (1987) emphasizes in the narrative paradigm, persuasion becomes stronger when combined with stories and human values, while argumentation gains credibility through evidence and reasoning. This chapter, therefore, explores the concepts, strategies, and roles of arguing and persuading in purposeful communication, highlighting their contribution to constructive interaction and meaningful outcomes. (Fisher, 1987).

4.2 Arguing

Arguing in English generally refers to a kind of verbal disagreement or dispute occur between speakers, often raised by the speaker with raised voices or strong opinions and sometimes followed by factual data provided by the speakers. Arguing between speakers can involve expressing opposing viewpoints, giving reasons why speakers for or against on something, or even heatedly disagreeing with someone.

In the context of communication, arguing generally refers to the process of exchanging opposing views with the intention of persuading, clarifying differences, or reaching a resolution. Unlike casual conversation, arguing typically involves structured reasoning, evidence-based claims, and often heightened emotional involvement. According to communication scholar Daniel J. O'Keefe, argumentation is “a communicative activity in which two or more people present and defend positions on controversial issues with the goal of persuading one another or an audience” (O'Keefe, 2006). This definition therefore emphasizes that arguing, when done constructively, is not inherently negative but rather a

vital part of critical thinking and decision-making in a community or group of people.

Furthermore, Dr. Deborah Tannen, a linguist and professor at Georgetown University, highlights the cultural perception of argument in her book *The Argument Culture* (1998), noting that “we have come to expect that the best way to explore ideas is to set them in opposition.” Tannen critiques the tendency in public and private discourse to frame communication as a battle, arguing that this can lead to unnecessary conflict and hinder mutual understanding. Instead, she advocates for dialogue that focuses more on exploration than confrontation. (Tannen, 1998).

When framed positively and approached with respect, arguing can promote deeper understanding, reveal assumptions, and refine beliefs. It becomes problematic only when it devolves into personal attacks, rigid defensiveness, or an unwillingness to listen. As such, effective argumentation is not just about proving a point but about engaging in meaningful exchange that values both logic and empathy.

The followings are some aspects of arguing:

1. Verbal disagreement or dispute, refers to a situation where people express their disagreement with other which is often in a heated or forceful manner.

The followings are example of expressions commonly used in disputing or disagreeing:

"I understand where you're coming from, but..."

"That really bothers me because..."

"I see your point, however..."

"Can we agree to disagree on this?"

"What do you think about...?"

"I didn't mean to upset you."

Here is the example of dialogue two person are arguing about a topic

A : I think that the company retreat should be in the mountains this year.

B : What a great idea!

A : January would be a good month for a mountain retreat.

B : I like the mountain idea, but I am not so sure about the month of January.

A : You know, now that I think about it, you might be right.

B : April might be nice. It is far enough away to make the necessary arrangements.

2. Giving reasons for or against something, involves presenting arguments, evidence, or logic to support or oppose a particular idea or position. In order to make the communication more purposeful, the speakers must present reasons and evidence to support a point of view or position which is for or against the person they speak to. This is the most important part in arguing since the objective is to convince others to be in the same side by using facts, logic and critical thinking.

Here are some examples of expressions of giving reasons for something :

"I believe this is a good idea because..."

"The main reason is that..."

"This would benefit us since..."

“One strong argument in favour is that...”

Here are some examples of expressions of giving reasons against something :

“I don’t think this is a good idea because...”

“One strong argument against this is that...”

“The main disadvantage is that...”

“This could be harmful since...”

The following is a dialogue between two persons giving reasons for or against on something:

Maya: I think giving homework is useful because it helps students practice what they learned in class.

Rafi: I don’t agree, because too much homework can make students stressed.

Maya: But one reason in favour is that homework teaches responsibility and time management.

Rafi: That may be true, but sometimes students need more free time to rest and spend with their families.

3. Persuasion and debate, might also involve an attempting to convince someone to agree with a particular point of view or ideas to participate in a discussion or in a debate.

The following expressions are an attempt to persuade people we talk to:

“I think you should...”

“Why don’t you consider...?”

“This is the best choice because...”

“One strong reason is that...”

“Don’t you agree that...?”

The following dialogue shows how a person persuade someone she is talking to

Rina: Hey, you should join the basketball team. It's a great chance to stay healthy and make new friends.

Dika: I don't know... I'm not really good at sports.

Rina: I understand your point, but remember, practice will make you better. Don't you agree it's worth trying?

Dika: Hmm, maybe, but I'm worried it will take too much time.

Rina: That may be true, however, it will also help you manage your time and balance school with activities. Wouldn't it be better to give it a try?

Dika: You're right. I'll think about joining.

4.2.1 How to Hold an Effective and Successful Argument in Communication

Holding a successful argument in communication generally is not about "winning" or overpowering the other person; even though for some people it does mean that way, rather, it is about reaching mutual understanding, resolving differences, and sometimes persuading others through respectful, logical reasoning. This is a highly challenging thing to do. A key to effective argumentation is staying focused on the issue rather than attacking the individual. Communication expert Dr. Deborah Tannen (1998) stresses that productive arguments are rooted in dialogue, not debate. She writes, "You can't have a real conversation if each person's goal is to come out the winner." (Tannen, 1998). This implies that participants must prioritize cooperation and understanding over domination.

Another essential strategy a speaker must employ is to use evidence and logic rather than emotion alone. Arguments become more persuasive and credible when supported by facts, examples, or relevant experiences.

Active listening and respectful language also play a critical role in maintaining a constructive tone. Dr. Daniel Goleman (1995), a pioneer in emotional intelligence, explains that managing one's emotions and recognizing the feelings of others are central to effective communication, especially during conflict. Phrases like "I understand your point, but I see it differently because..." or "Can you clarify what you mean by that?" keep the conversation open and respectful. This reduces defensiveness and keeps both parties engaged. (Goleman, 1995).

Additionally, successful arguments should allow space for mutual compromise or synthesis, rather than rigid "right or wrong" outcomes. For example, in a classroom setting, if two students disagree on whether homework should be graded, they might arrive at a compromise: "Let's propose optional practice assignments that count for extra credit instead of mandatory homework." This outcome respects both perspectives and promotes collaborative problem-solving. Teacher must be a role model for the students in doing compromising in some ways.

Lastly, body language and tone should align with the intent to understand, don't always confront. Non-verbal cues like eye contact, nodding, and an even tone of voice show attentiveness and reduce the perception of hostility. Miscommunication often occurs when body language contradicts verbal intent such as saying "I'm listening" while crossing arms or avoiding eye contact.

In order to be able to argue effectively and purposefully in a debate in English, the speaker must focus on clarity, organization and respectful communication. The argument somehow can be initiated by stating your main point of view clearly, then it must be supported by evidence and reasoning. The speaker must acknowledge opposing views, address counterarguments and then draw a conclusion by restating the main point. The speaker must employ polite language and maintain a respectful tone of speaking during the argument.

4.3 Persuading

4.3.1 Definition

Persuading is defined as the act of convincing someone to believe or do something by appealing to their emotions, values, or desires. It is usually more personal and emotionally driven. Persuading needs trust between the speakers. The intention of persuading is to influence attitudes, beliefs or action.

Example:

“Imagine a future where your children breathe clean air and play under clear blue skies. Switching to renewable energy helps make that dream a reality.”

Furthermore, persuading in communication refers to the deliberate effort conducted by a person to influence another person's beliefs, attitudes, intentions, or behaviours through logical reasoning, emotional appeal, or credibility. Unlike manipulation, which often involves deception, persuasion relies on ethical and transparent methods of influence. According to communication scholar Daniel J. O'Keefe, persuasion is

defined as “a successful intentional effort at influencing another’s mental state through communication in a circumstance in which the persuadee has some measure of freedom” (O’Keefe, 2006). This emphasizes that persuasion is not coercive; it respects the listener’s autonomy and ability to choose. Nobody can force other persons to believe in everything they put as right thing.

Expert opinions in the field of communication reinforce the idea that persuasion is both regarded as an art and a science. Especially art and science in communication. Aristotle, one of the earliest theorists of persuasion, outlined three key appeals: *ethos* (credibility), *pathos* (emotional appeal), and *logos* (logical argument). These principles are still globally and widely applied today in every aspects of life. From advertising to political speeches and personal interactions. Dr. Robert Cialdini, a modern expert on influence, adds that principles like reciprocity, social proof, and authority are central to persuasive communication (Cialdini, 2006). For example, a person trying to convince a colleague to support a new project might reference past successful collaborations (*ethos*), present data on expected benefits (*logos*), and express genuine enthusiasm and confidence (*pathos*).

4.3.2 How to Hold an Effective and Successful Persuasion in Communication

Persuading effectively in communication involves more than just making a convincing argument it requires understanding your audience, using credible evidence, appealing to emotions, and establishing trust. Successful persuasion blends logical reasoning with emotional awareness, creating a message that resonates both intellectually and personally. Persuasion is most successful when it is adaptive, empathetic, and

grounded in mutual respect, enabling both the speaker and the listener to engage meaningfully and potentially reach consensus or action.

Understanding the audience is also central to effective persuasion. Dr. Robert Cialdini, a leading expert on the psychology of influence, emphasizes that persuasion is most effective when the message is tailored to the values and motivations of the listener. For instance, a marketer promoting a product might use social proof by saying, “Over 10,000 customers trust our brand,” or scarcity by noting, “Limited-time offer only a few items left.” These tactics play on natural human tendencies and can make persuasion more impactful. (Cialdini, 2006).

Another key to successful persuasion is building credibility and trust over time. Communication scholar Daniel J. O’Keefe (2006) notes that persuaders who are perceived as trustworthy and knowledgeable are far more effective. (O’Keefe, 2006). For example, a manager persuading their team to adopt a new workflow can strengthen persuasion by demonstrating previous successful leadership decisions and by showing that they have considered the team’s needs and concerns. Listening carefully and responding respectfully to objections also strengthens trust and opens the door for influence.

Consistency and clarity in messaging are equally important. Mixed signals or overly complex messages dilute persuasive power. A clear, concise message helps the audience understand the issue and the desired outcome. For example, an environmental campaign that says “Reduce plastic use to save marine life” delivers a focused and emotionally compelling call to action. Combining this with strong evidence and credible

sources enhances its effectiveness. Ultimately, effective persuasion involves respecting the autonomy of the listener, focusing on mutual benefit, and engaging in a dialogue rather than a monologue. It is most successful when the communicator is adaptable, empathetic, and informed.

Here are some examples of expressions commonly used in persuading people:

“I’m convinced that this is the best option because...”

“Have you considered...?”

“It would be a good idea to...”

“You’ll find it much easier if you...”

“Think about how much better it would be if...”

Persuading the people you are talking to generally conducted in several types, stating opinion plus reasons, suggesting or encouraging, appealing to benefit, softening persuasion and giving strong persuasion.

Example:

“I really think you should join the English club, because it will help you practice speaking every week.”

“Why don’t we start earlier tomorrow? That way, we’ll have more time to finish the project.”

Below is a short dialogue how someone persuades the person she is talking to by applying the techniques stating opinions and provide reasons, giving strong persuasion to make him trust in her words.

Alya: Why don’t you join the school debate club?

Bima: Hmm, I’m not sure. I don’t think I’m good at debating.

Alya: Trust me, this is the best choice! You'll improve your confidence and speaking skills.

Bima: Really?

Alya: Yes! Think about how much better your English will be if you practice every week.

Bima: Well, maybe you're right. I'll give it a try.

In purposeful communication, both arguing and persuading serve as essential tools to convey ideas and influence others effectively. Arguing allows individuals to present logical reasoning, evidence, and counterpoints to defend their standpoint, while persuading emphasizes appealing to emotions, values, and benefits to encourage acceptance or action. When used appropriately and ethically, these two strategies complement each other, fostering clearer understanding, constructive dialogue, and mutual decision-making. Therefore, mastering the skills of arguing and persuading is crucial for achieving meaningful, respectful, and goal-oriented communication.

Moreover, the effectiveness of arguing and persuading depends on the communicator's ability to balance logic, clarity, and empathy. A strong argument backed by evidence becomes more convincing when delivered with persuasive language that considers the audience's perspective. In this way, purposeful communication is not only about winning a point but also about building understanding, respect, and cooperation between speakers and listeners.

