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Application of Rasa Theory in Ravindranath Tagore's *The Waterfall*

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Abstract:

Veer Rasa or Heroic has its roots in the higher kind of people, splendour, enormity, goodness, power, liveliness, and the ability to take action. Attention to detail and a strong desire for success can be seen in this character's demeanour. Strength and endurance are two traits that often indicate a person's potential for heroism. In other words, when faced with danger or peril, one is firm and does not budge. A strong sense of persistence supports this firmness. The dynamic energy or the spirit of veer is what keeps them both going. The traits of firmness and patience are sustained by a positive outlook and energy. The focus of this paper is on the play's intensity and heroism. When an engineer named Bibhuti offers to build a dam on the river, the King of Uttarkut accepts. Thus, the villagers' livelihoods are impacted: their fishing, farming, and community activities are all disrupted by the disaster. Baba Dhananjay begins a non-violent revolt at this critical juncture. The public's movement grows stronger and more rebellious over time. Abhijit, the king's son, also succeeds in bursting the dam by sacrificing himself. The Muktadhara River has been restored to its natural state. This paper also discusses issues related to the human-machine conflict.

 Key Words: Waterfall, freedom, veer rasa, strength, energy, firmness

Introduction:

Sthayi bhavas and persistent mental states that lead to the lovely artistic experience of Rasa are articulated in Bharata's massive treatise on theatre art, Natyashastra, by the great Indian dramatist Bharata. Shringar, Veer, Karuna, Bhayanaka, Bibhatsa, Raudra, Hasya, and Adbhuta are some of the eight Rasas he created for the purpose of expressing his feelings on stage. "Bharata has been regarded as the first systematic writer on poetics," says Barlingay (55). "Veer rasa" means "liveliness and energy" in Hindi. Utsaha, or dynamic energy, is the sthayi bhava of heroism or veer rasa. The courage, mastery, pride, and tenacity of Veer Rasa can be discerned from these feelings. To be Rasa is to have the firm resolve and a steady mind. As the deity of veer rasa, Lord Indra is revered. Veer rasa is related to a reddish hue. An eager, determined, and unstoppable nature manifests itself in Veer Rasa. It's delivered through exhilarating verbal and physical displays of bravery and self-assurance. The eyes and nose of Veer Rasa may be opened and expanded to enact many facial expressions. It encompasses both the strength of the body and the strength of character. The following paragraphs describe Veer Rasa's traits.

Firmness, patience, heroism, pride, dynamic energy (Utsaha), bravery, might, and deep emotions are all necessary components of Virarasa. When it comes to (Masson and Patwardhan 54),

Tagore's masterpiece, Mukta-Dhara, is set in the fictitious village of Uttarakut. As the play's title suggests, Muktadhara, or the Mountain Spring, is located in Uttarakut and supplies water to the nearby Shiv-Tarai Valley. Ranajit, the despotic monarch of Uttarakut, is in charge. Ranajit's heir to the throne, Prince Abhijit of Uttarakut, is not his son. King Ranajit adopted Abhijit when he has discovered abandoned by his mother beneath the Mukta-Dhara Falls. Despite having his own son named Sanjaya, the king designated Abhijit the next heir because of recommendations from his guru's guru concerning the infant, as there were traces of imperial destiny on his body. The waters of Mukta-Dhara become as dear to Abhijit as if they were his mother after he discovers that he was found as a youngster.

Shiv-commoners Tarai's are arrested in honour of Uttarakut's ruler. King Ranajit chooses to take control of their financial well-being by building a massive dam to keep the waters of Mukta-Dhara from flowing into the Shiv-Tarai valley. When the concept of a dam was

brought up, the inhabitants of Shiv-Tarai were excited because they assumed they would receive the job. They only realised their error after the dam was finished and the mountain's water supply was cut off. Prince Abhijit, on the other hand, is moved by his empathy for the people of Shiv-Tarai and rebukes Bibhuti for his insensitive acquisition. In the end, he succeeds in breaking the dam despite the cost of his own life. As Muktadhara was eventually freed from her shackles, he was also freed.

- The Causes of Veer Rasa:

According to the Natyashastra, correct vision, decisiveness, political wisdom, courtesy, an army (Bala), and eminence are the causes or vibhavas of Veer rasa (prabhava). Positive action originates from a clear head of perception. Even in the face of adversity, if it is not present, one may behave hastily. To put it another way, only accurate information can serve as the basis for effective action. Yuvaraj In designing his policy towards Shiv-Tarai, Abhijit considered the views of the people. He went out of his way to get to know them and their issues. In spite of the King's disapproval, Yuvaraj did not listen to him and continued on with his plans. The people of Shiv-Tarai are saved from starvation, but the rulers and people of Uttarakut are saved from perdition as well, thanks to Abhijit's developing awareness of his life's purpose.

Naya has been referred to as political acumen. The word also connotes goodness and fairness. Dhananjaya, an ascetic, is the final important character in the play. In order to help the downtrodden people of Shiv-Tarai, he is willing to go to any lengths. Shiv Tarai's people are enraged by the oppression of King Ranajit because of Dhananjaya's efforts. However, he uses political acumen to wage a non-violent and non-hostile war.

But humility, also known as Vinaya, is an attendant state of the Veer Rasa, which is characterised by inner traits such as bravery and courage. The humility of a person who devotes his life to helping others is evident. The monarch of Uttarakut's true son is Prince Sanjaya. Despite being the natural son of Ranajit, he lacks the royal temperament. He embodies the ideal hero, embodying the noble qualities of selflessness and self-sacrifice. That someone other than him has been named Uttarakut's Yuvaraj instead of him causes him no jealously but instead, he expresses respect and admiration.

Army and power are two different meanings for the word Bala. The word "shakti" can refer to a variety of things, including combat skills and strength. They inspire one to take action in the face of adversity, giving one a sense of self-confidence. People in Shiv-Tarai are ecstatic about the new machine because they believe it means that the people of Shiv-Tarai will always be at their beck and call. Abhijit is driven to utilise all of his bala to release Mukta-dhara from the bonds of the dam built by Ranajit and Bibhuti because he has an instinctive attachment to both Mukta-dhara and the people of Shiv-tarai.

Abhijit as Daya Veer:

The phrase "Daya Veer" refers to someone who has a heart for the underprivileged and the needy, regardless of their race or religion. The drama depicts Tagore's disdain for race-consciousness and prejudice.

In his role as governor of Shiv-Tarai in support of Ranajit, Abhijit has developed a deep sense of empathy for the people. For the advantage of the general public, he earlier unlocked the Nandi pass road. The Nandi – pass road remained impassable for nearly three generations as a result of orders from Uttarakut's former rulers. A royal guard commander asks Yuvaraja Abhijit, "Why did you open the Nandi Pass road?" because people don't accept his act of generosity, but rather believe that it's a ruse to get control of their king's throne. Abhijit's response identifies him as Daya Veer.

> UDDHAV. Why did you open the Nandi Pass road, Yuvaraja?
>
> ABHIJIT. To save the people of Shiv- tarai from continual famine.
>
> UDDHAV. But the Maharaja has a kind heart, he is ready to help them.
>
> ABHIJIT. When the right hand is niggardly enough to close the road against them, men cannot be saved by the bounty of the left. So, I have opened a road by which food may freely come and go. I cannot bear to see the poverty that depends on charity. (Sykes 30)

Abhijit as Pratigya Veer:

The phrase Pratigya Veer is used to describe someone who is determined to carry out his vows, no matter the cost. Viral infections are often triggered by "arrogance," "injustice," or "challenge," according to Priyadarshi Patnaik in her book. (164) In the grand scheme of

things, his responsibility is more important than anything else. To society and to himself, the hero is aware of his duties and obligations. The hero's vow is fiery and difficult to keep.

The villagers of Uttarakut are furious because Abhijit has opened the Nandi-pass road. They intend to take him into custody as punishment. So Ranajit orders that Yuvaraja be imprisoned in order to prevent a mob attack. He escaped from his prison camp after it was set on fire and met Maharaja Visvajit of Mohangarh, the Mohangarh Maharaja. Visvajit hoped to keep Yuvaraja safe from the king by placing him under his own care. Abhijit is referred to as Pratigya Veer in their discourse.

> VISVAJIT. I have come to take you, prisoner. You must go to Mohangarh.
>
> ABHIJIT. Nothing can imprison me today- neither anger nor affection. You think it was you who set the tent on fire? No, it would have caught fire in any case somehow or other. I have no leisure for captivity today.
>
> VISVAJIT. Why, brother, what have you to do?
>
> ABHIJIT. I must pay my debt, the debt of my birth. Mukta- dhara was my nurse. I must set her free. (Sykes 53)
>
> Abhijit - the Real hero or Yudha Veer:

The phrase Yudha Veer is associated with the daring, strong, and fearless characteristics of a person's personality. The clash between the machine and the human spirit is strongly depicted in the play. A machine is being used to assemble the dam, which the oppressive king and his allies are in favour of. Abhijit and the inhabitants of Shiv-tarai embody the independence of the human spirit. Nature, on the other hand, is a strong supporter of the human soul.

In a tragic conclusion, the Crown Prince Abhijit is killed while fighting against an evil entity with no regard for his own life. His steady movements carried him through the darkness of the night towards the Mukta-Dhara dam, where he launched a series of blows at the structure's weak place. He was injured when the damming equipment retaliated against him. When the imprisoned waters were allowed to flow freely through the breach, they did so at such a rapid pace that it became difficult for the Yuvaraja to escape. His wounded body was snatched and carried away by the furious and copious rush of the imprisoned waters as if his liberate mother had taken him up and carried him on the bosom of the wailing waves. This

demonstrates a true act of heroism. Sanjaya and his father, Ranajit, are discussing his independence.

> SANJAYA. The Waters of Mukta-dhara have borne him away. We have lost him.
>
> RANAJIT.   What are you saying, Prince?
>
> SANJAYA. The Yuvaraja has broken the bonds of Mukta-dhara.
>
> RANAJIT.   And in her freedom, he has found his own! (Sykes 71)

People of 'Shiv-tarai' revere Abhijit because of the sacrifice he made for his people and his love for Muktadhara. This is an example of true heroism. Social problems, tyranny, and the deprivation of the common people are well-documented in Mukta-dhara.

Conclusion

An uprising against greedy rulers and machines is Tagore's key to human liberty. People become more aware of their current situation and more concerned about the future as a result of the love and care shown by the heroes. On the issue of rights, they are inclined against the rulers. Other people are moved by human ideals and liberation, much like the protagonists. The protagonist leads a populace uprising against this. Tagore uses the idea of freedom to condemn limited bounds, dominated by narrow-minded ambition and avarice, in his work. Muktadhara or The Waterfall, Tagore's play on the theme of freedom and heroism, reveals several parts of this larger subject. Abhijit's heroic act, on the other hand, demonstrates the veer rasa, or heroism.

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2

The Rise of Writing Redefining Mass Literacy by Deborah Brandt: A Book Review

Asha Bavarava

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Deborah Brandt delves deeply into the act and purpose of writing in her book The rise of writing - reinventing mass literacy, which was published in 2015. She investigates what it is that individuals do with writing, how they come into contact with writing, and how they relate to writing in general. Written communication takes centre stage, with the reading component of literacy relegated to the background, and she provides numerous instances to demonstrate how writing has become an increasingly significant aspect of most people's lives. The novel is set in the United States and discusses the results of a massive research study that Brandt conducted over the course of a decade. When Brandt begins her book, she takes the reader on a journey through the history of American literacy, explaining how the emphasis has always been on reading and how literacy has been linked to the development of democracy and freedom of expression. Reading, rather than writing, has always been associated with high morals and intellectuality, whereas writing has traditionally been associated with a challenge to the established social order. The author also examines how both economics and technological advancements have increased the expectations placed on written communication, such as through the production of legal papers, agreements, and social communication purposes. When we look at it from a European or Swedish perspective, we can see the progress in literacy that she has described. Throughout history, there has been a significant emphasis on reading, and for a long time, writing has been left to the aesthetics of copying with beautiful handwriting. Similar developments to those mentioned by Brandt have occurred over the previous few decades. We can see how writing has become a vital talent for job and education and enjoyment throughout the last few decades.

Themes and topics covered:

In the introduction, Brandt describes her study as well as her research method, which is based on a realist perspective, narrative inquiry, and grounded theory, among other principles. "Explore how writing's differences from reading might be pulling mass literacy in new directions," she writes on page 7, after interviewing ninety people in the United States, to "see [...] whether people might consider writing a site for the same kinds of moral and intellectual growth that is habitually attributed to reading" (page 7). (p. 7). All of the participants have a strong connection to writing, whether it is as a part of their professional or personal lives or as a part of their leisure interests. sixty people who write at their place of employment and thirty youths who write as a creative or political act are among those who took part in the project. In the four chapters that follow, she gives her study of various sub-sections of the source material. However, rather than focusing on individual experiences, she sees her informants as witnesses to socio-historical transformation (p. 8), which brings to life an interesting historical and contemporary perspective on the importance of writing.

Brandt covers the status of writing (Chapter 1) and writing for the state (Chapter 2) in the first two chapters of his book (Chapter 2). This chapter focuses on writing for a living and how it affects the texts that are created, the writers, and their sense of personal authorship. In her writing, she demonstrates how workplace values, norms, and ethics not only shape the writing that occurs in the office, but also influence the expression of employers through writing that occurs outside of the workplace. When working for private companies or the government, writers must adapt to the material they are assigned to produce. They may even be challenged on material they publish informally on social media or in their personal blogs. Throughout the book, Brandt explores the depths of literacy and democracy, as well as the problematic nature of writing and writers' roles.

In Chapter 3, "Occupation – Author: Writing Precedes Reading in the Literacy Development of Contemporary Youth," Brandt first discusses the historical origins and current conditions of mass writing and mass reading, before focusing on the differences between the two. Writing has been and continues to be viewed as a secondary and auxiliary activity to reading in American society and education. Additionally, other sponsors have provided support for

both writing and reading. Mass reading has been promoted by the church and the state, while artisanship and commerce have aided in the development of writing abilities. As Brandt argues, the balance between reading and writing in contemporary American society has evolved in such a way that writing has surpassed reading in terms of importance. Brandt conducted interviews with 30 young individuals aged 15 to 25 who prefer writing over reading and who write on a regular basis outside of school in order to better understand the features of a writing-based literacy. After doing an in-depth interview analysis, Brandt looked for "any trends that were related to the sponsored heritage of mass writing" (p. 95). She was specifically looking for interview accounts relating to "craft, commerce, and publication" in this section (p. 95). Writer Brandt defines writing as "the common-sense notion of generating and inscribing words" (p. 92), leaving out of the analysis any transitory or conversational writing, such as texting on a mobile phone. The creative writing of the participants is the main focus of the workshop.

Brandt displays and analyses the experiences of the young authors by drawing on a plethora of examples from the interviews (the vivid interview stories actually motivate readers of her book to write themselves!). In her interviews with teenage authors, Brandt discovers that they share a shared perspective on literacy, which she refers to as "writing above reading." A strong preference for writing over reading emerged among the participants, for a variety of reasons, to begin with. Their writings express their desire to become professional writers, as well as their scepticism about their ability to achieve this aim in the short term. "Stepping into the public position of the writer, employing vocational props, and engaging the apparatus of publication," writes Brandt, is what is most beneficial to the literacy development of these young writers, rather than simply text creation in the traditional sense (p. 114). Second, Brandt employs the phrase "pursued their orientations to writing" (p. 96) in the analysis of how participants "pursued their orientations to writing" (p. 96) in circumstances in which they were being built as readers in the study. Such events have been experienced by the participants in a variety of contexts, including school, home, and in their interactions with their peers. Writing over reading is a tactic that participants employed to detach themselves from the position of the reader, and Brandt investigates this further in her third research study (see below). As a result, while reading a text written by someone else, they would refrain

from engaging in reading-related behaviours such as comprehension and critique. Instead, they would begin to plot out their own pieces of writing.

Brandt challenges the common concept of reading as an experience that defines literacy by presenting a theory of literacy that begins with the act of writing as the beginning point for knowledge. She raises the hypothesis that reading may not be absolutely necessary for the development of writing skills in the first place. In the interviews Brandt has conducted with young authors, there are examples of the improvement of reading skills through the act of writing. Furthermore, she asserts that a writing-based definition of literacy would be consistent with the evolving communicative landscape, in which all individuals are required to write on a daily basis. For people who write, Brandt exposes the potential that writing-based literacy can provide for their own self-improvement as well as their literacy growth. Moreover, she contends that a more in-depth knowledge of writers' experiences is required. Writing, according to Brandt, is not only an internalising experience, but it is also an externalising experience as compared to a literacy that is centred on reading. Putting one's views on paper and allowing others to see them might result in negative experiences such as "misattribution, parody, estrangement, libel charges, self-exposure, and the necessity for a pseudonym," according to the author (p. 133). However, in instructional settings, such ramifications of writing are rarely addressed.

After the first paragraph of chapter 4, when everyone writes, Brandt uses the phrase mentalities, which she aligns with Durkheim's idea social facts. Brandt focuses on "what everyone assumes to be the case, the conditions that people notice and work with as they notice others working with them as well," according to the author. (See p. 137.) Mindsets influence the conduct of individuals as well as the policies and practises of organisations. Each interview in the study was used to create this chapter, which is based on all ninety interviews and focuses on their experiences with mass writing, particularly experiences with writing in environments where other people are also creating work. Writing is scenic, according to the most frequently mentioned social fact in the interview accounts (p. 137). Others are physically present when the participants participate in writing, and the presence of others has an impact on the participants' perceptions of themselves as writers, according to the findings. However, in order to complete their task successfully, they need understanding

of other people's writing. Particularly important in the relationships between subordinates and their superiors was the ability to read and understand the writing of others. In addition, there is a portion in this chapter that looks into prejudices that are associated with writing. According to Brandt's findings, the stereotypes that are most prevalent among the participants in her study are those that are based on generational traits. The younger generation is perceived to be less literate than the older age, according to the survey participants.

Finally, Brandt outlines the writing careers of two participants, each of whom experienced a different influence as a result of the shifting mentalities around mass writing. On the one hand, there had an information technology entrepreneur whose "foresight, ideas, and job security were repeatedly surpassed" (p. 149) as people's habits of writing and interacting altered and web-based writing matured into widespread practises. The other participant was an elder care manager who shared her experiences from working in a field where these new writing practises had helped to strengthen and consolidate the writing environment in which she had to work. She described how these new writing practises had helped to strengthen and consolidate the writing environment in which she had to work.

Thoughts on the subject

Brandt draws attention to the distinctions, contrasts, and rivalry that exist between reading and writing in her work. In this regard, her perspective contrasts from the dominant perspective in the social practise paradigm, which places greater emphasis on the linkages, overlap, and interdependence between reading and writing in people's lives rather than on the differences between the two. She does, however, acknowledge that reading and writing are interwoven in the process of becoming literate. And as the reader becomes more familiar with her ideas, it becomes clear that her emphasis on differences and contrasts is a crucial step for her to take in order to shed light on writing, or, in her own words, to "bring writing out of the shadow of reading" as she puts it (p. 92). It is understandable and important that she concentrates her efforts on the differences and rivalries between reading and writing rather than on the linkages in this endeavour.

Brandt's book is written in the setting of the United States. As a result, the study's points of departure are the cultural history of the United States and the society of the United States. In her work, she emphasises the historical nature of literacy, and as a result, it is vital to position

it in the context of the place and period where the research is taking place. Nevertheless, because the authors of this study are based in a European and a Swedish context, it is also interesting for us to explore the distinctions and similarities between how mass literacy has developed and how it operates today in the European and Swedish contexts described by Brandt. Many commonalities, as well as some distinctions, can be found in the context of the Swedish language and literature. A desirable next step after reading The Rise of Writing would be to adopt a worldwide perspective on mass literacy, examining comparisons between the development and current condition for mass writing and mass reading in different regions of the world.

