ISSN 3030-1394

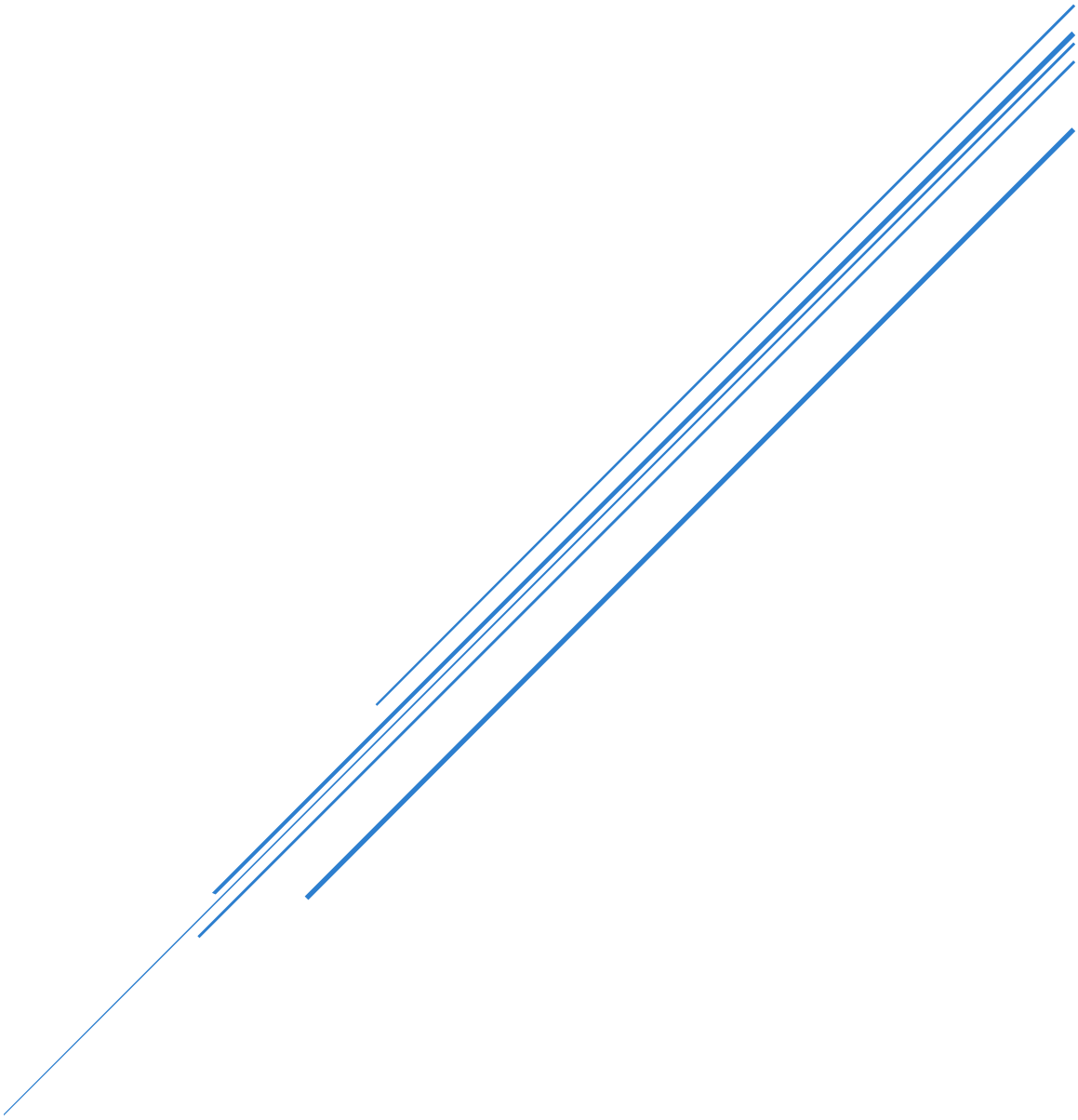
Euro-Global Journal of Linguistics and Language Education

Vol. 3 No. 1 (2026) • Pavasaris

Vilnius, Lithuania

Euro-Global Journal of Linguistics and Language Education

ISSN 3030-1394 /online/



Vol. 2 No. 4 (2025)

EuroGlobal Journal of Linguistics and Language Education
Editor-in-Chief: Hasan Alisoy
E-mail: editor@egarp.lt

Vol. 2 No. 4 (2024): Special Issue

The *Euro-Global Journal of Linguistics and Language Education (**3030-1394**)* is an international, peer-reviewed journal dedicated to advancing knowledge and understanding in the fields of linguistics and language education. We aim to provide a platform for researchers, educators, and practitioners to share their work and contribute to the global discourse on language teaching, learning, and linguistic research.

Aims and Scope
Our journal focuses on a wide range of topics within linguistics and language education, including but not limited to:
- Theoretical and applied linguistics
- Language acquisition and learning
- Bilingualism and multilingualism
- Language teaching methodologies
- Educational technology in language learning
- Sociolinguistics and language policy
- Translation studies

We welcome submissions that explore innovative approaches, present empirical research findings, or offer critical reviews of current trends in the field.

Open Access Policy
Euro-Global Journal of Linguistics and Language Education is committed to the open-access movement, providing unrestricted online access to all published articles. This ensures that research is freely available to the academic community and the general public, facilitating wider dissemination and engagement.

Peer Review Process
All submissions undergo a rigorous double-blind peer review process. This ensures that each manuscript is evaluated based on its academic merit, contribution to the field, and adherence to the journal's standards.

Ethical Standards
We adhere to the highest ethical standards in publishing. Authors are expected to follow ethical guidelines in conducting and reporting research, including avoiding plagiarism, conflicts of interest, and ensuring proper attribution of sources.

Archiving
Our journal is included in the LOCKSS and CLOCKSS archiving systems, ensuring that our content is securely preserved and accessible for the future.

Contact Information
For any inquiries regarding submissions, the peer review process, or other journal-related matters, please contact us at editor@egarp.lt, urbaite0013@gmail.com

Acta Globalis Humanitatis et Linguarum
Editor-in-Chief: Hasan Alisoy
Executive Secretary: Gerda Urbaite
Salomėjos Nėries g. 57, Vilnius, Lithuania
E-mail: editor@egarp.lt

Contents

Contents 3

Main Strategies of Enriching the Neologism Dictionaries, Emma Seidova 4

One Classroom, Many Levels: Combining Methods for Effective Language Teaching in Mixed-Level Classrooms, Javid Babayev 14

Riddles Formed on the Basis of Imperative and Interrogative Sentences in English, Elnaz Aliyeva, Elnaz Aliyeva 27

Modern Methodological Approaches in Teaching Russian as a Foreign Language, Remziyye Esgerova 35

Emerging Technologies and Pedagogical Innovations in Foreign Language Teaching, Rubaba Mammadova 44

Human vs. Machine Communication: The Future Value of English for Employability and Mobility, Nermin Rzayeva, Ilaha Ashrafova 56

University Students' Patriotic Education Through an Interdisciplinary Approach, Gunay Naghiyeva 65

The Impact of Language Barriers on Nurse–Patient Communication and Clinical Errors, Afsana Orujlu, Sevinc Adigozalova 74

Assessing The Impact of Blended Learning on Early Childhood Education Teachers' Professional Development in Akinyele Local Government, Olatunji Saheed Olawale 82

AI-Assisted Scaffolding for Inclusive CLIL in Higher Education, Khatira Mammadova 99

Reproach Strategies and Reactions in Friendly Interaction in Cameroon, Bernard Mulo Farenkia 106

From Mimesis to Narrative Modeling: The Evolution of Artistic Representation in Literature, Nuride Ganbarova 131

It's Giving Linguistic Innovation: A Sociolinguistic Analysis of Gen Z Digital Slang, Zarifa Sadigzade 142

Editorial Team 154

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Euro-Global Journal of Linguistics and Language Education
ISSN 3030-1394 /online/

Vol. 3 No. 1 (2026) Pavasaris

Main Strategies of Enriching the Neologism Dictionaries

[1] **Emma Seidova**

https://doi.org/10.69760/egjlle.2601001

Abstract. Lexicography is a field that deals with a wide range of dictionaries based on the history of linguistics, has become a necessity for both linguists and non-linguists and has recently entered a new stage of development. In the article we will analyze the main strategies of recording new words in modern electronic and non-electronic dictionaries. The main characteristic of this stage is the use of information technology and its contribution to computer lexicography. In general, lexicography is a field that requires great patience, hard work and knowledge. This work requires both scientific and technical knowledge and skills. In the past, dictionary units (words and word forms) collected on cards in file cabinets had to be systematized, grouped and arranged alphabetically. This was a difficult task that required a lot of work. Sometimes the technical aspect of the work - alphabetical arrangement - takes more time than compiling the dictionary, the dictionary loses its relevance before it is printed and there is a need for its re-arrangement and updating. In our opinion, further improvement and expansion of such dictionaries is possible in the future. Thus, the issues of displaying the neologisms in such dictionaries, displaying the possibilities of combining words with other words, and establishing constant control over such dictionaries are among the issues that are highlighted in the article.

Keywords: *linguistics, lexical innovations, electronic dictionaries, neologisms.*

Inroduction

Looking at the history of linguistics, we can clearly see that neologisms were not yet found in dictionaries of difficult words. Sometimes the processes were also observed in the lexicography of different people. For example, according to V.V. Dubichinsky: *"The first dictionaries were formed by collecting foreign and ancient words"* (Dubitchinsky, 2008). The formation of such dictionaries actively continued in the 14th-17th centuries. During this period, a large number of dictionaries consisting of foreign words, which remained in manuscript form, were created. Emphasizing the importance of the dictionary of lexical innovations, N.Z. Kotelova notes: *"The dictionary of new*

[1] Seidova, E. Odlar Yurdu University, Baku, Azerbaijan. Email: seidova.emma@oyu.edu.edu.az. ORCID: https://orcid.org/0009-0008-3470-968X

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

words facilitates the ways of mastering a language by giving a comprehensive characteristic to new lexical units: it shows their internal forms, shows examples of appropriate use, and shows more convenient ways of mastering words with several meanings" (.Kotelova, 1988) They note the importance of the dictionary of lexical innovations as an open, constantly updated, changing system that shows the stages of language development and the trends in language development within society.

The main stages of the formation of dictionaries in Western Europe also coincide due to certain features. As we have already noted, the collection of linguistic material for 100 years, its processing and the appointment of research groups required a long time. The collection of lexical units for dictionaries of lexical innovations required a long time. Gradually, great experience was gained in building large dictionaries, and linguists learned to distinguish the main problems that arise when registering new words. Nevertheless, neologisms do not always find their full place in lexicography, since in various dictionary classifications, such dictionaries are sometimes referred to dictionaries of "simple objects of the lexical system" together with dictionaries of homonyms, and sometimes to dictionaries of passive words, such as dictionaries of rare words and archaisms (Ismayil et al, 2025).

As for electronic dictionaries, the user is not a passive user of the final result, but can freely monitor the changes taking place in the language, can closely participate in the creation of new words and expressions, and can offer new lexical units to electronic dictionaries. The following American volunteer dictionaries can be cited as examples of such resources: Unwords Dictionary (UW), Urban Dictionary (UrD), Word Spy (WS), etc. According to R. Lew, "Urban Dictionary" is one of the dictionaries that attracts a large number of volunteers to enrich the resource. When working with such resources, it is possible not only to add new words and expressions to it, but also to give new explanations to the words existing in the dictionary, and to add new words. Also, with the help of signs (thumbs up or down), it is possible to evaluate the explanations available in the dictionary, thereby evaluating the explanations given to words and expressions in the dictionary. It should be noted that in online dictionaries compiled by professional linguists, it is also possible to refer to Internet resources. For example, in online dictionaries, it is possible to link to dictionaries such as "Merriam-Webster Open Dictionary" and "Macmillan Open Dictionary". R. Lew calls these types of dictionaries *"collaborative-institutional"* dictionaries (Lew, 2013).