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CHAPTER 5

HEDGING

5.1 Introduction

In academic and professional communication, writers are often required to present claims, report findings, and evaluate other scholars' work in a manner that is accurate, respectful, and rhetorically appropriate. One of the most important linguistic devices used to achieve this balance is hedging. Broadly defined, hedging refers to the use of linguistic strategies that soften the force of a statement or express a degree of uncertainty, probability, or caution. Rather than presenting information as indisputable, hedges allow writers to signal that a claim is *tentative*, *context-bound*, or *open to interpretation*. For example, expressions such as *might suggest*, *it is possible that*, and *to a certain extent* are frequently used to convey a more cautious or nuanced stance.

Hedging plays a critical role in scholarly discourse, where overstating a claim can undermine the credibility of the writer and conflict with the norm of academic modesty. By moderating the strength of a statement, hedges function as important politeness devices, especially when challenging previous research or presenting new interpretations. In addition, hedging serves an epistemic function: it reflects the idea that knowledge is provisional and subject to revision, rather than absolute or final. Researchers therefore employ

hedges to position themselves as careful and self-aware participants in the academic community.

This chapter is structured as follows. The opening sections discuss the conceptual foundations of hedging and outline its principal communicative functions. The chapter then presents a detailed description of the linguistic forms and strategies used to realise hedging in academic discourse, drawing on corpus-based evidence from applied linguistics. This is followed by a discussion of pedagogical implications, with a focus on how hedging can be taught explicitly in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) classrooms. Finally, the chapter reviews recent research trends (2020–2025) and offers suggestions for future directions in the study and teaching of hedging.

5.2 Theoretical Foundations of Hedging

The notion of *hedging* first entered linguistic discussion through Lakoff's (1972) seminal paper, in which he described hedges as expressions used to “make things fuzzier” or more approximate. Lakoff was mainly concerned with the semantics of fuzzy concepts, and he pointed out that certain words such as *sort of*, *kind of*, or *roughly* allow speakers to express imprecision or partial commitment. This foundational insight was later expanded in applied linguistics and discourse studies, particularly in the work of Hyland (1996, 1998, 2005). Hyland shifted the focus from semantic fuzziness to the rhetorical and interpersonal functions of hedging in academic discourse. He argued that hedges are essential for balancing two competing demands in scholarly writing: the need to present knowledge claims and the need to remain open to critique or alternative interpretations. From this perspective, hedges are not signs of weak authorial voice but strategic tools for positioning oneself in a disciplinary community.

Another important development came from Varttala (2001), who explored audience awareness and argued that hedging enables writers to anticipate possible disagreement or alternative viewpoints. In this sense, hedging is closely linked to reader engagement and the creation of a dialogic space in which the reader is invited to evaluate the writer's claims.

The theoretical foundations of hedging are also strongly linked to pragmatics and epistemic modality. In pragmatic terms, hedges function as markers of illocutionary force, modulating the speaker's commitment to the truth of a proposition. They signal that the speaker does not claim absolute authority over the statement being made. From the perspective of epistemic modality, hedging reflects the degree of certainty, probability, or evidential support behind a claim. Modal verbs such as *may*, *might*, or *could* express lower degrees of certainty, while phrases like *it is certain that* or *undoubtedly* signal stronger epistemic commitment. In academic discourse, epistemic hedging is preferred over categorical assertions because it aligns with the principle that scientific knowledge is provisional and subject to revision.

In addition to epistemic considerations, hedging also serves important discourse functions. One such function is mitigation, which refers to the softening of potentially face-threatening acts such as criticism or disagreement. When writers evaluate or critique previous studies, they often use hedging to maintain politeness and avoid sounding overly confrontational. For example, the phrase "*The findings of X (2020) may not fully account for...*" mitigates the force of the critique and leaves room for alternative interpretations. This mirrors Brown and Levinson's (1987) notion of *negative politeness*, whereby the writer respects the reader's autonomy by refraining from imposing categorical judgments.

Another important discourse function is careful claim-making. Academic norms generally discourage absolute or sweeping claims, particularly in the early stages of empirical research. Hedging therefore allows authors to construct arguments in a cautious and credible manner. Expressions such as *“the data seem to indicate”* or *“these results may suggest”* reduce the risk of overgeneralization and signal that the writer is aware of the limitations of their study. Hyland (2005) notes that such cautious formulations enhance the writer’s authorial credibility, as they show alignment with disciplinary expectations for careful and ethical reporting.

Taken together, these theoretical perspectives suggest that hedging is not simply a grammatical or lexical phenomenon, but a deeply context-dependent discourse strategy. It is rooted in pragmatic considerations (how to manage social interaction), epistemic modality (how to express degrees of knowledge or belief), and disciplinary discourse conventions (how to participate appropriately in academic communities). Understanding hedging therefore requires an integrated view of language as a social, cognitive, and rhetorical activity a view that forms the basis for contemporary pedagogical approaches to teaching hedging in applied linguistics and ELT contexts.

5.3 Linguistic Forms and Strategies of Hedging

Lexical hedges: modal verbs (may, might), modal adverbs (possibly, likely), epistemic lexical verbs (suggest, indicate), evaluative adjectives (probable, potential). Syntactic hedges: conditionals, passives, nominalizations. Pragmatic hedges: attention to audience, attribution, self-reference taken together, lexical, syntactic, and pragmatic strategies constitute a flexible repertoire of hedging devices that writers can draw upon to negotiate meaning effectively in academic contexts. Importantly, these strategies are not

mutually exclusive. Skilled writers often combine two or more hedging devices in a single sentence, depending on the rhetorical purpose and disciplinary expectations. For example, “*It **may be argued** that X **appears to** have a **limited effect** under certain conditions*” simultaneously uses a modal verb, an epistemic verb, and a restricting adjective. Mastery of such combinations reflects a high degree of communicative competence and is therefore a key learning objective in applied linguistics and EAP instruction.

5.4 Hedging in Academic Writing

Hedging is a pervasive feature of academic discourse, but its use is not uniform across all disciplines and genres. Research has shown that both disciplinary conventions and genre-specific communicative purposes strongly influence how and how often writers deploy hedging devices. Understanding these patterns is essential for language educators in applied linguistics and ELT, as learners often need to adapt their hedging strategies depending on the type of text they are producing and the discourse community they are addressing.

Genre and Hedging

Not only disciplines, but also **genres**, influence the density and types of hedges used. In research articles, hedging frequency typically varies across different rhetorical sections:

Table 5. 1. Genres and Hedging

Section	Typical Function of Hedging	Example
Abstracts	Presenting cautious summary claims	<i>The results suggest that...</i>
Introductions	Positioning argument; acknowledging gaps	<i>It appears that previous studies have not addressed...</i>
Methods	Less hedging (objective description)	Fewer hedges
Results/Discussion	Interpreting data; expressing claims	<i>This finding may indicate that...</i>

Table 5. 2. Common Hedging Devices for Academic Book Chapters

Function	Examples of Hedging Expressions
Tentative verbs	<i>seem, appear, tend to, may, might, could, suggest, indicate</i>
Adverbs of uncertainty	<i>possibly, probably, likely, generally, largely, approximately</i>
Introductory phrases	<i>It is possible that..., There is some evidence to suggest that..., It could be argued that..., To a certain extent...</i>
Limiting expressions	<i>in many cases, in most contexts, in the majority of studies, to some degree, in general terms</i>

Function	Examples of Hedging Expressions
Indirect attribution	<i>According to X (2024)..., Previous research seems to indicate..., Several authors have noted that...</i>
Moderating adjectives	<i>relative, partial, potential, limited, some, minor, considerable</i>

The implementation of Hedging in academic writing can be explained in the following part on the example – Before and After Hedging.

Example – Before and After Hedging

Before:

Collocations play a key role in the development of fluency.

After (with hedging):

*Collocations **appear to play** a key role in the development of fluency.*

Before:

Multimodal input leads to better retention of collocations.

After (with hedging): *Multimodal input **is likely to lead** to better retention of collocations.*

The followings are some Tips for Using Hedging Effectively; (a). Using hedging especially when generalizing from research findings or making claims about effectiveness; (b). Combining tentative verbs with attribution to signal that the claim is based on previous findings (e.g., *Recent studies suggest that...*); and (c). Avoiding over-hedging (using too many cautious expressions in one sentence), as this can make your writing vague.

5.5 Pedagogical Implications: Teaching Hedging

Given the importance of hedging in academic discourse, it is essential that English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses include explicit instruction on hedging. Research has shown that learners rarely acquire hedging strategies implicitly; rather, they need guided exposure, opportunities for practice, and metalinguistic awareness of why hedging matters in scholarly communication (Hyland, 2022). Several teaching techniques have proven particularly effective.

Techniques for Teaching Hedging

Hedging is a crucial rhetorical strategy in academic writing that allows writers to express claims cautiously, reflect uncertainty, and engage readers appropriately. Effective instruction in hedging combines awareness-raising, guided practice, and contextual application. Several instructional techniques are particularly effective:

1. Noticing Hedging in Authentic Texts

The noticing approach encourages learners to identify hedging devices in real academic texts. Teachers can present excerpts from published research articles, highlighting or underlining hedged expressions such as *“may suggest,” “appears to,”* or *“likely indicates.”* Students then reflect on why the author chose these expressions rather than absolute statements.

- **Rationale:** This technique helps students recognize that hedging is a deliberate rhetorical choice rather than arbitrary language.

- Pedagogical Benefit: Noticing fosters metacognitive awareness of how authors manage claims, uncertainty, and reader engagement.
- Practical Implementation:
 - Assign students to work in pairs to underline hedging phrases in a journal article.
 - Ask them to discuss the potential effects of removing or strengthening these statements.
 - Encourage reflection questions: “How does this hedging affect the writer’s credibility?” or “What might happen if the author made this claim absolute?”

2. Comparing Model Texts

Contrastive analysis of texts is another powerful method. Students are presented with two versions of a short passage: one containing appropriate hedging and another with unqualified, absolute claims. They discuss which version communicates the intended meaning more effectively.

- Rationale: Seeing the contrast between hedged and non-hedged claims highlights the pragmatic and interpersonal functions of hedging.
- Pedagogical Benefit: Students develop an understanding of how hedging moderates claims, balances assertiveness with caution, and signals engagement with the scholarly community.
- Practical Implementation:
 - Provide students with short research summaries or discussion paragraphs.

- Ask them to identify which sentences are hedged and evaluate their appropriateness.
- Facilitate small-group discussions where students justify their judgments and suggest alternative hedging expressions.

3. Controlled Practice

After raising awareness, learners benefit from structured exercises that consolidate hedging forms and functions. Controlled practice includes gap-fills, sentence transformation, and rewriting tasks.

- Rationale: Frequent exposure to and manipulation of hedging forms reinforces linguistic competence.
- Pedagogical Benefit: Students internalize typical hedging patterns, improving their accuracy in academic writing.
- Practical Implementation:
 - Gap-fill tasks: Provide sentences with missing hedging expressions for students to complete.
 - Rewriting exercises: Ask learners to rewrite strong claims with appropriate hedges.
 - Peer feedback: Encourage students to review each other's rewrites, focusing on appropriateness of hedging.

4. Genre-Based Analysis

Hedging is not uniform across disciplines or sections of a research article. Genre-based analysis helps learners understand how hedging varies in function and frequency across contexts.

- **Rationale:** Different sections of academic writing have distinct rhetorical purposes. For example, the Introduction often uses hedging to situate claims cautiously within existing literature, while the Discussion may hedge interpretations of findings.
- **Pedagogical Benefit:** Students develop the ability to adapt hedging strategies according to discipline-specific norms and communicative purpose.
- **Practical Implementation:**
 - Compare hedging patterns in Introductions vs. Discussions across multiple disciplines.
 - Assign students to identify hedges in a Methods or Results section and discuss their rhetorical function.
 - Have learners draft short passages for different sections of a paper using appropriate hedges.

5. Integrating Technology and Corpora

Recent instructional research highlights the use of corpus tools and digital platforms to enhance hedging instruction. Students can explore large databases of academic texts to identify hedging patterns and collocations.

- **Rationale:** Corpus-informed approaches expose learners to authentic usage frequencies and disciplinary variations.
- **Pedagogical Benefit:** Enhances evidence-based understanding and builds data-driven writing skills.
- **Practical Implementation:**

- Use tools like COCA, BNC, or discipline-specific corpora to search for hedging expressions.
- Ask students to generate lists of hedging phrases and evaluate their frequency and context.
- Encourage students to integrate corpus findings into their own writing.