The chapters in Brandt's book cover a variety of interesting perspectives on writing and writers, and it raises a slew of interesting questions about both. What exactly is writing? What exactly is a writer? When it comes to writing, how much freedom does the writer have to start from their own interests and wants, and how much power does s/he have over the writing process because of dominating societal institutions such as economic interests, hierarchies, and legislation? When everyone is writing, who will be the one to read? How will those who have no or limited access to written literacy be influenced by the fact that they are living in a society that values deep writing? Where does writing go from here, since that technology has improved to the point where it is possible to communicate orally through sound as well as film, and private and public organisations are beginning to "support" oracy alongside (or in place of) literacy? It is undeniable that The Rise of Writing encourages further investigation into the field of writing.

3

Writing for Professional Development: A Book Review

Dr. Viral Shukla

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Abstract:

Professionals from a variety of fields, ranging from nursing to engineering, write on the job to communicate effectively in their respective fields. Writing to Learn the Profession and Learning to Write Professionally are two key approaches that are brought into conversation in this book. With an audience that includes vocational education teachers, teacher trainers across the disciplines, professional training programmes, and authors of pre-professional curricula, the book's subtitle, "Creating a professional identity at work through reflective writing," could have been a good fit. As part of the latest volume in their Studies in Writing series, Ortoleva, Bétrancourt, and Billett bring together an international group of scholars to examine the writing skills and rhetorical sensitivities that students need to develop as they progress through the stages of their professional development. With a particular emphasis on vocational education courses in fields ranging from midwifery to baking, this book provides one of the first comprehensive examinations of what students require, what employers expect, and how teachers are attempting to assist students in better realising their professional aspirations through writing.

Keywords: Professional Development, Writing, Skills

Overview:

Through reflective writing, you can develop your professional identity. There are 18 chapters in this edited compilation, as well as a bibliography. The document is divided into three sections. This section discusses the theories and concepts that are pertinent to writing for professional growth in the first place. Section two discusses how writing can be utilised to assist students in learning the subject matter, rhetorical manoeuvres, language, and register of their chosen profession, as well as the rhetorical manoeuvres, language, and register of their chosen profession. Section three examines how writing can be used to assist students in developing lifelong learning strategies, as well as how writing about work can help students grow their professional knowledge.

They investigate how discipline-specific writing might aid students in the development of practical, conceptual, and procedural knowledge about their area in the first portion of their book. The central subject of this section is that writing can be a useful medium for on-the-job learning in a variety of situations.

Students will learn about the importance of reflective writing, collaborative writing, peer feedback, journal writing, and computer-supported instruction in preparing them for writing at work and learning at work in the second portion of this chapter. It is emphasised by the contributors that, in order for students to benefit from writing for professional development, educators must carefully create and organise appropriate writing experiences for them experiences that are founded in the specific genres of their field of study (e.g., patient treatment reports for physical therapy clinicians and scientific-technical reports for engineers). Additionally, they should have opportunities to gain hands-on experience that will assist them in learning on the job (e.g., mobile learning journals for pastry chefs, reflective journal writing for midwives, videos of themselves- in-action for physical therapists, videos of worked-out case studies for business managers). According to the authors, teachers must be strategic in their assistance and advice to students so that they understand what suitable writing goals to set for themselves.

The final segment investigates how writing on the job might aid in the development of students' disciplinary competence as well as the development of their professional identities. Contributors remind us that if writing is to be used to promote professional development and

growth on the job, researchers will need a more detailed understanding of the diverse workplaces into which students may be placed and the development of situated pedagogies that are responsive to the specific needs of those workplaces, according to the authors. Because little is known about the literacy requirements of various industries, it is difficult to create a course toward expertise.

Highlights from the chapter include: The point of view of a reader

A study by Billett, "Learning via Writing: Mimetic Processes in Action," examines the importance of observation, imitation, introspection, and rehearsal in the process of learning to write on the job, which he refers to as mimetic processes. He asserts that emulating the work of other writers can alter one's own writing and that mimesis entails taking another author's perspective, estimating his or her intentions, and producing representations of the author's goals. Students learn best via writing, he says, and teachers and mentors must scaffold experience in ways that allow students to learn through writing, particularly by experimenting with diverse genres, alone or in groups. Billet makes the important point that direct teaching and mentorship are crucial, but insufficient, in the classroom. Additionally, students must build their personal noticing skills, which will enable them to pay attention to the proper things at work and to generate new information for themselves while on the job, among other things.

In "Transforming Practice through Reflective Writing: A Discursive Approach," Vanhulle, Vité, Balslev, and Dobrowolska examine reflective portfolios created by primary and secondary school teachers in Switzerland as they created narratives about circumstances they faced while at work. They use discourse analysis to evaluate the language of teacher candidates who were developing their professional identities throughout their apprenticeships, which they conducted during the course of their research. Nejad's "Writing as a Body-Mind Performance Learning Activity for Educational Development of Wholetheme Professional Artistry," explores biofunctional science and its relationship to learning in the context of education. A model of biofunctional understanding is presented, and it is possible that this model will have ramifications for theorising incubation. Er goes on to argue that embodied cognition may be used to guide authors in professional situations, and he highlights the importance of writers practising mind-body performance. It is via the case

study of pre-service teachers who used open-ended writing prompts to critically reflect on their methods that he elucidates his views. Pereira, Pereira, and Cardoso argue in "Writing to Learn from Experience: Unguided Reflection as Meaning Making Practices for Instructors" that unguided reflective writing can serve as an effective scaffold for novice teachers participating in in-service programmes. In their research, they discovered that writing was an effective method for assisting new primary and secondary teachers of Portuguese (as well as other languages) to learn from their practises and experiences in the classroom.

Writing Reflective Learning Journals: Promoting the Use of Learning Strategies and Supporting the Development of Professional Skills" is a study conducted by Mauroux and colleagues (ages 15 to 19) in Switzerland with apprentice bakers, pastry cooks, and chefs who were encouraged to complete mobile and online learning journal as a complement to a personal recipe book throughout their training. They found that the journal helped them learn more about themselves and their work. It was discovered that writing in their online learning journal elicited apprentices' reflective capacities (e.g., "When shaping dough, be careful not to tear it"), and that guided writing prompts (e.g., "in the following recipe, I need to be careful about...") enabled students to make their experiences explicit as well as reconsider their previous and current ideas about each recipe they created. Apprentices' metacognitive awareness increased as a result of their use of reflective journals, particularly as a result of their monitoring and assessing the difficult portions of executing recipes. Students who spent more time reflecting received higher final grades.

Kurunsaari, Tynjälä, and Piirainen investigate the impact of reflective writing on the learning experiences of Finnish physiotherapy students while they are working in clinical settings in their paper "Students' Experiences of Reflective Writing as a Tool for Learning in Physiotherapy Education." They demonstrate that a significant portion of becoming a professional entails documenting one's reasoning as well as tracking the processes utilised in rehabilitation and physical therapy practices. They invited students to reflect on video records of their actions at school and at work, and they received a positive response. They discovered that students' attitudes toward writing varied significantly, ranging from "writing is a pointless task" ("since most of my time on the job will be spent talking rather than writing") to "writing is a tool for professional development" ("it's something I'll have to do as I

progress in my career as a health professional"). They come to the conclusion that teachers need more effective methods of assisting all students in recognising the potential worth of writing in their professional development and development.

A fascinating account of Australian midwifery students and their gradual professional socialisation into the practice of providing care to women during pregnancy, childbirth, and the postnatal period is provided by Glover and Sweet in their paper, "Developing the Language of Midwifery through Continuity of Care Experiences." The authors monitored students over a three-year period and examined how their vocabulary about the area changed over time. They used focus groups and reflective portfolios to gather their information. Students progressed from reporting what they were doing to evaluating their actions as they gained more experience, according to the researchers. With each birth, students progressed from using common language to more specific biological terminology (for example, from saying "her waters have broken" to the more professional "her membranes have ruptured" as they documented it). A key takeaway from this study is that it may take up to three years before teachers notice changes in their students' vocabulary and comprehension of their professional culture, according to the authors. Their argument is that mastering the language of a culture is crucial because it provides dispositional knowledge—that is, knowledge of the values and attitudes, conventions, nuances, and rituals of the field—that is, knowledge of the field's values and attitudes.

A case study of a Swedish audiology degree programme and how reflective writing was used to support students' practical training in working with the hearing of children and adults is presented by Sullivan and Czigler in "Using Writing to Support Student Professional Development During Periods of Practical Training: A Case Study." They asked students to write in accordance with a model of reflection; the purpose was to make the reflection more explicit in the writing process. The reflections of the students were then graded. According to the authors, students felt limited by the paradigm and stressed by the prospect of having their reflections evaluated as part of their audiology degree. The authors come to the conclusion that it is critical to encourage the development of reflective skills in students without making them concerned about the quality of their thoughts.

Cattaneo and Boldrini examined the impact of several writing-to-learn strategies on the written reflections of apprentice business employees enrolled in a Swiss vocational education and training programme in "Individual and Collaborative Writing-to-Learn Activities in Vocational Education: An Overview of Different Instructional Strategies." In this study, they looked at three different teaching scenarios for encouraging students to engage in reflective activities. These scenarios included collaborative writing, scaffolded reflective prompts, and error detection as a means of increasing procedural learning. They put their theories about the three situations to the test in a series of well-designed experiments, and the results were encouraging. The authors discovered that students' collaborative experiences had a tendency to result in increases in their individual reflective writing skills. According to their findings, students who were given highly organised reflective prompts were able to reflect more profoundly on their professional experiences than students who were given less structured reflective prompts. They also discovered that showing students recordings of worked-out examples of improper professional procedures assisted students not only in diagnosing more procedural difficulties than students who viewed correct procedures but also in explaining how and why such errors may have been avoided. Their work demonstrates the importance of self-explanation in the context of professional development learning.

"Computer-Supported Collaborative Writing for Professional Development," written by Ortoleva and Bétrancourt, examines the manner in which computer networks might assist in the development of abilities acquired while working. According to the writers, professional growth can be an alienating experience, and they address the need of receiving social support when participating in learning activities. It is suggested that asynchronous online dialogues (e.g., blogs, e-portfolios, and listservs) can be used to create communities of practice that promote individual professional development. As they co-constructed decisions about their professional lives, they saw and recorded the collaborative talks of teacher education and health-care students in action. They discovered that utilising wikis helped some students feel less alone during their learning, but that others preferred to work alone and were hesitant to utilise wikis in the first place. The level of interaction that took place online proved to be critical. As suggested by the authors, teachers should alternate between moderating structured online discussions that focus on varied responses and moderating structured online talks that result in agreement and consensus. Neumann examines whether students across the European

Union are truly trained on texts that are appropriate to their professional growth in "Professional Text Genres: Writing Standards in Vocational Education." She raises three problems about vocational education in Germany, which are as follows: (Is it true that secondary schools educate kids for writing in their future professions? (2) What types of genres are appropriate for use in the workplace? as well as (3) Do students' competencies at graduation correspond to the expectations of employers? She discovered that schools, particularly those at the Gymnasium level, were doing an excellent job of preparing pupils for college. She noticed that teachers tended to place a greater emphasis on oral communication at the expense of written communication (e.g., talking to customers over the telephone instead of the more frequent task of writing an email). Perhaps not unexpectedly, she discovered a misalignment between what firms sought from students and the abilities that students possessed at the time of their internship. "Learning to Write as a Professional: Engineers and Health Professionals in the United Kingdom and Germany," an article published in the journal "Learning to Write as a Professional," Breuer, Newman, and Newman conducted a study of engineers and health professionals from the United Kingdom and Germany to determine their professional education. Their findings revealed that new writers could learn the professional register of their industry (for example, genre-specific language), but they were unable to recognise the rhetorical manoeuvres of certain genres within their field, according to the authors. They discovered that German schools placed a strong emphasis on term papers, whereas UK schools placed a strong emphasis on essays, proposals, and design briefs. They come to the conclusion that there were too few genres taught, and that little feedback was provided other than end-of-paper marks. Surprisingly, in other situations, when students arrived at the workplace unprepared to write on the job, employers appeared to be unconcerned about their situation. They described a German engineering company that did not want its employees to participate in their study because they feared that participants would come to realise that they required improved communication skills and would then demand training that their supervisors were hesitant to provide. Employers believed that being a competent engineer meant being excellent with statistics rather than being good with language. "Teaching Writing in Australian Vocational Education and Training Contexts: The Need for a New Professional Development Approach and Commitment," written by Kelly, is motivated by survey findings that consistently show

that approximately half of Australian adults need to improve their language, literacy, and numeracy skills, among other things. These poor literacy levels have had a negative influence on the workforce's ability to be productive. As a result, the Australian government provided funding for initiatives aimed at improving the tools available to language and literacy teachers. A review of resources available to writing teachers of engineering students was conducted by the author, who came to the conclusion that they were neither up to date nor reflective of current research. She advises that real workplace texts be integrated with evidence-based recommendations from current research in literacy and functional linguistics in order to create better resources for trainers in order to improve their effectiveness.

According to Woodard's article "Becoming Brave Writers and Writing Teachers: Teachers Recognizing Emotional Dimensions of Writing and Transforming their Classroom Instruction," research on the function of affect and emotions in writing should be conducted more thoroughly. Using case studies of teachers from elementary, middle, and high school classes in New York City, she demonstrates how they participated in writing groups that were designed to inspire instructors to reflect on their own writing and on their students' writing. The author looked into the emotions that the teachers were experiencing while they wrote, shared their writing, and instructed in writing. Writing had a transformative effect on the practises of all three teachers, who were more vulnerable in their classrooms as a result of writing alongside students and revealing their personal writing processes. We must consider how creating an identity as a professional educator, which includes emotions and feelings about what it means to be a writing teacher, is an important part of becoming a writing teacher, the author says in his conclusion.

According to Ray Smith's article "Researcher Professional Development through Writing: A Negotiation Perspective," over an 18-month period, he conducted a case study with 12 employees who were involved in ordinary on-the-job responsibilities. As a researcher, he then concentrated on his own writing process (writing up the case), arguing that writing may be utilised to assist create one's professional identity while also promoting one's personal development. The ways in which being a researcher entailed navigating the personal and professional worlds, setting personal standards for research quality, and expanding

understandings of the scientific criteria by which research is judged are all described in detail by him.

Researchers Badenhorst, Joy, Penney, Pickett, Hesson, Young, McLeod, Vaandering, and Li investigate the importance of reflective practice in assisting rookie academics in navigating the challenges of becoming a professional in "Becoming an Academic: Reflective Writing and Professional Development." The authors looked into how novice faculty developed coping mechanisms as they forged their professional identities at a Canadian institution, which they found to be quite interesting. Over a five-month period, participating faculty members met once a week to participate in a writing group in which they reflected on their experience of "becoming an academic." The writing group, according to the authors, enabled novice faculty to reflect on the shifting boundaries between personal and professional life, work and home life, and novice and expert status. The weekly writing group provided a secure space for professors to hear each other's stories and allowed members to express feelings that are not generally expressed in academic environments.

Grant provides a case study with two South African accounting students who cooperated on a report regarding their university's environmental practices in "Constructing Professional Communication Identity through the Final Client Deliverable: The Multimodal Investigation Report." The author concentrated on the development of students' visual and verbal texts with the goal of understanding their decision-making and semiotic choices as they created the text, tables, and images for the project. It was via the use of discourse analysis that the author was able to closely examine students' final reports, following their textual and graphic movements as well as their evolving sense of professional identity.

Because so few contributors were familiar with the literature on professional writing, information design, and technical communication — all of which are pertinent to the field of writing for professional growth — there is a limitation to the scope of the book's coverage. This body of study may have enhanced authors' ideas regarding writing in the professions— providing richer source materials from which to debate issues such as the ones listed below, for example:

- Genres for professionals (Bhatia, 1993; Boettger, 2014; Freedman & Adam, 1996; Miller, 1984)

- Multimodality, information design, and visual communication are all important concepts in today's world (Carliner, 2000; Malamed, 2009; Schriver, 1997; 2012)

- Perceptions of mistakes made when writing on the job (Gray & Heuser, 2003)

- Developing rhetorical abilities for writing in the workplace (Katz, 1998; Savage & Dragga, 2000)

- Making the transition from school to the job can be difficult (Anson & Forsberg, 1990; Beaufort, 2000)

- Workplace cultures are important (Henry, 2000; Schriver, 2015)

- Unfortunately, there are also issues with editing and design on both a macro and micro scale that must be addressed.

- Problems at the macroeconomic level. However, the three sections of the book (which were briefly mentioned in the introduction) are not indicated in the table of contents of the printed ebook, and this should be corrected. The three portions are not addressed at all on the Brill Online website, which is another disappointment. The flat hierarchy given in the table of contents is deceptive, as it obscures the various emphases intended by the editors as well as the relationships between the various chapters. At the most fundamental level, the reader is unable to distinguish between the end of one part and the beginning of the next.

It is difficult to grasp the big picture because there are no standardised chapter abstracts or overviews to refer to. The writers did create overviews for their chapters, which are available on the Brill Online website, but these have been strangely omitted from the final printed version of their book. Potential book purchasers will not be able to examine a single PDF file including all of the abstracts if they are using the online edition. To access the abstract, one must first navigate to a separate page for each of the 18 chapters and then click on it. These bad information design and user interface decisions result in a painful reading experience for the reader, whether they are reading the paper version or the online version.

Even the release date is inconclusive, with the online version of the book being published in 2015 and the ebook being published in 2016. When other researchers attempt to mention the work as a result of this, the system becomes clogged with needless noise. There is no index of

names. For a book with 382 pages, the subject index is less than two pages long, which is quite short. It's a real shame.

There is no biographical or contact information about the contributors, and readers are encouraged to browse the Internet to learn more about where the authors are from and what they do. These omissions not only detract from the readability of the text, but they also impede readers from becoming acquainted with the authors and their body of work.

Problems at the micro-level. There are numerous errors and spelling issues throughout the text. Some of the mistakes include words that run together, ugly page breaks, unnecessarily long paragraphs, incorrectly written names in references, and line breaks at random in the references.

Inconsistent formatting of tables and graphs is seen throughout the chapter, even within the same section. Some tables are distributed over two pages without a signal that they are to be continued; in fact, the first page of such tables typically has too much blank space at the bottom of the page, which signals the end of the table rather than its middle; and some tables are distributed over two pages without a signal that they are to be continued.

When taken together, these macro-and micro-level issues result in a reading or browsing experience that is less than gratifying. Furthermore, the errors of omission and commission lead one to question how much time and effort was put into editing this book about professional writing in the first place. It is at the authors' peril when academic books overlook the editing and design characteristics of the text; they may end up alienating the very readership that the authors have worked so hard to recruit.

The collection's strongest points

This book contributes to our understanding of the power of written reflection as well as how self-assessment can pave the way for situational learning to take place in the classroom. In my opinion, the variety of cases in this book is pretty interesting, and I believe that readers interested in literacy and writing studies more broadly will find this book to be of interest because it highlights how writing can make a difference in people's professional lives. The book provides strategies for preparing students for the transfer to the world of work, as well

as for further growing their communication skills and discipline knowledge while on the job, as well as for further building their own professional development.

Students can acquire sensitivity to crucial qualities of their profession through reflective writing, which motivates them to pay attention to relevant characteristics of their work and generate new knowledge for themselves while on the job, according to the contributors to this volume. It gives evidence-based explanations of professional development and the ways in which reflection can help to promote purposeful learning in a variety of settings. The book demonstrates how writing can assist students to transform their understanding of respective disciplines through introspection and action, as demonstrated in the examples provided. Additionally, the stories offered in this book demonstrate unequivocally that pupils' knowledge transformation does not occur overnight. The evidence of self-reflection and consolidation of learning may not appear for several years after students have completed their coursework.