In our opinion, the classification of online dictionaries proposed by R. Lew is quite relevant, since this classification allows us to see new trends in modern lexicographic resources used in recording the new lexical composition of the language. As mentioned above, the involvement of volunteers in the compilation of new dictionaries is not a practice of the information technology era, however, in recent times there have been serious changes in the communicative relationship between lexicographers and volunteers. Currently, the collective collection of a new word base is of great importance in the publication of the 3rd edition of the Great Oxford Dictionary. With the work of volunteers the recording of words has become even more massive in the 21st century and has acquired new forms. It is worth noting that the practice of involving volunteers in the compilation

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

of dictionaries has long been considered international. In modern times, most companies and publishers engaged in lexicography actively use the experience of volunteers. They ask readers and users to send explanations of new words to the general websites of dictionaries. For example, the encyclopedia and dictionary publisher Britannica has a special place (window) on its website where users can note new interesting word combinations and express their opinions on the explanations provided there.

In addition, in the last decade, electronic dictionaries have been formed, which were created not by lexicographers with the participation of volunteers, but by the volunteers themselves, for example, dictionaries compiled in various educational institutions and on the websites of publishing houses. As N.S. Utkina noted: *"The fact that these dictionaries are in the top twenty in the search of Google, Rambler, Yahoo when searching for explanations of various words is an indicator of their popularity"* (Utkina, 2012). In modern international linguistics, neologism dictionaries are considered historical dictionaries, since they reflect the stages of language development, the dynamics of the language in a certain period, and social and moral changes within a society.

The terms used in the field of tourism are also important in compiling the dictionary of lexical innovations or neologisms (Seidova, 2024). In modern times, as a result of the globalization process and international relations between countries, a large number of new terms are formed in the language. For many years, linguists have been interested in this process and have conducted research in this area. According to the opinions of these scientists, new terms entering the language are related to new concepts that arise as a result of cultural, political, and economic cooperation between countries, and this is a very natural process. According to V.V. Vinogradov: *"The formation of new words is a continuous process, however, all newly formed terms first reflect the fact of communication and only as a result of repeated use in the language become a fact of language"* (Vinogradov, 1963). This process reflects the changes taking place in the surrounding world. It is also worth noting that language is constantly changing in all areas of life, in culture, science, social relations, etc., and is formed as it is passed down from generation to generation. Another group of scientists opposes the increase in borrowed words - terms in all scientific fields. In the process of mutual integration of languages, not all words enter the vocabulary of the language. One group of words completely disappears from the language, is not accepted by people, while another group is actively used. After a certain period of time, a group of neologisms enters the vocabulary of the language and becomes generalized. The development of tourism business in countries is one of the main factors affecting the development of tourism terminology. The reasons for the use of borrowed words in the language are almost the same as the reasons for the entry of tourism terms into the language. It is clear that neologisms are new words that reflect the standard of living, style, manner and development of any country in different fields. One of the results of the development that has occurred has been the emergence of new terms in the tourism lexicon. In recent years, the enrichment of the tourism terminology field has accelerated (Sadikhova & Babayev, 2025). The emergence of new words in linguistics can be explained by the following

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

reasons: new words are formed as a result of the development of society, science, culture and technology, as a result of the influence of the surrounding material and spiritual environment, in connection with the development of human consciousness and the emergence of new concepts (Salim & Rafail, 2024).

Methods

Based on the goals and tasks of the article, the following linguistic methods are used: lingucultural analysis method, contextual analysis method and descriptive analysis method. The main research method is the lexicographic method. Based on the given dictionary sources, it can be considered the most productive and informative method for analyzing words. Various morphological methods are used in the creation and recording of new words - transposition, suffixation, creation of complex words, etc. plays a role.

Result

The trends of word creation of modern languages are fully compatible with the word creation of linguistics. The stage of creation of electronic dictionaries in modern times can be specially mentioned. The field of lexicography (lexicography), which is based on the history of the linguist and deals with the issues of compiling a wide variety of dictionaries, which has become the demand of both linguists and non-linguists, has recently entered a new stage of development. The main characteristic of this stage is the use of information technology and its contribution to computer vocabulary. Lexical innovations can occur due to expansion of the vocabulary and semantic expansion. Semantic expansion is the creation of new lexical units resulting from the calculation of different ways of word creation, it means the creation of new lexical meanings of existing words. Lexical innovations usually arise from elements already present in the language. Such innovations can be considered as products of creativity, innovation and imitation.

Discussion

One of the initial stages of the creation of neologism dictionaries is the preparation of various lists of new words and their compilation. The most prominent of these collections is considered to be “The Century Dictionary Supplement”, published in 1909-10. The collection included 120,000 words and expressions from English language dictionaries of that period. After this collection, larger dictionaries began to be published: “Supplement to the Oxford English Dictionary” (1993), “Appendix to HC Wyld's Universal Dictionary of the English Language” (1936), “The Shorter Oxford English Dictionary” (1933). In addition to these, A. Smith's “New Words Self-Defined” collection can also be cited as an example (1920). This collection not only explains the collected lexical innovations, but also provides examples of them in various contexts. Thus, we can consider neologism dictionaries as a source of information about the image of the world reflected in the human mind, a person's worldview. Here we mainly focus on the main linguistic features of dictionaries - structure, spelling, etc. The main sources for the analysis of new lexical units were “Word Spy. The Word Lover's Guide to Modern Culture” and Unwords.com”. To determine the

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

semantic content of the recorded words and to accurately understand the given explanations, a number of monolingual dictionaries were used, for example, Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary (CALD), Merriam-Webster Dictionary (MW), Longman Pronunciation Dictionary (LPD), etc.

Let's take a closer look at the process of registering lexical innovations in the dictionary. Paul McFedries's electronic dictionary "Word Spy" has gained great popularity among both specialists and ordinary users. This electronic resource contains 3,630,000 English neologisms. The full archive of the dictionary is freely accessible on the website www.wordspy.com. In order for a new word to be registered in this dictionary, there must be at least three uses of that word in different written sources. Articles and materials submitted by volunteers are carefully checked by moderators and put into presentation form. The dictionary has a search system, in the search window it is enough for the user to write only the first letters of the word he is looking for, so that the system offers him possible options. The dictionary has convenient navigation and has modern technical capabilities for very convenient presentation of dictionary material. It is possible to search for a word in several ways: by the general alphabetical list of words; by thematic alphabetical list of words (culture, technology, language, business, science, etc.) (Babayev et al, 2025). These thematic divisions are in turn divided into different topics and the number of words listed in each division is given. Let's look at an example: Thematic division of "Culture" given in the "Word Spy" dictionary:

Appearance and care (43)
Art and design (37)
Celebrities (14)
Clothing (45) (Sadikhova, 2025)
Medicines (27)
Movie (77)
Food (163)
Health (52)
Architecture (103)
Media (70)
Music (53) (Seidova, 2025)
Pets (43)
Plant world (40)
Religion (220)
Sports (54)
Television (82)
Time (31)
Travel and tourism (54)

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Writing (45) [6]

Different colors and fonts used in the dictionary were used to attract the user's attention. Another feature of the dictionary is that by subscribing to the dictionary, you can regularly get acquainted with new lexical innovations via e-mail or social accounts, and discuss new lexical units on social accounts. In 2017, the founders of the dictionary changed the interface of the dictionary; the new interface no longer provides the number of words recorded in each thematic group, which, in our opinion, lags behind the previous version in terms of accuracy. All this is an indicator not only of the multifaceted nature of the cultural phenomenon, but also of the broad meaning of this phenomenon in modern society, its relevance for man and society. This also stems from the desire of the speaker of the language to give a more meaningful description to any object or subject, to convey his idea more concisely and meaningfully. With the help of the transition system, convenient conditions are created for users to use newspaper materials and other sources to be referred to, thereby users can obtain additional linguistic, sociolinguistic and extralinguistic information. All this considerably expands the pragmatic field of the dictionary, and at the same time provides access to other variants of the dictionary, in addition to the traditional variants of a language. The constant enrichment of such dictionaries with new words clearly shows the dynamics of the development of the vocabulary of languages. The most extensive section of the dictionary of the language - the “Culture” section - highlights the main linguistic features of the lexical composition of languages (Sabir, 2023). The dictionary contains a large amount of information, consisting of words that carry a lot of information, on several pages. The user can benefit from this information both grammatically, phonetically, and orthographically, and semantically. The main advantage is the indication of the source from which and when the word was added to the dictionary, as well as useful information on lexical units other than the given thematic group. This ensures the diachronic depth of the word, and through “Some Related Words” information on other neologisms in the given semantic field is provided.

In our opinion, the moderator of the dictionary broadly instills the meaning of “etymology” (the science of the origin and history of words) and actually tries to replace it with the meaning of “morphology”. As for the explanations of synonyms given in the dictionary, these explanations are very laconic and clear. The explanations consist of an average of 15-17 words. Let's take a look at the neologisms from the “Culture” section given in the dictionary.

"chillout"

n. A quiet period after a party, a post-rave gathering that features slow music and a calming ambience; soothing, hypnotic music;

“coffeehouse”

n. Small talk and other noises designed to distract an opponent during a game or sport that requires concentration [6].

As mentioned above, one of the important functional-semantic features is the indication of the history of the emergence of a new word (from its first use to the present) and its source. This

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

information makes it possible to determine the meaning of lexical innovations, confirm its functionality in oral and written speech, trace the dynamics of the formation of the meaning of the word, and obtain information about its synonyms and antonyms with other lexical units of the language.

Thanks to volunteers, the dictionary author is sometimes able to identify the creator of a neologism. At the same time, numerous interesting critical opinions on the origin and use of the word, author's notes, and user opinions turn the dictionary into a linguistic database with more information. In accordance with the American lexicographic tradition, the pronunciation of words given in the current dictionary is not given with special signs, but special digraphs are used to indicate long sounds, and capital letters are used to indicate stress. For example:

"Foodoir (2009) [foodwar]"

The analyzed material also includes words written in capital letters and with only one spelling option, most of which are formed from proper names and contain nouns (Babayev, 2025). When analyzing the words added to the dictionary, it can be determined that users can complete their thoughts through a photo or video link. For example, in the “food” thematic group, the moderator of the dictionary expressed his opinion on the lexical innovation “avocado hand” with the help of a video lesson by the famous British chef Jamie Oliver. “Avocado hand” (serious trauma to the hand as a result of improper use of a knife when removing the seed from an avocado). The indicated lexical innovation proves that technical and technological development has become an integral part of the life of a modern dictionary user.

Let's consider the dictionary “Unwords.com”. This dictionary was compiled by volunteers in 2001 and consists of approximately 2500 lexical units. The dictionary is compiled on the basis of an alphabetical list with explanations and examples. According to the dictionary developers about their project, “Unwords.com” includes words that various individuals or groups have thought of to name things at some point in time. Thus, the dictionary developers try to record the relationship between the linguistic sign and its user (human), taking into account the importance of the human factor (Alisoy, 2025). According to the editor of the dictionary, such words are not included in English language dictionaries, but they give hope that they will be recorded in many real dictionaries in the future.

It is worth noting that the analysis of the dictionary's vocabulary and its comparison with other lexical collections show that some lexical units, as the developers hoped, have already managed to enter the lexicon of English speakers and a number of electronic dictionaries. Let's look at a number of such words:

"Blogger" (Unwords.com, Urban Dictionary, Oxford Dictionary, Cambridge Dictionary)

"Anime" (Unwords.com, Urban Dictionary, Oxford Dictionary, Cambridge Dictionary)

"Bushism" (Unwords.com, Urban Dictionary, Oxford Dictionary)

These words have become established in many languages of the world. This is precisely what proves the relevance of studying new lexical units. On the main page of the “Unwords.com” dictionary there is a link to the electronic versions of other dictionaries – “dictionary.com” and

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

“merriamwebster.com”. The dictionary consists of the following sections: Foreword (Home) – an address to users by the dictionary's developer; The dictionary itself, where you can search for information in two ways: a) alphabetically or b) alphabetically by topic. This list consists of 33 sections and covers various areas of modern human life: history, politics, education, entertainment, travel, etc.