Teaching hedging effectively combines awareness-raising, contrastive comparison, controlled practice, genre-based analysis, and corpus-informed exploration. These strategies not only help learners recognize hedging as a deliberate rhetorical device but also equip them to apply it appropriately in academic writing. By incorporating reflection, analysis, and practice, instructors foster learners' critical thinking, genre awareness, and linguistic precision key competencies for successful scholarly communication.

One useful instructional approach is **noticing**, whereby learners are encouraged to identify hedging devices in authentic texts. Teachers can highlight or underline hedged expressions in published articles and ask learners to reflect on why the author has chosen a cautious formulation. This raises students' awareness of the rhetorical function of hedging and helps them recognize these features as deliberate rhetorical choices rather than arbitrary language.

Another strategy involves **comparing models**. Students are given two versions of a short text one with appropriate hedging and one with overly strong, unqualified claims. They then discuss which version is more appropriate and why. This contrastive approach

enables learners to see how hedging modifies the relationship between writer, claim, and audience.

Once learners become more familiar with hedging forms and functions, they benefit from **controlled practice**. Activities such as rewriting direct claims so that they are properly hedged, or filling in appropriate hedging expressions in gap-fill tasks, help consolidate linguistic forms. **Genre analysis** is also a powerful technique: students examine how hedging is used in different sections of a research article (e.g., in Introduction vs. Discussion) and in different disciplines. These tasks develop genre awareness and teach students how to adapt hedging strategies according to context and communicative purpose.

6. Use of Corpora and AI Tools

Recent studies have illustrated the potential of **corpus tools** for developing hedge awareness. For instance, students can use collocate analysis functions in COCA or BAWE to explore how particular verbs (e.g., *suggest*, *indicate*, *appear*) co-occur with particular subjects or objects in authentic academic writing. Such data-driven learning (DDL) encourages learners to discover hedging patterns themselves and develop a more nuanced sense of phraseological appropriateness.

Similarly, **AI writing tools** (e.g., Grammarly, ChatGPT, Write & Improve) can be used to draw learners' attention to insufficient or inappropriate hedging in their own writing. When a student writes "*This proves that...*", Grammarly may suggest a revision such as "*This suggests that...*", thereby providing real-time feedback on the level of epistemic commitment

being expressed. However, it is important that these tools are used **critically**: students need to evaluate whether the suggested changes align with the genre and disciplinary expectations, rather than accepting them mechanically.

7. Challenges for L2 Learners

Despite instructional support, L2 writers face several recurring challenges with hedging. One common problem is **over-hedging**, in which learners add multiple hedges within a single sentence or use excessively cautious language. For example, *“It might possibly be suggested that...”* not only sounds awkward but also dilutes the strength of the argument. A second problem is **under-hedging**, where learners present claims too directly, often because they translate literally from their L1 or believe that strong statements show confidence. This is particularly common among learners from cultures where directness is a valued rhetorical strategy.

Another challenge is selecting the **appropriate type of hedge**. Learners sometimes use modal verbs where an epistemic verb or adjective would be more suitable, leading to repetitive use of *may* or *might*. Finally, students often find it difficult to align hedging with **disciplinary and genre-specific expectations**, especially when writing outside of general EAP contexts (for example, when preparing a literature review in applied linguistics versus a methodology section in language testing).

For these reasons, hedging instruction should be integrated across the curriculum and revisited at multiple points, rather than treated as an isolated topic. Ongoing feedback, contextualized examples, and guided use of corpus/AI tools can help learners develop the rhetorical sensitivity necessary for appropriate and effective use of hedging in their academic writing.

5.6 Recent Trends and Research

Over the past five years, research on hedging has expanded considerably, both in terms of methodological approaches and the contexts in which hedging is investigated. Three major trends can be observed in the current literature: the rise of corpus pragmatics and academic phraseology, the growing use of computer-assisted instruction and AI-based tools, and the diversification of multimodal and cross-cultural studies of hedging.

Advances in Corpus Pragmatics and Academic Phraseology

One of the most notable developments in recent research is the increasing use of **large, annotated corpora** to explore hedging in disciplinary discourse. Building on earlier descriptive work, recent corpus-pragmatic studies focus not only on frequency counts, but also on the **pragmatic functions and distributional patterns** of hedging across genres and disciplines. Biber et al. (2022), for example, use multi-dimensional analysis to trace how particular hedging structures (e.g. epistemic modal verbs, speculative lexical verbs) cluster together in specific rhetorical moves, such as highlighting limitations or evaluating previous research. This move from item-based analysis (single words) to **phraseological and functional**

units reflects a broader shift in academic phraseology research. Rather than asking *how often* hedges occur, scholars are increasingly asking *how* and *why* they are used in particular contexts.

1. Computer-Assisted Instruction for Hedging

A second key trend involves the growing integration of digital and AI-based instructional tools into the teaching of hedging. AI feedback systems such as Grammarly, EAP writing platforms (e.g., Write & Improve), and large language models (e.g., ChatGPT) are now being used to provide automated hints about over- or under-hedging in students' work. Tan and Kwon (2024) report that AI-generated feedback led to measurable improvements in the frequency and appropriateness of hedging in postgraduate students' writing. Beyond feedback, writing analytics tools are being developed to visualise students' use of stance markers and hedging devices. These tools allow instructors and learners to track changes over time and provide targeted support in areas such as modal verb use and hedging in citations (Hassan & Karim, 2025).

Importantly, researchers note that such tools are most effective when integrated into reflective, teacher-guided tasks, and not used as stand-alone solutions. Overreliance on AI-based suggestions can lead to mechanical usage without rhetorical awareness, so critical engagement and explicit instruction remain crucial.

2. Multimodal and Cross-Cultural Studies

A third trend is the expansion of hedging research into multimodal and cross-linguistic contexts. While previous studies focused almost exclusively on written research articles in English, recent work has examined

hedging in video abstracts, oral conference presentations, and multilingual academic settings. For example, Mahmoud and Ibrahim (2023) analysed hedging in video abstracts on YouTube and found that speakers combine verbal hedges with visual and prosodic cues (such as softer intonation or facial expressions) to signal uncertainty or politeness. Similarly, Zhang and Liu (2024) investigated cross-lingual hedge norms and reported that Chinese L2 writers tend to hedge less when writing in English than in Chinese, suggesting that hedging conventions may be culture-specific and subject to pragmatic transfer.

Recent research has also begun to explore intercultural misalignment in hedging expectations. Chen et al. (2024) found that reviewers in English-medium journals sometimes interpret a lack of hedging as overconfidence or even impoliteness when the author comes from a direct communication culture. These findings underline the need for explicit instruction in the sociocultural dimensions of hedging, so that L2 writers can adapt their strategies to the norms of specific discourse communities.

5.7 Conclusion

This chapter has examined the concept of hedging as a central feature of academic and professional discourse, particularly within applied linguistics and ELT contexts. It began by defining hedging as a set of linguistic strategies that allow writers to express uncertainty, caution and politeness, thereby mitigating the force of claims and aligning them with disciplinary norms. The chapter reviewed several major theoretical perspectives including pragmatic, epistemic and discourse-functional approaches which together highlight

the complexity of hedging as a socially and contextually situated practice.

A distinction was made between different linguistic forms of hedging (lexical, syntactic and pragmatic) and their strategic deployment in academic writing. It was also shown that hedging varies considerably across disciplines and genres, with higher levels of hedging in humanities and interpretive fields, and a concentration of hedging in the Introduction and Discussion sections of research articles. Drawing on corpus-based research, recent studies show that hedging is not just a matter of lexical choice, but part of broader phraseological and rhetorical patterns that contribute to effective scholarly communication.

From a pedagogical perspective, the chapter argued that hedging should be taught explicitly, through noticing, genre analysis and corpus-informed activities. AI-based feedback systems and writing analytics tools can provide valuable support but need to be integrated into guided and reflective learning activities. At the same time, L2 writers continue to face challenges, including over-hedging, under-hedging and misalignment with disciplinary expectations.

Future research should focus on three key areas. First, there is a need for valid assessment tools that can measure hedging competence in productive writing tasks. Second, more attention needs to be given to intercultural variation in hedging norms to support multilingual academic writers. Third, the growing importance of multimodal communication (e.g., video abstracts and oral presentations) calls for research into how hedging operates across visual, prosodic and verbal modalities.

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CHAPTER 6

PARAPHRASING

6.1 What Is Paraphrasing?

Paraphrasing is the restatement of another author's ideas in your own words and structures while preserving the original meaning and crediting the source. Paraphrasing changes how something is said, not what it means.

A paraphrase involves expressing the ideas from the original text using one's own words. Effective paraphrasing indicates a clear comprehension of the source material and helps to prevent plagiarism. The typical method for achieving this includes substituting words from the original text with synonyms and potentially altering the grammatical structure.

Paraphrasing constitutes an essential academic competency, involving the articulation of another individual's ideas using one's own language while maintaining the original intent. The American Psychological Association (2020) asserts that paraphrasing facilitates the synthesis and integration of information from diverse sources, enabling the emphasis of key points and the formulation of meaningful comparisons. Correspondingly, Oshima and Hogue (2006) highlight that paraphrasing entails a near-complete rearticulation of content without replicating the original phrasing.

Bailey (2015) further stresses its importance in preventing plagiarism, noting that proficient paraphrasing significantly alters the text while preserving its fundamental concepts. Writers must judiciously determine when to employ paraphrasing versus direct quotation: direct quotations are most appropriate when the precise wording conveys authority, significance, or vividness, whereas paraphrasing is preferable for presenting findings, simplifying complex language, or seamlessly integrating sources into one's argument.

6.2 Why Paraphrase?

Paraphrasing holds a crucial function in academic writing as it enables authors to exhibit their understanding of source material while upholding academic integrity and preventing plagiarism (Bailey, 2015). Rather than replicating an original author's wording verbatim, paraphrasing demonstrates the writer's ability to interpret the meaning and express it using their own terminology.

This practice also allows writers to modify the complexity and tone of the original content to align with the needs of their target audience, thereby facilitating the effective communication of sophisticated concepts. Moreover, paraphrasing is fundamental to the process of synthesis, as it permits the incorporation of insights from diverse sources into a unified narrative, enabling the comparison of viewpoints, as well as the identification of similarities and differences.

Consequently, paraphrasing contributes to the cultivation of the writer's unique voice by preventing the text from becoming a mere compilation of quotations and

ensuring stylistic coherence throughout the argument. Additionally, it improves clarity, given that scholarly texts often contain densely packed information and may present multiple interrelated ideas within a single sentence, not all of which are pertinent to the writer's focus and objective. In academic discourse, it is imperative for authors to demonstrate how their research connects to and extends prior studies; paraphrasing facilitates this by condensing or reorganizing content, whether summarizing a sentence, several sentences, or an entire study, so that only the most relevant and significant points are integrated into the argument.

6.3 Principles of Paraphrasing

Booth, Colomb and Williams (2003) stated that in the natural sciences and some social sciences, researchers rarely use direct quotations from their sources. Instead, they tend to paraphrase and cite the information, incorporating it into their own writing. The name of the source is usually mentioned directly in the sentence only when the researcher wants to highlight its importance. In contrast, scholars in the humanities and certain social sciences are more likely to rely on quotations, though they may also paraphrase when appropriate.

Deciding when to quote and when to paraphrase is not always straightforward, and there are no strict rules to follow. Direct quotations are most effective when using another's words as primary data, when appealing to an authority, or when the specific wording is important. This may be because the words have influenced other researchers, their style or phrasing is significant, they are

especially vivid, or you need to present them fairly before challenging their claims. Paraphrasing, on the other hand, is more suitable when the findings or data matter more than the exact words, or when you can rephrase the source in clearer and simpler terms (Booth, Colomb and Williams, 2003).

Oshima and Ann Hogue (2006) explains five practical steps in creating a good paraphrasing.

Step 1 Read for Understanding

Reread until you grasp the message. Look up unknown terms. Keep necessary technical labels (e.g., *Industrial Revolution*, *photosynthesis*).

Step 2 Take Minimalist Notes

Write down only the main ideas as keywords or short phrases so you remember the meaning but avoid the exact wording. You can also sketch an outline (2–3 points) that shows the logical order of ideas.

Example:

Original Text

Many languages exist around the world, and this makes communication between people difficult. Because of this, some believe there should be one international language to help strengthen cultural and economic ties and improve international relations.