Despite its stylistic and information design flaws, I found this book to be enjoyable and thought it deserved to be shared with you. For many years, teachers and scholars have discussed the role that writing can play in enculturating students into their respective disciplines, but much of this discussion has been abstract and lacking in specifics and complexity. This book can assist us in moving beyond generalisations about writing to learn on the job and into a more detailed understanding of some of the specific ways that writing can support professional growth and expertise, as described in the title.

Insights into the pedagogy

When all of the chapters are considered together, a number of important conclusions concerning teaching and learning can be reached. The following observations regarding writing for professional growth are likely to be shared by the contributors to this volume:

The process of learning occurs not only in the formal classroom, but also informally as we interpret our experiences and create knowledge from them. As learners participate in what Schön (1983) referred to as "the marshy trenches of the world of practise," effect and motivation play a crucial role in their development.

There is no single writing prompt that will encourage student thought; rather, the most successful prompts are structured and open-ended rather than close-ended in nature. Open-ended questions, on the other hand, do a better job of prompting thought on problems and actions than closed-ended inquiries. Students may be able to deal more effectively with unknown zones of the swamp if they reflect on their experiences (Schön, 1987).

Students will not reflect on their writing efforts unless they are purposely planned, structured, and spaced, with enough scaffolding and feedback along the way. There is no single sequence of writing tasks that will motivate students to reflect on their actions. Teachers can still play a significant role in encouraging Schön's notion of reflection-in-action, if they choose to do so.

The adoption of professional "insider" language by students serves as an essential indicator of their professional progress. A person's progress in learning a professional language can be seen and quantified scientifically. Discourse analysis and computational linguistics are both excellent methods for tracking the development of a language.

Students may be unable to articulate what they believe to be appropriate aims for their written work (Wallace & Hayes, 1991; Hayes, Flower, Schriver, Stratman, & Carey, 1987). They may see their purpose as only creating error-free material rather than delving into professional concerns or challenges related to their field. It is possible for teachers to intervene at various stages of the writing process to assist students in developing personal goals for their writing. Teachers can also assist students in distinguishing between writing goals for personal growth and writing goals for composing texts on the job.

The ability to write and design in a professional setting, as well as familiarity with common business genres, are expected by employers of students entering the workforce. Teachers can play a significant role in providing students with opportunities to practise business genres and in raising students' awareness of the expectations that employers have for their writing, visual design, and oral communication abilities. Teachers should also gain a better understanding of why certain characteristics of writing are valued more highly by organisations than others (e.g., clarity, concision, and correctness).

When learning to write on the job, it is possible that practising the imitation of professionally written workplace texts may be beneficial. By emulating good examples, students can gain a basic understanding of conventions, style, and grammar. Meanwhile, they must learn to

recognise the features of poorly written texts in their subject; this will enable them to more effectively identify flaws that may creep into their own writing.

Teaching professionals are generally in agreement with the fact that competent professional writing is a complicated cognitive, social, and cultural practise. It is necessary, however, for teachers to have more detailed information about how writing actually occurs in workplace contexts, particularly whether people write alone or together in groups; see, for example, Leijten and Van Waes (2007) and Hayes (2007) for more information (2014).

What this book does well is to bring to light the need for evidence-based explanations of how writing can mediate students' professional development—both personal growth within their chosen sector and growth as a team member while they are on the job. The contributors of this book get off to a great start in laying out tactics and approaches for encouraging and measuring students' personal and professional development.

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4

An Impact Study of Talk Series as an Effective Tool to Learn Language for the Second Language Learners

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Abstract

Education in India has always been a difficult undertaking (Pandit, 2020). Given the enormous range of economic conditions and demographic profiles of learners in India, bringing education to every part of the country has been difficult. The history of Indian education reveals that the majority of learning took place through Chalk and Talk and that students have become accustomed to this method of instruction. However, with the proliferation of the internet and the increasing familiarity of students with social media, this situation is undergoing a shift. The use of blended learning techniques has already been implemented into the teaching pedagogy of a number of educational institutions. In an age where knowledge can be found almost everywhere, the difficulty for instructors is no longer the creation of learning content but rather the ability to present it engagingly to students so that learning objectives are accomplished, and the speed of learning is maintained.

This article aims to investigate the application of TED Talks, an innovative technique of language instruction, in Business Management institutes in Ahmedabad. In addition to being examined as a video repository, this technology is examined for the inventive ways in which teachers have integrated it into their language classrooms without compromising on the personal appeal of the flesh and blood instructor.

Key Words: Language Teaching, Higher education, Blended learning, Challenges, Strategies

1. Introduction

India is a country with a great deal of variety. Because of this diversity, it is difficult to promote education throughout the world. Although several government higher education schemes, such as the Rashtriya Ucchatar Shiksha Abhiyan (RUSA) and the Samagra Siksha Abhiyan (SSA), have been implemented to successfully spread education throughout the country (Archives, 2020), there are still areas of the country that have not been illuminated by educational opportunities. Technology employment has been attempted to close the gap between these two worlds.

2. Rise of the use of Technology in Indian Education

The growth of internet use among Indian teenagers has transformed their daily routines. 44 percent of internet use was done by students in school and college, and 65 percent of their searches were for instructional content, according to the Internet and Mobile Association of India (Kumar, 2011). Covid 19's spread and the subsequent lockdown measures implemented to fight its effects have caused a paradigm shift in education. The new normal is e-learning (Markets, 2020). Online education should be introduced at all educational levels, according to UNESCO. In a study conducted by Fernando, Guzzo, Grifoni, & Tiziana (2020), Digital content has been introduced into the curricula at a number of Indian educational institutes as well. However, there are many obstacles to overcome as well. Many people believe that classroom instruction is the best way to learn. On the other hand, teachers are tasked with finding a middle ground. According to a study conducted in 2010,

3. History of Language Education in India

India has a reputation for being a bilingual nation. The country has a total of 22 recognised languages (www.rajbhasha.gov.in, 2020). This is both a strength and a weakness for the country. Education is difficult to disseminate due to the lack of a standardised platform and, more crucially, a universal language. Despite the fact that many Indians attribute their interest in English language education to the country's colonial heritage, English still does not hold sway as the primary language in India. But why bother learning English if the vast majority of Indians do not speak it? M. Vijayalakshmi provides the correct response to this conundrum. According to her, for an ethnically diverse country like India, English might serve as an essential "link" language. Also widely recognised as an important language for

communication and engagement, English is widely accepted around the world (Vijayalakshmi & Babu, 2014) (Vijayalakshmi & Babu Because of this, it is no surprise that English is the primary language of instruction in India.

4. TED Talks as a medium of teaching the English Language

The digital age has arrived. It's hardly unexpected that language learning has adapted to the current trend of the globe moving online. Digital tools for language learning have become increasingly popular in recent years. In 2009, (Davies, 2009), Teachers must come up with new ways to teach in light of the global pandemic of COVID 19, which has compelled many institutions to function remotely in order to maintain access to education. In 2020, (Nursafira, 2020) Learning objectives must be accomplished, as well as the classroom learning environment must be duplicated.

TED Talks have become a popular method of learning a new language in this scenario. Under the phrase "ideas worth spreading," TED holds conferences all around the world. It is a collection of videos by renowned speakers on a wide range of topics. Hasebe (2015, Hasebe) More than one hundred different languages of the TED website's transcripts of TED and TEDx talks are accessible. The collection of more than 1800 speeches on a wide range of topics is growing. A wide range of vocations is represented in the presentations, including education, business, and entertainment. Some of them are inspirational and aid in the development of critical thinking skills in those who hear them. (Taibi, Chawla, Dietze, Marenzi, & Fetahu, 2015) (Taibi, Chawla, Dietze, Marenzi, & Fetahu, 2015)

Many language teachers use Ted Talks as a way to teach their students about the language. Listening, speaking, and writing can all be improved by using them. According to Jingjie (2013), They're also useful for encouraging EFL instructors to incorporate video into their lesson plans when creating listening tasks for their students (Park & Whan, 2013) Web sites such as TED.com can be utilised to expose students to language learning to a wide range of themes that can be effectively employed in the development of language skills by enabling students to express their own thoughts on the topics of discussion In fact, students' motivation to study English is aided by the use of authentic films and subtitles. According to Bacon and Finneman (1990), "genuine, real, and true" is a term used by non-native English speakers to describe TED videos produced by native English speakers (Callison & Lamb, 2004). These

movies motivate students to work hard to improve their English skills. TED lectures, which live up to their motto of 'ideas worth spreading,' can be a useful tool for language learning. Students can express their thoughts on the topics covered in the videos in these roundtable conversations. As the majority of TED talks deal with current concerns and are presented by well-known speakers, viewers are left with new ideas and motivated to practise public speaking (Ahluwalia, 2018)

5. Analysis of the use of TED Talks in teaching the English Language in Ahmedabad

This study aimed to examine the attitudes of both students and teachers to the usage of TED speeches for English language instruction in Ahmedabad's business schools. Over the course of three weeks, a group of fifty students was subjected to ten sessions of interventions. With the help of chosen TED lectures, the Task-Based Approach for Language Learning was used to each session's planning and implementation. There was a wide range of subjects represented in the speeches chosen for this activity: from technology to innovation to creativity to entrepreneurship and self-expression. The TED talks chosen for the class were chosen with care, taking into account the students' level of language proficiency, accent, and personal interests.

Before watching the video, students were urged to think about themselves and encouraged to express their thoughts on the subject. It was a goal of the course to help students improve their English vocabulary while watching videos so that they could talk more fluently. The speakers' thoughts were periodically interrupted so that students could voice their own opinions about them. The facilitator walked the students through each of these tasks regularly. After seeing the movies, follow-up questions, role-play, and presentations were all part of the post-viewing exercises.

6. Data Analysis

TED Talks are a wonderful resource, but the lessons for language acquisition using them need to be constructed innovatively so that efficacy of learning may be reached, according to data acquired from teachers in business schools in Ahmedabad through face-to-face interviews. Most educators agreed that simply displaying these movies to pupils wasn't enough to get them to learn anything. Teachers shared creative ways to use these movies.

This study's findings were based on questionnaire responses from 52 students enrolled in Ahmedabad-area business schools who were studying English online and watching TED speeches to improve their language skills.

According to the results of the data, we can say the following:

Hypothesis	Test used (SPSS)	Results	Conclusion
Association between the age of respondents and comfort with learning English using TED Talks	Crosstab Chi sq	Around 84% of students (18 to 20 years) were comfortable learning English using TED Talks. 25% of students (21 to 23 years) were comfortable learning English using TED Talks. 64% of students, (24 to 26 years) expressed comfort in using TED talks for language learning. P-value was found smaller than the standard alpha value, so the null hypothesis was rejected	Significant association between the Age of respondents and comfort with learning English using TED Talks

Association between comfort with learning English using TED Talks and whether more time would be invested in learning through a TED based lesson than a regular English class.	Chi sq	P-value was found smaller than the standard alpha value, so we rejected the null hypothesis.	The significant association between comfort with learning English using TED Talks and more time would be invested in learning through a TED based lesson than a regular English Class

| Association between comfort with learning English using TED Talks and TED Talks being an enjoyable experience and whether TED talks are a useful medium for Language Learning. | Regression | R-Value was checked to see a correlation between dependent and independent variables. In this case, value = 0.773, which is good. R-square was checked to show total variation for the dependent variable that could be explained by the independent variables. In this case, value = 0.598, which is good. Adjusted R-square shows a variation of sample results from the population in multiple regression. In this case, the value = .0.581, which is not far off from .598, so it is good. P-value = .000. Therefore, the result was significant. The f-ratio value was 36.4, which is good. | Possibility of rejecting the null hypothesis in further analysis. |

Independent Variables: TED Talks are a useful medium for English Language Learning	Regression	Sig Value= 0.000, Null Hypothesis Rejected (0.000 < 0.05)	Significant impact of comfort in learning a language using TED talks and the opinion whether TED Talks are a useful medium for English Language Learning. With a 1% increase in the usefulness of TED talks, comfort level increases by 0.506% (B value).
Independent Variables: TED Talks sessions, were an enjoyable English Language Learning experience.	Regression	Sig Value= 0.002, Null Hypothesis Rejected (0.002 < 0.05)	Significant impact of comfort in learning a language using TED talks and the opinion whether TED Talks sessions were an enjoyable English Language Learning experience. With a 1% increase in the usefulness of TED talks, comfort level increases by 0.287% (B value).

TED Talks sessions were found to be both entertaining and useful for English language learning, which suggests a favourable correlation between comfort in learning language and TED Talks sessions. The researcher also examined TED Talks to see if they helped students enhance their listening and speaking abilities. Only 44 percent of those surveyed thought that TED Talks improved listening and speaking skills, while the other 44 percent were unsure. This suggests that greater research is needed into the development of language learning activities aimed at improving speaking skills. About 77% of people who took the survey said that watching TED Talks had boosted their self-esteem.

7. **Conclusion**

This study's findings show that TED Talks are an excellent resource for learning a foreign language. The full potential of this medium, on the other hand, has yet to be fully exploited. Therefore, teachers must think outside the box to find creative ways to use this medium for language education.

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5

A Study of Classical Theories of Drama with Special Reference to Indian and Greek Traditions

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Abstract:

International literary acclaim for national literature has been achieved through comparative criticism, which has emerged as a form of generative literature that allows for national literature to maintain its uniqueness while also gaining international acclaim. Only translations would be available to a Comparative Literature researcher, which would be a significant limitation. An original translation is impossible when the source and translated languages have different constraints and influences, making it impossible to claim originality in a translation. Because the translation was done according to translatology, the chosen script is guaranteed to include all of the original text's important ideas. Furthermore, the canonical works of literature from around the world have only been transmitted to the current generation of readers through translations. Thus, relying on the translations is a sensible choice. In this article, Aristotle's The Poetics (Greek) is compared as are plays by famous dramatists, to highlight how their distinctive style of spreading humanistic values and reformative nature is discussed. It is used in this study to examine the classical ideas of theatrical performance using a comparative theory approach

Key Words: Classical, Theory, Drama, Comparative

Lead In:

In the opinion of medieval critics, the classics include aspects such as multi-channelled discourses, dance, and music, as well as visual and auditory elements. Rather than just reflect reality, their major purpose was to alter it in order to elicit strong emotional reactions from the audience and, in turn, give psychological comfort to them all. Furthermore, they advocate for humanistic principles and education. Thus, they have had an impact on modern drama and theatrics. These two treatises and selected plays were written in line with these two treatises, and the necessity of looking to ancient philosophies for the writing of theatre scripts in the present world where humanity is absent, are evaluated and suggested from a modern critical perspective.

Indian and Greek Theories of Drama: A Brief Survey:

Indian and Western classical writings share a few philosophical and epistemological themes in both forms and practice. It has been discovered that the essential focus of traditional Indian and Greek theatre is on personas and costumes and masks as well as locations and music and dance. Peri Poietikes and Natyasastra differ structurally, philosophically, and aesthetically in their scope and content. The Greeks popularised tragedy, whereas the Indians popularised comedy. In light of the huge contrasts between these two traditions, the two aesthetic representations have been obliged to be distinct. There is a difference between 'evil' in the West and 'evil' as an absence of good in India. In the words of Sri Aurobindo,

> "in Hindu play, it would have appeared a savage and unnatural soul that could take delight in the agony of an Oedipus or a Duchess of Malfi in the tragedy of Macbeth or Othello" (Prasad and Yadhav 4).

Other notable differences include the fact that Aristotle describes dramatic art as a subset of other arts, whereas Bharata Muni's Natya-pradipika defines dramatic art as a distinct discipline. It was only after the greatest classical Greek writing had been accomplished that The Poetics was published, which established Indian literature's dramatic heritage. That, according to the presuppositions of ancient criticism

> "Cyrus's invasion of Gandhara and the Persian control of the region until Alexander's invasion facilitated numerous transactions. However, there is no

proof that Indian ideas about drama made their way to Greece, as surely happened in the field of medicine" (Gupta 16).

The Natyasastra's origin is unknown. The name of the Natyasastra's compiler, Bharata Muni, relates to a group rather than an individual. Today's writers can only use four of the dasarupakas (ten genres of drama). There are five rasas in rationalism: bhakti, dharmis, vrti (dharma), pravrti (siddh) and svara (musical expression). Aristotle wrote The Poetics between 335 and 324 BC. Greek theatrical theory divides tragedy into six separate parts: myth, ethos (emotions), dianoia (technical reasoning), lexis (diction), and melopoiesis (terror) (spectacle).

Looking closely at these classic works reveals startling links. The Greek concept of muthoi is analogous to the Indian Vedas. These include bhavavyanjana (spiritual lesson), dharmis (cosmic law), vibhava and anubhava (cause and effect), psuchagogia (beguilement), and philanthology. Critics believe Greek theatre's main purpose is psychological transformation. Western theatre distinguishes between tragedy and comedy.

Because people want to express their joy and sadness through laughter and tears, the theatre has been separated into joyful and sad plays, comedies and their variations, tragedies and dramas. Paralysis in Greek and Sanskrit, stambha or sadvika bhava (temperament) relate to the recognition and shock that follows great injury done to a loved one due to ignorance. Financial attachment (storge) and thanks (charis) are also prevalent feelings in Greek theatre, as is aischune (shame) (patriotism).

The Indian technique used bhavas (moods) and rasas (tastes) (aesthetic emotion). The Natyasastra categorises permanent emotions as sthayi, vyabhicari, and sattvika (psychosomatic). The eight components of Sthayi are rati, hasa, soka, krotha, utsaha, bhaya, jugupsa, and vismaya. Other states outside the 36 Vyabhicari states include nirveda, glani, doubt, asuya, mada, srama, alasya, and dainya, cinta, and moha. The eight sattvikas are called bhavas (external manifestations) of psuche (thinking) and soma (body) (body). To consider Bharata's viewpoint:

My drama will reinforce everyone's courage, satisfaction, and self-discipline... Sadness, grief, and [over]work will be removed, and duty (dharma), fame, long life, intellect, and general well-being will be fostered, as will education of the people (Kushwaha 11).

Urubhanga, Abhijnan–sakuntalam, and Mudrarakshas are examples of the richness of Indian Drama. When compared to older notions, both Indian and Western plays emphasise spiritual concepts of purity and energy. Aeschylus (Greek), Euripides (Roman), Seneca (Roman), Plautus (Roman), and Vyasa (Sanskrit).

Individual ignorance (koros, hamartia, or hubris) is absent from Orestes and Antigone (moira). Time (fate) is essential for Arjuna in the Mahabharata and Achilles in Homer. Due to public opinion, Rama abandons Sita, Pandava mortgages Panjali in a dice game, Oedipus flees his kingdom, and Andromaque weeps over Hector's murder. All of these choices are based on public opinion. Modern concepts of free will, personal responsibility, and dharma or moira interpretation emerged during the end of the Hellenistic and Smrti (renaissance) periods in Greece and India, respectively. Other ideas like bahudevatva or theokrasis (Universal Egg), the perception of five senses as an extension of the five elements: earth, water, fire, air, and ether, the cycle of four eras, and meta-psychoanalysis were also essential in both systems. Both theories assume that the primary means of expression are a synthesis of voice, gesture, and dance. The Greeks enlarged and popularised their work during the mediaeval period when colonisers changed and destroyed Indian dramatics. Renaissance or Humanistic philosophy influenced theatre development. Medieval dramatists wanted to propagate humanistic ideas. Future theories of social change and transformation should be developed, they say. Sorrow, war, social and ethical difficulties, and combat mortality became more prevalent. Unlike their successors, they were glad to reflect on the instability they witnessed.