Each section includes a certain number of new words. The number of words indicated in the first alphabetical row and the number of words in the sections may sometimes not coincide, which happens due to the constant updating of the dictionary, the addition of new words, which cannot be quickly reflected in the table of contents. In the analyzed dictionaries, the dictionary developers do not separate the culture category, unlike the “Word Spy” dictionary, but rather present it in the form of several thematic groups. The total lexical composition of the dictionary consists of 1322 units and covers the following sections: “beauty and looks”, “behaviour and lifestyle”, “fashion and style”, “food and drink” (Javid & Sadikhova, 2025), “history”, “language and literature”, “love and romance”, “music and the arts” (Sadikhova & Baabyev, 2025), “mythology and folklore”, “religion and beliefs (Seidova, 2025), “travel”.

In our opinion, one of the shortcomings of the dictionary is the incorrect placement of words, with some words being repeated in different groups. A special section of the dictionary contains “junk words”. Although these words are usually not considered neologisms, they are included in the dictionary because sometimes such words can be misunderstood or used inappropriately by users. The microstructure of the dictionary is very laconic: word, pronunciation of the word, explanation. In addition, an example appropriate to the context can be given. The length of the explanation usually consists of 13-15 words.

When working with a word unit on the main page, it is possible to link to another page for more detailed linguistic information. For example:

“flashionable [fl æ S-ə'nə-bl] (adj) being both flashy and fashionable".

When switching to another page:

"flashionable - definition (explanation)(adj) being both flashy and fashionable;

Origins: the contraction of flashy and flashionable (a shortened combination of two words) Submitted by: antonymous, topics: fashion and style” [7].

Conclusion

The formation n of lexical units that make up the vocabulary of the language is a process that is closely related to the formation of human thinking. Since language is related to human thinking, it can change due to the influence of various factors. The emergence of lexical innovations is influenced by both extralinguistic and intralinguistic events. In this regard, two main issues are distinguished: the extra-linguistic issue - the identification of areas of social life that require new words, and the intra-linguistic issue - the collection of tools that lead to the creation of new words.

Overall, it can be concluded that a new lexical innovation introduced into each language carries

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

various characteristics of that language, and both the national, cultural, and other specific characteristics of that language can fundamentally influence the new word introduced into the language.

References

Alisoy, Hasan. "Multilingualism and Cognitive Flexibility: Insights from Neuroscience and Linguistics." *Acta Globalis Humanitatis Et Linguarum* 1.1 (2024): 1-8.

Babayev, J. S., Sadikhova, S. N., Baghirova, M. A., Seidova, E. R., & Mammadova, A. A. (2025). A lexical-stylistic and cross-cultural analysis of vulgarisms and their usage spheres. *Universidad y Sociedad*, *17*(6), e5525-e5525.

Babayev, J. (2025). Orthographic Challenges in the Transliteration of Proper Names between the Languages with Different Spelling. *Acta Globalis Humanitatis et Linguarum*, *2*(4), 345-356.

Dubitchinsky, V.V. (2008), Lexicography of the Russian language: textbook / V.V. Dubitchinsky. – M .: Science, Flinta, – 432 p.

Ismayil, Z., Mammadova, Z., Gambarova, S., Abbasova, V., Ismayil, S., & Alizade, R. (2025). Homonyms of Auxiliary Parts of Speech In Folklore Texts.

Javid, B., & Sadikhova, S. (2025, May). Culturonyms in Food and Drink: How Language Reflects Cultural Identity Through Cuisine. In *Publisher. agency: Proceedings of the 10th International Scientific Conference «Modern scientific technology»(May 29-30, 2025). Stockholm, Sweden* (p. 346).

Kotelova, N.Z. (1988), Theoretical aspects of lexicographic description of neologisms // Soviet lexicography / N.Z. Kotelova. Moscow: Russian language, – pp. 46-63.

Lew, R. (2013), Dictionaries and technology / The encyclopedia of applied linguistics / article / – 7 p.

Rafail, S. E. (2024, November). Lexical innovation through neologisms. In *Proceedings of the 8th International Scientific Conference «Scientific Results* (p. 331).

Sabir, B. J. (2023). Linguistic and cultural aspects of simultaneous translation. *Progress in Science*, (4).

Sadikhova, S., & Babayev, J. (2025). Challenges Encountered in Translation of Culture-bound and Subject-specific Terminology While Using Google Translate. *EuroGlobal Journal of Linguistics and Language Education*, *2*(3), 119-126.

Sadikhova, S., & Babayev, J. (2025). Linguistic Analysis of Art Terms in English. *Porta Universorum*, *1*(3), 214-223.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Sadikhova, S. (2025). Culturonyms in Fashion Discourse: A Linguistic and cultural Perspective. *Acta Globalis Humanitatis et Linguarum*, *2*(4), 319-331.

Salim, M. S., & Rafail, S. E. (2024, April). Ecological New Words: Linguistic Realization of the Concept "Environment" in The Language. In *International Conference on Smart Environment and Green Technologies* (pp. 225-232). Cham: Springer Nature Switzerland.

Seidova, E. (2025). Challenges in the Translation of Religious Culturonyms. *Acta Globalis Humanitatis et Linguarum*, *2*(5), 40-50.

Seidova, E. (2025). Lexical-semantic features of musical culturonyms. *Acta Globalis Humanitatis et Linguarum*, *2*(4), 357-370.

Utkina, N.S. (2012), Volunteer programs for compiling dictionaries: new opportunities and prospects // Personality. Culture. Society. International Journal of Social and Humanitarian Sciences: Vol. XIV. Issue1. No. 69-70. / N.S. Utkina. – M.: – p. 287-291.

Vinogradov, V.V. (1963), Stylistics, theory of poetic speech, poetics / V.V. Vinogradov. USSR Academy of Sciences, Department of Literature and Language. – M.: Publishing House of the USSR Academy of Sciences, – 253 p.

Received: 12.04.2025
Revised: 12.20.2025
Accepted: 01.13.2026
Published: 01.15.2026

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Euro-Global Journal of Linguistics and Language Education
ISSN 3030-1394 /online/

Vol. 3 No. 1 (2026) Pavasaris

One Classroom, Many Levels: Combining Methods for Effective Language Teaching in Mixed-Level Classrooms

[1] **Javid Babayev**

https://doi.org/10.69760/egjlle.2601002

Abstract. Mixed-level language classrooms have become increasingly prevalent in both ESL and EFL settings as a result of inclusive education policies, diverse learner populations, and flexible enrollment practices. In such environments, teachers face pedagogical challenges related to pacing, engagement, assessment, and classroom management due to differences in student proficiency. This study investigates the impact of integrating differentiated instruction, task-based language teaching (TBLT), collaborative learning, and technology-supported strategies within multi-level language classrooms. Employing a quasi-experimental mixed-methods design, the research analyzes student achievement, engagement, and perceived self-efficacy over a 12-week intervention period. The findings indicate that a blended methodological approach significantly enhances learner participation, language achievement, and classroom cohesion. The results underscore the value of combining adaptive and collaborative instructional practices to effectively address heterogeneous proficiency levels.

Keywords: mixed-level classrooms, differentiated instruction, task-based learning, blended learning, language pedagogy

Introduction

The increasing diversity among language learners has resulted in a growing number of mixed-ability or multi-level classrooms across primary, secondary, tertiary, and private language education contexts. Factors such as global mobility, inclusive education initiatives, migration patterns, and flexible placement systems have contributed to learning environments where students vary considerably in linguistic competence, educational background, motivation, cognitive styles, and learning pace (Tomlinson, 2014). While heterogeneous classrooms create opportunities for peer interaction and collaborative development, they also present substantial challenges for

[1] BABAYEV, J., Ph.D. (Philology), Senior Lecturer, Department of English and Methods, Nakhchivan State University, Azerbaijan. Email: cavidbabayev@ndu.edu.az. ORCID: https://orcid.org/0009-0009-2472-0006

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

educators who must address varied learner needs without diminishing instructional quality. In many settings, teachers are required to support beginners and advanced learners within the same classroom. Although such diversity can encourage peer-supported growth, it also increases pedagogical complexity.

Traditional uniform teaching models are often ineffective in these contexts. Research indicates that integrating multiple instructional frameworks—such as differentiated instruction, task-based learning, and cooperative learning—can foster inclusive and adaptable learning environments (Ellis, 2003; Vygotsky, 1978). Additionally, technology-enhanced instruction offers opportunities for individualized pacing and scaffolded assistance (Chapelle, 2001).

Mixed-level classrooms challenge conventional assumptions of learner homogeneity. A single pacing strategy may overwhelm lower-proficiency learners while failing to sufficiently challenge more advanced students. Likewise, whole-class instruction centered on a single textbook frequently overlooks disparities in vocabulary range, grammatical accuracy, fluency, and communicative confidence. As Tomlinson (2014) emphasizes, effective instruction requires responsiveness to learners' readiness levels, interests, and learning profiles—an expectation that becomes especially critical in heterogeneous classrooms.

Beyond proficiency variation, affective variables further complicate instruction in multi-level settings (Babazade, 2024). Lower-level learners may experience anxiety, diminished self-confidence, and fear of negative evaluation, whereas higher-level learners may lose motivation if tasks lack appropriate cognitive challenge. Second language acquisition research highlights the importance of comprehensible input, meaningful interaction, and scaffolded support (Ellis, 2003). In mixed-level environments, ensuring that instructional input remains accessible yet sufficiently demanding for all learners requires deliberate and strategic lesson design rather than reliance on traditional lecture-based methods (Alisoy, 2025).

Sociocultural theory provides a constructive lens through which proficiency diversity can be viewed as an instructional asset rather than a limitation. Vygotsky (1978) proposes that learning occurs through social interaction within the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), where learners accomplish tasks beyond their independent capability with appropriate guidance. In multi-level classrooms, higher-proficiency students can serve as peer scaffolds, supporting collaborative knowledge construction. However, these benefits do not occur automatically; they depend on carefully structured tasks, clearly assigned roles, and purposeful grouping strategies.

Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) offers a practical strategy for addressing proficiency differences. By structuring lessons around authentic communicative tasks rather than isolated language forms, TBLT enables learners to participate according to their linguistic capacity while contributing to shared objectives (Ellis, 2003). For example, during a problem-solving task, lower-level learners may supply essential vocabulary or simple expressions, while advanced learners

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

expand ideas and refine discourse. This layered participation allows differentiated output within common classroom goals.

In parallel, differentiated instruction provides structured mechanisms for adapting content, process, and assessment (Alisoy, 2023). Approaches such as tiered tasks, flexible grouping, learning agreements, and scaffolded materials allow teachers to maintain shared objectives while adjusting complexity levels (Tomlinson, 2014). Differentiation does not reduce expectations; rather, it ensures equitable access to learning outcomes.

Technological developments have further enhanced strategies for managing classroom heterogeneity. Digital tools and adaptive learning platforms facilitate individualized practice, real-time feedback, and self-directed progression. Research in Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) indicates that technology can complement classroom instruction by addressing individual learning gaps without isolating students from collaborative interaction (Chapelle, 2001). In blended learning environments, technology functions as supportive reinforcement rather than a substitute for teacher guidance (Babayev, 2025).

Despite strong theoretical justification for combining instructional approaches, empirical studies examining integrated pedagogical models in mixed-level language classrooms remain relatively limited. Much of the existing research concentrates on isolated interventions rather than comprehensive frameworks reflecting authentic classroom complexity. Therefore, further investigation is required to explore how complementary strategies—differentiation, task-based instruction, collaboration, and technology integration—can be systematically combined to enhance outcomes in heterogeneous settings.

This study aims to address that gap by analyzing the effects of a blended methodological framework in a multi-level English language classroom (Javid & Sayyara, 2024). Specifically, it examines whether integrating differentiated instruction with task-based and collaborative learning, supported by technological tools, can enhance language proficiency, learner engagement, and self-efficacy. By grounding the research in established theoretical perspectives and practical classroom realities, the study seeks to contribute both empirical evidence and practical guidance for educators working in diverse language learning environments.

The study explores how integrating complementary instructional approaches can improve effectiveness in mixed-level classrooms. It addresses the following research questions:

1. Does the integration of differentiated instruction and task-based learning enhance language performance in multi-level classrooms?
2. How does a blended methodological approach influence student engagement and self-efficacy?

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

3. What classroom dynamics emerge from collaborative and technology-supported instruction?

Methods

Research Design

This research utilized a quasi-experimental mixed-methods design to evaluate the effectiveness of a combined pedagogical framework in a mixed-level English language classroom. The quantitative component assessed changes in language proficiency, engagement, and self-efficacy through pre- and post-intervention measures. The qualitative component examined classroom interaction patterns, learner perceptions, and instructional processes through systematic observations and interviews.