Notes (keywords/relations only):

- many languages → communication difficult
- desire → one international language
- reasons → cultural/economic ties, better international relations

Outline (2 points):

- Communication problem: too many languages
- Proposed solution: universal language (reasons: cultural + economic bonds, better relations)

Step 3 Draft with the Source Covered

Write from your notes so you naturally change wording and structure with the aim for clarity suited to your target audience.

Example: *Because the world has so many languages, people often struggle to understand one another. For this reason, some advocate a single international language to strengthen cultural and economic ties and to improve relations among nations (Stone, 2020).*

Step 4 Compare & Adjust

Check against the source for (a) meaning accuracy, (b) sufficient structural change, (c) natural collocations. Fix close copying or drift.

Step 5 Add an In-Text Citation

Credit the source (e.g., APA: *Author, Year*; IEEE: *[n]*). Include full reference in your bibliography.

What changed?

From the example above, we can see several changes appear after paraphrasing.

(1) Vocabulary (word choice)

- *Many languages exist around the world* → *the world has so many languages* (simpler, conversational phrasing).
- *this makes communication between people difficult* → *people often struggle to understand one another* (different verb: *struggle* instead of *makes difficult*).
- *some believe there should be* → *some advocate* (stronger, more formal verb).
- *improve international relations* → *improve relations among nations* (synonymous, slightly rephrased).

(2) Sentence structure

- Original: [statement of fact] + [*because of this, belief*].
- Paraphrase: [cause introduced first] + [result].
- Order of clauses is inverted → adds variety.
- Transition: “For this reason” replaced “Because of this”.

(3) Tone/Style

- Original: straightforward, neutral.
- Paraphrase: slightly more formal (*advocate, among nations*) while also clearer for general readers (*struggle to understand one another* instead of “communication... difficult”).

6.4 Techniques for Paraphrasing

Paraphrasing can be achieved through several techniques that adjust vocabulary, grammar, or structure while keeping the meaning intact. As additional notes, Hafidz (2018) states that the aim of paraphrasing is not on the shortening the length of a text, merely to restate it. Below are some common strategies (Bailey, 2015):

(a) Changing vocabulary by using synonyms

Writers can replace words with alternatives of similar meaning to avoid repetition while keeping accuracy.

- (1) argues → claims
- (2) eighteenth century → 1700s
- (3) wages → labour costs
- (4) economise → save / saving

(b) Changing the word class (part of speech)

Sometimes a word can be transformed into another grammatical form, such as a noun into a verb, or an adjective into a noun. This often requires adjusting the surrounding sentence.

- (1) explanation (noun) → explain (verb)
- (2) mechanical (adjective) → mechanise (verb)
- (3) profitable (adjective) → profitability (noun)

(c) Changing word order

Rearranging the sentence structure can create a fresh expression while conveying the same meaning.

Original: *Technology has rapidly transformed the way people communicate in the 21st century.*

Paraphrase: *In the 21st century, the way people communicate has been rapidly transformed by technology (Smith, 2020).*

What Changed:

- Word order: the original phrase has the subject as the agent at the front of the sentence, while in the paraphrased sentence the agent is moved.
- Voice shift: the original is in active voice (“Technology has transformed...”), while the paraphrased is in passive voice (“has been transformed by technology”).
- Focus change: the original emphasizes technology as the agent, while the paraphrased emphasizes the way people communicate as the main subject.

6.5 Examples

Sentence-Level Paraphrasing

(a) Changing vocabulary by using synonyms

Original: *Technology **plays** a **vital** role in improving communication **across the world**.*

- (1) **Paraphrase:** *Technology **has** an **important** role in improving communication **around the globe** (Smith, 2023).*

- *has* → *plays* (synonym)
- *vital* → *important* (synonym)
- *across the world* → *around the globe* (synonym)

Original: *Society **expects** individuals to follow certain rules and norms.*

Paraphrase: *Society usually **hopes** that people adapt to **particular regulations and standards** (Stone, 2000).*

- (2)
- *expects* → *hopes* (synonym)
 - *individuals* → *people* (synonym)
 - *follow* → *adapt* (synonym)
 - *certain* → *particular* (synonym)
 - *rules and norms* → *regulations and standards* (synonym)

Original: *We should first **distinguish** between specifically communicative signals and those which may be **unintentionally** informative signals.*

- (3)
- Paraphrase:** *We need to **separate** deliberately communicative signals from those that are merely **accidentally** informative (Yule, 2010).*

- *distinguish* → *separate* (synonym)
- *unintentionally* → *accidentally* (synonym)

Original: *Someone **listening** to you may **become informed** about you through a **number of signals** that you have not **intentionally** sent.*

(4) **Paraphrase:** *A **listener** might **learn** things about you from **various cues** that you did not **deliberately** convey (Yule, 2010).*

- *Someone listening → listener (synonym)*
- *become informed → learn (synonym)*
- *number of signals → various cues (synonym)*
- *intentionally → deliberately (synonym)*

Original: *She may **note** that you have a **cold** (you sneezed), that you **aren't at ease** (you shifted around in your seat), that you are **disorganized** (non-matching socks) and that you are **from somewhere else** (you have a strange accent).*

(5) **Paraphrase:** *She might **observe** that you are **ill** (you sneezed), **uncomfortable** (you fidgeted), **untidy** (your socks don't match), or **non-local** (your accent sounds unusual) (Yule, 2010).*

- *note → observe (synonym)*
- *cold → ill (synonym)*
- *aren't at ease → uncomfortable (synonym)*

- *disorganized* → *untidy* (synonym)
- *from somewhere else* → *non-local* (synonym)

Original: *However, when you use language to tell this person, I'm one of the applicants for the vacant position of senior brain surgeon at the hospital, you are normally considered to be intentionally communicating something.*

(6)

Paraphrase: *But when you verbally state, "I'm applying for the hospital's open position of senior brain surgeon," it is regarded as a purposeful act of communication (Yule, 2010).*

- *however* → *but* (synonym)
- *I'm one of the applicants* → *I'm applying for* (synonym)
- *vacant position* → *open position* (synonym)
- *considered* → *regarded* (synonym)
- *intentionally communicating* → *purposeful act of communication* (synonym)

(b) Changing the word class (part of speech)

Original: *Religion gives people hope in times of trouble.*

(1)

Paraphrase: *In times of trouble, people are hopeful because of their religious beliefs (Wijaya, 2015)*

"Religion" → "religious" (noun → adjective)

"hope" → "hopeful" (noun → adjective)

Original: *This is the kind of knowledge that, like our first language, we initially acquire **without conscious awareness**.*

(2) **Paraphrase:** *We are initially acquiring this kind of knowledge **unconsciously**, just like our first language (Yule, 2010).*

"without conscious awareness (noun phrase)

→ "unconsciously" (adverb)

Original: *We develop **awareness** of our knowledge, and hence of our culture, only after having developed language.*

(3) **Paraphrase:** *Only after developing language do we **become aware** of our knowledge and our culture. (Yule, 2010).*

"awareness" (noun) → "become aware" (verb phrase)

Original: ***Technology** is **important** for solving modern problems.*

(4) **Paraphrase:** *Solving modern problems **importantly** depends on **technological** tools (Wirawan, 2018).*

Technology (Noun) → technological (Adjective)

important (Adjective) → importantly (Adverb)

Original: *Society **values** equality among its members.*

(5) **Paraphrase:** *Equality is **valued** by members of the community (Wade, 2021).*

values (Verb) → valued (Participle/Adjective form in passive)

(c) Changing word order

Original: *Although both Sign and gestures **involve** the use of the hands (with other parts of the body), they are **rather** different.*

(1) **Paraphrase:** *Sign and gestures both **include** the hands (and other body parts), yet they are **quite** different (Yule, 2010).*

- Changed order by moving the subject (*Sign and gestures*) to the beginning.
- Synonyms are also used (*include, quite*)

Original: *Sign is like speech and is **used** instead of speaking, whereas gestures are mostly **used** while speaking.*

(2) **Paraphrase:** *While gestures are usually **employed** during speech, sign **functions** like speech and is used as a substitute for it (Yule, 2010).*

- The gestures clause was moved to the front; also

changed gestures are mostly used (active) → gestures are usually employed (passive).

- Synonyms are also used (*employed, functions*)

Original: *Technology **shapes** the way people communicate today, especially through social media and digital platforms.*

(3) **Paraphrase:** *The way people communicate today, particularly through social media and digital platforms, **is shaped** by technology (Mahmud, 2024).*

- The subject “Technology” is moved from the beginning of the sentence to the end.
- The sentence was changed into a passive structure (***is shaped** by technology*).

Original: *Agriculture provides the resources that sustain human life, including food, raw materials, and economic stability for many communities.*

(4) **Paraphrase:** *The resources that sustain human life, such as food, raw materials, and economic stability for many communities, are provided by agriculture (Saragih, 2022).*

- The object “the resources that sustain human life” was moved to the beginning, while the subject “Agriculture” shifted to the end.
- The verb “provides” was turned into passive form

(are provided).

Original: *It is **important**, when visiting different places, not to get the local emblems **mixed up**.*

Paraphrase: *When different places are visited, it is **significant** not to **confuse** the local emblems (Yule, 2010).*

(5)

- Changed from active (*when visiting*) → passive (*when different places are visited*), shifting word order.
- *important* → *mixed up* (synonym)
- *mixed up* → *confuse* (synonym)

Paragraph-Level Paraphrasing

Paraphrasing at the paragraph level requires more than just replacing words or rearranging sentences; it involves creating a smooth and logical flow of ideas. To achieve this, writers need to pay attention to coherence (how ideas make sense together) and cohesion (how sentences are connected through linking words, pronouns, and transitions). At this stage, paraphrasing is not limited to a single technique. Instead, it becomes effective when several strategies are combined, such as changing vocabulary, shifting word classes, altering word order, and transforming active into passive structures. By integrating these techniques, a writer ensures that the paraphrased paragraph not only avoids plagiarism but also reads naturally, supports the overall argument, and reflects the writer's own academic voice.

Original: *Elephants are social animals that usually live together in groups. Within these groups, they cooperate in raising young and protecting one another from danger. They also use sound and body language to communicate effectively in the wild. This social structure helps them survive in their natural habitat.*

(1)

Paraphrase: *Living in herds, elephants exhibit strong social behavior by staying together and supporting each other. Their cooperation can be seen in activities such as caring for their calves and guarding against predators. In their natural surroundings, communication is importantly dependent on vocal signals and physical gestures. This organized social system significantly contributes to their survival in the wild (Miles, 2019).*

- Synonyms:
"groups → herds"
"protecting → guarding"
"body language → physical gestures".
- Word class change:
"to communicate → communication".
- Word order change: Began with "living in herds".

Original: *Economic growth is influenced by investment in technology and education. These investments improve productivity and create new opportunities for employment. As productivity increases, businesses expand and societies become more prosperous. This process shows how investment leads to long-term development.*

(2)

Paraphrase: *The progress of an economy is significantly shaped by technological and educational investments. Such efforts lead to greater productivity and the emergence of new job opportunities for communities. When productivity rises, companies are able to expand their operations, resulting in broader social prosperity. In this way, investments function as key drivers of sustainable economic development (Meyers, 2022).*

- Synonyms:
"economic growth → progress of an economy"
"create → emergence"
"long-term development → sustainable economic development".
- Word class change:
"technology → technological"
"education → educational".
- Word order change: Started with *"The progress of an economy..."* instead of

"Economic growth is influenced...".

- Active/passive shift: "investment influences growth" → "progress is significantly shaped by investments".

(3) **Original:** *Semantics is the study of the meaning of words, phrases and sentences. In semantic analysis, there is always an attempt to focus on what the words conventionally mean, rather than on what an individual speaker (like George Carlin) might want them to mean on a particular occasion. This approach is concerned with objective or general meaning and avoids trying to account for subjective or local meaning. Doing semantics is attempting to spell out what it is we all know when we behave as if we share knowledge of the meaning of a word, a phrase, or a sentence in a language.*

Paraphrase: *Semantic analysis involves studying how words, phrases, and sentences carry meaning. In analyzing semantics, the focus is usually placed on conventional meanings instead of on an individual speaker's intended interpretation in a specific context. This perspective emphasizes general or objective meanings and deliberately avoids consideration of personal or local interpretations. Engaging in semantic study means explaining the shared*

knowledge that allows speakers of a language to understand the meanings of words, phrases, and sentences in common ways (Yule, 2010).