Shakespeare's comedies and tragedies, Seneca's tragedies, Thomas Kyd's and Ben Johnson's tragedies, plays from Sanskrit literature before the British arrived, like Kalidasa and Harichandra in Tamil, Buddhist plays like Bhavabhti and Sudraka, Vishakhadutta and Vishakhadutt's, and plays from the Middle Ages and Renaissance before the British arrived. From 1820 until 1947, the aesthetic and thematic coherence of Western theatre changed dramatically, affecting Indian drama. These works influenced both antiquity and modernity The theological, spiritual, psychological, and philosophical implications of these plays are obvious when viewed in light of rasa theory and hamartia.

Writers like Rabindranath Tagore and Harindranath Chattopathyaya, as well as Sri Aurobindo Aphra Behn and Bharathi Sarabhai, all fought against a social framework that considered women as inferior sexes. No one was alone. Others, like D. Their plays, elicited philosophical responses from their audiences. A lack of morals, decency, power and integrity; brutality, scepticism and hatred; self-motivation; panic and being in the middle of a horrific tragedy catapulted their plays ahead of contemporary modernity.

In this way, traditional dramaturgy and contemporary theatrical approaches coexisted. Theatre tests modern literary notions. Famous playwrights Habib Tanvir, Gurucharan Das, Mohan Rakesh, Badal Sircar, Girish Karnad, Vijay Tendulkar, and Mahesh Dattani reflect the Western Dramatic heritage and the Indian Humanist Movement. Their paintings show concern for society and humanity. These actors revived drama by pushing their characters to the edge of emotional and personal catastrophe. They wrote that humanity lacked a sense of purpose. Their goal may be to show society's harshness and warn modern man of the impending wilderness. Both classical philosophers and contemporary dramatists have lamented the loss of humanity, the mechanical and materialistic characteristics of everyday life, and an impersonal and aggressive social environment.

Conclusion:

Reading the works of Aristotle and Bharata, as well as the plays of well-known Indian and Western playwrights, reveals how the theories influenced their works. Catharsis (the purifying of impurities) and Rasas (the purification of the soul) are still prominent notions in dramatic literature, according to the classics of dramaturgy. New theories have been devised by twentieth-century dramatists to fit their modernist theatres, but they are still committed to the principles that combined make vivid dramatic literature: the concepts of Catharsis and Rasa. Even in today's world, theatre and drama continue to be guided by the ideals of The Poetics, which emphasises the dissemination of humanistic thought.

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6

Analytical Survey of Teachers Perception towards Writing Skills

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Abstract:

Researchers from four states in the US surveyed 29 teachers on their views about writing and the variables that impacted them. After conducting interviews with instructors in high- and low-income schools, researchers found substantial differences in writing teaching. Instructors at high-income schools place a greater focus on rhetorical style, establishing one's own voice, and making reading and writing connections than teachers in low-income schools. It appears that, whereas instructors in high-income schools are more flexible in picking curricular materials and focusing on writing quality beyond grammar and mechanics, teachers in low-income schools tend to be constrained by a certain curriculum set by their districts. Many elements, including the school atmosphere, programmes and resources, and evaluations, have an impact on teachers' attitudes. The study highlights concerns that students in low-income schools are missing out on true, tough, and important writing chances because of the emphasis on skills-based training. A new study shows that for students to be successful, teachers must provide them opportunities to develop their argumentative style, their own voice, and connections between what they read and what they write.

Keywords: Teachers, orientations, writing, beliefs, influences

1.   Introduction

For decades now, Applebee and Langer (2009) have argued, technology utilised to create texts and resources has evolved significantly. Because to a lack of a coherent strategy on writing, inadequate time spent on writing, insufficient assessment of writing, and insufficient professional development, writing is the "Neglected "R" in American schools and colleges. Students should spend more time writing, teachers should assign a broader range of writing activities like persuasive and report writing, teachers should devote more time to writing instruction, and teachers should use more evidence-based practises, according to Gilbert and Graham (2010)'s nationwide survey of writing practises among teachers in grades 4-6.

Schooling is evolving at the same time that these recommendations are being made about the importance of writing, with an increasing emphasis on standards and evaluation as well as an increasing need for accountability. NCLB was adopted in the United States in 2001, creating greater responsibility for states, teachers, students, and administrators. Students are making progress, the achievement gap is shrinking, and under-performing schools have been shuttered as a result of the legislation's accountability system, according to proponents of the programme. Contrary to the assertions of some opponents, however, some believe that NCLB's reality differs greatly from its rhetoric (Gay, 2007). They also assert that NCLB has widened the gap between pupils who attend schools with a wide range of resources in terms of both learning and motivation (McCaslin, 2006).

It is imperative that teachers establish standards, assessments, and curricula in order to adequately prepare students for life in a rapidly evolving, globalised society. When instructors' approaches and beliefs are documented, they may be used to help students better understand how their teachers make their educational decisions (Borg, 2006). Research on teachers' attitudes toward teaching writing or the possible differences in views between instructors in wealthy and poor schools has been limited in the present educational landscape. In addition, it is important to know what influences instructors' attitudes toward learning.

Studying how existing policy frameworks impact teachers' approaches to writing in high-income schools (schools with fewer than 25% of students getting free lunch) as contrasted to low-income schools is the purpose of this research (more than 75 percent students on free lunch). Data collected from various schools can also reflect teachers' orientations in schools

with differing levels of resources. In doing so, it may shed information on policies that may be influencing their views.

2. Review of the literature

2.1 Educational Inequity in the United States

Since the 1980s, when educational researchers first uncovered the discrepancy between pupils in high- and low-income schools, inequitable access to high-quality education has been noted. According to Anyon's (1981) study of different schools, students in working-class schools were exposed to fragmented knowledge with a focus on acquiring basic skills, while students in middle-class schools were exposed to progressive philosophies that provided opportunities to ask questions and build on their own experiences. Findings on Kozol's 2005 investigation of 60 inner-city schools, he determined that urban education has worsened over the past 50 years. Lupton (2005) did a qualitative investigation of four schools and found that schools in low-income areas offer a lower standard of instruction than those in higher-income areas. Poverty does not exclude a person from achieving academic success, but it can in certain cases limit their options (Green &Anyon, 2010). Because of this tendency, low-income students continue to do badly on standardised tests (Lipman, 2004). Thirty years after Anyon's study, Luke (2010) reminds us of the present restrictions that lead to disparities in the curriculum taught in various schools.

Anyone's emphasis on developing diverse epistemic dispositions has direct relevance to the current policy debates over scripted and test-driven instruction as well as other educational sectors. That social class reproduction is not just about having restricted access to high- and low-stakes, canonical or revisionist kinds of dominant ideological knowledge is one of the most significant lessons learnt. As a result, a variety of epistemic views, dispositions, and attitudes toward what can be termed knowledge are fostered by the performed curriculum working in tandem with the school's overall philosophy. Working-class, ethnic, and linguistic minority students are at risk of receiving exactly what Anyon predicted: an implemented curriculum emphasising fundamental skills, rule awareness, and rule compliance. It is for the same reasons that the proliferation of high-stake testing and improved accountability have contributed to lower educational standards rather than achieving the goals set out by programmes like No Child Left Behind, Hursh (2005) claims (NCLB).

In the year 2001, the government policy was implemented nationwide. In order to receive federal funding, states were required to establish academic content standards, implement a single statewide accountability system that measures and reports adequate yearly progress (AYP) of all schools, identify schools for improvement or corrective action, and require teachers to be highly qualified in their subject area (No Child Left Behind Act, 2001). According to Darling-Hammond (2007, 2007), a decrease in teacher morale, an impact on students' learning and motivation, a narrowing of the curriculum and a limitation on teachers' ability to meet the needs of individual students have all been identified as unintended consequences of the policies and related practises (Harper, Platt, Naranjo & Boynton, 2007). For Latino and African-American children, the law is particularly detrimental since it requires them to attend more special education classes and requires them to be tested in a culturally inappropriate way. In the present policy framework of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, literacy instruction in the context of high-stakes testing continues to reflect this uneven access. It was found that the Reading First schools, which are those that have received federal monies to target low-income kids, used a scripted, teacher-centered curriculum that includes systematic phonics teaching, according to Cummins (2007a). The curriculum used in Reading First schools, he claims, does not match research that has found that reading engagement, rather than skill-based instruction, is the most significant predictor of reading performance in elementary and secondary schools (Guthrie, 2004; Long & Gove, 2003). More effective in the early grades than routine skill practise or continuous explicit phonics instruction is higher-level inquiry, strong engagement, and active learning, according to research on reading achievement (Taboada & Guthrie, 2006; Taylor, Pearson, Peterson & Rodriguez, 2003). Students in inner-city schools do better academically when given genuine, time-consuming tasks to complete rather than rote memorization exercises (Teale & Gambrell, 2007). Researchers have found that kids in low-income schools are receiving reading teaching that emphasises skills rather than engagement, but there has been little inquiry into how writing instruction vary based on where you live and what regulations are in place (Dutro, 2010). (Gilbert & Graham, 2010; McCarthey, 2008). Revision and longer-form writing may be constrained because of high-stakes testing, which includes on-demand writing tasks, according to Applebee and Langer (2009). Teachers' views and thoughts about writing,

which may impact their teaching practises, might help us better comprehend Applebee and Langer's argument regarding probable discrepancies in the quality of instruction.

2.2 Orientations for New Teachers

Teacher expectations and classroom practises are both part of the wider construct of teacher cognition, as defined by Borg (2006) as theoretical orientations, which are characterised as belief systems and philosophical notions by Borg (2006). On the other side, there is a lack of clear and comprehensive definitions of what defines a writing orientation. Graham, Harris, MacArthur, and Fink (2002) have gotten the closest to defining orientations by developing an instrument to assess primary grade teachers' theoretical orientations toward writing teaching. Teachers around the country were asked about their views on the significance of accuracy in children's writing, their views on explicit instruction, and their views on natural learning techniques in a survey. Proper grammar and spelling were essential, as were single draughts and the revision of non-standard use in order to ensure that the work was submitted in the best possible light. Explicit writing instruction encompassed everything from learning concepts to practising and teaching techniques like outlining and revising. Pupils were encouraged to comment to one other's work and to put emphasis on the writing process rather than the finished product, believing that students would eventually master the norms of writing. This type of teaching also included natural learning techniques. A consistent correlation was found between instructors' orientations and their classroom writing practises, as demonstrated by the results of their study. To make matters worse, even amongst those who call themselves "process writing," teachers have had their own unique takes on the philosophy and practises that underlie this method (Lipson, Mosenthal, Daniels, & Woodside-Jiron, 2000). Teachers' attitudes toward writing assignments may also be affected by students' differing abilities and lack of passion (Troia& Maddox, 2004).

Is there a connection between how teachers approach writing education and how they feel about the process of writing itself? In an experiment done by Troia and colleagues (2011), they found that one of three factors influencing instructional practises in writing was the individual's knowledge, beliefs, and values. Self-efficacy beliefs and theoretical orientations were among these components (the other two factors were professional development and personal context variables). Some teachers believe a structural approach to special education

students' writing instruction, focusing on the establishment of sequenced, individualised instruction, is more effective than other teachers' beliefs about the effectiveness of relational approaches that focus on shared activities and student choice, according to Berry (2006). Research on primary school teachers in the UK found that effective teachers had different theoretical perspectives from a control group (Poulson, Avramidis Fox, Medwell, & Wray, 2001). Researchers Evans and colleagues (2007) found that sixth-grade teachers' impressions of students and standards-based writing programmes changed when they collaborated to produce uniform evaluations, rubrics, and samples of student work. As a result of their collaboration, teachers were able to grow professionally and modify their views on certain subjects.

Teacher beliefs, on the other hand, are more loosely organised around specific concepts than orientations, which reflect systems or theories. Teachers' beliefs were taken into account by the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) when developing a policy statement on this topic. According to NCTE Beliefs (2004), writing is a process that can be taught, it can be used for a variety of purposes and is a tool for thinking. Writing and reading are intertwined, complex human judgement is required for evaluation, and composition is embedded in social relationships. Conventional wisdom is important for both readers and writers. In Fang's (1996) examination of teachers' beliefs and actions, the results were mixed. A strong link was found between teachers' beliefs and their classroom behaviour in some studies; however, other studies found that the complexities of the classroom, such as student characteristics and administrative mandates, had an impact on teachers' practises, resulting in inconsistencies between beliefs and behaviours.

Because teachers' orientations have an influence on their classroom practise, research shows that this is an essential construct to study. Even Nevertheless, instructors' beliefs and practises are not always in sync because of factors such as student ability, class composition, school culture, and social influences (Reutzel&Sudweeks, 2008). Teachers' perceptions may change as a result of changes in federal policy and the formation of state-wide assessments, which place more emphasis on reading than writing.

2.3 Contextual Factors (or Situational Factors)

Students' progress in writing has been measured by a variety of state examinations, but until 2007, only reading and math scores were taken into account for determining whether or not

schools were achieving adequate yearly progress (AYP). There is no clear correlation between the results of writing assessments and how schools are held accountable, but the policy background of NCLB and state writing standards may have an influence on teachers' writing practises. Using curriculum and testing data from four states, Hillocks (2002) found that state standards and prompts for state writing exams impacted instructors' instruction and limited the sorts of assignments and texts that students were required to compose. The bigger policy frameworks and accountability mechanisms that go along with them must be examined as possible factors of teachers' attitudes if they are to be understood.

Many districts have employed commercial reading programmes in order to satisfy statutory reading criteria. A solid phonics basis is required for programmes to be accepted in places like California, according to Pease-Alvarez, as described in Cummins, 2007. Many school districts have embraced and even enforced the use of textual resources provided by textbook publishers (McCarthey& Ro, 2011). Developed by the National Center for Education and the Economy (NCEE), Writer's Advantage is a writing programme for children in grades K-12 (National Center for Education and the Economy). The inclusion of "Rituals and Routines" in the curriculum is intended to aid pupils in developing certain skills. Also included are lesson plans and rubrics for "Genre" and "Author" studies. In addition to the reading programme, Success for All (Slavin& Madden, 2001) includes a supplementary writing component. For grades K-6, Calkins and colleagues (2003, 2006) developed the Units of Study to provide systematic writing instruction with an emphasis on certain genres. Harcourt has produced and published a specialised curriculum, Write Traits (Spandel& Hicks, 2004), based on the Six-Trait model, which was established by instructors from rubrics to score student work (Spandel, 2005). This curriculum is in addition to the Six-Trait model. With its "multisensory" method of teaching kids to write and think critically, Step Up to Writing (Aumannd) is hailed as an effective tool for improving students' ability to communicate effectively in the written word. It provides examples, activities, and rubrics that may be used in the classroom in line with the Six Traits and State Standards. The cards are color-coded to make it simpler to locate the courses for different genres. In an expository structure, the following signals are used: green for go, yellow for slow down and offer reasons, read for halt and explain, and green for conclusions to return to the topic. A number of genre-specific and state-specific writing methods, such as the "Four Square Writing Method" (Gould &

Gould, 1999), have gained popularity in recent years. Painting an essay can help students focus on key parts of an essay by utilising colours to mark the starting, middle, and finish points of an essay (Leddy, 2003). As writing-related programmes, tools, and information become more widely available, instructors' views of their work may change.

When teachers' orientations are examined, one contextual component that influences their performance and well-being can be identified. When conducting this study, researchers looked to Graham et al. (2002), who performed research in response to the National Commission's (2003a) call to put more focus on writing teaching in schools. Interviews will be conducted with teachers in a number of places around the country to learn more about the challenges and concerns they face when it comes to teaching writing. The study's findings might also help us better understand how instructors' views and behaviour in the classroom are influenced by the milieu in which they operate. The study was guided by the following hypotheses: This includes policy frameworks such as assessments and curricular materials that have an effect on teaching. Second, it's vital to remember that teacher orientations (their thoughts and attitudes about writing) are linked to and can offer insight into instructional practises. According to the research on equity concerns in the United States, rich and low-income schools may have different teaching attitudes.

3. Methods

This particular research was part of a larger investigation on how instructors teach writing in light of the United States' national policy, No Child Left Behind. Teachers in two states received less and less writing instruction as a result of the No Child Left Behind Act. According to our findings, there are four main methods of teaching students to write: writer's workshop, conventional skills, genre-based instruction, as well as a hybrid/eclectic approach (McCarthey& Ro, 2011). Teachers' attitudes and disparities between high- and low-income schools in four states, as well as in other countries, are the subject of the present study, which expands on prior research. This study's focus was on the following subjects: Is teaching writing a positive or negative experience for teachers? Is teaching writing a positive or negative experience for teachers? Instructors at high-income schools (those with less than 25% of students getting free or reduced lunch) and teachers in low-income schools may behave differently, according to existing studies (those with more than 75 percent of students

receiving free or reduced lunch). What are some of the things that have an effect on teachers' professional goals?

3.1 The State and Educational Environments

State writing criteria and a state writing evaluation scheme were used to select Illinois, Utah, Vermont, and West Virginia. They represented a diversity of geographical locations, political opinions on NCLB (e.g., Utah had explored opting out of the NCLB money due to worries about state vs federal government control issues), and varying histories of writing assessment (e.g., Vermont used portfolio assessment previous to NCLB). School districts from a wide range of areas were selected particularly for this research to better understand how teachers' viewpoints could be influenced by demographics. State and school settings are briefly described. There are two accountability systems in Utah schools: one for NCLB, which uses data from subgroups mandated by federal law, and another for U-PASS, which measures an individual' yearly progress. The NCLB system is stricter than the other one. It is a requirement of the Utah Core Curriculum that all students pass criterion-referenced tests (CRTs) before they may graduate. Two schools in the same district, Belleview (all names of schools and teachers are pseudonyms) and Richardson (all names of schools and teachers are pseudonyms), were both high-income, middle-to-upper middle class, and located in a mixed residential and industrial region.

The Illinois Learning Standards for English are based on the 1985 State Goals for English Language Arts. In 2003, the U.S. Department of Education approved Illinois' plan for compliance with the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB), and all districts utilise the Illinois Standards Achievement Test (ISAT) to monitor AYP. The research included two low-income and one high-income schools: Bailey, located in an upper-middle-class suburb of a big city; Park, which is located on the "urban periphery" of a huge metropolis; and King, a low-income school that is also located near a major city. In order to meet the requirements of the No Child Left Behind Act, Vermont adopted the New England Common Assessment in 2005. According to the Grade Level Expectations and the Vermont Framework of Standards and Learning Opportunities, students are tested in reading in grades 3-8 and in writing in grades 5 and 8. It is possible to enhance criterion-referenced examinations with local evaluations like portfolios in a variety of ways. An hour's drive from a prominent university, Bridge School, a

high-income school, was targeted for closure. Criterion-referenced West Virginia Education Standards Test (WESTEST), established by the West Virginia Department of Education, was used to test achievement of the West Virginia Content Standards and Objectives Study participants were drawn from Lake School, a high-income institution near a major university, and Mountain School in a remote rural area. According to Table 1, the demographics of the school's students and the school's Annual Yearly Progress (AYP) are included (AYP). There is demographic data for the school in Table 1.