A non-randomized control group design was implemented because intact classes were assigned to experimental and comparison conditions in order to maintain institutional scheduling requirements. The intervention was conducted over 12 weeks, with three 90-minute sessions per week, resulting in a total of 54 instructional hours.

Participants

The study involved 48 students enrolled in an intermediate English course at a public language institute. Diagnostic placement testing indicated proficiency levels ranging from A2 to B2 according to the CEFR. Participants were divided into an experimental group (n = 24) and a comparison group (n = 24). Both groups were instructed by teachers with comparable qualifications and a minimum of five years of teaching experience. To minimize instructor-related bias, both teachers participated in weekly collaborative planning sessions; however, only the experimental group implemented the integrated instructional framework.

Instructional Intervention

The experimental group received instruction integrating the following components:

1. **Differentiated Instruction** – Tiered assignments, flexible grouping structures, and scaffolded materials tailored to varying proficiency levels.
2. **Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT)** – Authentic communicative tasks designed to encourage cross-level collaboration.
3. **Collaborative Learning** – Peer tutoring and mixed-proficiency group work aimed at promoting scaffolding and shared responsibility.
4. **Technology Integration** – Adaptive digital platforms providing individualized grammar and vocabulary practice.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

The comparison group followed a traditional textbook-centered instructional approach characterized by whole-class teaching.

Instruments

1. **Language Proficiency Test**
   A standardized CEFR-aligned English proficiency assessment measured reading, writing, listening, and speaking abilities. Speaking tasks were evaluated using an analytic rubric assessing fluency, grammatical accuracy, lexical range, and interactional competence.

2. **Student Engagement Scale**
   A validated 20-item Likert-scale questionnaire measured behavioral, emotional, and cognitive engagement. The reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) for this study was .88.

3. **Language Learning Self-Efficacy Questionnaire**
   Adapted from established second language self-efficacy instruments, this questionnaire assessed learners' confidence in speaking, writing, comprehension, and task completion ($\alpha = .91$).

4. **Classroom Observation Protocol**
   An observation checklist documented:
   • Distribution of participation
   • Target language use
   • Peer scaffolding behaviors
   • On-task behavior frequency

Each class was observed on four separate occasions during the intervention period.

5. **Semi-Structured Interviews**

   At the conclusion of the study, 10 students (five from each group, representing diverse proficiency levels) participated in interviews exploring their perceptions of the learning experience, instructional challenges, and overall classroom climate.

Data Analysis

Quantitative Analysis

• Paired-sample t-tests were conducted to assess within-group improvements.
• Independent-sample t-tests compared post-test results between groups.
• Effect sizes (Cohen's d) were calculated to evaluate practical significance.
• Subgroup analyses examined performance gains among A2, B1, and B2 learners separately.

Statistical significance was established at $p < .05$.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Qualitative Analysis
Interview transcripts and observation notes were analyzed using thematic coding. Identified categories included:
• Scaffolding behaviors
• Equity in participation
• Indicators of motivation
• Perceived clarity of instruction
• Usability of technological tools

Triangulation of quantitative and qualitative findings enhanced the overall validity of the study.

Results

This section presents both quantitative and qualitative findings related to language proficiency, engagement, self-efficacy, subgroup performance variation, patterns of technology use, and classroom interaction dynamics.

1. Language Proficiency Outcomes

1.1 Within-Group Comparisons

Experimental Group (n = 24)
Paired-sample t-tests demonstrated statistically significant improvement across all four language skills:

• Reading: $t(23) = 3.84$, $p < .01$
• Listening: $t(23) = 4.12$, $p < .001$
• Writing: $t(23) = 5.26$, $p < .001$
• Speaking: $t(23) = 6.03$, $p < .001$

The overall proficiency mean increased from B1.1 (M = 62.4/100) to B1.9 (M = 74.8/100). The calculated effect size for total score improvement was Cohen's $d = 0.89$, reflecting a large practical effect.

Comparison Group (n = 24)
The comparison group showed moderate gains:

• Reading and listening improved significantly ($p < .05$)
• Writing gains approached significance ($p = .07$)
• Speaking did not show statistically significant improvement

The overall proficiency mean increased from B1.2 (M = 63.1/100) to B1.5 (M = 69.2/100), with a medium effect size ($d = 0.46$).

1.2 Between-Group Comparisons

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Independent-sample t-tests conducted on post-test results indicated statistically significant differences favoring the experimental group:

• Speaking: $t(46) = 3.97$, $p < .001$
• Writing: $t(46) = 3.21$, $p < .01$
• Overall proficiency: $t(46) = 2.88$, $p < .01$

The most substantial between-group differences were observed in productive skills, particularly speaking fluency and interactional competence.

2. Subgroup Analysis by Proficiency Level

To determine whether learning gains varied according to initial proficiency, subgroup analyses were performed for A2, B1, and B2 learners within the experimental group.

• **A2 learners (n = 8):**
Mean gain = +16.3 points
Significant improvement in speaking confidence and grammatical accuracy

• **B1 learners (n = 10):**
Mean gain = +11.4 points
Marked development in discourse organization and vocabulary breadth

• **B2 learners (n = 6):**
Mean gain = +8.1 points
Primary improvements in pragmatic competence and argument structure

Lower-proficiency learners demonstrated the greatest relative gains, suggesting that structured scaffolding and peer collaboration effectively reduced achievement disparities. At the same time, higher-level learners continued to progress, indicating that differentiated extension tasks successfully prevented stagnation.

3. Student Engagement

Engagement was assessed across three dimensions: behavioral, emotional, and cognitive.

3.1 Experimental Group

Mean engagement scores increased from 3.2 to 3.9 (on a 5-point scale), reflecting a 22% improvement.

• Behavioral engagement (frequency of participation) demonstrated the most substantial growth.
• Emotional engagement (interest and enjoyment) increased particularly during task-based projects (Naghiyeva, 2025).

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

• Cognitive engagement (investment of effort) improved notably among lower-proficiency learners.

3.2 Comparison Group

Engagement scores rose modestly from 3.3 to 3.6, representing an 8% increase. Improvements were largely confined to behavioral participation.

Post-test engagement differences between groups were statistically significant ($p < .01$), with a medium-to-large effect size ($d = 0.72$).

4. Self-Efficacy in Language Learning

Self-efficacy scores increased significantly in the experimental group:

• Speaking confidence increased by 28%
• Writing confidence increased by 21%
• Listening comprehension confidence increased by 18%

Lower-proficiency learners reported the greatest improvement in speaking confidence, often attributing their progress to peer scaffolding and clearly structured task roles.

In contrast, the comparison group showed modest overall gains (average 9%), primarily related to grammatical understanding rather than communicative confidence.

5. Classroom Interaction Patterns

Observation data indicated clear differences in classroom dynamics.

5.1 Participation Distribution

In the experimental group:

• Participation became evenly distributed across proficiency levels by Week 6.
• Turn-taking in mixed-level discussions grew more balanced.
• Lower-proficiency learners increasingly initiated interactions over time.

In the comparison group:

• Higher-level learners accounted for approximately 60% of voluntary responses.
• Lower-level learners demonstrated limited spontaneous participation.

5.2 Peer Scaffolding Behaviors

The experimental group showed growing evidence of:

• Vocabulary prompting
• Sentence reformulation assistance

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

• Clarification requests
• Collaborative problem-solving

Over time, these scaffolding behaviors became more autonomous and required less teacher intervention.

6. Technology Usage and Performance Correlation

Analytics from the digital platform indicated:

• Average weekly usage: 34 minutes
• Completion rate: 87% of assigned adaptive activities

A moderate positive correlation ($r = .48$) was identified between completion of digital practice and overall proficiency gains, particularly in grammar accuracy and listening comprehension.

Students who consistently completed adaptive exercises demonstrated faster reduction of individual language gaps.

7. Qualitative Findings

Thematic analysis of interview data revealed four primary themes.

7.1 Reduced Anxiety

Lower-level learners reported feeling “less afraid to speak” due to structured group roles and peer support.

7.2 Increased Autonomy

Students described greater responsibility for their learning through choice-based tasks and technology-supported practice.

7.3 Perceived Fairness

Participants noted that tiered assignments allowed everyone to “work at the appropriate level” without feeling labeled.

7.4 Enhanced Classroom Cohesion

Mixed-level collaboration was frequently described as “supportive” and “motivating,” contributing to a stronger sense of classroom community.

8. Summary of Key Findings

1. The blended instructional framework significantly improved overall language proficiency, particularly in productive skills.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

2. Lower-proficiency learners demonstrated the greatest relative gains, reflecting effective scaffolding.
3. Engagement and self-efficacy increased more substantially in the experimental group than in the comparison group.
4. Classroom participation became more equitable over time.
5. Technology integration supported individualized reduction of learning gaps.

Overall, the findings provide empirical evidence supporting the integration of differentiated instruction, task-based learning, collaborative strategies, and adaptive technology in mixed-level language classrooms (Nuri, 2025).

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to determine whether integrating differentiated instruction, task-based language teaching (TBLT), collaborative learning, and technology-supported instruction could enhance outcomes in mixed-level language classrooms. The results offer strong empirical support for a blended methodological approach, particularly in improving productive skills, learner engagement, and self-efficacy while narrowing proficiency gaps.

The findings align with sociocultural learning theory (Vygotsky, 1978), particularly the concept of scaffolding within the Zone of Proximal Development. When strategically organized, mixed-level grouping enables more proficient learners to support peers while consolidating their own understanding.

The incorporation of task-based learning corresponds with communicative competence frameworks (Ellis, 2003). Authentic tasks allowed learners of varying proficiency levels to contribute meaningfully according to their abilities. Differentiated instruction (Tomlinson, 2014) further ensured accessibility without oversimplifying content.

Technology-supported learning contributed to individualized pacing, consistent with CALL research (Chapelle, 2001). Adaptive platforms offered immediate feedback and adjusted difficulty levels, helping to address differences in learning speed.

Impact on Lower-Proficiency Learners

A particularly significant finding was the marked improvement among A2-level learners. These students achieved the largest relative gains in both proficiency and self-efficacy. In mixed-level contexts, lower-proficiency learners may risk marginalization or withdrawal (Sadiqzade & Alisoy, 2024). However, structured peer interaction and tiered task design appeared to reduce these risks.

Interview data indicating reduced speaking anxiety suggest that collaborative frameworks promote psychological safety. When learners are assigned supportive roles and provided with linguistic

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

scaffolds (such as sentence frames and vocabulary banks), participation becomes manageable rather than intimidating. The increase in self-efficacy is especially meaningful, given its strong association with long-term persistence and achievement.

These findings demonstrate that mixed-level classrooms, when thoughtfully structured, can operate as inclusive environments rather than sources of inequity.

Benefits for Higher-Proficiency Learners

Although lower-level learners showed greater relative gains, higher-proficiency students also benefited from the integrated framework. Supporting peers and negotiating meaning likely enhanced their metalinguistic awareness and discourse competence. Extension tasks prevented redundancy and sustained cognitive challenge.

This addresses concerns that differentiation may hinder advanced learners. Instead, the results suggest that role-based collaboration and tiered complexity promote continued progression while fostering leadership and interpersonal skills.

Classroom Climate and Engagement

The significant increase in engagement scores reflects both cognitive and emotional development. Engagement in the experimental group extended beyond participation frequency to deeper task involvement and sustained attention. Observation data demonstrating more equitable participation further confirm the effectiveness of structured grouping.

Interview findings regarding strengthened classroom cohesion indicate that collaborative mixed-level instruction positively influences social dynamics. Rather than reinforcing hierarchical proficiency divisions, structured collaboration encouraged mutual support. Such social cohesion is essential, as a positive classroom climate enhances motivation and willingness to take linguistic risks.

Overall, the findings suggest that no single instructional approach sufficiently addresses the complexity of multi-level classrooms. Instead, an integrated pedagogical model promotes inclusivity, engagement, and measurable gains in proficiency.