- Word class change:

Semantics (noun) → *Semantic* (adjective)

the study (noun phrase) → *examining* (gerund/verb)

concerned with (adjective phrase) → *highlights* (verb)

Doing semantics (gerund + noun) → *Studying semantics* (verb + noun phrase)

- Vocabulary change (synonyms):

attempt → *emphasis*

focus on → *placed on*

objective or general → *general or objective*

spell out → *clarify*

- Word order shift:

Original: *There is always an attempt to focus on what the words conventionally mean*

Paraphrase: *The emphasis is placed on conventional or standard meanings.*

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CHAPTER 7

COLLOCATION

7.1 Introduction

In recent years, the study of collocations has been recognized as a central component in the development of lexical competence and overall communicative fluency. Unlike grammatical rules, which govern sentence structure, collocations represent the preferred and conventionalized ways in which words co-occur in natural language use. As such, they reflect the *phraseological patterns* of the language and serve as essential building blocks of idiomatic and native-like expression. In English, for example, speakers typically say *heavy rain* rather than *strong rain*, or *make a decision* rather than *do a decision*; these combinations are not arbitrary, but are rooted in usage frequency and native-speaker norms (Sinclair, 2021).

The importance of collocation has been well established in both corpus linguistics and psycholinguistic research. Corpus studies reveal that collocations occur with much greater regularity than isolated words, suggesting that language is stored and processed in multi-word units (Durrant, 2023). Psycholinguistic experiments further demonstrate that fluent speakers retrieve these recurrent word combinations holistically, which enables faster and more efficient language processing (Siyanova-Chanturia & Martinez, 2019). This evidence implies that collocational knowledge contributes not only to vocabulary range but also

to the automaticity and fluency of language production and comprehension.

Despite its importance, collocation acquisition continues to pose serious difficulties for second language (L2) learners. Even proficient learners frequently produce collocational errors or choose word combinations that, while grammatically acceptable, sound unnatural in context (Nesselhauf, 2020). This is largely because collocations are rarely taught explicitly in language classrooms and are often underrepresented in general-purpose textbooks. In addition, L2 learners tend to rely on literal translations from their first language, which may not align with target-language conventions. As a result, they often face challenges in producing collocations appropriately and in recognizing them in authentic input.

The present chapter attempts to address these issues by providing a comprehensive overview of collocation as a key construct in applied linguistics. It begins by clarifying the concept and outlining the principal types of collocations identified in the literature. It then reviews the main theoretical frameworks, such as the Lexical Approach and lexical priming theory, that explain how collocations are stored and processed. Attention is also given to recent empirical research, including corpus-based and experimental studies, which shed light on the acquisition and use of collocations in L2 contexts. Finally, the chapter discusses a range of pedagogical strategies currently used to develop collocational competence, with special emphasis on AI- and corpus-assisted methods, which have opened new opportunities for principled, data-driven instruction.

7.2 Definition and Theoretical Foundations

In its broadest sense, collocation refers to the statistically significant co-occurrence of lexical items within a corpus (Hoey, 2005). Typical examples include *heavy rain*, *commit a crime*, and *make a decision*. Such combinations are not governed by strict syntactic rules, but rather by usage frequency and convention.

These perspectives converge in emphasizing the importance of frequency, predictability, and restricted combinability as defining features of collocation. In its broadest sense, the term collocation refers to the tendency of certain lexical items to occur together more frequently than would be expected by random chance (Hoey, 2005). Collocations are identified through statistical analysis of language corpora, which reveal actual patterns of use in authentic discourse. Examples such as *heavy rain*, *commit a crime*, and *make a decision* illustrate how particular combinations of words become conventionalized in English. Importantly, these combinations are not prescribed by grammar alone; rather, they are the result of usage frequency, habitual preference, and pragmatic convention. Thus, collocations occupy a middle ground between completely free combinations of words and fully fixed idioms.

Over the past three decades, two major theoretical perspectives have provided significant insight into the nature of collocation:

Table 7. 1. Two Major Theoretical Perspectives

Approach	Key Idea
Lexical Approach (Lewis, 1993)	Language is made up of prefabricated “chunks” or multiword units. Fluency results not from the real-time generation

Approach	Key Idea
	of individual words and grammar, but from the retrieval of these ready-made combinations.
Statistical/ Corpus-based Approach (Sinclair, 2004)	Collocations can be objectively observed and described by examining large corpora of naturally occurring texts to identify patterns of co-occurrence that occur more frequently than chance would predict.

7.3 Types of Collocations

A range of classifications has been proposed in the literature to describe the different types of collocational relationships. These taxonomies help explain how collocations function in discourse and why some combinations are more predictable than others. One of the most widely accepted classifications, proposed by Hill (2000) and further developed by Nation (2022), distinguishes between lexical collocations and grammatical collocations, based on the kinds of words that co-occur in the expression.

a. Lexical Collocations

Lexical collocations involve the combination of two content words that is, words with semantic meaning such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. They typically occur in combinations that sound “natural” to native speakers, even though alternative combinations may be grammatically possible. Because they entail content-to-content pairings, lexical collocations tend to carry a relatively clear semantic load.

Table 7. 2. Lexical Collocations

Type		Example	Function
Verb Noun	+	<i>make a complaint, break the law</i>	Indicates typical actions associated with a noun
Adjective Noun	+	<i>deep sleep, strong argument</i>	Attributes a commonly associated quality to a noun
Noun Noun	+	<i>price increase, language learning</i>	Expresses conceptual or thematic relationships
Adverb Adjective	+	<i>highly unlikely, deeply concerned</i>	Intensifies or modifies the meaning of the adjective

7.4 Importance of Collocations in Language Learning

A growing body of empirical research underscores the central role that collocational knowledge plays in successful second language learning and use. Far from being a peripheral or stylistic aspect of vocabulary, collocations constitute a fundamental component of lexical competence and have been shown to contribute directly to fluency, accuracy, and discourse quality.

First, collocational competence enhances lexical richness and native-likeness in writing. When learners have access to an extensive repertoire of collocations, they are able to avoid repetitive or overly general vocabulary and instead produce more precise and nuanced language. Durrant (2023) notes that advanced L2 writers who use appropriate collocations

(e.g., *reach a consensus*, *pose a challenge*) are consistently perceived as more proficient and academic in tone than those who rely on literal or word-for-word translations.

Second, collocational knowledge improves reading fluency by enabling readers to process phrases holistically rather than word-by-word. Collocations are often stored as multiword units in the mental lexicon, which allows for faster lexical access during comprehension (Fanjul & Siyanova-Chanturia, 2024). This means that readers who recognize collocations (such as *take into account* or *in the long run*) can process text more efficiently than those who must decode each component separately.

Third, a similar facilitatory effect is evident in listening comprehension. Psycholinguistic studies have shown that collocations are often perceived as a single unit of meaning by native speakers, and L2 learners with stronger collocational knowledge demonstrate better recall and understanding of spoken input. Because many collocations appear frequently in spoken English, a command of these word combinations can significantly improve the listener's ability to follow rapid and connected speech.

Finally, collocations contribute to discourse coherence, particularly in academic or professional registers where certain collocational patterns tend to structure argumentation and reasoning (e.g., *raise an issue*, *offer an explanation*, *draw a conclusion*). These expressions help signal logical relationships and cohesive links between ideas, thereby supporting a more coherent overall discourse structure.

By contrast, insufficient knowledge of collocations often results in language that is grammatically correct but pragmatically unnatural. Errors such as "*strong rain*" instead of "*heavy rain*" or "*do a crime*" instead of "*commit a crime*" are intelligible but immediately mark the speaker or writer as

non-native. Over time, such deviations can negatively affect the perceived credibility or competence of the learner in academic, professional, or social contexts.

Studying collocations offers significant benefits for language learners, enhancing both fluency and accuracy in both speaking and writing. By mastering these natural word combinations, students can communicate more effectively, sound more native-like, and build a stronger mental lexicon.

Here's a more detailed look at the advantages:

1. Improved Fluency and Naturalness:

- Collocations are the building blocks of fluent speech and writing. When learners incorporate them, their language becomes more fluid and less hesitant, as they can draw on pre-packaged phrases rather than struggling to construct each sentence from scratch.

Native speakers use collocations frequently, so learning them helps learners sound more like native speakers and less like they are translating from their first language.

Examples include using "heavy rain" instead of "strong rain," or "strong coffee" instead of "powerful coffee," which may be understandable but not the most natural way to express the idea.

2. Enhanced Accuracy and Precision:

- Collocations often carry subtle nuances that can be lost when using individual words in isolation.

For instance, "make a mistake" is the correct collocation, while "do a mistake" is grammatically incorrect, even though it might be understood. By

learning collocations, learners can avoid common errors and express themselves with greater precision and correctness.

For example, the word "light" can be combined with several nouns, like "light rain," "light bulb," or "light meal," and each combination carries a slightly different meaning.

3. Expanded Vocabulary and Lexical Range:

- Learning collocations expands the learner's mental lexicon by introducing them to frequently used word combinations.

This allows learners to access a wider range of vocabulary and express themselves more effectively.

For example, instead of relying on "very" for emphasis, learners can use stronger collocations like "utterly exhausted" or "exceptionally talented,"

4. Greater Confidence and Communication Impact:

- When learners can speak and write more naturally and accurately, they feel more confident in their communication abilities.

This confidence can lead to greater engagement in conversations and a stronger impact on their audience. For example, using the correct collocations in an essay can elevate the overall quality of the writing and impress the reader.

5. Improved Performance in Language Assessments:

- Collocation knowledge is often assessed in language exams, such as IELTS and PTE.
- By demonstrating a strong understanding of collocations, learners can achieve higher scores and demonstrate their overall language proficiency.
- This is because collocations are considered a key indicator of fluency and accuracy in both speaking and writing.
- An investigation into the use of collocations in essay writing among .

Collocations, as fixed expressions of word combinations, play a crucial role in enhancing the fluency and accuracy of language pro.

7.5 Recent Research and Trends (2024–2025)

Recent years have seen significant innovation in the ways collocations are taught, learned, and assessed. Four major areas of development stand out in the 2024–2025 research literature:

Table 7. 3. Recent Research

Focus	Summary of Findings
AI-powered tools	Tools like DeepL, ChatGPT, and Grammarly increasingly suggest contextually appropriate collocations, helping learners self-revise (Park & Shin, 2024).

Focus	Summary of Findings
Corpora and Data-Driven Learning (DDL)	Students who consult corpora (COCA, BNC, BAWE) improve their productive use of academic collocations (Girard & Flatt, 2025).
Spaced and Retrieval-Based activities	Spaced collocation practice has a stronger long-term effect than massed practice (Yuan & Wu, 2024).
Multimodal input	Incorporating audiovisual examples (e.g., brief YouTube clips and transcriptions) promotes deeper retention of collocations in context (Mahmoud & Ibrahim, 2025).

7.6 Teaching Practices and Pedagogical Implications

Given the importance and complexity of collocational knowledge, language educators have increasingly emphasized the need for systematic and principled instruction. Research in second language pedagogy indicates that learners benefit most when collocations are taught explicitly, practiced repeatedly, and encountered in authentic communicative contexts. The following instructional strategies have been widely recommended and tested in empirical studies:

a. Explicit Noticing

One of the most effective ways to foster collocational awareness is through noticing activities. By presenting learners with concordance lines short

excerpts from corpora showing how a target word is used in several real contexts teachers can draw students' attention to recurring patterns of co-occurrence. This process helps learners move beyond individual words and become more aware of how words "behave" in context. Noticing tasks can be guided (e.g., "underline the verb that most frequently combines with *evidence*") or open-ended, depending on the proficiency level.

b. Chunk-Based Input and Output

Another key principle is to encourage the use of multiword chunks in both receptive (input) and productive (output) activities. Rather than teaching isolated words (e.g., *decision*, *make*, *crime*, *commit*), teachers can present whole expressions (e.g., *make a decision*, *commit a crime*) and encourage students to treat them as single semantic units. This can be achieved through repeated exposure in reading/listening texts, followed by opportunities to use the same chunks in speaking and writing tasks. Role plays, short dialog completion, and guided writing prompts are particularly effective for facilitating chunk-based production.

c. Collocation Exercises

A variety of focused practice activities can be used to reinforce collocational knowledge, including:

- Matching exercises (e.g., matching verbs with appropriate nouns)
- Fill-in-the-blank tasks in which learners choose the correct collocation from several options ("_____ a complaint" → *make / do / give*)

- Translation exercises, where students translate L1 sentences into English with an emphasis on correct collocations

These activities are especially useful at the initial stage of instruction, as they draw attention to specific word partnerships and help learners internalise high-frequency patterns.

d. Use of Corpora and AI Tools

Recent innovations also highlight the value of integrating corpus consultation and AI-powered writing assistants into classroom practice. Even simple corpus interfaces (such as COCA's basic search function) allow learners to check real usage examples for unfamiliar collocations. Additionally, AI tools such as Grammarly or ChatGPT can serve as scaffolding mechanisms, flagging unnatural word combinations and suggesting more idiomatic formulations. It is important, however, to teach learners how to use these tools critically and reflectively, rather than accepting suggestions uncritically.

e. Retrieval Practice and Spacing

Finally, research on vocabulary retention shows that repeated retrieval spaced over time results in stronger and longer-lasting learning than massed practice. This principle applies equally to collocations. Teachers can recycle previously introduced collocations in review quizzes, speaking warm-ups, or revision writing tasks, ensuring that students retrieve the expressions multiple times across different lessons and contexts. These cumulative review opportunities help

consolidate chunk-based memory and transfer collocations from receptive to productive use.