Table 1. State and School Demographics

State	School	Racial Background	% Students on Free/Reduced Lunch	Accountability System	Annual Yearly Progress (AYP)
Illinois	Bailey (Suburban)	89% White, 4% Asian, 4%Hispanic, 1% Black	3% (high-income)	Illinois Standards Achievement Test (ISAT) Illinois State Standards	92% made AYP in reading
Illinois	Park (urban fringe)	88% Black, 4% White, 2% Hispanic 2% Asian 4% other	99% (low-income)		59% made AYP in 2004-2005; but not 2005-2006 reconstruction

Illinois	King (urban fringe)	49% Black 45% Hispanic, 5% White	96% (low-income)		48% did not make AYP; reconstruction
Utah	Belleview (city)	76% White, 19% Asian, 3%Hispanic, 1%American Indian 1% Black; 11% LEP	18% (high-income)	2 systems U-PASS Criterion referenced tests Utah Core Curriculum	92% made AYP in reading
Utah	Richardson (residential-industrial)	53% Hispanic 22% White 13% Asian 9% Black 3% American Indian 3% other 48% LEP	88% (low-income)		2 of 3 years did not make AYP 52% passing

Vermont	Bridge (Rural)	97% White; 3% Asian, Black or Hispanic	26% (high-income)	New England Common Assessment; Grade Level Expectations Vermont Framework of Standards and Learning Opportunities	74% made AYP in reading
West Virginia	Lake (near city with university)	95% White 2% Black 2% Asian 1% Hispanic	17% (high income)	West Virginia Education Standards Test (WESTEST)	87% made AYP in reading
West Virginia	Mountain (rural)	95% White 5% Black fewer than 1% Asian, Native American or Hispanic	68% (low income)		Made AYP

3.2 Selection Process and Participants

Districts and schools were selected based on income inequalities seen in data made available by states online, according to the study's lead researcher. Schools that had a high percentage of pupils from low- or middle-income households were suggested by colleagues at colleges and school districts. It was then time for her to call districts with either a high percentage of children on free or reduced lunch (75 percent) or a low percentage of children on free or reduced lunch (25 percent or less).

Third-grade instructors were selected because NCLB mandates state testing for all students starting in third grade. Research on fourth-grade education has been a major focus of attention because it is part the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) (Allington & Johnston, 2002). By integrating third and fourth-grade instructors in one school, a larger sample of teachers might be drawn from. Those schools' administrators and principals approved of the study, and all third and fourth grade instructors were invited to participate in it. Getting a wide range of writing ideas and strategies was the purpose of the

experiment. Everyone who took part in the study was a volunteer who received $50 in compensation for their efforts. This study relied on instructors from eight different schools across eight states, but the sample size was too small to draw any meaningful conclusions about teachers in those states as a whole.

The 29 academics who participated in the study are listed in Table 2. 15 teachers were from high-income schools (those with less than 25% of students receiving free lunch) and 14 from low-income schools (those with more than 25% of students receiving free lunch) (more than 75 percent on free lunch). Twenty-six women, three men, 27 white instructors, and two African American instructors took part in the study. Less than a quarter of the teachers had been in the classroom for less than five years.

Table 2. Teacher Demographics

Teacher Grade level	Ethnicity, Gender	Highest Degree	Years Teaching
Utah: High- income school			
Marcy, fourth	White, female	MA	29
Lucy, fourth	White, female	MA + 40 (credits)	12
Ruth, fourth	White, female	MS	19
Daniel, third	White, male	MA	21
Sarah, third	White, female	MA equivalent	22
Utah: Low-income school			
Amy, fourth	White, female	MA	23
Kristen, fourth	White, female	MA + 40 (credits)	26
Susan, third	White, female	BA	10
James, third	White, male	BS	5
Illinois: High-income school			
Jackie, fourth	White, female	MA	8
Sally, third	White, female	MA	14
Tom, third	White, male	MA	9

Sharon, fourth	White, female	BSE	16
Rhonda, fourth	White, female	BA	2
Dana, fourth	White, female	BA	3
Olene, fourth	African American, female	MA	1 as certified
Shauna, fourth	African American, female	BA	20
Brenda, fourth	White, female	BS	14
West Virginia: High-income schools			
Carla, fourth	White, female	BS+	33
Connie, third	White, female	MA	25
Alice, fourth	White, female	Masters	7
West Virginia: Low-income schools			
Carla, fourth	White, female	BS+	33
Connie, third	White, female	MA	25
Alice, fourth	White, female	Masters	7
West Virginia: Low-income schools			
Anna, fourth	White, female	BA+	8
Mary, fourth	White, female	Masters +	31
Wanda, third	White, female	Masters +	5
Cynthia, third	White, female	BS	8
Vermont: High-income school			
Andrea, fourth	White, female	BA	34
Jill, third	White, female	BA+	33
Sherry, third	White, female	BA+	20
Tierney, fourth	White, female	Masters+	19

3.3 Data Sources

Interviews with instructors, observations of instruction, and interviews with administrators or instructional leaders were all part of the larger investigation. Additionally, teachers completed a demographic survey that inquired about their job experience and educational background. A 45-minute semi-structured interview technique was utilised in this portion of the study to inquire about teachers' curriculum and writing teaching, as well as the impact of

policies and professional development on their ability to do so. In order to discuss about how they were taught and tested, teachers presented examples of student writing from three different academic levels: the highest, the middle, and the lowest. For further information, please refer to Appendix A. Before going on to more general inquiries regarding curriculum, the interviewers asked teachers a series of questions about the lesson they were seeing. People who participated in writing projects and had opportunities to discuss writing learned about conferences, small group work, different styles of training, and tactics. A teacher's ideas on writing, particular writers and how they would instruct students might be discussed in response to student work. We learned a lot about how teachers think about writing through questions on policy, assessment, and NCLB attitudes in the last segment. Teachers were asked to describe the factors that influenced their writing.

Analyzing data entails three steps.

The data was analysed using a combination of qualitative and quantitative methodologies. Miles and Huberman's approach required two persons from the university and the graduate school to get started (1994). Using them was an excellent way to do qualitative research. According to the researchers, the following questions were posed to indicate how instructors see writing instruction: Writing instruction is described in what ways by teachers. Teachers pay attention to which elements of a piece of writing are important. What do they think is the most important thing to know about writing? Inquiries have been made concerning the writer's reputation by these individuals. Student work included keywords and quotations from each of the three sections, as well as context, which included quotations from each of the three sections. A professional transcribed the 29 interviews and created charts with key words and quotations from each of the three sections: curriculum, opportunities and activities for writing, student work, and context. Once the individual charts of each instructor had been analysed, the data had been compiled by school and region for analysis. The categories of activity or practise, emphasis of instruction, implicit definition of writing, view of the writer, and effects on instruction were employed to accomplish this..

After that, the researchers categorised instructors' instructional choices and their ideas about writing in a methodical fashion. To categorise their findings, researchers grouped them into the following: A: As a teacher, I first heard the term "developing structure" used to describe

how things are put together, such as "putting things in order," or "using an introduction and conclusion," or composing a five-paragraph essay. Teaching "structure" was frequently referred to as "graphic organisers," such as the Four-Square. If we're talking about language and concepts in Rhetorical Style, we may say things like: leads, expanding ideas, descriptive language, use of metaphor, conversation, or writing abilities. Teachers have been known to use this term. Using Spandel's 2005 rubric, which said that pupils "express their thoughts, feelings, and beliefs." was the closest definition. Reading-Writing Connections included statements such as "getting ideas from books and incorporating them into their writing," or "I talk about the lead in this book so that they can use that in their writing." grammar, punctuation, capitalization, and spelling were covered in Grammar and Mechanics. When discussing students' writing samples, these terms were often mentioned.

(f) Teachers used the term "complete sentences," whenever they discussed writing "Sentence Structure." To put it another way, they wanted pupils to compose sentences that had both an antecedent and an object. This was followed by an analysis of how many times a certain word was used by every teacher. There were no terminology like "word choice," or "leads,," used by teachers 1 and 2 when they discussed "voice," "grammar/mechanics" and "grammar/mechanics." Sentence structure, punctuation, spelling, and grammar/mechanics all fall under the category of "Sentence Structure" and "Grammar/Mechanics," respectively. It's possible to discuss about rhetorical style and voice, but not grammar and mechanics, based on Teacher 3's statements. Teachers didn't all have to discuss the same topics in semi-structured interviews. As a result, professors only counted words if they were utilised in the course. The researchers then returned to the transcripts and searched for keywords in order to ensure that the count had been accurate.

Teachers' usage of terminology from both the low- and high-income groups was then compared by the team's researchers. It's possible that the researchers didn't conceal the identities of the instructors they interviewed, which would have posed an issue. Investigators looked at how often teachers used keywords into their lessons. They compared and contrasted the groups' commonalities and differences.

Fisher Later, precise tests were utilised to determine if the two groups differed in their understanding of the five aspects of writing under consideration. Each of these 2X2 tables

was subjected to statistical analysis one by one. Because 25% of the cells in the table had anticipated counts less than 5, the Fisher's Exact Test was utilised. No correlation was found between the revenue of the school where the instructor worked and the answer to each writing question (yes or no).

A selection of the finest statements from the interviews was utilised to substantiate or refute the findings. For this reason, it was vital to determine how each category jibes with the theories of accurate writing, natural learning techniques, and explicit instruction. They utilised Graham et al. (2002) as a framework to arrive at this conclusion. When Graham pondered the importance of proper grammar, mechanics, and sentence structure in writing, he was not alone. Rhetorical Style, Voice, and Reading-Writing Connections were shown to be more natural learning approaches in this study.

Researchers studied graphs to see how they affected classroom learning. The charts' context section was examined by them. When creating the categories of "school context," "programmes and materials," and "policies," the researchers drew on key terminology and quotations from the literature. Representative statements from the interviews were utilised to demonstrate how orientations were impacted for each of the categories identified.

4.   Findings and discussion

"Developing Structure" emerged as a common theme across the 29 instructors who participated in the study. However, there were notable disparities between teachers in high- and low-income schools in their approaches to teaching writing.

4.1   Developing Structure

Organization, "sequencing ideas," "topic sentences," and/or "creating a five paragraph essay" are all instances of this study's structural development. The use of visual organisers and other organisational tools may be necessary while producing various sections of a piece of work. Despite the fact that 90 percent of instructors (26 of 29) acknowledged the importance of structure in writing, there were significant differences in how they described teaching it. A number of teachers argued about whether or whether their students learned how to organise their thoughts through reading literature, or by having classmates or teachers respond to their work. To help her students see different approaches to story structure, Ruth (UT, HI) said she

taught a variety of story kinds. This format is closely followed in Dominic by William Steig, but it's written in novel form, so it's a longer narrative,' she said of the youngsters reading picture books to study the framework. "Does it have a powerful beginning?" Marcy (UT, HI) invited students to think on how their peers started their writing. Students can comment positively or ask questions when they don't understand something; in such case, the author must clarify their meaning. Andrea (VT, HI), pointing out the lack of order in one of her student's examples, said, "Yes, and this little girl does battle with her structure in her writing," "Also, this little girl does not have a conclusion." "The painted essay" was used to demonstrate to the student how to organise her work appropriately.

More and more educators were favouring particular types of essays, including the five-paragraph and extended-answer styles of writing as well as the painted essay. Teachers commonly employed graphic organisers to make sure that their students comprehended the concepts they were presenting to them. When asked how she taught her pupils how to write a five-paragraph paper, Sally (IL, HI) said she made sure they knew how. As part of the Step Up to Writing project, which began two years previously, she also indicated that this was done. Cynthia (WV, LI) is another teacher that employs a methodical approach in the classroom. A document known as a 3.8 paragraph is given to students at the end of third grade, she stated. Those are the underpinnings of that—a starting concept, specifics, and finally a conclusion." Using the four-square pattern, Connie (WV, HI) feels it's the ideal method to teach organisation.

"It's easier because it's more focused." Anna (WV, LI) pointed out that children from low socioeconomic situations need more explicit education of structure. She stated that our people has to be organised. This is why our writing is falling behind and our children need to be taught, "here's an organised tool to utilise," you know. People with low income make up a significant portion of the population; as a result, there are many free or reduced-price meal programmes available, as well as many families that have fallen apart. They don't have much assistance at home.

Teaching organisation to pupils necessitated the use of certain methods, according to Sharon (IL, LI). This is a problem for all of our youngsters that come in, she said. 'Our youngsters

tend to require more of an organiser to encourage them to write and arrange their ideas,' they said, citing the use of four-square writing.

Because they considered it was one of the most essential aspects of students' writing, most teachers emphasised structure in their instruction of writing. Graham and colleagues' (2002) explicit instruction construct, in which instructors feel they must teach procedures and that students need both chances to practise and specific teaching to learn to write, appears to fit teachers' comments of the demand for "structure" Other parts of writing, however, indicated a wide range of techniques taken by teachers in a variety of circumstances.

4.2 School Disparities in High and Low-Income Areas

In order to answer the question, "Are there differences in teacher orientations in rich and low-income schools?" a variety of approaches were taken, including: (a) cultivating rhetorical style; (b) encouraging voice; (c) emphasising reading-writing connections; (d) emphasising grammar and mechanics; and (e) focusing on sentence building. High-income school teachers' focus on natural learning techniques was found to be consistent with the findings of Graham and colleagues (2002). Only while students were writing was grammar emphasised; the professors assumed that students would write several draughts and put more focus on the writing process than grammar. Setting rhetorical style, voice and reading/writing links were all examples of this tendency.

4.2.1 Rhetorical style development

To characterise rhetorical style, teachers used terms like "growth of ideas," "elaboration," "use of dialogue," "metaphorical language," and "word choice." These two terms are linked by a consideration of characteristics of language other than grammar and punctuation. High-income teachers, on the other hand, were more likely to emphasise this aspect in their writing teaching and students' learning than low-income teachers, who only concentrated on one of these qualities in their instruction and students' learning. Teachers at high- and low-income schools differed significantly in their use of rhetorical style (RS). As measured by Fisher's exact test, instructors in high-income schools were 8.7 (95 percent CI (1.4, 53.8) times more likely than teachers in low-income schools to focus on rhetorical style

Teachers at high-income schools were more concerned with their students' views, according to a qualitative research. "But for my poor students, that's definitely the challenge, is the ideas," Marcy (UT, HI) said. Literature is one of the tools I use to inspire creativity in my students. I try to read a book every day. "I used to do a news piece on a daily basis." This is similar to how Lucy (Utah, Hawaii) approached students: "I'm going to perform a small lecture." The development of concepts is the primary focus of this course. When we begin with concepts, we go on to organisation, and eventually voice." Ruth (UT, HI) emphasised the necessity of coming up with new ideas as students provided more information. They might discuss the finer points of the story, such as how a character's backstory is developed and why certain events occur. As a result, several instructors emphasised the need of teaching students how to use a range of leads or hooks in addition to establishing ideas and facts. Examples of how students have used different sorts of leads were provided by Andrea (VT, HI).

It was also an exercise in finding new ways to get the children started. Until now, I've only been able to raise one little child. As a starting point, he offered a quote. What sort of property are you searching for? Solomon asked his father the question when they were searching for land. "The book's title, then, and the accompanying background information follows. "Timber!" yelled another youngster as he came. I couldn't take my eyes off of Solomon while he chopped down trees." Then it goes on to talk about how they culled the region and cut down their trees as background information. Because of this, he started with the sound. As a result, we've gone over the many kinds of hooks we might utilise in our writing.

In addition to "word choice," high-income school teachers discussed "argument strategy." As Jackie (IL, HI) recommended, "It's not only really dry and straightforward, but it's maybe some more odd terms instead of saying'said,' it's "yelled,"" she explained. Students should use a thesaurus to find interesting synonyms in their work, according to Sarah (UT, HI).

My kids are learning how to reference a thesaurus through my instruction. I reworked every word, so it was perfect, perfect, perfect. In each of the five statements, we used the word "excellent" five times. In our quest to learn the definition of "excellent" we searched up the word online. We also came up with a list of terms that may be used in its place.

She offered me an example of a student who utilised descriptive language that were rich and clear. "We rented a car and drove to our motel." the student had originally written. "The automobile we leased was a nice, silver, comfortable van." she said after being pressed to elaborate. There were some minor flaws in our new van, but it was a significant improvement over our previous vehicle."

4.2.2 Empowering people to speak up

It is possible for students to use the first person or communicate their feelings and views about a topic in several ways while they are writing (Spandel, 2005; Sperling & Appleman, 2011). Sixty percent of the high-income teachers (9 of 15) indicated they focused on voice in their writing conversations, but just 14 percent (2 of 14) of the low-income teachers claimed they did. Exact test results showed that teachers in high-income schools were 9.0 (95 percent (CI 1.5, 55.5) times more likely to focus on Voice than teachers in low-income schools (p=.02). According to the study's qualitative findings, educators at high-income schools place a premium on student voice and participation. In Jackie's opinion, voice in a 4th grader is the ability to get a feel of who's writing the essay and that it's not just dry and straightforward. It was acknowledged that voice is the most difficult thing to teach since it's so subjective, and Sarah (UT, HI) echoed this sentiment. One of Tierney's examples of adding voice was a student's writing, in which the author included facts and conveyed her feelings about what she liked.

To help her pupils learn to use their own voices in their writing, Marcy (UT, HI) used activities. Using literature as an example, she demonstrated how authors utilise voice in true and meaningful communication. "The kids pick up vocabulary from each other when they're in groups," she continued. What do you think about this? Perhaps the author's voice is audible in your mind's eye. A comment like, 'I liked it — it was nice,' on the other hand, is not acceptable. Whenever possible, I make an effort to get further specificity from them.

It is Lucy's goal to have pupils think about how the characters' voices conveyed their ideas and feelings when she reads them novels. There were four characters in Browne's Voices in the Park (1998): a tyrant woman, an unfulfilled guy, a lonely youth, and an energetic girl. They all have their own distinct voices and perspectives on the park, which are reflected in the changing seasons of landscape and weather. The point Lucy was trying to make was that

different pupils, even while writing on the same subject, might have their own unique perspectives.

In addition to having a strong speaking voice, many of these instructors also had strong creativity, word choice, and leadership qualities. That's what I believe, and I see the students that allow themselves the freedom to be creative, rather than Randy's reluctance to do so," Sarah (UT/HI) said. As for adults like Sharon and Rebecca, they just let their imaginations run wild and go with the flow. This is the means to get there." "Word choice" is extremely important to Lucy (UT,HI) when it comes to expressing one's thoughts about anything:

Afterward, we listened to Lavar Burton's taped lecture. And he's terrific; we know this because we've read about him. Then they followed through and we spoke about it, and they really grasped voice perception, which I don't think they noticed before, like what words he used to make the narrative more exciting or what he said to make it more interesting. As an example, what were some of the narratives that he created using these individuals?

Teachers also saw that students used exclamation points and questions to show the audience where the authors see themselves in relation to their work and audience. When it came to engaging their readers, some of Andrea's high school students used different sentence structures that included "leads" The teachers who discussed voice in writing believed it was significant.

4.2.3 Emphasizing the link between reading and writing

According to our research, whereas half of the teachers (7 out of 14) from low-income schools included reading activities that were closely related to their writing teaching, the other half (80% or 12 out of 15) from high-income schools didn't. Although this difference was statistically significant, it was not statistically significant (p=.13).

Qualitative research reveals how teachers use literature to teach writing. Because of the book's "really good, excellent writing in that book, so vivid and so wonderful," Lucy (UT, HI) included it in her response to the question about Memoirs of a Geisha (Golden, 1997) as an example. Some of it is beginning to take shape in there." Another method employed by some teachers to teach certain writing traits was through the use of books. Writing traits were taught to Marcy (UT, HI) through literature. According to her, "I can utilise literature that has

good instances of all of those [six attributes]," Five years ago, I don't recall discussing word choice or voice and how to incorporate your personality into it. I didn't even discuss the possibility of leads. For my children's stories, I like to draw inspiration from classic literature. As Andrea (VT, HI) pointed out, "We've also been focusing on similes and personification, and I think the children are doing pretty well with that," Andrea encouraged the kids to recognise and employ figurative language in their own writing. Somebody will exclaim, 'Look!' when I'm reading a novel to them. 'That's personification,'

Teachers examined a wide range of media, including literature, the internet, and oral storytelling. Her pupils were encouraged to use the internet in their writing sessions by Jackie (Illinois, Hawaii). Her plan was to have the pupils read some online or other information and select an essay topic. What features of colonial America did you find most interesting? That's what we try to accomplish, mixing up the themes but yet adhering to the same writing standards." Reading and writing were also taught as content area subjects by other instructors. While reading, Sherry (VT, HI) said: "We write during reading," We do math via writing. As you saw today, we write both in our content areas and during a set writing period. There is no doubt that reading skills may be developed through other subjects like social studies and writing. Carla (WV, HI) echoed this sentiment. As a result, this isn't only a matter of history." Teachers frequently used theme modules to include writing into their content-area curriculum. – Writing and reading are inseparable if students are to become excellent writers, they argue.