Conclusion

Mixed-level language classrooms present significant instructional challenges, yet they also offer valuable opportunities for collaborative and differentiated learning. This study demonstrates that integrating differentiated instruction, task-based language teaching, collaborative strategies, and technology-supported learning can substantially improve language proficiency, engagement, and self-efficacy among learners with varied proficiency levels. Lower-proficiency students particularly benefited from structured scaffolding and peer interaction, while higher-proficiency learners continued to advance through cognitively demanding extension tasks. Importantly, the

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

integrated framework reduced participation disparities and fostered a more inclusive and supportive classroom climate.

Rather than relying on uniform teaching models, language educators should implement flexible, multi-method strategies that balance shared objectives with differentiated pathways. By combining social interaction with individualized digital support, teachers can transform heterogeneity from a limitation into a pedagogical strength. Ultimately, effective mixed-level instruction requires intentional planning, adaptability, and a commitment to equitable language development for all learners (Huseyn & Babayev, 2025).

References

Alisoy, H. (2025). ESL teaching methods and approaches: essential strategies for encouraging effective language acquisition. *Global Spectrum of Research and Humanities, 1*(1), 3–11.

Babayev, J. (2025). Algorithmic Autonomy or Dependence? A Mixed-Methods Study on AI Personalization and Self-Regulated Learning in Higher Education. *Journal of Azerbaijan Language and Education Studies, 2*(4), 32–39.

Babayev, J. S. (2025). How Music Makes You Fluent: Learning English Through Songs. *Acta Globalis Humanitatis et Linguarum.*

Babazade, Y. The efficacy of multimodal approaches in enhancing English language proficiency among multilingual learners. *Biological Sciences, 47.*

Chapelle, C. A. (2001). *Computer applications in second language acquisition: Foundations for teaching, testing and research.* Cambridge University Press.

Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-based language learning and teaching.* Oxford University Press.

Hasan Alisoy Huseyn, O. G. L. U. (2023). Task-based teaching, learning, and assessment in ELT: A case study of innovative practices. *International Journal of Philosophical Studies and Social Sciences, 3*(5), 25–33.

Huseyn, Z. I., & Babayev, J. (2025). Effective methods of teaching Azerbaijani to foreign students. *Porta Universorum, 1*(9), 118–126.

Javid, B., & Sayyara, S. (2024). The most ideal L2 teaching method. *International Journal of Religion, 5*(7), 367–378.

Naghiyeva, G. (2025). Increasing students' interest in the lesson with the support of the teacher.

Nuri, A. (2025). Innovative strategies for teaching English to university students: A global perspective. *EuroGlobal Journal of Linguistics and Language Education, 2*(2), 39–45.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Sadiqzade, Z., & Alisoy, H. (2024). Level-up learning: Using games to teach English across student levels. *EuroGlobal Journal of Linguistics and Language Education, 1*(3), 181–194.

Tomlinson, C. A. (2014). *The differentiated classroom: Responding to the needs of all learners* (2nd ed.). ASCD.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes.* Harvard University Press.

Received: 01.10.2026
Revised: 01.20.2026
Accepted: 02.20.2026
Published: 02.21.2026

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Euro-Global Journal of Linguistics and Language Education
ISSN 3030-1394 /online/

Vol. 3 No. 1 (2026) Pavasaris

Riddles Formed on the Basis of Imperative and Interrogative Sentences in English

[1] **Elnaz Aliyeva**

https://doi.org/10.69760/egjlle.2601003

Abstract. Riddles are a long-lived folklore genre in English, used in oral exchange as short puzzles that demand an answer. Because the genre is built around a prompt–solution pair, riddle language is closely tied to sentence types that ask for information or direct the addressee. This article examines English riddles from a syntactic and pragmatic perspective, focusing on interrogative and imperative constructions. It argues that interrogatives—especially wh-questions with *what* and *who*—provide the default grammatical frame for riddling, while many formally non-interrogative prompts (declaratives, fragments, couplets) are interpreted as questions due to performance conventions and frequent "tag" questions such as What am I? Special attention is paid to productive templates (*What is/has/can…?*), contrastive structures with but and other privative markers (*no, never, without*), and the marked but expressive role of imperatives, which often function as instructions that increase audience involvement (e.g., "Take away my first letter…"). The analysis shows that riddle syntax is best understood as a set of conventional patterns optimized for dialogic performance and for guiding the solver's inferential search.

Keywords: riddles; interrogatives; imperatives; wh-pronouns; syntax; pragmatics; folklore performance

1. Introduction

A riddle can be defined as an intentionally enigmatic question or statement that requires a thoughtful (often witty) solution. Riddles are historically important in English, from early poetic collections to everyday oral and digital practices. Yet riddles are not only "semantic puzzles"; they are conventionalized speech events. Historically, English riddles span multiple registers: literary verse riddles, short oral riddles used in family or classroom settings, and contemporary written riddles circulating online. Across these contexts, the genre's core remains stable: the prompt is intentionally indirect and the answer is treated as a success condition of the event. This stability

[1] ALIYEVA, E., Lecturer, Nakhchivan State University. Email: elnazaliyeva@ndu.edu.az. ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4172-4748

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

makes riddles a useful object for syntactic study, because conventional genres tend to develop preferred grammatical frames that are easy to recognize and to perform.

As folklore research emphasizes, riddles exist in performance: a riddle is posed to someone, in a situation where an answer is expected and evaluated. This functional requirement has consequences for grammar. English provides a clear set of clause types associated with questioning and directing—interrogatives and imperatives—and riddles regularly exploit both.

The purpose of this article is to describe how English riddles are formed on the basis of interrogative and imperative sentences and to explain why interrogatives dominate while imperatives are comparatively limited. The analysis draws on structural and performance-based definitions of riddles and on linguistic accounts that treat riddles as patterned pragmatic objects. Recent work on linguocultural and linguocognitive features is used to connect syntactic form with cultural knowledge and processing.

2. Riddles as dialogic prompts

Riddling is inherently dialogic because the genre presupposes two roles: a poser and a solver. The riddle prompt is only "completed" when it is paired with an answer, even if the answer is delayed, contested, or humorous. Burns describes riddling as an "occasion to act": participants recognize that the riddle creates an "answer slot," and the solver's response is socially expected. Kaivola-Bregenhøj develops this performance view by showing how riddle form and delivery are shaped by the interactional setting.

This dialogic design helps explain why question syntax is so prominent. Even when the riddle text is not an interrogative clause on the surface, the social frame makes it function as a question. The widespread riddle tag What am I? is therefore more than a stylistic ending: it explicitly marks the transition from clue-giving to answer-giving and aligns the prompt with the genre's turn-taking rules.

3. Riddle structure and the role of contradiction

Many riddles are designed around controlled contradiction. Georges and Dundes propose that riddles often contain a "positive element" (a descriptive clue) and a "negative element" that blocks the literal interpretation. English riddles regularly realize this logic through syntax: a property is stated and then denied in the same prompt. Pepicello and Green link this to linguistic ambiguity and selection restrictions, while Dienhart emphasizes the pragmatic effect: the listener is guided toward an interpretation, then forced to revise it.

These ideas clarify why certain constructions are so productive in English riddles, especially contrastive coordination (but) and privative markers (no, never, without, cannot). Such forms make the puzzle memorable and, at the same time, narrow down the space of plausible solutions.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

4. Data and method

The analysis is qualitative and pattern-based. Rather than building a closed corpus, it examines widely attested English riddle prompts and groups them by surface clause type (interrogative vs imperative) and by recurring templates (e.g., What has X but cannot Y?). This approach follows riddle scholarship that treats the genre as conventional and formulaic in performance and therefore suited to template-level description. Examples are used as representative instantiations of patterns that recur across oral and written collections.

5. Interrogatives as the default riddle frame

5.1. What-questions and copular templates

The most productive English riddle pattern is the wh-interrogative headed by what:

- *What is always in bed but never sleeps?* (A river)
- *What has a face but no head?* (A clock)
- *What is always coming, but never arrives?* (Tomorrow)

These are standard English wh-questions: what is fronted, and the copula or auxiliary follows it (*What is…, What has…, What can…*). Their success in riddling is partly grammatical: what can target virtually any referent (objects, substances, events, abstractions), so it works as a flexible placeholder for the hidden answer. It is also performative: *What is/has…* offers a short, stable rhythm that is easy to remember and recite.

5.2. What-questions beyond *be*: *have* and modal frames

While copular *What is…* is common, riddles also heavily use have and modal auxiliaries:

- *What has roots as nobody sees, is taller than trees, up, up it goes and yet never grows?* (A mountain)
- *What can you break without hitting or dropping it?* (A promise)
- *What can be heard and caught but never seen?* (A remark)

Syntactically, these frames matter because they control what remains unspecified. In *What has…*, the unknown referent is the subject that possesses salient parts (teeth, face, neck). In *What can…*, **can** shifts attention from stable description to possibility and constraint: it invites the solver to consider unusual affordances and to search for a non-literal domain where the described action makes sense.

5.3. Who-questions and personification

Who-questions appear most often when the riddle encourages a human reading:

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

- *The little old woman has twelve children… Who is she?* (A year)
- *Who is that with a neck and no head, two arms and no hands?* (A shirt)

By selecting who, the riddle invites the listener to search in the "human" domain, and then the answer reveals metaphorical mapping (months as children; sleeves as arms). This is a practical example of the positive–negative structure: cues point to an animate category, but other cues force reinterpretation.

5.4. Where and when: location and condition

Interrogative adverbs also form classic riddle frames:

- *Where can you find roads without cars…?* (On a map)
- *When is a door not a door?* (When it's ajar)

Such riddles show that the genre can target not only entities but also situations. In addition, some English riddles use yes/no question formats (e.g., *Is it…?*, *Can you…?*), especially in conversational riddling: they invite immediate guesses and follow-up questions and naturally hand the next turn to the solver.

6. "Hidden questions": prompts that are not interrogatives in form

Despite the dominance of interrogatives, many riddles are not fully interrogative on the surface. They may be declaratives or poetic couplets followed by a tag question:

- *Whether I'm coming or whether I'm going, I sing a song when I'm blowing. What am I?* (The wind)
- *Never planted, still it grows… Now who knows?* (Hair)

Here the descriptive lines are declarative; the interrogative force is supplied by the performance context and/or the final tag. This supports the pragmatic view that riddles are recognized as questions because the riddling event creates an answer slot, not because every line has interrogative morphology.

In other words, interrogativity is a genre property that can be distributed across discourse, not only encoded in a single clause. In live riddling, prosody is crucial: a declarative clause can be delivered with rising question intonation, and the solver treats it as a question even without wh-fronting. Poetic riddles also use parallelism and rhyme to package multiple clues into a single "turn," after which an explicit question (or simply a pause) signals that an answer is expected.

7. Contrastive syntax: *but, without, never*

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

One of the strongest grammatical signatures of English riddles is contrastive and privative phrasing:

- *What has teeth, but can't chew?*
- *What has two hands and a face, but no arms or legs?*
- *What comes down, but never goes up?*

The conjunction but is structurally efficient: it creates an expectation and then cancels it. In Georges and Dundes' terms, the second conjunct frequently acts as the "negative element." Privative markers (*no, never, without, cannot*) further sharpen the contradiction, blocking literal categorization while keeping the clue vivid.

English riddles also exploit paired oppositions such as *falls/breaks* and *breaks/falls*:

- *What falls but never breaks? What breaks but never falls?* (Night and day)

These paired clauses work like a mini-dialogue inside the riddle: the solver compares two complementary constraints and searches for abstract processes rather than ordinary objects.

8. Imperative-based riddles: limited but revealing

8.1. Why imperatives are marked

Compared with interrogatives, imperatives are less common as primary riddle prompts. This matches their core speech-act function: imperatives typically request action, while riddles request an answer. Since answer-seeking is central to riddling performance, interrogatives naturally dominate.

However, imperatives do occur, and they tend to appear in two contexts: (a) "scripted interaction" with the hidden object and (b) metalinguistic wordplay where the solver is instructed to perform an operation.

8.2. Scripted interaction and vivid hypotheticals

- *Give me food and I will live; give me water and I will die. What am I?* (Fire)
- *Knock on me, and do come in… hold out your hand to me.* (A door)

These prompts begin with directives (*Give…, Knock…*), but their pragmatic aim is not literal compliance. The imperative mood dramatizes a hypothetical scenario and makes the clue feel like direct address. In cognitive terms, it encourages the solver to imagine actions and their consequences, guiding interpretation.