7.7 Conclusion

Collocation constitutes a central pillar of lexical competence, and its importance for achieving native-like fluency and precision in English cannot be overstated. Unlike isolated vocabulary knowledge, collocational competence reflects the speaker's ability to draw on *conventionalized word combinations* that are deeply rooted in the usage norms of the language. Research consistently shows that learners who master collocations are better able to produce language that is fluent, idiomatic, and appropriate to the communicative context.

Recent developments in the field particularly those influenced by corpus linguistics and AI-based technologies have opened up new and more efficient ways of teaching collocations. Corpus-informed materials allow learners to observe authentic usage patterns, while AI-assisted writing tools provide real-time feedback on the naturalness of their collocational choices. These innovations enable a shift from intuition-based instruction to data-driven language pedagogy.

At the same time, a persistent challenge remains: the gap between receptive and productive knowledge. Learners may recognize correct collocations when they see them, but still struggle to produce them spontaneously in their own speech and writing. To bridge this gap, collocation instruction needs to move beyond awareness-raising and incorporate explicit, repeated, and contextualized practice. In other words, learners should not only notice collocations during reading or listening, but also retrieve and use them in meaningful communicative tasks over time.

In future pedagogical practice and research, greater emphasis should be placed on designing longitudinal, task-based learning environments that integrate collocational development across the curriculum. Only through sustained and intentional exposure, retrieval, and use can learners internalize the phraseological patterns of English and achieve higher levels of lexical sophistication.

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CHAPTER 8

COHESION

8.1 Introduction

One of the most fundamental properties of language is its ability to go beyond isolated sentences and form texts that meaningful, structured units of communication. A text may be spoken or written, long or short, narrative or expository, but in each case it must be more than a random sequence of words and sentences. What gives a text its unity is cohesion.

Cohesion refers to the linguistic means by which clauses and sentences are linked together, creating texture and unity. It is the “glue” that holds a text together, ensuring that it functions as a communicative whole rather than as a series of unrelated statements. Halliday and Hasan’s *Cohesion in English* (1976) remains the most authoritative and systematic account of this phenomenon. Later works, such as Yule’s *The Study of Language* (2017), simplify these concepts for students, demonstrating cohesion through practical examples.

In the context of communication, the proper use of cohesion is crucial. Analysis shows that texts that are not sufficiently cohesive or use cohesive devices improperly can lead to misunderstanding and even the loss of the intended meaning. The inappropriate use or lack of adequate cohesion can directly result in miscommunication. Thus, mastering

cohesion is a foundational skill for any communicator to ensure that their message is received effectively.

Cohesion is one of the central features of discourse that distinguishes a text from a random collection of sentences. Both Halliday and Hasan (1976) and Yule (2017) agree that cohesion refers to the linguistic means by which sentences and clauses are linked together to form a unified whole. Without cohesion, a text would lack the ties that enable readers or listeners to interpret it as meaningful communication.

While Halliday and Hasan provide a systematic taxonomy of cohesive devices, Yule offers a simplified account for students of language. Together, these perspectives give both theoretical rigor and practical clarity to the study of cohesion.

8.2 Cohesion and Coherence

Cohesion is often contrasted with coherence. Cohesion concerns the surface linguistic devices that signal connections between sentences, such as pronouns, conjunctions, or lexical repetition. Coherence, on the other hand, is the conceptual unity of a text, which depends on context, background knowledge, and logical interpretability.

For example:

- *John left early. He was feeling unwell.* → cohesive through pronoun (*he*), and coherent because we can see a logical relation.
- *It is raining. My car is red.* → cohesive if tied by reference, but not coherent as there is no logical link.

Thus, cohesion contributes to coherence, but coherence can also exist without explicit cohesive markers.

8.3 Categories of Cohesion

Halliday and Hasan identify two broad categories there are grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion.

a. Grammatical Cohesion

1) Reference

Reference involves the use of pronouns or determiners to refer to a word or idea previously mentioned (anaphora), one yet to be mentioned (cataphora), or something outside the text (exophora). Reference ensures continuity by connecting sentences and ideas through known or identifiable elements.

a) Anaphoric Reference

Anaphoric reference points back to something previously mentioned in the text.

Example:

*Julia walked into the room. **She** looked around nervously.*

"She" refers to "Julia." Instead of repeating the subject's name, the pronoun connects the two sentences.

b) Cataphoric Reference

Cataphoric reference points forward to something that will appear later in the text.

Example:

***This** is what I propose: we reduce our expenses by 20%.*

"This" refers forward to the clause "we reduce our expenses by 20%."

c) Exophoric Reference

Exophoric reference refers to something outside the text, often dependent on shared situational context.

Example:

*Look at **that**!*

"That" points to an item in the physical environment, which is not mentioned in the discourse itself.

2) Substitution

Substitution is the replacement of a word or phrase with another to avoid repetition. This differs from reference in that it substitutes the actual word rather than indicating it.

a) Nominal Substitution

Uses words like "one" and "ones" to replace nouns.

Example:

*I don't like the red apples. I prefer the green **ones**.*

"Ones" replaces "green apples," avoiding redundancy.

b) Verbal Substitution

Involves using "do," "does," or "did" to substitute verbs.

Example:

*He said he would finish the task, and he **did**.*
 "Did" replaces the full verb phrase "finish the task."

c) Clausal Substitution

Employs "so" and "not" to substitute entire clauses.

Example:

*Will they attend the meeting? I hope **so**.*
 "So" substitutes for the clause "they will attend the meeting."

3) Ellipsis

Ellipsis omits parts of a sentence that are understood from context. This helps maintain flow and avoid repetition.

a) Nominal Ellipsis

Removes part of a noun phrase.

Example:

I'll take the red shirt. You can take the blue [shirt].

The noun "shirt" is omitted but understood.

b) Verbal Ellipsis

Omission occurs in the verb phrase.

Example:

She can play the piano, and he [can play the piano] too.

The verb is dropped to reduce repetition.

c) Clausal Ellipsis

Entire clauses are omitted when recoverable from context.

Example:

A: Will you be attending?

B: [I will be attending.]

The clause is understood and left out.

4) Conjunction

Conjunctions provide logical relationships between ideas and are categorized as additive, adversative, causal, or temporal.

a) Additive

Adds similar or parallel information. These conjunctions provide additional, relevant information. Such as: *and, also, furthermore, moreover, besides, in addition*

Example:

*She loves reading. **In addition**, she writes poetry.*

b) Adversative

Shows contrast, opposition, or comparison between two ideas there are *but, however, on the other hand, conversely, instead, still, yet.*

Example:

*He studied hard. **However**, he failed the exam.*

c) Causal

Indicates a cause-and-effect relationship between ideas, such as *because, therefore, thus, as a result, consequently, since*.

Example:

*The event was canceled **because** of the storm.*

d) Temporal

Shows a sequence of time, organizing ideas chronologically like *then, after that, meanwhile, before, when, once*.

Example:

*She packed her bags. **Then**, she left.*

Each conjunction helps shape the structure and clarity of the text.

b. Lexical Cohesion

Lexical cohesion refers to the cohesive effect achieved by the selection of vocabulary. Unlike grammatical cohesion, which relies on structural relationships between words, lexical cohesion is concerned with how words and their meanings interact to form semantic unity within a text. Halliday and Hasan (1976) identify several kinds of lexical cohesion: repetition, synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, meronymy, and collocation

1) Reiteration

Repetition involves the reiteration of a word or phrase to reinforce a topic or maintain focus.

Example:

*The **storm** destroyed buildings across the region. Emergency workers responded quickly to assess the **storm** damage.*

The repeated use of "storm" connects the two sentences and maintains thematic consistency.

2) Synonymy

Synonymy is the use of words with similar meanings to refer to the same concept.

Example:

*The **child** was excited about the trip. The little **boy** couldn't stop talking about it.*
"Child" and "boy" are synonyms that maintain cohesion while adding variety to the text.

3) Antonymy

Antonymy involves the use of words with opposite meanings, which creates cohesion through contrast.

Example:

*Some of the proposals were **accepted**, while others were **rejected**.*
The opposing ideas of acceptance and rejection tie the sentences together thematically.

4) Hyponymy

Hyponymy is the use of specific and general words to show hierarchical relationships.

Example:

*The **furniture** was antique. The **sofa** and **dining table** were made of mahogany.*

"Furniture" is a general term, while "sofa" and "dining table" are specific types of furniture, linking general to specific.

5) Meronymy

Meronymy is the relationship between a whole and its parts.

Example:

*The **car** was parked outside. Its **tires** looked brand new.*

"Tires" are a part of the "car," and the reference maintains lexical cohesion through part-whole relation.

6) Collocation

Collocation refers to the habitual co-occurrence of words that are often found together.

Example:

*The company made a **strategic decision** to expand. The **business strategy** focused on emerging markets.*

Words like "strategic," "decision," "business," and "strategy" naturally go together, enhancing cohesion.

8.4 Functions of Cohesion

Cohesion serves several important functions in text:

a. Defines Textness

Cohesion provides the "glue" that makes sentences function as a text, distinguishing them from unrelated utterances.

b. Signals Semantic Relation

Cohesive devices mark logical or referential relations, helping readers interpret how ideas are connected.

c. Supports Coherence

Cohesion contributes to the overall interpretability of a text, though coherence also relies on context and shared knowledge.

d. Aids Comprehension

Cohesion reduces the cognitive load for readers and listeners by making relationships explicit and easy to follow.

e. Reflects Genre and Register

Different text types use different cohesive patterns: narratives favor temporal conjunctions, academic writing favors causal and adversative markers, while conversation often relies on ellipsis and substitution.

8.5 Illustrations

Narrative Example

Anna bought a new bicycle yesterday. The bicycle was red and very light. She rode it to school this morning. On the way, she met her friend, who admired the bike. Then, they went together to the park.

Cohesion: Pronouns (*she, it*), lexical repetition (*bicycle–bike*), and temporal conjunction (*then*) tie the story together.

Expository Example

Many people believe that exercise is good for health. Regular physical activity can reduce stress and improve the immune system. It also lowers the risk of heart disease. Therefore, doctors often recommend daily exercise to their patients.

Cohesion: Repetition (*exercise–physical activity*), pronoun reference (*it*), and causal conjunction (*therefore*) create a unified argument.

These examples show how cohesion operates across text types, ensuring that ideas are connected and meaning is accessible.

8.6 Pedagogical Implications

Understanding cohesion is crucial for language teaching. For EFL students, awareness of cohesive devices improves both **reading comprehension** and **writing skills**. By recognizing reference chains, conjunctions, and lexical repetition, students can follow arguments more easily and produce more connected writing.

Yule's simplified framework is particularly useful at the **introductory level**, while Halliday & Hasan's model provides the **advanced analytical tools** needed for research and academic writing. Teachers can use both approaches progressively:

- Start with Yule's accessible categories (pronouns, connectors, repeated words).
- Move to Halliday & Hasan's detailed classification for deeper analysis.

8.7 Conclusion

Cohesion is an essential property of text, realized through grammatical and lexical devices. Halliday and Hasan (1976) provide a detailed framework that has become central in discourse analysis, while Yule (2017) presents the same concepts in a simplified form for learners. Together, they highlight that cohesion is not merely a linguistic mechanism but also a functional resource that shapes how texts are constructed, interpreted, and understood.