A statistically significant and qualitatively confirmed study found that the use of rhetorical style and voice was considerable among high-income instructors. Both groups placed equal emphasis on reading-writing connections, but examples from high-income school instructors showed how they appreciated and integrated literature. There was no statistical significance. Consequently, their writing techniques were more in line with the NCTE's position on successful writing (2004) than with a skills-focused approach. They also represented some of the evidence-based methods that boost student writing, such as creativity/imagery instruction, strategy training and the use of models of teaching writing (Graham, McKeown, Kiuhare, & Harris, 2012; Graham &Perin, 2007).

On the other hand, in low-income schools, "correctness," was more closely defined by Graham and colleagues (2002), who placed an emphasis on lower-level competencies. Writers were taught to master basic skills before moving on to more sophisticated structures in low-income institutions. This was evident in their focus on grammar/mechanics and sentence construction. Graham et al's meta-analysis found that grammar instruction had no significant influence on student writing.

4.2.4 Emphasizing grammar and mechanics

When it comes to teaching writing to kids in high-income schools, just 26 percent of the instructors highlighted the importance of grammar and writing norms, but in low-income schools this was one of the most common topics of discussion. The majority of instructors at low-income schools (10 out of 14) said that children must grasp grammar and punctuation before they can write properly (71%). According to Fisher's exact test, instructors in high-income schools are 1.5% more likely than those in low-income schools to devote class time to grammar and mechanics (95 percent confidence interval [CI] [.03,.74]).

Teachers in low-income schools were more likely to focus on grammar and mechanics, according to the qualitative data. There was one student named by Rhonda (IL, LI) as one of her best writers. She described Lamaya as "my highest writer." She's a natural when it comes to grammar. She enjoys writing both realism and pure fiction. When it comes to her, it's all about correcting the punctuation." "I think a lot more about spelling and punctuation and complete sentences and things like that," said Susan (UT, LI). Additionally, Shauna (IL, LI) stated, 'I always look at the sentences and make sure they have proper punctuation, grammar and spelling of the phrases that they're writing, punctuation, to make sure that the sentences make sense.' She didn't address the student's meaning while describing a student she thought was a bad writer; instead, she said the kid "has some problems with a lot of grammar." That's right. He spelt the word "friends" incorrectly. He omitted the 'e' from'make' He doesn't actually complete his sentences with a period."

On the question of how excellent writers are different from bad writers, Cynthia (WV, LI) said that bad writers don't know how to employ basic writing rules. My low and high are markedly different since they don't even use periods or caps. "I usually start out with interactive edit where they make corrections, things that have to do with grammar," said

Mary (WV, LI) when asked how much time she spent on editing during her writing lessons. She made no reference to what the youngsters were attempting to communicate.

It's worth noting, however, that while the majority of instructors from low-income schools placed an emphasis on writing conventions, a small number did not. The writer's workshop format used by Amy (UT, LI) didn't include any discussion of grammar or punctuation. Writing allows pupils to do just that: explore their thoughts. "Write whatever is on your mind," she said, encouraging her students to do just that. No, I'm not going to go back and re-do all of this. In my coaching, I won't be using this." Instead of focusing on "Spelling, worksheets copying down the sentence and putting on a period, exclamation point, or question mark, she used this approach to writing instruction." "They [good writers] are more aware of the subtleties in what an author has presented on paper," says Susan (UT, LI) in addition to employing suitable norms, such as capitalization, grammar, and spelling.

4.2.5 Focusing on sentence structure

Sentence structure was defined by the instructors as the ability to construct entire sentences that include both a subject and an adjectival phrase and the knowledge of the elements of speech necessary to employ them correctly in writing. Also included in the description of "sentence structure" was an emphasis on "run on sentences." There was a strong preference for teaching sentence structure by the majority of instructors at low-income schools (11 out of 14). Teachers in high-income schools were.07 times (95 percent confidence interval [CI] (.01,.4)] more likely than those in low-income schools to concentrate on Sentence Structure, according to Fisher's exact test (p.02).

Qualitative research reveals specific instances of how instructors approached and implemented the subject of sentence structure instruction. A single day of Kristen (UT, LIweek)'s was devoted to studying sentence structure since she felt it was so vital. "And one day it's just diagramming sentences on the white board and they could do that for all day," she said of encouraging her kids to undertake sentence diagramming. They like creating sentence diagrams." Sentence structure is critical to helping students detect and eliminate "run-on sentences," said Shauna (IL, LI). It was mentioned that run-on sentences were more prevalent in the writing of weak writers than in the work of competent authors. She used the example of one of her less talented pupils to demonstrate her point: "This is Timothy, one of

my students. He had a lot of grammatical issues. Run-on phrases abound in his writing." According to James (UT, LI), pupils who haven't fully grasped the language are more likely to produce long, rambling phrases. They utilise the same terminology over and over again, so a lot of their writing sounds the same if you flick through their work."

Even in the early phases of writing, Olene (IL, LI) believed that the quantity of sentences mattered. 'Even if the threshold may be three, each paragraph must include at least five sentences to create a paragraph,' she stated. At least in the beginning, students, in the words of Mary (WV, LI), should concentrate on creating five-sentence essays and not "worry about paragraphs, or indenting." According to her, pupils can begin working on "one paragraph, and then we will slowly move up to the five paragraphs," when she is happy that they have written effectively 5 sentences of their own.

Some of the professors were also concerned with the flow of words. She noted that while most of her pupils were able to write entire sentences, she was concerned that they were having difficulty with the flow of sentences because of their inability to employ transitions effectively. Most of Olene's kids "don't use it [transition] because I think it's new," she explained.

4.2.6 Summary

Instructors at high-income schools valued writing in a different way than teachers in low-income schools, as shown by both quantitative and qualitative evidence. Because of differences in student demographics, teachers in low-income schools felt that students needed to master grammar and punctuation before they could add voice or be concerned with expanding upon their ideas, whereas teachers in high-income schools felt that students were already proficient in grammar and could construct sentences. It is not clear why instructors in low-income schools had different attitudes than those in high-income schools. A closer look at our findings reveals that the shifting demographics of students and the programmes and resources used to teach them have influenced instructors' views.

4.3   Influences on Teachers' Orientations

Three areas of impacts on teachers' writing orientations were discovered by the researchers: (a) school context, (b) programmes and materials, and (c) policies and assessment policies and procedures.

4.3.1   School context

When it came to how instructors felt about writing, school affluence and the number of English language learners (ELLs) made a significant impact. The demographics of the pupils they taught and how it impacted their teaching was discussed by nearly all of the teachers. For the most part, teachers at more affluent schools were not subject to the same kinds of demands as their counterparts in poorer schools. Additionally, they reported that their kids were well-prepared for assessments, which was encouraging. "The kids, when they come here, are very prepared." stated Marcy (UT, HI). It's a high-achieving school, so I'm not under any pressure, according to Ruth. They're generally doing well. "Wonder Bread" is how Tom (IL, HI) described his school. Generally speaking, everyone here is pleased with how things are progressing. We haven't had any major issues.

When it came to helping children improve their writing skills, teachers at low-income schools were more concerned with helping pupils pass tests. A low-income school on the "watch list." was where Dana (IL, LI) taught. A "watch list." and construction made many think the school was unsafe, she claimed. Our work is depicted in an unflattering light. There's always more to do as you progress through the game's levels. As a result, you're more preoccupied with preparing and carrying out the many rebuilding plans and tasks. Also, you don't have much time to teach the skills.

Teacher morale may have been impacted by the different school environments. As a result, their perspectives on students and education may have shifted. Because of demographic shifts and the amount of English-language learners in schools, instructors' views have also evolved. In the classroom, over half of the instructors (14 out of 29) reported an increase in the number of English Language Learners (ELLs). With only one high-income school having ELLs, it was Belleview. There were a number of ELLs in several of the low-income schools. Teachers' approaches to helping their pupils ranged from having low expectations to being uncertain to being encouraging. Amy (UT, LI) opined that the fact that ELLs are ELLs makes her doubt their writing abilities. "The reason I'm calling her medium, she's very smart, but she's a second-language child." For Cynthia (WV, LI), the same tactics she would use to help struggling writers in general would be used to help ELLs as well. When a result, we put them to good use as required. However, scholars that examine how to educate ELLs claim that

utilising the same tactics with ELLs and struggling writers is an urban legend that can be detrimental to the success of ELLs (Harper & de Jong, 2007).

Teaching English-language learners (ELLs) can be challenging for some teachers. However, some teachers exhibited appreciation for the cultural and linguistic diversity of their students. Here's how it all goes down: According to James (UT, LI), "contextualise the literature and the writing for them [ELLs] much more to bring out their background knowledge so they feel more comfortable." was his goal when teaching writing. When Sarah (UT, HI) instructed her pupils to write about dragons, she encouraged them to draw on their own cultural knowledge of dragons. She said: I have a lot of students from Korea, Taiwan, and China that don't speak English. The arrival of dragons from the East on New Year's Eve is a wonderful treat. They have a wide range of characteristics, and they're more than happy to discuss them. A child is made up of a variety of distinct components. Being exposed to other people's cultures.

Several teachers also discussed how they helped ELLs improve their writing abilities through various exercises. The pupils were helped in many of the assignments by the use of graphic organisers and other aids. She claimed she sought to employ all of her ELL students' senses, including taste, sight, and sound. In addition to writing, I'm a prolific artist. It also aids second-language learners who don't know the meaning of a word. They may be able to make a connection between the word and an image or taste of it. We write on a daily basis. Journaling or responding to current events are the two main ways we express ourselves. Teacher after teacher said they didn't have adequate training to work with English language learners. Only James (UT, LI) claimed to be a qualified ESL instructor. "I think I'm up-to-date on current practises," he said. Because of the research I've done, I'm more open to trying new ideas to see whether they can benefit my pupils.

Teachers also expressed dissatisfaction with the way in which English language learners were tested. It wasn't fair for them to be graded by the same criteria as other pupils because they had just arrived. She argued that testing Chinese students two days after they arrive and averaging their results was unjust. The same tests aren't being given to the same students every time. Some argue that assessing ELLs who aren't yet ready to write will have no impact on how well they are taught the craft of writing. It's Susan's opinion that this doesn't improve

the quality of the text. They need to pass the third grade test, and she is well aware that they will fail it. This will be a challenge for them because they're still learning to speak English.

Different approaches were proposed by teachers in response to the growing number of English-language learners (ELLs) in their classrooms. Some people had devised activities and tactics to assist them deal with ELLs, while others believed they were not ready enough. There was a general consensus among instructors that ELLs' test results counted toward AYP and that the test measures were not adequate. A study by Harper and de Jong (2004) found that English language learners are the fastest-growing category in the United States, and that few teachers have the necessary knowledge and abilities to help them succeed. Harper and de Jong's statements are supported by the results.

4.3.2   Programs and materials

Teacher views regarding writing were also affected by the programmes and resources they used in the classroom and school. Teachers usually referred to specific writing programmes or books that had shaped their views on the subject. Six Traits has had a substantial influence on classroom education in Utah, according to teachers there, for example. In Marcy's (HI) opinion, the six attributes are the reason she performs better. My students will learn things that are more personalised to me than if they were just asked to jot down their own goals." "Painted Essay" is highlighted as a technique that has had an impact on education in Vermont. According to Tierney (HI), children are taught to organise their writing in this way because it is a means for them to create an opening paragraph that includes an intriguing hook, background information, or both, depending on the type of writing they're doing. Because she was utilising this instrument, it had an effect on her thinking about her lesson. The "Four Square Writing Method." was used by a number of instructors in West Virginia's public schools. Their educational approaches were greatly affected by this, according to the authors (Gould and Gould, 1999). "I have all kinds of books on how to write a paragraph and how to create a storey," revealed Connie (HI), who utilised a range of materials but preferred the Four Square. By employing four squares in this way, I feel that pupils will be able to view a more complete image. You may break it down into smaller bits now that the completed product is apparent to them. An Illinois high school's teachers who participated in the Step-Up to Writing programme reported that it had a beneficial effect on their pupils' writing

abilities. Step Up to Writing is the name of the programme Sally and her coworkers use. Also, it's something that the district has just recently come to accept, as it is very new. We need a common language so that children can recognise colours and comprehend what is required of them, so they don't have to learn a new phrase for what is expected of them every year. One school in Illinois mandated teachers to utilise America's Choice, while another required them to use a basic reading curriculum. Both of these programmes were designed specifically for low-income students. Dana's depiction of her writing-related training paralleled the prescribed framework of the curriculum. She emphasised that because it is America's Choice, it is all about artefacts and kids using the information on the wall to their advantage. We have rubrics for narrative writing in our writing centre that students utilise to ensure that they are following the proper procedures and simply recording what they have written. There is now a writing procedure in place with the first phase completed.

What do you do next is an excellent question to ask. Next, we offer a range of ways to get started. There are many ways to start a story. Teachers' attitudes about writing were clearly influenced by the materials they had at their disposal. Six Traits, Step Up to Writing, or America's Choice were all phrases used by instructors to describe their classroom activities, no matter what the programme was called. The materials usually contain embedded messages on the many parts of writing that are vital to pupils. Six Traits (Spandel, 2005) is an example of a work that focuses on "good writing," features like ideas, word choice (or lack thereof), organisation (or lack thereof), voice (or lack thereof), word choice (or lack thereof), sentence fluency (or lack thereof), and conventions (or lack thereof). It is a collaboration between corporations and research labs that provides resources and lesson plans as well as rubrics.

For example, when used with the 6+1 Trait® Writing framework, it is an effective means of developing an understanding of what 'great' means in terms of writing. Using the 6+1 Trait model, teachers and students may discover areas of strength and weakness as they strive to improve their writing skills and abilities. (Northwest education.) Other resources, such as Step Up to Writing (Auman, nd), which integrates the six qualities with particular models of texts and America's Choice, sell themselves as having a "foundation," while 6+1 Traits touts itself as having a "foundation." Teaching writing successfully necessitates the use of resources such as lesson plans, models, worksheets, and rubrics, as demonstrated in the

programmes. There is a "process models" for prewriting, composing, and revising provided by Calkins (1986) and Graves (1994), although the programmes differ in how much they supply a specific script for teachers. Although they are arguing for explicit instruction, they seem to agree that writing is a set of processes to follow and traits to model. According to the findings of the study, teachers' perspectives of writing instruction are being influenced by the models. However, teachers' interviews indicated that although some schools allowed them to select the materials they used, others required them to adhere to a predetermined curriculum. Utah, Vermont, Illinois, and West Virginia's high-income schools routinely convened to debate curriculum, while instructors in low-income schools in Illinois were obliged to utilise particular programmes like Writer's Advantage, the writing component of America's Choice, in order to achieve the state's standards. Material selection was also shown to be important by examining the overall impact of policies and standards on instructors' orientations.

4.3.3   Rubrics and assessments

Teachers' viewpoints were also impacted by the rubrics and assessments contained in the larger policies of State Standards and NCLB. NCLB Using rubrics to standardise grading, determine whether or not students have mastered certain skills, and gauge the success of a programme are all ideas that have been floated around (Spandel, 2006). Rubrics were developed by grade level teams at the Illinois high-income school in order to eliminate grade discrepancies. Yes, producing this [rubric] really liberated me because I really wanted to get away from saying, "I really enjoy that," because it's meaningless and doesn't help them improve or see what's weak, and it doesn't help me be more objective in what I'm reading. There were a number of times when we had to offer someone a paper and ask them "How would you score this?" in the beginning.

It was common practise for instructors in Vermont to write and provide rubrics for each of their genres to their pupils. State Standards, "Great Expectations," had a huge influence on Tierney's teaching, and she said, "And [I] have sort of used it [Standards] to basically control what I'm doing." As an element of writing instruction, rubrics were more than just recommendations in certain universities. highlighting her dependence on the rubric as a result of the packaged programme that the school was using: "I'm not crazy about the America's Choice writing programme," Sharon (IL, LI) commented. You must abide by their set of

regulations." Like Sharon, Dana (IL, LI) reported that the writing programme had a significant influence on her approach to rubrics: That was indeed included. If you don't accomplish it in the first 30 days, they provide you rubrics and other resources to help you do it on your own after that. Telling the youngsters what an A paper should look like would help them prepare for it. This is how you're supposed to do it with them, so they know precisely what to do. Rubrics helped some teachers check out important aspects in their writing courses, according to Olene (IL, LI). This is what I'm searching for, so I check it off as well. Then we talk about whether or not they have this or that, she explained. As Anna (WV, LI) put it, "So...and we have a rubric that works," Like, they expect to see this kind of thing in their work, so we teach it in the manner they want it to be scored. Children are taught to integrate these elements in their writing as a result of this."

A growing trend in writing evaluation and testing has been the use of rubrics, whether devised by instructors in a school or incorporated as part of a packaged curriculum. No Child Left Behind mandated that states develop statewide assessment systems in order to meet the requirements of the law. All four states studied have writing standards and assessments in place, and instructors' approaches to writing were shown to be influenced by these standards and tests (McCarthey& Ro, 2011). These tests also had an effect on the attitudes of teachers regarding writing in the classroom.. Even if a student fared well on a test, teachers saw evaluations as necessary. Carla (WV, HI) stated, "We always do fairly well on the writing examinations," We have a strong desire to succeed, and we feel it is critical." There was a noticeable difference in how teachers approached writing after the exams, albeit they didn't always feel that way. As Carla continued, she said,

I think the writing test scores students based on their performance in six different categories. Transitions, a beginning, middle, and end, as well as the use of interesting vocabulary and more complex sentences all contribute to the grade. In my perspective, some children, particularly those in 4th grade, find it a little challenging, but I can't deny that it has been useful to everyone. This means that even though I'll meet with each student one-on-one so that we can do a lot of editing and proofreading, it'll be worth it for the instructor. There is a lot of time and effort involved, but I'm delighted to say that I've seen results. Children, in my

opinion, are significantly superior writers. In addition, I've observed a considerable difference simply because they're starting in lower grades.

Some teachers made changes to their curricula after the state examinations to incorporate writing requirements. As Connie (WV, LI) put it, "There are some things that we will do after the exam that I can't really do before and actually spend some time on. They also impacted teachers' morale and willingness to educate beyond the curriculum. Kristen (UT, LI) observed that "It (state testing) affects the morale of the teachers here," As a rookie teacher, I'd be concerned about how this will affect my classroom instruction." She went on to say that she was worried about losing her job if the school failed to meet the AYP. Shauna (IL, LI), who spent most of her time preparing students for the Illinois Standards Achievement Test's reading section, explained, "The reason we don't focus as much on the writing is because we're looking at the ISAT, and the ISAT their response counts as only like 7 percent, something like that" (ISAT). Consequently, she didn't spend much time writing and instead concentrated on the test's answer section. School climate, programmes and resources, and the larger framework of policies and assessments affected teachers' attitudes on writing teaching according to interviews. Teachers' opinions are influenced by variables such as school demographics, accessible materials, and the greater social and political climate.