Importantly, many such riddles still end with What am I?—a sign that the genre prefers explicit interrogative closure even when clue-giving is imperative. Imperatives in riddles can also appear

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

in sequences that mimic polite instruction (*Please don't forget…*), which softens directive force and makes the text sound like an object "speaking" to the listener—again reinforcing personification.

A further subtype is the "invitation imperative," where the riddle seems to invite the solver into an activity rather than command them, as in *Come and read me* (Book). In such cases, the imperative contributes to genre playfulness: the riddle performs friendliness while hiding its answer.

8.3. Imperatives for linguistic manipulation

Imperatives are especially functional in wordplay riddles where the object is a word:

- *Take away my first letter; take away my second letter; take away all my letters, and I would remain the same.*
- *A word I know, six letters it contains. Subtract just one, and twelve is what remains.* (Dozens)

Here the imperative is genuinely instructional: it tells the solver what operation to perform. This aligns with typological distinctions between descriptive riddles and witty/punning questions and with modern typology work that classifies riddle types by how they encode the "path" to solution.

9. Morphological cues that support riddle syntax

Across both interrogative and imperative riddles, certain morphological choices recur:

- Person and deixis: *I/me/my* and *you* encourage personification and conversational stance, promoting metaphor and misdirection.
- Modals: *can* and *will* appear frequently (*What can…*, *I will…*), framing ability, possibility, and consequence.
- Generic present: *What has…*, *What is…* presents clues as timeless "definitions," suitable for repeated performance.
- Negation: *no/never/cannot* are central in building contradiction and narrowing interpretation.
- Determiners and quantifiers: *always, never, all, many, no one* signal genericity and create absoluteness (*always coming, never arrives*).
- Relative and comparative structures: patterns like *as nobody sees* or *taller than trees* compress multiple properties into compact syntax, enabling dense clue-packing within a short turn.

10. Interrogatives, culture, and processing

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Syntactic templates persist in riddling because they are learnable and reusable. Linguocultural studies show that English riddles encode cultural frames and shared associations; the grammatical template provides a stable shell into which culturally meaningful clues can be inserted. Linguocognitive work argues that riddles guide processing through linguistic form: repeated frames, parallelism, and contradiction help the listener allocate attention and test hypotheses. From this viewpoint, interrogative templates such as *What has… but cannot…* are not merely grammatical options; they are cognitive tools that package misdirection predictably. Imperative patterns, when they occur, do the same by turning the solver into an imagined participant in the described action.

11. Conclusion

A syntactic study of English riddles confirms that the genre is strongly question-oriented, but not limited to interrogatives as a clause type. Interrogatives—especially *what-* and *who-* questions—offer the most productive and recognizable riddle frames because they match the genre's dialogic aim: eliciting an answer. At the same time, many riddles are only "interrogative" at the level of discourse, relying on performance conventions and tag questions (*What am I?*) to create an answer slot. Imperatives are comparatively restricted, yet they are linguistically revealing: they increase involvement by scripting imagined actions and by instructing metalinguistic operations in wordplay riddles. Overall, riddle syntax emerges as a set of conventional patterns optimized for oral interaction, memorable contradiction, and guided inference—an intersection of grammar, pragmatics, and folklore performance.

References

Abdrakhmanova, A. A. (2024). *Lexical and stylistic features of English riddles*. In *Abstracts & Proceedings of SOCIOINT 2024: 11th International Conference on Education, Social Sciences and Humanities*. International Organization Center of Academic Research.

Britannica. (n.d.). Riddle. In *Encyclopaedia Britannica*.

Burns, T. A. (1976). Riddling: Occasion to act. *The Journal of American Folklore, 89*(352), 139–165. https://doi.org/10.2307/539687

Dienhart, J. M. (1999). A linguistic look at riddles. *Journal of Pragmatics, 31*(1), 95–125. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-2166(98)00056-3

Georges, R. A., & Dundes, A. (1963). Toward a structural definition of the riddle. *The Journal of American Folklore, 76*(300), 111–118. https://doi.org/10.2307/538610

Green, T. A., & Pepicello, W. J. (1979). The folk riddle: A redefinition of terms. *Western Folklore, 38*(1), 3–20. https://doi.org/10.2307/1498981

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Kaivola-Bregenhøj, A. (2017). Riddles and humour. *Folklore: Electronic Journal of Folklore, 69*, 195–210. https://doi.org/10.7592/FEJF2017.69.kaivola_bregenhoj

Kaivola-Bregenhøj, A. (2018). The riddle: Form and performance. *Humanities, 7*(2), 49. https://doi.org/10.3390/h7020049

Köngäs Maranda, E. (1976). Riddles and riddling: An introduction. *The Journal of American Folklore, 89*(352), 127–137. https://doi.org/10.2307/539686

Nazarova, R. R. (2024). Linguocognitive features of riddles. *Global Independent International Research Journal, 12*(2), 357–360.

Nazarova, R. R. (2026). English riddles: Typology, structure, and linguistic encoding. *Advances in Science and Humanities, 2*(1), 25–29. https://doi.org/10.70728/human.v02.i01.006

Pepicello, W. J., & Green, T. A. (1984). *The language of riddles: New perspectives*. Ohio State University Press.

To'yiyeva, E. (2023). Linguacultural characteristics of English riddles. *Central Asian Journal of Education and Innovation, 2*(5, Pt. 2), 27–30. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7940094

Yanyk, O. (2016). The riddle as an object of linguistic research. *Mahisterium. Movoznavchi studii*, (62), 96–99.

Received: 01.25.2026
Revised: 01.28.2026
Accepted: 02.22.2026
Published: 02.25.2026

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Euro-Global Journal of Linguistics and Language Education
ISSN 3030-1394 /online/

Vol. 3 No. 1 (2026) Pavasaris

Modern Methodological Approaches in Teaching Russian as a Foreign Language

[1] **Remziyye Esgerova**

https://doi.org/10.69760/egjlle.2601004

Abstract. This article examines the role of traditional and modern methods in teaching Russian as a foreign language in higher education, with a special focus on the Azerbaijani educational context. The study argues that the main goal of university-level foreign language teaching is not the theoretical study of linguistic rules, but the practical acquisition of communicative competence. The paper discusses the theoretical foundations of language teaching, including the formation of lexical, grammatical, phonetic, and speech skills, and explains the four stages of skill development from familiarization to creative independent use. Traditional teaching technologies are analyzed through the class-lesson system and explanatory-illustrative methods, highlighting their strengths in systematic grammar instruction and their limitations in promoting learner autonomy and real communication. Modern teaching technologies are presented as student-centered and outcome-oriented, emphasizing differentiation, digital literacy, and project-based learning. Particular attention is given to Communicative Language Teaching and the comparative method, which supports effective learning by contrasting Russian with Azerbaijani and using visual aids. The article concludes that an integrated model combining structure and communication ensures the most effective development of students' Russian language competence.

Keywords: Russian as a foreign language; communicative competence; teaching methods; educational technologies

1. Introduction

Foreign language teaching in higher education has gradually shifted from a mainly theoretical orientation to a more practice-based model that prioritizes real communication. Universities are expected not only to provide students with knowledge about language systems but also to help them use the target language effectively in academic, professional, and everyday contexts. In this respect, the teaching of Russian as a foreign language requires a clear focus on functional language

[1] ESGEROVA, R., Lecturer, Nakhchivan State University. Email: remziyye.esgerova@gmail.com. ORCID: https://orcid.org/0009-0006-9629-4139

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

use, because students' success is measured not by how many rules they can recall, but by how confidently they can speak, listen, read, and write in authentic situations.

Practical acquisition is especially important in environments where Russian is not the dominant language outside the classroom. In such contexts, classroom instruction becomes the main space for developing communicative habits, building lexical and grammatical automatisms, and improving fluency. Speaking competence plays a central role in this process because oral communication reflects the learner's ability to access vocabulary quickly, apply grammar in real time, and react appropriately to interaction. At the same time, speaking cannot be separated from listening comprehension, as students must understand spoken input before they can respond meaningfully.

Modernization of higher education has also influenced language pedagogy. Digital resources, multimedia materials, and interactive learning platforms support learner autonomy and increase exposure to authentic language. As a result, methods that foster active participation, collaborative work, and independent learning have gained importance. This article therefore examines how both traditional and modern methods can be used strategically to develop students' communicative competence in Russian.

The aim of this paper is to analyze traditional and modern methods used in teaching Russian as a foreign language and to determine their effectiveness in developing communicative competence in higher education.

2. Theoretical Foundations of Foreign Language Teaching (300–350 words)

2.1 Goals of Foreign Language Teaching

The central goal of foreign language teaching at university level is practical acquisition, which means developing the ability to use the language for communication rather than merely learning theoretical descriptions of it. From a methodological perspective, effective instruction aims to form stable speech skills and to build competence in the four core language activities: speaking, listening, reading, and writing. Brown (2000) emphasizes that language learning is a skill-based process requiring repeated practice, feedback, and gradual movement from controlled performance to fluent use. Similarly, Harmer (2001) notes that successful teaching must balance accuracy and fluency, ensuring that learners both understand language forms and can apply them in meaningful interaction.

2.2 Components of Teaching Content

To reach these goals, teaching content must include several interconnected components. The first is lexical material, because vocabulary functions as the basis for expressing meaning and participating in communication. The second is grammar, which provides structural resources for producing correct and coherent speech. The third component is phonetics, including pronunciation, stress, rhythm, and intonation, which directly influence intelligibility and listening comprehension. In addition, teaching content includes speech skills—the ability to select language forms

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

appropriately, maintain interaction, and construct messages for different purposes. Finally, learners need knowledge of the language system, meaning an understanding of how the target language operates and how its rules support real communication (Roche, 2008).

In this framework, a teaching method can be defined as a system of the teacher's purposeful actions that organizes learners' cognitive and practical activity to ensure mastery of the content. Methodology also presupposes interaction between teacher and student: through explanation, practice, guidance, and feedback, students progress through skill formation levels, moving from initial awareness of new material to controlled use and finally to independent, creative application in communicative situations.

3. Stages of Skill Formation in Language Learning

Skill formation in foreign language learning is a gradual process in which learners move from basic awareness of new language elements to independent communicative performance. In teaching Russian as a foreign language, this progression can be described through four interrelated levels that reflect how students internalize and use linguistic material.

The first level is familiarization with new material, where learners are introduced to lexical items, grammatical structures, or phonetic patterns. At this stage, the main cognitive operation is material perception: students notice forms, recognize meanings, and begin to understand usage through examples, explanations, and guided input. The second level is application in familiar situations, in which students practice the new material in controlled tasks such as substitution exercises, model dialogues, or guided speaking. This stage is closely connected with reproduction, because learners rely on patterns and support to produce correct forms with increasing accuracy.

The third level is application in new but similar situations. Here, learners start transferring what they have learned to contexts that are not identical to the original examples but still related. This stage involves variation, as students must adapt language forms, choose appropriate vocabulary, and adjust grammatical structures to fit changing conditions. Finally, the fourth level is creative independent use, where students can communicate spontaneously and effectively in unpredictable situations. This level corresponds to creative production, because learners generate their own messages, manage interaction, and express personal meanings without heavy reliance on templates.

These stages directly support the development of communicative competence. Communicative competence is not only knowledge of language rules, but also the ability to use language appropriately, fluently, and strategically for real communication. As students progress from perception and reproduction to variation and creative production, they become better able to participate in authentic speaking and listening, interpret texts, and produce written communication with confidence and purpose.

4. Traditional Teaching Technologies

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Traditional teaching technologies in foreign language education are closely connected with the class-lesson system, which was historically shaped by the didactic principles of Jan Amos Comenius. In this model, teaching is organized through structured lessons delivered to relatively stable groups of learners, usually of similar age and general preparation level. A common methodological foundation of traditional teaching is the explanatory-illustrative method, where the teacher explains rules, presents examples, and students practice them through repetition and written tasks. As a result, instruction often emphasizes language structure—grammar, vocabulary lists, and forms—rather than communicative function.