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CHAPTER 9

PUNCTUATION

9.1 Introduction

Why is punctuation so confusing? It doesn't need to be! The fundamental purpose of primary punctuation marks is to segment sequences of written symbols, not only indicating the extent of separation but also clarifying the syntactic and semantic relationships among those segments. This relational function is deeply context-dependent and becomes meaningful only when analyzed within the specific textual environment in which the punctuation is employed.

Denham & Lobeck (2012) said that in elementary school, Punctuation is still often taught by asking students to think of how a sentence is spoken; children are taught, for example, to put commas where they would pause (though this can also lead to what are considered “errors,” such as separating two clauses with a comma rather than a period). Because Old English texts were handwritten and because there were not yet standards for Punctuation, it is not surprising that there is great variability in the Punctuation used; some used no Punctuation at all (Denham & Lobeck, 2012).

Punctuation is vital and plays a crucial role in written communication. It is some kind of mark that refers to a set of

symbols that separates and gives meaning to words used in writing to separate thoughts, sentences, clauses, and phrases; clarify meaning; and indicate intonation, pauses, and emphasis. Punctuation marks ensuring that readers can grasp the intended meaning of a text, where to pause, what words are quotations, and more. Without punctuation, even the most well-thought-out ideas can become confusing and difficult to comprehend. As Kramer said you cannot write without punctuation. Even if you can, but your writing would not make any sense to your reader. Punctuation is as important to your writing as your word choice, syntax, and structure. When any one of these elements is missing, you do not have a coherent piece of writing—you have a word salad (Kramer, 2022) and without punctuation, texts can be confusing. Clear sentences may become unclear (Long, 2025). In this chapter, we will explore the fundamental elements of punctuation, their usage, and their importance in effective writing.

Thus, it can be concluded that the correct punctuation marks add clarity and precision to writing; it allows writers to stop, pause, or to give emphasis to certain parts of the sentence.

9.2 What is Punctuation?

Punctuation marks can tell the reader when to slow down, speed up and stop Punctuation is an indispensable component of effective writing. As with any skill, mastery comes with practice and attention to detail. By using punctuation marks appropriately, writers convey their ideas with precision, maintain coherence, and guide readers through the text effortlessly.

According to some dictionaries (Cambridge, Webster, Oxford, Collins) , punctuation refers to the systematic use of standardized symbols in written language—such as periods, commas, and question marks—to separate structural elements, clarify meaning, indicate sentence boundaries, and guide the reader’s interpretation of how the text should be understood and read (C. University Press, 2025), (Dictionary, 2025b), (Webster, 2025), (O. University Press, 2025). Punctuation is usually indicated by the use of symbols or marks.

Husada et al (2018) in their article stated that Punctuation is the sign on writing which make meaning of the sentences became clear and make the reader easy to understand about the meaning or messages that the writer wants to deliver (Husada et al., 2018).

Furthermore, Long (2025) explained that punctuation marks play a fundamental role in written communication by enhancing sentence structure, clarifying meaning, and conveying tone or emphasis. Symbols such as commas, periods, and question marks function as navigational tools that assist readers in accurately interpreting written content. When applied correctly, punctuation improves the flow and comprehension of a text, whereas misuse can result in confusion or misinterpretation. Each mark carries distinct grammatical functions that are shaped by linguistic norms and contextual usage. Proficiency in punctuation is therefore essential for translating spoken language into coherent written form (Long, 2025).

9.3 The Purpose of Punctuation

Punctuation marks are tools that guide readers through a text. They help to:

- a. Separate ideas and clauses.
- b. Indicate pauses and emphasis.
- c. Clarify relationships between words and phrases.
- d. Prevent ambiguity.

Understanding how to use punctuation correctly enhances both the readability and professionalism of your writing.

In social media, punctuation also needed as Lubis et al. (2025) said that the rapid advancement of digital platforms has reshaped contemporary communication practices, particularly in how individuals articulate themselves through written language. A notable shift is evident in the composition of captions on social media networks such as Instagram, Facebook, Twitter, and TikTok, where concise, engaging, and imaginative expression is prioritized. Within these digital contexts, punctuation—once regarded as a peripheral element in formal writing—has assumed a crucial role in conveying tone, nuance, and intended meaning (Lubis et al., 2025).

9.4 Common Punctuation Marks and Their Functions

9.4.1 Sentence-ending punctuation

A. Period (.)

What is a period (.) used for and how to use it?

A period is a punctuation symbol (.) used to mark the conclusion of a declarative sentence or to indicate an abbreviation in writing. Period (.) is the most commonly used punctuation mark in English Language. Actually, the **dot** (.) has different term in *American English* and *British English*. In American English, **period** is the term for the punctuation mark used to end declarative sentences. In British English, the mark is usually called a **full stop**. Neither term is right or wrong. They are just different ways of saying the same thing (Grammarist, 2025).

The period (.) is used to signal the end of a declarative sentence or statement. It provides a full stop and separates one complete thought from another. While the period is generally considered a simple punctuation mark, its usage extends beyond merely signaling the end of a sentence. It can also function to convey the tone of a written work, particularly in the context of giving instructions or posing indirect questions. Understanding its varied applications can enhance clarity and precision in communicating intended meaning to the audience.

Example:

- a. *Shakespeare wrote many plays.*
- b. *Gravity pulls objects toward the Earth.*
- c. *DNA carries genetic information.*
- d. *Hydrogen is the lightest element.*
- e. *She was born in the U.S. → abbreviation for United States*

B. Question Mark (?)

What is a question mark (?) used for and when to use it?

The punctuation that commonly used in English language is question mark and it indicates that a sentence is a question. Question mark is a punctuation mark (?) also called an interrogation point, used **in written form** to signal the readers that they should read the sentence as a question when asking a direct question. Direct questions often (but not always) begin with a *wh-* word (*who, what, when, where, why*). Indirect questions do not always need a question mark. Question mark concludes a sentence that poses a question and also used to express doubt or uncertainty about something. **In spoken form**, the way your voice rises at the end of the sentence usually makes it clear that you are asking a question and not just making a statement (Grammarly, 2024). The use of question marks can be distinguished between question marks in *written form* and in *spoken form*, as shown in table 9.1.

Table 9. 1. Question Marks in *Written Form* and in *Spoken Form*

Aspect	Writing Form	Spoken Form
Use of Question Mark	Explicitly used (?) at the end of a question	Not written — questions are indicated by rising intonation
Example Sentence	<i>Are you coming to the party?</i>	Are you coming to the party (with rising intonation)
Intonation	Not shown through punctuation	Rising pitch at the end signals a question
Sentence	Usually follows	May be more casual or

Aspect	Writing Form	Spoken Form
Structure	standard grammar for questions	incomplete
Indirect Questions	No question mark used: <i>I wonder if she's home.</i>	Spoken with a flat tone, like a statement
Rhetorical Questions	Still ends with a question mark: <i>Who knows?</i>	May sound like a statement or a sarcastic tone
Short Questions	Written with a question mark: <i>Really?</i> or <i>What?</i>	Spoken with emphasis or pitch change

Example:

- a. *What time is the meeting?*
- b. *Who is the main character in this story?*
- c. *What is the unit of force?*
- d. *Does a frog have a backbone?*
- e. *Is water made of hydrogen and oxygen?*

C. Exclamation Point (!)

What is an exclamation point (!) used for and when to use it?

A symbol (!), in **American English** known as **exclamation point** and in **British English** known as **exclamation mark**, placed at the end of an utterance or sentence to indicate shock, excitement, warm greeting, express strong emotion, strong feeling, give emphasis, show command, or express an exclamation in general.

The exclamation point changes the **tone** of the sentence—**spoken form** with more emotion than a normal declarative sentence. In **writing form**, it signals the reader to

feel the emotion behind the words. Furthermore, the use of exclamation points can be differentiated based on expression and intonation in *spoken form* and *written form*, as shown in table 9.2.

Table 9. 2. Expression and Intonation in Using (!)

Expression Type	Example Sentence	Intonation (Tone)	Explanation
Surprise/ Shock	What a beautiful house!	Rising-falling tone	Expresses amazement or unexpected emotion.
Excitement/ Joy	I won the game!	High and energetic tone	Shows happiness or enthusiasm.
Anger Frustration	Stop bothering me!	Sharp, firm tone	Indicates annoyance or strong negative emotion.
Command/ Urgency	Call the doctor now!	Strong, direct tone	Urgent or immediate action is needed.
Greeting/ Interjection	Hello, John!	Cheerful, rising tone	Friendly or enthusiastic greeting.
Pain/ Fear/Alarm	Ouch! /Watch out!	Sudden, sharp tone	Reaction to pain or a warning of danger.

Example:

- a. *Watch out!*
- b. *What a powerful ending to the novel!*
- c. *The object accelerated so quickly!*

- d. *The cell division was perfectly visible under the microscope!*
- e. *Look at that reaction—it is producing gas rapidly!*

9.4.2 Pausing and separating punctuation

A. Comma (,)

What is a comma mark (,) used for and when to use it?

Comma is a punctuation mark (,) functions as a grammatical tool used to structure sentences by separating elements such as words, clauses, or phrases for preventing misreading. It helps to clarify meaning, prevent ambiguity, and guide proper reading flow. In addition, according to Cambridge Dictionary, a comma (,) is the symbol, used in writing to separate parts of sentences showing a slight pause, or to separate the single things in a list.

Example:

- a. *She bought apples, oranges, and bananas.*
- b. *I enjoy reading novels, poems, and short stories.*
- c. *Electromagnetic waves, such as light and radio waves, travel through space.*
- d. *Photosynthesis, a process used by plants and other organisms, converts light energy into chemical energy.*
- e. *Water is made of hydrogen, oxygen, and energy bonds.*

B. Colon (:)

What is a colon mark (:) used for and when to use it?

A colon is a punctuation mark consisting of two vertically aligned dots (:). It's used to introduce a list, explanations, elaboration, quotes, and to clarify or emphasize

a preceding statement. Essentially, a colon signals that what follows is directly related to what precedes it.

Example:

- a. *He brought three items: a notebook, a pen, and a map.*
- b. *The student analyzed three literary elements: theme, character, and setting.*
- c. *The experiment measured three physical quantities: mass, velocity, and time.*
- d. *The biologist studied three cell parts: the nucleus, the membrane, and the cytoplasm.*
- e. *The reaction required three chemicals: hydrochloric acid, sodium hydroxide, and water.*

Table 9.3 provides detailed examples of colon (:) usage.

Table 9.3. Detailed Examples of Colon (:) Usage

Function	Description	Example
Introducing a List	A colon follows a complete sentence to present a list. Avoid using it after "such as" or "for example."	<i>I need the following ingredients: flour, sugar, and eggs.</i>
Emphasizing a Point	When the second part of the sentence expands or highlights the first part, use a colon to stress the point.	<i>He had one passion: photography.</i>
Introducing Quotations	Use a colon when a full sentence introduces a direct quotation.	<i>She declared to the group: "The project deadline is next Friday."</i>
Titles and Subtitles	A colon is placed between a book or	<i>Thinking Fast and Slow: Exploring</i>

Function	Description	Example
	article title and its subtitle.	<i>Human Cognition</i>
Extended Quotations	In formal or academic writing, a colon introduces block quotes that are long or particularly important.	<i>The author explained the method: (followed by an indented block quote)</i>
Dialogue in Plays	In scripts or playwriting, a colon separates the speaker's name from their spoken line.	<i>Maria: "I'll be there in five minutes."</i>

C. Semicolon (;)

What is a semicolon mark (;) used for and when to use it?

The symbol (;) used in writing between two parts of a sentence, usually when each of the two parts could form grammatical sentences on their own. A semicolon can also separate the things in a list (Dictionary, 2025a). Semicolons link closely related independent clauses or separate items in a complex list.

Example:

- She loves reading; however, she rarely has time for it.*
- Shakespeare's plays are timeless; they explore human nature in all its complexity.*
- The object gained velocity; its acceleration increased steadily over time.*
- Mitosis results in two identical cells; each contains the same genetic material as the parent.*

- e. *The solution changed color; this indicated a chemical reaction had occurred.*

Table 9.4 give you the usage of semicolon (;).

Table 9.4. The Usage of Semicolon (;)

Rule	Usage	Example
Link related full sentences	No conjunction used	<i>She was tired; she went home.</i>
Separate complex list items	Items contain commas	<i>I met John, the doctor; Lisa, the artist; and Ray, the teacher.</i>
Before transitional phrases	Like however, for example	<i>He didn't win; however, he did improve.</i>

9.4.3 Quotation and speech punctuation

A. Quotation Marks (" ")

What is quotation mark (" ") used for and when to use it?