5. Conclusion

Teacher interviews regarding writing teaching reveal a clear consensus that providing students with a framework to work within is essential. Some teachers were open to teaching their students how to arrange their writing, how to sequence it and how to incorporate subject sentences into their essays. Many teachers had adopted the use of graphic organisers and other forms to teach organisational skills. According to Graham et al. (2002), the majority of teachers agree that explicit writing instruction is important. The focus on structure is based on these findings. It is one of these aspects that instructors tend to prefer when it comes to explicit education: organising explicit instruction. The interview data, on the other hand, shows that instructors apply this position differently. While some teachers feel that using literary examples might help students succeed, others believe that specialised graphic organisers and styles, such as the "Painted Essay," are necessary. Writing teaching is becoming more explicit and procedural facilitation of writing is gaining some momentum in

accordance with evidence-based practise of scaffolding in writing instruction, according to this finding (Graham &Perin, 2007). When it comes to teaching students how to write, teachers' views on the necessity of organisation and explicit instruction vary widely.

The findings of the study also revealed that different teachers in various educational contexts place a varying priority on certain aspects of writing. Teacher emphasis on rhetorical style development, fostering student voice, and connecting reading and writing were all common themes in high-income school curricula. Teachers' attitudes regarding the significance of regular opportunities to write for an audience in a supportive atmosphere are in line with a natural learning perspective (Graham et al., 2002) and some parts of process writing techniques (Graham et al., 2002). (Graham &Perin, 2007). This is in line with helpful approaches, such as creativity and imagery training, that are essential for young students (Graham et al., 2002). Teaching grammar and mechanics as well as sentence building is more common in low-income institutions, where students are more concerned with "the accuracy" than in wealthier counterparts (Graham et al., 2002). Calkins, 1986 and Graves, 1994 have criticised the emphasis on skill and drill, in which practising norms takes precedence over the process of planning, writing, and revising with the support of teachers. This mindset harkens back to this approach. Teaching tactics for planning and revising, requiring students to create more complex sentences, cultivating interest, and providing examples of writing in a variety of genres are all advised, yet this viewpoint is the complete opposite (Graham et al, 2012; Graham &Perin, 2007).

Writing teaching in high- and low-income schools differs greatly, which raises concerns about the gap in expectations teachers have for students from different socioeconomic backgrounds. Teachers in low-income schools may have been responding to the perceived needs of their students on the other hand. There were more ethnic and linguistic diversity among low-income pupils than those attending high-income schools, where the majority of the students were white from the suburbs. Scripted curricula (e.g. America's Choice) in low-income schools tend to reinforce a focus on fundamental abilities, whereas instructors in high-income schools appear to have greater freedom in selecting curriculum materials and appreciating writing quality beyond grammar and mechanics (see Cummins, 2007). It's becoming increasingly apparent that pupils in low-income schools aren't getting the same

access to rigorous writing programmes as their wealthier counterparts (Taylor et al, 2003; Teale & Gambrell, 2007).

Students' socioeconomic status had a considerable influence on teachers' instruction in both high- and low-income schools, according to teachers. As an example, teachers with pupils who were English language learners (ELLs) commented about how challenging it was for them to meet their needs through writing. As a result, a variety of characteristics, such as socioeconomic position and ethnicity, might account for differences in teacher orientations between high- and low-income schools. It is gratifying to see that children in low-income schools may be receiving the kinds of writing training that Luke (2010) thinks they would receive—scripted, fundamental skills-oriented instruction that will just perpetuate differences in curriculum in various schools (Anyon, 1981). Because of this, new and experienced instructors must be helped to understand the requirements of pupils from a variety of backgrounds, as evidenced by data from many sources. As a teacher, you should encourage your students to write in a variety of genres for a variety of audiences, and you should help them evaluate rhetorical style and voice, as well as reading-writing relationships. In order to assist all students succeed in their writing tasks, this will be in line with evidence-based solutions (Graham &Perin, 2007).

Teachers' attitudes about writing are impacted by demographics, resources, and evaluations, a finding that is consistent with other research that have acknowledged the relevance of context in establishing instructors' attitudes toward writing (Berry, 2006; Reutzel&Sudweeks, 2008; Troia, Lin, Cohen & Monroe, 2011; Troia& Maddox, 2004). Teachers' use of frameworks such as the Six Traits (Spandel, 2005) and resources they rely on, such as certain types of writing, have evolved in recent years, and this research recognises those changes. Teachers' perceptions of writing are changing as a result of the proliferation of books and activities that promise to increase the traits of "excellent writing" It is because of this that textbooks must be examined more thoroughly, including their underlying assumptions and the ways in which students are taught to write.

Teachers' opinions regarding writing instruction are influenced by a wide range of evaluations, from rubrics to state exams, according to interviews conducted with them. Although rubrics themselves are restrictive in their use, it appears that teachers are seeking

more systematic ways to writing evaluation (Spandel, 2006). (Wilson, 2007). This study supports the findings of Evans (2007), who found that instructors' attitudes were influenced by cooperation on standards and rubrics. Teachers, too, were affected by the state tests, as they indicated that they often relate their curriculum to the examinations or teach more real writing following the state evaluations. No Child Left Behind's overall policy may not have a direct influence on teachers' orientations, but rising pressure on educators, State Standards, and a heavy emphasis on testing may shape it in an indirect way (McCarthey, 2008; McCarthey& Ro, 2011).

The study shows some of the flaws of Graham et al(2002instrument)'s for assessing orientations, as well as their own, in that teachers may have more sophisticated attitudes toward writing than those acquired from a survey. Teachers' attitudes and writing practises need to be explored more, according to this study's findings. There are several ways teachers can incorporate the NCTE framework of beliefs into their educational activities. Aside from this, study is needed to identify how instructors might employ professional development in order to deliver fascinating writing tasks to all students, regardless of their socioeconomic status.

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7

A Study of Translation Proficiency with Special Reference to Title Translations

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Abstract:

Writing and translation process studies have a lot of similarities, from the research questions to the tools employed to investigate them. It is not uncommon for translation studies to take into account the workplace and cognitive processes as well as the impact they have on product quality, similar to how writing research has done so lately. Translators' perspectives of their obligations as text creators, as well as their approach to the title translation problem, may be examined using methodologies from both domains, as we demonstrate in this paper. As part of an extensive investigation on the relationship between translation competence and the process, a large corpus of data was collected. Our multi-method approach includes keystroke logging, screenshot recording, eye tracking, retrospectives, and interviews. In a non-intrusive and regulated manner, it allows us to monitor translators at work. Additionally, it provides a plethora of data from which I may draw conclusions about how translators of varying levels of skill approach their work and how they approach language.

Keywords: Self-concept, titles, translation competence, retrospection, multi-method

1.   Introduction

As has been stated and well-documented elsewhere, recent technology breakthroughs have drastically changed text creation processes in practically all areas of human endeavour (e.g. Bazerman 2007). Writing a few lines or "pencilling in an appointment" may soon be as obscure to future generations as the simile "as fine as vellum" is to most present readers. Inkpots and quills are as antiquated as the notion of translators toiling over manuscripts in the company of reference books. A vast variety of digital materials have made computer workstations crucial in both fields. In today's world, not only do the majority of texts get written on computers, but they're also delivered online and printed only when someone requests them. When it comes to translation, most translators prefer working with computer-generated translations, and they'll even charge extra if they're forced to deal with paper-based translations.

Scholars interested in the writing and translation processes might benefit from the computerization of both professions, which is another similarity between the two. Non-invasive methods such as keystroke monitoring make it possible to reproduce and analyse texts and translations at every step of their development (see Van Waes&Leijten 2006 on the use of InputLog in writing research and Jakobsen 2006 on the use of TransLog in translation research). If you're a writer or translator who has to keep track of micro-alterations and pauses, keystroke logs are a great tool. However, they don't give much information about what occurs while you're not writing. However, the use of eye-tracking and continuous screen recording in writing and translation studies has successfully overcome this limitation (see for example Asadi&Séguinot 2005; Degenhardt 2006; Dragsted 2010). By keeping an eye on both the changes on the computer screen and any shifts in visual attention, such as when someone switches screens to consult a resource or look up a phrase in an online thesaurus, the process may be better understood.

Another prominent source of data in writing and translation research is self-report by writers and translators, either in the form of current or retrospective verbalizations. A century after they were first used in psychology and language studies, contemporaneous reports have been critiqued for interfering with the process being examined (Camps 2003). Jakobsen showed

that thinking aloud reduces translation pace and causes translators to analyse material in smaller pieces when they think aloud (Jääskeläinen 1999: 151-158)

Retrospection, which occurs after a job has been finished, is a useful alternative to verbalising the task at the time of its completion. Writing and talking are not required at the same time; the talking does not affect the writing or translation process because it comes subsequently. Other approaches, like as keystroke logging or screen recordings, are commonly used in combination with it (see, for instance, Alves 2005 and Kujamäki 2010). For cue-based retrospective data, a recording of the operation is replayed and the writer or translator is allowed to remark (cf. Hansen 2006; see Göpferich 2009 or Jääskeläinen 2011 for potential drawbacks of retrospection).

Because many methodologies may be used, researchers can look at the writing and translation processes from a number of perspectives to better understand the talents and resources that writers and translators employ in their work. For the study of journalists' writing processes, Perrin (2001, 2002, 2003, 2006a) created Progression Analysis. Observation, interviewing, computer recording, and cue-based retrospection are just a few of the methods used in this study. Examining the writing processes of students in schools has also proven to be effective (e.g. Gnach et al. 2007). Screen recording and eye-tracking have lately been applied to studies of translation processes in controlled contexts (e.g. Ehrensberger-Dow &Künzli 2010; Massey &Ehrensberger-Dow 2010; Ehrensberger-Dow & Perrin 2013).

Data from various forms of computer recording and retrospective notes can be used to derive conclusions about reading processes, revision, research, consultation, problem-solving, and other behaviours during translation. Because each computer activity can be reconstructed from the recordings, it allows for a more comprehensive investigation of how specific problems are handled than is possible with other products.

Data from screen recordings and cue-based retrospection are used in the current study to investigate whether indicators of translators' self-concepts are linked to how they deal with the issues raised by title translation, as measured by a focus on various aspects of the translation process (such as as part of a social system or as a cognitive act). Many psycholinguistic and cognitive models, such as Kiraly 1995 and Göpferich 2009, directly or implicitly (e.g. PACTE 2003, 2005, 2011) consider self-concept to be a key aspect of

translation competence, hence we choose to explore it. PACTE According to Nord (1993), translation is both a sociological event and an act or set of observable practises that can be triggered in the translator's mind when they are translated. The focus on titles is motivated by the fact that they provide essential source texts that when translated generically represent both of these aspects of the translation process (cf. Nord 1993: 286).

2.   Translation competence and translator self-concept

Practically speaking, it's a given that the way you go about your translation work has an impact on your ability to do it effectively. There are six interconnected sub-competences or components in the holistic model proposed by the PACTE group (2003, 2005, 2011). There are three factors that appear to be universal in the development of multilingual texts: bilingualism, the ability to communicate in many languages, and a psycho-physiological component (e.g. attention). It is considered that the other three sub-competences (instrumental, strategic, and translation-specific knowledge) are unique to translation, whereas the first two are assumed to be universal. Knowledge of translation principles and the profession can be tested through interviews and questionnaires in this sub-competence. Translation-knowledge The research, information literacy, and information technology abilities that translators use may be seen in the instrumental sub-competency. The strategic sub-competence must be accessible indirectly, maybe when translators reflect on their actions and judgements, in order to have overall control over the translation process. Translators' understandings of their roles and obligations as language mediators and text creators, as articulated by Kiraly (1995: 100), might be gleaned through this kind of thinking.

Translation self-concept involves a comprehension of the translation's objective, a recognition of its information requirements, an appraisal of one's competence to execute the work, and an associated capacity for monitoring and evaluating translation results for appropriateness and adequacy. We will use Toury's (1995) fundamental difference between the cognitive translation act and the contextual communicative, socio-cultural event in which that act is embedded to describe the translator self-concept for the purposes of this research. Self-concept in this sense is a recognition that translators face a wide range of duties and obligations in the course of translating and in the aftermath of translating.

The translator's self-concept is central to a psycholinguistic model of the translator's mental space established by Kiraly (1995: 101). The concept is based on research into students' and interpreters' simultaneous verbalizations (i.e. think-aloud techniques). Translator's personal self-concept is also included in Göpferich's model of translation competence (2008: 155; 2009: 22). According to Risku (2009; see also Risku 2009), it has been linked to the translator's education, as well as to aspects of social obligation and function. TransComp participants were asked to complete questionnaires about their own self-concept as translators at three different points in the study: at the beginning, after three semesters, and at the end (see Göpferich 2009 for more information; see also Göpferich et al. 2011), in order to test Göpferich's model. According to their comments, the hypothesis that one's self-concept is linked to one's ability to translate may be supported.

Others, including Gross (2003: 91), have made the same assumption. First, boosting the awareness of the link between journalistic work and translation should have a positive influence on translators' self-concepts. Parallels between translation and writing are also shown by Tirkkonen-Condit and Laukkanen (1996: 45-46). Because she sees herself as a "equivalents" translator, the translator works hard to find words that convey the same meaning as what she is translating. When she sees herself as a writer who conveys to her audience the important aspects of the original message, she is fully responsible for producing the target text in a way that makes sense to her audience member. "copier" and "maker" are two different things, according to Katan (2009: 135), in his report on a global survey of professional translators' empowerment and self-image. When it comes to translation, "the double bind present in all translation: [...] a need to simultaneously reach towards the target text readers ("readability") while remaining faithful to the source text." is what Koskinen (2008: 103) revealed in her ethnographic research of Finnish EU translators. With this basic dichotomy, Kiraly (2008) proposes a more complex approach to translation studies, which reflects the long-standing controversies in translation studies surrounding "literal" "true" and "free" translations (see Munday 2008). (1997:152). A continuum exists "stretching from the simple retrieval of spontaneous connections at the word level to a complicated, multistaged problem-solving process in which extra-linguistic elements are taken into account." he claims. When translating, a translator who has a well-developed self-concept may be able to go back and forth between words and readers as needed.

According to the translator's degree of experience, there are various emphasis points along the continuum stretching from literal word-level translation to intricate reader-oriented transfer discussed in section one of this paper. For this purpose, we analysed translators' retrospective comments in order to learn more about their own self-concepts and the translation process itself, in accordance with the practise of enabling translators to express themselves.

3. Data collection and creation of a corpus

As part of our ongoing research, Capturing Translation Processes, we've enlisted the help of translators of all ability levels to complete translations in a lab setting. We can compare the performance of students at various stages of their careers, such as at the beginning and end of their degree programme and two years after graduation, using our database of data. We can also compare the performance of professionals and students in various degree programmes, such as BA and MA, and compare translations into different languages, such as German-English or English-German (L1 or L2). MA translation students tested in the first semester of their graduate programme, and professionals with more than two years of experience working as staff translators tested at the end of their first translation course. Students with a bachelor's degree in translation were tested before their first translation class began. The group sizes are spread as evenly as feasible within the constraints of the corpus's size. A summary of the situation is shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Groups, experience, direction, and source texts

Group (n)	Level of experience	Version	Source text(s) translated
BAG (9)	BA beginners	into German (L1)	*whales*
BAE (9)	BA beginners	into English (L2)	*Wale*
MA (8)	MA students	into English (L2)	*Wale*
		into German (L1)	*whales*
ProG (8)	Professionals	into German (L1)	*whales*
ProE (7)	Professionals	into English (L1)	*Wale*

The data collecting method and environment differ slightly amongst the groups due to logistical constraints. Two subgroups of a large cohort of individuals were randomly selected and tested at the beginning of the longitudinal research to form the BA starter groups. They

were allocated to translate into their first language (German) or their second language (English) after completing an interview in which they answered questions about their educational and professional backgrounds (English). All of the tools and resources that they were previously familiar with from other computers were available at a customised computer workstation in the departmental library, which had a similar user experience to other computers in the department. A keystroke logging programme (InputLog 2.0) recorded the participants' keyboard and mouse activities, and another programme (Camtasia Studio) recorded all changes to the source text, which included switching between windows, editing the emerging translation, and looking up information in libraries and on the internet. 1 For those new to BA, the project manager promised them that they would not be penalised if they didn't meet their deadline (approximately 20 minutes). Once in the silent room, they were given the screen recording of their procedure and asked to comment on what they saw themselves doing in the language of their choice in the language of their choice (cue-based retrospection).

Source texts (STs) were selected for this study because of their believed to be basic enough for novices to grasp but being demanding for specialists. According to the project's specifications, the texts were taken from pieces that appeared in local daily newspapers (the publication name and date of publication were provided) and were intended for publishing in a similar magazine in the target culture. For all that they were almost identical in terms of word count, they came from publications with similar readerships, they provided around the same amount of potential translation challenges, and they seemed to be on the same theme. [TRANSLATION] (whales or Wale in German; see Table 1). They differed in terms of the length and intricacy of their titles as well as the content of the body of the text (see Appendix A).

However, unlike the beginners, who were randomly allocated to a certain translation version, the MA students and pros were not given the identical STs to translate. MA students conducted two translations in eight weeks: one into English (their second language) and one into German (their native language) (their L1). 2 Given that these translations were done after three semesters of translation instruction, it was anticipated that there would be no significant influence on students' self-perceptions or translation abilities due to the small time gap

between data collection and student performance. They all translated into their own tongue, which is the direction they are most familiar with. An additional data collection method used to distinguish MA students and professionals from BA novices was an eye-tracking monitor and software3, in addition to keyboard logging and screen recording programmes. The MA students and professionals were tested in the usability lab. As soon as the eye-tracker was calibrated, they were given an Internet search activity to get them used to the layout of the translation environment, such as where their browser was positioned. To get an answer to something as simple as "How big is the Pacific Ocean?" they had to turn to the internet. According to our audience's preference, we wanted to translate the words "whales" and "Wale ST" into German and English, respectively. A recording of roughly 20 minutes was set up for the MA students, who were advised to work as normal and at their own pace, with the awareness that they would be recorded for that length of time. When eye tracking gaze plots were transformed into.avi files, the MA students and professionals completed a cue-based self-reflection in the language of their choice by commenting on eye tracking gaze plots that were overlaid on the screen recordings (see videoclip ProG sample.avi for an example | available at WritingPro.eu for more information)

4. Results and conclusions: categories of self-perception

Because of their quantity of information, the recordings of the translation procedures provided as high-quality triggers for the retrospective observations. Following Göpferich (2008: 72-81)'s advice, the commentary was transcribed using TEI 2008 conventions, and the screen events were coded using XML tags built expressly for the Capturing Translation Processes project (see Appendix B). Identifying the statements that revealed a meta-linguistic comprehension of what participants were doing and why was done iteratively by isolating and categorising those that were not solely reports of screen events or study activities. It was then separated into five categories, ranging from the micro level of words and phrases to a knowledge of the readership's wants and expectations, resulting in a total of thirteen codes (see Table 2, with example utterances from participants from the three levels of experience given for each code and category).

This was done by using percentages to figure out the number of students in each of the self-concept groups who had provided comments. Each ST has its own set of results. As an indicator of the translator's major focus of attention, any overt comments made on certain areas of the translation were taken to indicate that the translator was aware of that particular area.

Table 2. Continuum of self-concept categories derived from the retrospective commentaries

Categories	Codes	Examples (participant code_version)
Words & phrases	literal / word-for-word	*I more or less translated it word for word* (BAE1_GE) / *I sort of stayed stuck to the source text* (MA1_EG) / *I tend to write a literal translation* (ProE5_GE)
Sentence structures	moving / changing / word order	*I also moved things around with respect to sentence structures* (BAE2_GE) / *and then I had to adapt the sentence construction to English* (MA3_GE) / *divide this up into two sentences in German* (ProG2_EG)
Text quality	esthetics / naturalness / style	*find something else instead of using the same word twice* (BAG8_EG) / *whether it flows well* (MA6_GE) / *how I could reword it to make it sound a bit nicer* (ProE5_GE)
Loyalty to ST	loyalty to text / completeness	(none of the BA beginners referred to this) / *you don't necessarily have to say 'Meer' [sea]* (MA6_EG) / *check again to see whether everything's there* (ProG8_EG)
Readership	audience / readability / function	*I tried to make it a bit easier to understand* (BAE7_GE) / *it is still readable and understandable* (MA1_EG) / *it's for a newspaper it's not for a scientific journal* (ProE4_GE)

When translating from English into their L1, German, the percentage of translators who make remarks about their own self-concept is seen in Table 3. For example, BA freshmen (BAG) are separated from MA undergrads and professionals from both groups (MA) (ProG).