Traditional approaches typically operate with a fixed curriculum and a standardized sequence of topics and language content. Learners progress through the program together, following a schedule and completing the same tasks at the same pace. Evaluation is largely controlled by the teacher, who decides what counts as correct performance and assesses learning through tests, translation exercises, written assignments, and oral questioning. In many cases, textbooks serve as the main source of language input and practice, and classroom activities are strongly tied to the textbook unit structure.

This model has several advantages. It provides systematic grammar instruction, helping learners build a clear theoretical understanding of language forms. It also offers a strong theoretical base, which can be useful for learners who need accuracy, formal writing skills, or translation competence. However, traditional teaching also has significant limitations. Because practice is often controlled and form-focused, students may receive limited opportunities for authentic communicative practice, especially in speaking and spontaneous interaction. In addition, the teacher-centered nature of the approach can lead to low student autonomy, as learners may become dependent on the teacher's explanations and may struggle to apply language independently in real-life contexts.

5. Modern Teaching Technologies in Foreign Language Education

Modern foreign language education increasingly relies on educational technologies that systematize teaching and make learning outcomes more effective and measurable. The term technology originates from Greek: techne (art, skill) and logos (study, principle), which together suggest an organized, science-based approach to producing results. In pedagogy, educational technology can be understood as a designed system of teaching actions, materials, and interactions that creates favorable learning conditions and leads to planned outcomes.

A key feature of modern teaching technologies is the planning and design of the teaching process. Instruction is not limited to delivering content; it includes setting clear objectives, selecting appropriate materials, choosing methods and tasks, and organizing classroom interaction. Another essential element is the diagnostic stage, which involves identifying students' needs, entry-level abilities, and learning difficulties. Diagnostic tools may include placement tasks, self-assessment checklists, observation, and formative assessment during lessons. This leads to measurable results, because learning is evaluated through criteria such as communicative performance, task completion, and demonstrated progress in language skills.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Modern technologies also emphasize differentiation and individualization. Differentiation means adapting tasks and support to different ability levels within the same group, while individualization focuses on learners' goals, interests, and learning styles. These principles are closely connected with student-centered learning, where the learner becomes an active participant rather than a passive recipient. Students are encouraged to set goals, monitor progress, cooperate with peers, and take responsibility for learning outcomes.

In higher education, modernization is strongly linked to independent research, internet resources, and digital literacy. Students increasingly search for information in the target language, work with authentic online materials (news, blogs, videos, academic sources), and learn to evaluate reliability and relevance. Digital tools support collaboration and creativity through presentations, online discussions, shared documents, and multimedia projects. As a result, project-based learning has become an effective model: students investigate a topic, collect and analyze resources in Russian, produce a final product (report, presentation, video, poster), and present it to an audience. Such tasks combine language practice with academic skills, critical thinking, and professional preparation.

6. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in Teaching Russian (400–450 words)

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is widely recognized as one of the most influential modern approaches in language pedagogy because it prioritizes meaningful communication as both the goal and the method of learning. A theoretical foundation for CLT is Savignon's concept of communicative competence, which emphasizes that successful language users must not only know grammar rules but also use language appropriately in social contexts. In this framework, language learning is evaluated through the learner's ability to negotiate meaning, maintain interaction, and achieve communicative purposes.

CLT differs from approaches such as the Oral method primarily in its focus. While the Oral method often emphasizes language structure and accuracy through repetition, drills, and controlled practice, CLT highlights language function and real communication. The contrast can be summarized as follows: the communicative approach focuses on meaning and authentic interaction, whereas the Oral method is more closely associated with pattern drills and structured practice. In teaching Russian, this means CLT encourages learners to use Russian for realistic tasks—asking for information, giving opinions, making requests, solving problems—rather than only producing grammatically correct sentences in isolation.

In classroom practice, CLT supports interactive formats such as role plays, video-based tasks, discussions, and film analysis. For example, students may watch a short Russian video or film scene, discuss the characters' intentions, and then perform a role play continuing the dialogue. These tasks integrate skills: listening to authentic input, speaking in interaction, reading short prompts, and writing brief responses or reflections. Such integration reflects real-life communication, where language skills rarely appear separately.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

CLT also benefits from modern communication environments. Social networks and messaging platforms allow students to engage in real-life written interaction, learn everyday vocabulary, and become familiar with informal expressions and abbreviations (e.g., “OK,” “BTW,” “ASAP”). In Russian, similar real-life exposure helps students understand colloquial speech, idioms, and cultural references.

However, CLT requires balanced implementation. A major limitation is the potential risk of excluding the native language completely, which can cause misunderstandings of difficult vocabulary or complex grammar. Without careful guidance, learners may develop superficial grammatical understanding or interpret key lexical items incorrectly. Therefore, CLT is most effective when combined with structured support: targeted grammar clarification, contrastive explanations when necessary, and systematic feedback. In this balanced model, communicative practice builds fluency and confidence, while focused instruction maintains accuracy and depth of understanding in Russian as a foreign language.

7. Comparative Method in Teaching Russian in Azerbaijan

In Azerbaijan, Russian is taught in an educational environment where Azerbaijani is the dominant language of everyday communication. For this reason, the comparative (contrastive) method becomes especially useful, as it helps learners understand Russian through systematic comparison with their native language. When students identify similarities and differences between Russian and Azerbaijani, they are less likely to transfer incorrect patterns and more likely to build stable, accurate language habits.

Comparative teaching is particularly effective in explaining grammar contrasts. Russian is a highly inflected language with grammatical categories such as case, gender, and aspect, which often create difficulties for Azerbaijani-speaking learners because Azerbaijani uses different structural principles. For example, Russian case endings and agreement patterns may be confusing for students whose native language relies more on postpositions and agglutinative suffixation. By explicitly comparing how meaning is expressed in each language, the teacher can reduce errors and improve conscious understanding.

The method is also important for phonetic differences. Russian includes consonant clusters, palatalization, and vowel reduction, while Azerbaijani phonetics is generally more stable and regular in pronunciation. Students often need targeted practice to produce Russian sounds clearly and to perceive distinctions in rapid speech. At the same time, comparative work can reveal lexical parallels, including international words and borrowed items that exist in both languages. Recognizing such parallels supports faster vocabulary acquisition and motivates learners by showing that not all elements are entirely new.

In addition, the comparative method works well with the visual principle, which highlights the role of visual memory in learning. Charts, tables, color-coded endings, mind maps, and contrastive examples presented visually help students notice patterns and remember them more effectively. When grammar and vocabulary contrasts are shown in clear visual form, learners process

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

information faster and retain it longer, which strengthens both accuracy and communicative confidence.

8. Interactive and Cognitive Methods

Interactive and cognitive methods aim to activate learners' thinking and make language learning a process of meaningful problem-solving rather than passive repetition. In teaching Russian as a foreign language, such methods are especially valuable because they create conditions for students to use language actively, respond to new situations, and build communicative confidence through participation.

One effective technique is brainstorming, often organized as a problem-situation task. The teacher presents a realistic scenario (for example, "You are lost in Moscow and need directions" or "You must solve a misunderstanding at a hotel reception"), and students generate vocabulary, phrases, and strategies together. This approach develops quick thinking, expands lexical resources, and encourages learners to take risks in speech. Brainstorming also increases motivation because students feel involved in creating the lesson content.

Another key element is dialogic speech, which reflects real communication. Through pair work, role plays, and group tasks, students practice asking questions, reacting, clarifying meaning, and maintaining interaction. At the same time, learners also need practice in monologic speech, such as giving short presentations, narrating events, or expressing opinions. Comparing monologue vs. dialogue helps students understand the different linguistic requirements of each: monologue needs logical structure and coherence, while dialogue requires flexibility, speed, and interactive strategies.

Interactive methods also support discussion culture and the development of critical thinking. When students debate a topic, analyze a short text, or defend a viewpoint, they learn to justify ideas and respond respectfully to others. This creates cognitive activation: learners process meaning deeply, connect language with thought, and develop independent speech formation. As a result, interactive and cognitive methods strengthen engagement, autonomy, and communicative competence in Russian.

9. Integration of Traditional and Modern Methods

In contemporary higher education, relying on only one methodological direction is rarely effective. A purely traditional approach, although systematic, often fails to provide enough real communication and may limit student independence. Learners may know grammar rules but struggle to speak fluently or respond spontaneously in real situations. On the other hand, a purely communicative approach also has weaknesses: if instruction focuses only on meaning and interaction without sufficient structural support, students may develop persistent grammatical errors, shallow understanding of complex forms, and limited accuracy in academic or professional contexts.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

For these reasons, an integrated model is the most practical solution for teaching Russian as a foreign language in Azerbaijan. In this balanced approach, grammar and communication work together: students receive clear explanations and structured practice, but they also apply language immediately in meaningful tasks. Visual aids and digital tools support both accuracy and engagement—tables and схемы help learners memorize patterns, while videos, online texts, and interactive platforms provide authentic input and modern learning formats. Finally, structure and creativity can be combined through activities such as guided dialogues, role plays, project work, and discussions, where students use correct language forms while expressing personal meanings. This integration ensures that learners develop both correctness and communicative confidence.

10. Conclusion

Foreign language teaching in higher education must prioritize practical outcomes, because students need the target language not only as knowledge, but as an instrument for communication, learning, and professional development. In the context of teaching Russian as a foreign language in Azerbaijan, the practical orientation is especially important, since learners have limited natural exposure outside the classroom. Therefore, the development of communicative competence—speaking, listening, reading, and writing for real purposes—should remain the central objective of instruction.

Modern educational technologies significantly enhance this process by expanding opportunities for independent learning and authentic language contact. Internet resources, multimedia materials, and project-based tasks encourage students to search for information in Russian, evaluate sources, and use the language creatively in presentations, discussions, and collaborative work. At the same time, traditional methods still contribute important advantages, particularly systematic grammar instruction and structured practice that support accuracy and long-term stability of language skills.

The most effective methodology is therefore a combined approach in which traditional and modern methods complement each other. Communicative activities develop fluency and interaction skills, while comparative explanations, visual supports, and focused grammar work strengthen correctness and deeper understanding. In the digital era, language teaching should continue moving toward flexible, student-centered models that integrate technology with strong methodological foundations, ensuring that learners can use Russian confidently in academic, social, and professional communication.

References

Digtyar, O. Y., Kuvshinova, E. E., Shirokikh, A. Y., & Kameneva, N. A. (2023). *Modern methods of teaching foreign languages*. *Amazonia Investiga, 12*(72), 112–122. https://doi.org/10.34069/AI/2023.72.12.10

Nabieva, D. A. (2025). *Methods of teaching Russian as a foreign language: A methodological perspective*. *International Journal of Artificial Intelligence, 5*(12), 433–436. https://www.academicpublishers.org/journals/index.php/ijai/article/view/8554

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Ryspaeva, K. A. (2024). *Teaching methods of Russian as a foreign language in Kazakhstan*. *Eurasia Science Review*. https://doi.org/10.63034/esr-80

Salmanova, S. (2025). *Communicative approach in foreign language teaching: Advantages and limitations*. *Euro-Global Journal of Linguistics and Language Education*. https://egarp.lt/index.php/EGJLLE/article/view/147

Sattarov, U. (2022). *Methods of teaching foreign languages*. *International Journal of Health Sciences*. https://sciencescholar.us/journal/index.php/ijhs/article/view/8124

Abdukadirova, S. G., Kasimova, D. K., & Abdurakhmanova, S. A. (2022). *Methods of teaching the Russian language*. *International Journal of Health Sciences, USA*.

Tsurtsilina, N. N. (2018). *Russian language teaching as a foreign language*. *Neophilology, 4*(16), 16–32.

Grunina, E. V. (2020). *Communicative methods in teaching a foreign language*. *Psychology and Education Journal*.

Nishanov, (2024). *Teaching Russian with innovative approaches*. *Semantic Scholar*.

Melikhova, I. N., & Skorobogatova, A. (2020). *Foreign language writing in modern language education*. *Psychology and Education Journal*.

Behnke, J., & Richards, J. C. (2014). *Approaches and methods in language teaching* (Cambridge Univ. Press).

Terrell, T. D., & Krashen, S. (1982). *The natural approach to language teaching*. *The Modern Language Journal, 66*(2), 121–126.