Quotation marks (" ") are punctuation marks used to show that **words are taken exactly as they were spoken or written**, cited, emphasized, or to highlight specific text. They are used in writing to indicate **speech, quotations, titles, or special usage of words**. Table 9.5 explains when and how to use quotation marks (" "), along with examples.

Table 9. 5. When and How to Use Quotation Marks (" ")

Usage	When to Use	How to Use	Example
Direct Speech / Quotation	When quoting someone's exact words	Place quotation marks around the exact words spoken or written	She said, "I love reading novels."
Quoting Text or Dialogue	When writing dialogue in stories or quoting from a book, speech, etc.	Begin and end the spoken words with quotation marks	"Where are you going?" asked John.
Titles of Short Works	When referring to short works like poems, short stories, essays, or articles	Enclose the title in quotation marks	I read the poem "The Road Not Taken" in class.
Words Used as Words	When highlighting a word being discussed	Put quotation marks around the word being mentioned	What does "empathy" mean in this context?
Irony or Sarcasm	When showing a word is being used	Use quotation marks to imply the	He is very "generous"—he never shares

Usage	When to Use	How to Use	Example
	ironically or unusually	word is not being used literally	anything.
Quoting Within a Quote	When there is a quote inside another quote	Use single quotation marks (' ') for the inner quote inside the double (" ")	Sarah said, "I heard him shout, 'Stop that!'"

Furthermore, in the context of different academic subjects, quotation marks are often used to directly quote a source, highlight terminology, or show spoken dialogue.

Example:

- a. *The teacher said, "Shakespeare's use of metaphor in Hamlet deepens the theme of internal conflict."*
- b. *According to Newton's first law, "an object in motion will remain in motion unless acted upon by an external force."*
- c. *The textbook states, "Mitochondria are the powerhouses of the cell."*
- d. *The scientist explained, "When hydrochloric acid reacts with zinc, hydrogen gas is released."*
- e. *Maria said, "I love learning English."*

Remember:

- 1) In **American English**, commas and periods go **inside** the quotation marks.
Example: *She said, "I'm happy."*
- 2) In **British English**, they may go **outside**, unless part of the quote.
Example: *She said, "I'm happy".*

B. Single quotation marks (' ')

What is single quotation mark (' ') used for and when to use it?

Single quotation marks—also known as inverted commas or quote marks—are the punctuation symbols (' ') that used to serve as a secondary layer to double quotation marks in nested quotations or in specific style conventions (Ellis, 2023).

Example:

- a. *She said, "I heard him shout, 'Watch out!' just before the accident."*
- b. *The critic wrote, "In her essay, Woolf states, 'Literature is strewn with the wreckage of men who have minded beyond reason the opinions of others.'"*
- c. *The professor explained, "Einstein once noted, 'Imagination is more important than knowledge,' which inspired many physicists."*
- d. *The textbook states, "Darwin wrote in his journal, 'The mystery of mysteries is the origin of species.'"*
- e. *The article noted, "The chemist concluded, 'This reaction confirms our hypothesis about the compound's stability.'"*

9.4.4 Linking and connecting punctuation

A. Hyphen (-)

What is hyphen mark (-) used for and when to use it?

A hyphen mark (-) is a punctuation symbol, used to **connect words or parts of words** to form a single meaning unit or to split syllables, especially at line breaks (Caulfield, 2023).

Example:

- a. *We are playing catch-up with our competitors.*
- b. *She wrote a nineteenth-century literary analysis on Romantic poetry.*
- c. *This experiment measured high-energy photon collisions.*
- d. *The lab focused on DNA-based evolutionary studies.*
- e. *The team analyzed a carbon-hydrogen bond in the molecule.*

On the other hand, Hewitt (2025) said that a hyphen (-) is a punctuation mark that is used to connect words (or parts of words) that function together in a sentence or phrase (e.g., *old-fashioned*, *10-year-old*, *break-in*) (Hewitt, 2025).

9.4.5 Parenthetical and enclosing punctuation

A. Parentheses ()

What is a parentheses mark () used for and when to use it?

Parentheses are always used in pairs in proper grammar. According to Mcleod (2024), parentheses (singular: parenthesis) are round brackets used to enclose supplementary information—details that enhance meaning but are not essential to the sentence's core message. If you can remove what is inside the parentheses and still have a grammatically correct, coherent sentence, you are using them properly (McLeod, 2024a).

Example:

- a. *Michael Smith (1922 – 2008) created his family business from the ground up to make it the successful storefront it is today.*
- b. *The poem uses enjambment (a continuation of a sentence without a pause) to create rhythm.*
- c. *The experiment confirmed Einstein's prediction ($E = mc^2$) with remarkable accuracy.*

- d. *Photosynthesis (the process by which plants make food) occurs in the chloroplasts.*
- e. *Sodium chloride (NaCl) is commonly known as table salt.*

B. Square Brackets ([])

What is a square brackets mark ([]) used for and when to use it?

The square brackets mark ([]) are sometimes called *box brackets* or *angular punctuation marks*, used to make quoted text clearer by showing insertions by the current author. The text in the square brackets can clarify by adding an explanation or by replacing some the original text.

According to McLeod (2024) square brackets used in pairs to alter or add information to quoted material and help offset information from the rest of a sentence in order to add information or detail (McLeod, 2024b).

Example:

- a. *He said, "[laughs] That is unbelievable!"*
- b. *In the novel, the narrator says, "He [the protagonist] could not bear the truth any longer."*
- c. *"Einstein's theory [of relativity] transformed modern physics," said the professor.*
- d. *The study concludes, "The cells [red blood cells] transport oxygen throughout the body."*
- e. *The manual noted, "NaCl [sodium chloride] is commonly used in laboratory experiments."*

C. Curly Braces ({ })

What is a curly braces mark ({ }) used for and when to use it?

Braces mark ({ }) frequently employed and mostly specialized symbols used in math, computing, and music, and only occasionally in standard prose for specific purposes. According to Cambridge English Dictionary, a curly bracket (or "curly brace") refers to the { or } symbol that encloses lists of words, numbers, or other elements (Cambridge Dictionary, 2025b).

Example:

- a. *The teacher said: "Choose one topic from the following {History, Science, Literature}."*
- b. *The editor grouped the chapters as: {introduction, analysis, conclusion}.*
- c. *The physicist defined states of matter as {solid, liquid, gas, plasma}.*
- d. *The habitat types studied were: {forest, desert, wetland} ecosystems.*
- e. *The reaction pathways were summarized as: Reaction = {oxidation, reduction, neutralization}.*

D. Angle Brackets (< >)

What are angle brackets (< >) used for and when to use it?

The symbol of angle brackets (< >) mostly understood as less-than sign (<) and greater-than sign (>). According to Cambridge English Dictionary, the symbol (< >), found on a computer keyboard and used, for example, around tags (= codes for marking particular types of information) (Cambridge Dictionary, 2025a).

Example:

- a. *In computer prompts, the instruction said: Enter <password> to continue.*
- b. *A markup in digital literature uses tags such as <title>Hamlet</title>.*
- c. *The physicist calculated the inequality: $v < c$, meaning velocity is less than the speed of light.*
- d. *The biologist noted: "The species <Homo sapiens> dominates the ecosystem."*
- e. *A chemical reaction template showed: <Reactants> → <Products>.*

9.4.6 Apostrophes and possession

A. Apostrophe (')

What is an apostrophe mark (') used for and when to use it?

The apostrophe (') is a punctuation mark that is mainly used to show possession or ownership of something or someone (e.g., The girl's parents) , contractions (e.g., *don't* for do not), and plurals (e.g., He received four A's and two B's).

Example:

- a. *Alice's and Bob's assignments.*
- b. *The poet's words couldn't capture the depth of her grief.*
- c. *Newton's laws describe the relationship between force and motion.*
- d. *Darwin's theory of evolution changed biology.*
- e. *Oxygen's role in combustion is essential.*

9.5 The Impact of Incorrect Punctuation

Incorrect punctuation can drastically alter the meaning of a sentence. Consider the difference:

1. "Let's eat, Grandma." (An invitation to dine with Grandma.)
2. "Let's eat Grandma." (A disturbing suggestion!)

Such examples highlight why mastering punctuation is essential for clear communication.

9.6 Tips for Mastering Punctuation

1. **Read aloud:** Hearing your sentences can help identify where pauses or breaks are needed.
2. **Learn the rules:** Familiarize yourself with punctuation guidelines to avoid common errors.
3. **Use tools:** Grammar-checking software can catch mistakes and provide suggestions.
4. **Practice regularly:** Writing frequently allows you to apply and refine your punctuation skills.

9.7 Conclusion

In summary, punctuation is a fundamental aspect of written communication that helps organize ideas, clarify meaning, and guide readers through a text. Each punctuation mark has a specific function—such as separating, connecting, or emphasizing words and sentences—that contributes to the overall flow of writing. By using punctuation correctly, writers can make their messages clearer, more accurate, and easier to understand. More than just a set of technical symbols, punctuation is a powerful tool for expressing meaning, maintaining structure, and improving the effectiveness of language.

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Penulis lahir di kota Singkawang, Provinsi Kalimantan Barat. Setelah lulus SMA Negeri 54 Jakarta pada tahun 1988, penulis melanjutkan Pendidikan di D3 pada Program Studi Bahasa Inggris di Fakultas Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan (FKIP) Universitas Tanjungpura (UNTAN) Pontianak, Kalimantan Barat, lulus pada tahun 1992 dengan gelar Ahli Madya (A.Md) dan melanjutkan pendidikan ke jenjang S1 di perguruan tinggi yang sama dengan gelar Sarjana Pendidikan (S.Pd) tahun 1995. Sejak tahun 1995, penulis mulai bekerja di kota Pontianak dan kembali hijrah dan bekerja di Jakarta pada berbagai instansi dan Perusahaan sejak 1996.

Di dunia Pendidikan, Penulis mulai aktif bekerja pada tahun 2000 – 2006 menjadi tenaga pengajar di *ABC Kids Internasional School, Raffles Hills, Cibubur*. Pada tahun 2006 – 2009 menjabat sebagai *Principal of Playgroup & Kindergarten* di *Fun School Tunas Harapan – Bilingual School* di Cileungsi,

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Penulis pernah menjadi Dosen Pembimbing Lapangan (DPL) pada Program Kampus Mengajar (KM) Angkatan VII pada bulan Januari – Juni 2024 dan Program Kampus Mengajar (KM) Angkatan VIII pada bulan September – Desember 2024 untuk Program dari Direktorat Pembelajaran dan Kemahasiswaan Kementerian Pendidikan, Kebudayaan, Riset, dan Teknologi Republik Indonesia dalam Program Merdeka Belajar Kampus Merdeka (MBKM).

Selain kegiatan mengajar, meneliti, dan mengabdikan tugas lain yang pernah dilaksanakan dan diselesaikan oleh penulis di satuan kerja adalah sebagai Kepala UPT Bahasa Politala dan sekarang berubah namanya menjadi UPA Bahasa Politala mulai tahun 2012 – 2017.

Mulai tahun 2015 – 2023 penulis selalu mendampingi dan menjadi *coach* mahasiswa untuk mengikuti kompetisi di *National Polytechnic English Olympics* (NPEO), yaitu kompetisi khusus bagi mahasiswa Politeknik seluruh Indonesia. Di NPEO ini penulis juga menjadi salah anggota *adjudicator* untuk bidang *non-debate* seperti *story telling*, namun penulis lebih fokus di kategori *speech*. Selain itu penulis juga sering menjadi *coach* bagi mahasiswa yang akan mengikuti kompetisi dalam Bahasa Inggris baik *speech*, *debate*, *story telling* ataupun *song cover* yang diselenggarakan

oleh instansi maupun perguruan tinggi lain seluruh Indonesia baik secara *online* maupun *offline*. Penulis beberapa kali diundang oleh Dinas Pariwisata untuk menjadi juri bidang bahasa asing dalam pemilihan *Nanang-Galuh Kabupaten Tanah Laut*. Selain itu penulis sering diundang oleh MGMP Bahasa Inggris SMP maupun SMA di Kabupaten Tanah Laut untuk menjadi juri pada kompetisi Bahasa Inggris baik secara *online* maupun *offline* untuk kompetisi *speech, debate, story telling*, dll.