Table 3. Percentages of translators in each E-G group making comments in each category (*whales* ST)

Group	Experience level	Direction	Words & phrases	Sentence structures	Text quality	Loyalty to ST	Reader-ship
BAG	BA beginners	L2-L1	44	33	33	0	78
MA	MA students	L2-L1	50	25	25	50	63
ProG	Professionals	L2-L1	25	75	88	50	88

Inexperienced English-German speakers seem to have a very narrow focus of attention, with most commenting on the readership and few commenting on the other categories. Student attention to audience may be an indicator of their self-concepts as writers and text analysts because they completed coursework in both the source and target languages the previous semester in text creation and analysis. More careful reading reveals that they're referring to the ST's readership rather than their intended audience (TT). On the other hand, half of the MA students emphasised the importance of conveying the ST's message, while the other half preferred to focus on the target text readership. Higher than half of MA students say that their focus is focused on the level of words and phrases, far more than the group of professionals. According to their remarks, professionals tend to be better at multitasking and have the attention resources to deal with a wide range of worries than the general public. In a survey of professional translators, these and other issues were raised by those who were asked to self-report, and the results showed that translators were dividing their time between ST, TT, and the end-user (Katan 2009).

Table 4. Percentages of translators in each G-E group making comments in each category (*Wale* ST)

Group	Experience level	Direction	Words & phrases	Sentence structures	Text quality	Loyalty to ST	Reader-ship
BAE*	BA beginners	L1-L2	50	75	75	0	38
MA*	MA students	L1-L2	38	50	63	25	38
ProE	Professionals	L2-L1	29	71	100	86	86

* translation into L2

Table 4 displays the percentages of German to English translators who commented on their own self-concept in each of the categories.

Textual level characteristics and TT quality are more important to novices and MA students compared to faithfulness to source text as a whole and what the ST author may have intended, according to studies. It appears that the MA students' dedication to the ST and their awareness of the audience is lacking when they comment on their translation procedures into their second language (L2). Students' emphasis reveals that they may perceive translation into their second language as a practise activity for improving their proficiency in the target language. There might also be a reason for the translations' lack of faithfulness or commitment to the source text, despite the fact that all of the retrospective commentary were written in the translators' native language. Due to German-English translators showing the same spread of attention as English-German translators, it appears that the differences in patterns seen between BAG and BAE beginners and among the same MA students translating E-G or G-E appear to be influenced by translation direction. (i.e. translation into the L2). Follow-up studies should include professionals who routinely translate into both their first and second languages to see if their self-concept is stable enough to be independent of translation direction.

Interpreters' views on their work appear to be affected by training, experience and translation direction according to our research of comments.. Translators who work only in their mother tongue tend to be more conscientious of their obligations to the languages they work in, the texts they translate, the authors they work with, and the audiences they serve. They say that there is less homogeneity, with emphasis given to lexical, syntactic and textual categories that are less uniformly distributed than in the past. Among BA novices, this is even more apparent, as they exhibit a substantial focus on reading the source material but little knowledge of other categories and the translator's work difficulty. BA groups show no reference to source text loyalty in either the L2-L1 direction or when translating into their second language. It appears that they are primarily concerned with the linguistic aspect of translation into L2, a pattern that may also be found among MA students, albeit to a lesser extent. Putting these insights into practise in real-world translation is the next step. Using the

same sets of BA newbies, MA students and professionals we can see how they deal with title translation issues.

5. Titles translation

According to Nord (2004a: 908), a lot of emphasis has been paid to the study of titles in general, but the translation of titles has gotten very less attention. 193 (Viezzi 2011). Prior to the cultural turn in translation studies, the equivalence-oriented dichotomy between literal and free translation was examined in greater detail, with the latter being seen as the most important example (Doyle 1989) or even paradigm of intercultural communication and functional translation (Nord 1991, 1993). (Nord 2004a). "culturally re-contextualized semantic transfer." is the prism through which Doyle examines a corpus of newly translated Spanish and Spanish-American literature titles. "Traits of fidelity" along a "spectrum of the translation process from literal to near-literal to liberal or free translation" (1989: 46) are substituted for the simple faithful/unfaithful dichotomy (1989: 41), which is similar to Kiraly's continuum of "literal to near-literal to liberal or free translation" (1997). According to Nord (1993: 286), title translation is a multifaceted skopos-driven act with many allegiances to the players in the translation event (the commissioner/client, the author of the original material, and the intended recipient). Since all translations aim to be faithful to the original partners' intentions while also being useful in a new communication context, this is a common objective for all translations that goes well beyond the simplistic opposition of "faithful" and "free" translation. Result: (Nord 1993: 291). Nord has used a method quite similar to this in more recent studies (e.g. Nord 2008). Title translations can be analysed along an implicit continuum that ranges from linguistic equivalence to Rabadàn (1991)'s notion of translemic equivalence: "the unique relationship characterising any pair of source and target texts above the mere 'linguistic' level" (Viezzi 2011: 192). In the functionalist paradigm adopted in translation studies over the past twenty years, translators are the only participants in translation events capable of weighing the demands of adequacy and loyalty, which emphasises the importance of translators' responsibilities and has significant implications for their status and self-image (cf. Nord 1993: 293).

In light of this, we contrasted our research participants' findings on title translation self-concept with those previously stated. Until far, all of the translation assessments have been based on product-oriented evaluations. With this approach and process data analysis integrated, our investigation goes one step further. Title translation process-oriented analyses have only been published by Johnsen (2011).

5. Titles for analysis and findings

The corpus utilised for the self-concept analysis (previous section) was also used to collect data for the title translation research. The recordings of screen events and eye-tracking paths were reviewed in addition to the final versions of the titles in the target texts to ascertain the kind and timing of every modification and instance of resource consumption associated to translating the titles. All title-related statements in the retrospective verbal protocols (RVPs) were also gathered and evaluated. The titles indicated a broad range of German translations of the highly difficult English ST title: none of the 23 TT titles were precisely the same (see Appendix C) (see Appendix C). However, as indicated in Table 5, the linguistic patterns may be characterised by four broad forms (Nord 2004b) (Nord 2004b). A verb transmitted the second piece of information in the ST in the most typical way, while the placements of the other two information units were inverted. This form was utilised by the same amount of BA beginners (BAG) and professionals (ProG), however none of the MA students did. A non-finite variant of the first pattern, with the verb as a passive participle rather than in the present tense, was developed by members of all three groups. German grammatical restrictions govern the change in component order from English.

The other two most prevalent patterns are elaborate noun phrases with post-modifying preposition phrases, analogous to the English ST pattern. The organisation of information in the more usually generated pattern (made by two BA and two MA students) follows that of the English ST, while the less frequently produced pattern has the reverse order.

Table 5. Forms and examples of titles for each group (E-G)

Form of ST title	English ST title			
Whales$_1$-at N$_2$-in NP$_3$	Whales at risk in sonar sea exercises			
Form of German titles	**Examples of German titles [English gloss]**	**BAG**	**MA**	**ProG**
NP$_3$-V$_2$-Wale$_1$	Sonarübungen im Meer gefährden Wale			
	[Sonar exercises in sea endanger whales]	4	-	4
Wale$_1$-durch NP$_3$-V$_2$	Wale durch Schalltests gefährdet			
	[Whales by sound tests endangered]	2	1	1
Wale$_1$-in N$_2$-X$_3$	Wale in Gefahr aufgrund von Sonartests im Meer			
	[Whales in danger because of sonar tests in sea]	2	2	-
NP$_3$-als N$_2$-für Wale$_1$	Marine Sonartests als Gefahr für Wale			
	[Marine sonar tests as danger for whales]	-	1	1
	(other variants)	1	2	2
	(no title)	-	2	-

Note. The unit with information content matching that of the source text has been numbered in subscript for ease of comparison

Product analysis shows that BA novices and experts perform equally, but MA students perform significantly differently, in contrast to the pattern seen for the self-concept category categories, according to the findings of the study. As an alternative, it is possible to gain a better understanding of the similarities and contrasts between the two groups by examining processes in both languages. We were able to get a wide range of information on the translation process through screen recordings of the translation procedures and from the RVPs. The book's title was translated in less than ten minutes by nearly all of the participants! In contrast to the two experts (ProG) who didn't start translating the German TT until after they finished the first draught of the English title, two MA students never started translating the English title. Not all students could finish a first draught due to time restrictions, despite the small variances in data collection methods outlined in the preceding section. This resulted in just a 10-minute evaluation period of the translation process.

A breakdown of data gathered from analysing the titles translated from English to German in the first ten minutes of the research is shown in Table 6.

Table 6. Process data for title translation analyses of whales ST (E-G): means per group

Process measure	BAG	MA	ProG
Time in process of 1st version of title (hh:mm:ss)	00:03:10	00:01:32	00:01:20
Consulted dictionary for title translation	89%	25%	50%
Consulted other resources for title translation	11%	38%	75%
Number of revisions to title during first 10 min.	3.8	4.0	4.8
Percentage of translators commented title in RVP	56%	50%	100%

Title analysis began with determining how long it took for the translator to type in a translation's initial rendition of a title after they pressed the space bar to access source material. When compared to the more experienced teams, the BA newbies (BAG) took considerably longer to come up with their first draught of the title (p=0.05; unequal variance groups one-tailed t-tests). An overwhelming 91% of BA newcomers looked up the title in dictionaries, compared to just 8% of students or professionals from other disciplines who used additional sources like online encyclopaedias or parallel literature (11 percent). The significant majority of members of the professional group (ProG) cited the latter kind of resources.

For title modifications, specialists appear to have the ability to make five alterations in ten minutes, whereas the other two groups only manage to make four in the same period of time. The average number of changes made to the title by the majority of experts (av=6.9 in this case) was computed throughout the entire process because of this. Professionals varied in their approach, with some making many changes to the title throughout the drafting process while others concentrated entirely on the revision. A total of 8.8 alterations were made to the title by the five pros who finished their first version of their target text before making two or more changes to the title. A total of 3.3 modifications were made by three specialists who put off working on a new title until the last stage of development (i.e., those who made only one or no revisions throughout the drafting process). After the drafting stage, they found it to be a successful strategy to put off finishing a difficult title.

There are just 56 percent of BA newbies who reacted on the title in Appendix D. (see below for the comments). Only a fourth of the BA novices (e.g., "and then I just started to translate

right with the title") made detailed comments about the title in the retrospective verbal protocols (RVP) (e.g., "and then I just started to translate right with the title"). On the title, hardly half of the MA students had anything to say (one of whom realized, when watching the process, that she had forgotten to translate it, and two of whom said that they did not know why they had translated it at the beginning because they normally wait until the end). In contrast to the general public, the German translation specialists (ProG) provided extensive commentary on the title and their method to translating it. The three-word German ST title, despite the fact that BA novices and MA students were translating into their second language, appeared to provide less of a challenge (English). Since at least two translators came up with at least four primary patterns, the nine alternative versions (out of 23 translated titles; see Appendix C) may be summarised in four main patterns (for example, the pattern "Ven-Ns" in Table 7 covers both Beached whales and Staggered whaling vessels).

Table 7. Forms and examples of titles for each group (G-E)

Form of ST title	German ST title [English gloss]			
$Vungen_1$-von Ns_2	Strandungen von Walen [Strandings of whales]			

Form of English titles	Examples of English TT titles	BAE*	MA*	ProE
Ven_1-Ns_2	Beached whales	4	-	4
$Ving_1$-of-Ns_2	Beaching of whales	3	2	1
N_2-$Vings_1$	Whale beachings	1	1	2
N_2-$Ving_1$	Whale stranding	-	3	-
	(other variants)	1	2	-

* translation into L2

Note. the unit with information content matching that of the source text has been numbered in subscript for ease of comparison

By reversing the emphasis and reverting to a pre-modified noun phrase, this was the most commonly used approach for keeping the information in the correct sequence while also moving the focus (see Figure 1). It was discovered that the second most commonly observed pattern, which had the same informational order and grammatical structure as the German ST, was more similar to the German. While the ST's plural noun form was used by three MA

students, no other translators generated it, the last common version (used by all of the other translators but three MA students) was the identical form in the singular.

Translations into German yielded some intriguing and maybe surprising outcomes in terms of product results, but one notable finding was that the patterns of BA novices and professionals were more comparable than the patterns of MA students. On the basis of the items accessible, it is impossible to come up with a convincing explanation for this apparent oddity. The process data was also assessed, and the means for each group were obtained within the first ten minutes of the translation process, as in the case of English-German translations. The study's results are shown in Table 8.

Table 8. Process data for title translation analyses of Wale ST (G-E): means per group

Process measure	BAE*	MA*	ProE
Time in process of 1st version of title (hh:mm:ss)	00:02:30	00:02:07	00:01:37
Consulted dictionary for title translation	78%	75%	29%
Consulted other resources for title translation	22%	63%	29%
Number of revisions to title during first 10 min.	2.2	1.0	2.1
Percentage of translators commented title in RVP	78%	38%	43%

* translation into L2

Expert translators were marginally faster than novices and MA students at drafting the first draught of a title, but the differences were not statistically significant. Only a third of the professionals looked up definitions in dictionaries, while the majority of BA beginners (BAEs) and MA students did, which is probably because they were translating into their second language (second language). There were more MA students who requested supplementary resources than BA starters, which may suggest a better grasp of the need of meeting target-culture customs, particularly when translating into a second language. In the same way, specialists who were translating into their native language were less likely to require additional resources, maybe because to their greater familiarity with title norms and forms in the target culture and language.

Table 8 shows results that differ from those reported in the preceding section, which were derived using data on the German translation process (Table 6). This may be because of the

more complex semantic and syntactic structure of the English ST title as compared to the German source text title, which may explain why 75 percent of ProG consulted other resources but only 29 percent of ProE did so (i.e. Whales at risk in sonar sea exercises vs. Strandungen von Walen). Two MA students and two specialists were not involved in translating the title at this step of the translation process.

As can be seen in Table 1, only a very small percentage of German MA students performed any type of research for the more advanced ST title, which is in English. This group's increased problem awareness and caution while translating into their second language appears to be the most plausible reason in this case. Even more MA students than BA newcomers or veterans made less changes to their titles during the German ST title consultations, suggesting that the process may have helped them identify solutions in which they had faith.

The two-tailed t-test for groups with unequal variance found that the German title was revised significantly more frequently in the first 10 minutes than the English title was (4.2 versus 1.8, respectively; p0.05). After 10 minutes, the German translators generated considerably less TT than English translators did in the same time period because of the title's complexity (59.0 and 85.9 words, respectively). Within the first ten minutes of the trial, the more experienced groups generated TT at a rate that was much quicker than that of the less experienced groups (p0.05; one-tailed t-test for groups with unequal variance; p0.05 for groups with equal variance). although BA and MA students did not significantly differ in their translation speeds between the two versions (37.9 and 43.8 words respectively produced in the first 10 minutes for translation into German and English), it is possible that the complex title of the English source text slowed them down at L1 practise

According to RVPs, the English source material's title was more difficult to translate than the German source text's title: a higher percentage of the groups remarked on the title overall (E-G 68 percent vs. G-E 54 percent ; see Appendix D). ProG scored 100%, but ProE scored 43%, which may be attributed to the amount of mental effort required to come up with a workable solution for the challenges. While there was a small percentage of students in the MA programme who fit this pattern (50 percent E-G vs. 38 percent G-E), the converse was true for the two groups of BA students who started with E-G. (BAG 56 percent vs. BAE 78

percent). It was apparent that the BAE group was unsure about one of the terms in question when they made a number of comments concerning its title. When translating from one language to another, beginners often focus on the smallest details (see Table 4).

Based on the statistics provided above, it appears that there are considerable differences between the groups of translators in terms of problem awareness and (strategic) problem-solving strategies. In the following paragraphs, we explore these findings in connection to those pertaining to the translator's self-concept and propose some implications for how the new insights may help us better understand how translation ability develops.

6. General debate and deliberation

Translating titles appears to be an activity that can be done by anyone, regardless of their experience level—which is even more surprising given that the translation of any type of text is characterised by the same quintessential features. This finding is even more surprising given that the title translation event is seen to have the quintessential characteristics of translation (cf. Nord 1991, 1993). When it came to formal resemblance and conformance to German target-language norms, Nord's corpus analysis revealed that nearly the same number and proportions of BA beginners and professionals produced titles in German that were nearly identical to one another in terms of formal resemblance (NP3-V2-Wale1, Wale1-through NP3-V2) (1993: 59-60). "title experience." as Nord (1993: 62) refers to it, is evident in both rookie and seasoned BAs. In view of the professionals' clearly greater competence and, most all, the outcomes attained by the MA students this is a valid argument, it is far from sufficient. Their translation results were shown to be less compatible with target language norms, even though they were expected to have greater competence than their younger colleagues.

In order to determine what is generating the apparent anomaly, we may make use of the process data collected. All of the experts who worked on that version may have commented on their title translations in some depth due to the challenges provided by the English ST title, suggesting a general appreciation of the difficulties posed by the ST title in the original language. Several factors point to the fact that the translation of the complicated English ST title into German required considerable thought and deliberation on the part of the translator, including the large number of title variations produced by the MA group and professionals,

its omission by two MA members, and its translation by two professionals after the first draught of the target text was completed. Many students were unable to give a really comprehensive response, with only around 50 percent of BA freshman and 50 percent of MA students providing any meaningful feedback. As a result, the BA and MA students are likely to have used a less introspective approach than the professionals in the study. Using linguistic resources heavily suggests an attempt to compensate for deficits in bilingual competence, and the BA beginners appear to be less knowledgeable about pragmatic issues and functional aspects of the translation event than their products might initially indicate — and less confident in their solutions.

BA beginners tend to focus on translation's micro-level qualities rather than its pragmatic and functional aspects, according to a number of process data, including those on their self-concepts and translations of the German ST title. After a thorough investigation of data pertaining to self-concept it is clear that when translators acquire expertise, their focus will shift from the micro level of words and phrases to messages in source material (including author's goal) and the TT audience, rather than vice versa. Experts speculate that this shift in emphasis is the result of their growing awareness of the many responsibilities and allegiances they have to the translation event in which they are taking part. Higher-level activities and reflection may have more cognitive resources available since lower-level tasks have become more commonplace and habitual. An example of "translation activation competence," as defined by Göpferich (2009: 19), may be the straightforward translation of the German source text's title into English. There were less criticisms on the title from MA students and professionals who translated it into English than there were from BA novices since their translation methods and research activities have become more routinely over time..

The translator's self-concept is examined and defined in greater detail in the second half of this article, and it appears to be closely tied to translation quality. Translation professionals must be able to distribute cognitive resources to customers, clients, and readers in accordance with the event or scenario so that they may meet the demands of the work at hand. Teachers that teach translators should try to widen their students' self-concept by focusing less on particular words, phrases, and sentences and more on the translators' duties and obligations that go beyond the text's surface qualities. The current study used process research

approaches to acquire information about translators' self-concepts and practises. To help authors better understand the relevance of their unique writing style, such tactics have been used in coaching sessions (cf. Perrin 2006b). Massey and Ehrensberger-Dow (2011) and Dam-Jensen and Heine (2012) both found that these treatments improved students' self-awareness (2009). Teaching through case studies can be an effective way to improve students' self-perceptions of their abilities as translators.

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