Audio-lingual method. (n.d.). In *Encyclopedia of language teaching methods*. Retrieved from https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Audio-lingual_method

Received: 01.10.2026
Revised: 01.25.2026
Accepted: 02.25.2026
Published: 03.02.2026

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Euro-Global Journal of Linguistics and Language Education
ISSN 3030-1394 /online/

Vol. 3 No. 1 (2026) Pavasaris

Emerging Technologies and Pedagogical Innovations in Foreign Language Teaching,

[1] **Rubaba Mammadova**

https://doi.org/10.69760/egjlle.2601005

Abstract. The integration of emerging technologies into foreign language teaching (FLT) has generated substantial pedagogical transformation, yet scholarly debate continues regarding their effectiveness, sustainability, and theoretical coherence. This analytical and comparative review examines the intersection of Artificial Intelligence (AI), mobile-assisted language learning (MALL), virtual and augmented reality (VR/AR), gamification, and learning analytics with contemporary pedagogical innovations such as blended learning, flipped classrooms, and task-based language teaching (TBLT). Rather than treating technology as inherently transformative, this study critically compares different technological applications in relation to established language learning theories—constructivism, socio-cultural theory, and connectivism. The review synthesizes empirical and conceptual research to evaluate the pedagogical affordances, limitations, and ethical implications of digital tools in FLT. Findings indicate that while AI-driven personalization and immersive environments enhance learner autonomy and engagement, their impact on communicative competence depends heavily on instructional design and teacher mediation. The article argues that sustainable innovation requires a pedagogy-first approach, critical digital literacy, and institutional alignment.

Keywords: foreign language teaching, emerging technologies, AI in education, digital pedagogy, comparative review, blended learning

Introduction

Digital transformation has reshaped nearly every dimension of education, including foreign language teaching (Babayev, 2023). Since the emergence of Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) in the late twentieth century, technological development has evolved from drill-based software to intelligent adaptive systems and immersive virtual environments. However,

[1] MAMMADOVA, R., Senior Lecturer, Department of English and Methods, Nakhchivan State University, Azerbaijan. Email: rubabamammadova@ndu.edu.az. ORCID: https://orcid.org/0009-0001-5018-9265

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

although technological advancement has accelerated, pedagogical consensus regarding its effectiveness remains fragmented.

Some scholars argue that emerging technologies fundamentally enhance language acquisition through personalization and global connectivity, whereas others caution against technological determinism and superficial engagement. This divergence necessitates a comparative and analytical evaluation of technologies not merely as tools but as pedagogically embedded systems.

This review addresses three guiding questions:

1. How do emerging technologies align with major theories of second language acquisition (SLA)?
2. What comparative pedagogical affordances and limitations characterize AI, MALL, VR/AR, and gamification?
3. Under what conditions does technological innovation meaningfully enhance communicative competence?

Theoretical Lenses for Comparative Analysis

Constructivism emphasizes active knowledge construction. Technologies that promote interaction, collaboration, and problem-solving align with this paradigm. In contrast, early CALL models reflected transmission-based instruction that emphasized repetition and accuracy.

AI-driven systems may either reinforce constructivist learning through adaptive tasks or revert to behaviorist drill models depending on their design (Alisoy, 2025).

Socio-Cultural Mediation

Vygotsky's (1978) socio-cultural theory highlights the importance of mediation and scaffolding in learning. Synchronous communication tools, collaborative writing platforms, and online exchange programs can foster mediated interaction among learners. However, fully automated AI tutoring systems risk minimizing human scaffolding, raising important questions about the social dimensions of language learning.

Connectivism and Networked Knowledge

Siemens (2005) proposes that learning occurs through digital networks where knowledge is distributed across technological systems and social communities. Social media platforms, online communities, and global exchange networks exemplify connectivist approaches in foreign language teaching (Siemens, 2005). Nevertheless, networked learning environments require advanced digital literacy, which is unevenly distributed among learners.

Comparative Analysis of Emerging Technologies

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Artificial Intelligence vs. Human-Mediated Instruction

AI-powered language applications provide immediate feedback, pronunciation assessment, and adaptive vocabulary training (Xu & Warschauer, 2020). Compared to traditional instruction:

Dimension	AI Systems	Human-Mediated Teaching
Feedback Speed	Immediate	Delayed
Personalization	Algorithm-driven	Context-sensitive
Emotional Support	Limited	High
Intercultural Nuance	Limited	Contextualized

AI excels in micro-level linguistic correction but lacks pragmatic and socio-cultural sensitivity. Therefore, AI enhances accuracy-based competence but may not independently develop intercultural communicative competence.

MALL vs. Classroom-Based Learning

Mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) increases exposure frequency and learner autonomy (Kukulska-Hulme & Shield, 2008; Godwin-Jones, 2018). Compared with traditional classroom environments:

- MALL promotes flexibility and microlearning.
- Classroom settings foster structured interaction and guided discourse.

Research suggests that blended learning models outperform purely mobile or purely face-to-face formats (Stockwell, 2010).

VR/AR vs. Textbook Simulation

Virtual reality (VR) provides immersive communicative scenarios that are difficult to replicate through traditional textbooks. Compared with role-play activities in physical classrooms, VR environments enhance sensory engagement and contextual authenticity. However:

- VR requires significant technical infrastructure.
- Cognitive overload may reduce learners' linguistic focus.

Therefore, immersion alone does not automatically guarantee language acquisition without carefully designed pedagogical tasks.

Gamification vs. Intrinsic Motivation

Gamification—the integration of game elements such as points, badges, leaderboards, and levels into educational contexts—has become an increasingly popular strategy in foreign language

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

teaching (FLT) to enhance learner engagement and participation (Ismayilli et al., 2025). Empirical studies suggest that gamification can significantly increase motivation, sustain attention, and promote consistent practice (Mammadova, 2024). For instance, points, progress bars, and badges provide immediate feedback and a visible sense of achievement, encouraging learners to continue practicing vocabulary, grammar, or speaking skills in online or blended environments.

However, the motivational dynamics of gamification are complex. According to Deci and Ryan's (2000) self-determination theory, motivation can be categorized as intrinsic (driven by personal interest or satisfaction) and extrinsic (driven by external rewards or pressure). While gamified elements often operate through extrinsic incentives, excessive reliance on these rewards may inadvertently reduce intrinsic motivation. For example, a learner might complete a series of language tasks primarily to earn points or unlock badges rather than to engage meaningfully with the communicative content. Over time, this may undermine the internalization of language learning goals and decrease learners' autonomous engagement.

To balance these effects, effective gamification should prioritize meaningful and contextually relevant tasks. Instead of using points as the sole motivational driver, gamified activities can incorporate:

Task-based challenges. Learners complete communicative projects, such as role-plays, dialogues, or collaborative storytelling, where game mechanics support progress without replacing pedagogical purpose.

Progressive skill development. Levels or badges are tied to the mastery of language competencies (e.g., vocabulary categories, grammatical structures, or speaking fluency), ensuring that rewards reflect genuine learning gains.

Collaborative engagement. Multiplayer or team-based gamification encourages social interaction, negotiation of meaning, and peer scaffolding, aligning with socio-cultural learning principles.

Adaptive difficulty. Tasks adjust to learner proficiency levels, providing both challenge and achievable goals that maintain competence-based intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Research indicates that well-designed gamification can enhance both extrinsic and intrinsic motivation when rewards are integrated with authentic communicative goals rather than applied superficially. In practical terms, teachers should avoid using gamification purely for engagement metrics such as leaderboard rankings and instead embed game elements within meaningful language practice. For example, completing a narrative dialogue in a gamified application should contribute not only to points but also to the learner's communicative competence.

In summary, gamification in foreign language teaching represents a double-edged sword: it can increase learner participation through extrinsic incentives but may undermine intrinsic motivation

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

if applied superficially. A theoretically informed approach—grounded in self-determination theory and socio-cultural principles—requires that gamification enhances task authenticity, supports learner autonomy, and aligns rewards with genuine language learning objectives. This ensures that gamified elements function as motivational scaffolds rather than as the primary driver of learning.

Pedagogical Innovations in Comparative Perspective

Blended Learning vs. Fully Online Instruction

Blended learning combines digital flexibility with human interaction (Babayev, 2022). Comparative research indicates stronger communicative gains in blended environments than in fully asynchronous online formats.

Flipped Classroom vs. Lecture-Based Instruction

Flipped models shift content delivery outside the classroom. Compared with lecture-based instruction, flipped classrooms increase student talk time and collaborative engagement. However, their effectiveness largely depends on learners' self-regulation skills.

Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) in Digital Contexts

Digital tools amplify Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) by enabling authentic cross-cultural projects (Babazade, 2024). Compared with traditional grammar-focused instruction, digital TBLT emphasizes negotiation of meaning and real-world communication.

Cross-Cutting Challenges in Technology-Enhanced Foreign Language Teaching

While emerging technologies offer substantial opportunities for enhancing foreign language teaching (FLT), their adoption also introduces several cross-cutting challenges that may limit effectiveness, exacerbate inequalities, or raise ethical concerns. These challenges include the digital divide and access inequality, teacher digital competence, and ethical or data-related issues (Babayev, 2022). Each is discussed in detail below.

1. Digital Divide and Access Inequality

Access to technology is not uniform across socio-economic, geographic, and institutional contexts. The digital divide refers to disparities in the availability, affordability, and effective use of technology among learners (Babayev, 2022). Even when devices are available, differences in internet connectivity, platform accessibility, and software literacy may create unequal learning opportunities.

Empirical research indicates that students in lower socio-economic contexts may benefit less from AI-driven adaptive systems, MALL applications, or VR environments due to the lack of access to compatible devices or reliable internet connectivity (Stockwell, 2010). Consequently,

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

technological innovation may inadvertently widen pre-existing educational gaps, reinforcing socio-economic inequalities rather than democratizing learning opportunities.

To mitigate these issues, institutions must ensure equitable access through device loan programs, subsidized internet services, and inclusive platform design. Policy frameworks should incorporate digital inclusion as a core component of technology-enhanced FLT initiatives.

2. Teacher Digital Competence

Even when technologies are available, their pedagogical impact depends significantly on teacher competence. Technical literacy alone is insufficient; educators must develop digital pedagogical competence, which integrates content knowledge, pedagogical strategies, and technological proficiency—often conceptualized through the TPACK framework (Alisoy, 2023).

Without adequate training and professional development, technology integration often remains superficial, reducing complex digital tools to simple digital substitutes for traditional exercises. For example:

- AI platforms may be underutilized if teachers cannot interpret analytical outputs for formative feedback.
- VR or AR applications may fail to foster communicative competence if tasks are poorly scaffolded.
- Gamified systems may become mere entertainment rather than pedagogical tools if teacher facilitation is absent.

Sustainable technology integration therefore requires ongoing professional development, mentorship programs, and reflective teaching practices to ensure that digital tools enhance instructional quality rather than simply adding novelty.

3. Ethical and Data Concerns

Emerging technologies—particularly AI-based systems and learning analytics—require the collection, storage, and analysis of learner data (Babayev, 2025). While such data can improve personalization and assessment accuracy, it also raises ethical and privacy concerns (Xu & Warschauer, 2020). Key issues include:

- **Data privacy:** Learners may be unaware of what data are collected, how they are used, or who has access to them.
- **Algorithmic bias:** AI systems may reinforce existing inequalities if trained on non-representative data sets.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

- **Surveillance and autonomy:** Excessive monitoring may undermine learner autonomy and create anxiety.

Addressing these concerns requires transparent algorithms, ethical guidelines for data use, and institutional governance structures. Educators must also be trained in digital ethics to make informed decisions regarding the adoption of AI and analytics tools in language learning environments.

4. Interconnectedness of Challenges

These challenges are not isolated. For instance, access inequality can amplify issues related to teacher competence, as instructors working in under-resourced contexts may have fewer opportunities for professional development. Similarly, limited digital literacy among learners may intensify ethical concerns, since students may unknowingly consent to extensive data collection without fully understanding the implications.

Therefore, cross-cutting challenges should be addressed holistically by combining policy development, teacher training, ethical oversight, and inclusive technological infrastructure. Successful integration of technology in FLT requires institutional commitment, equitable access, teacher development, and ethical safeguards simultaneously.

Summary and Implications

- The digital divide threatens equitable learning opportunities and must be addressed through policy and infrastructure development.
- Teacher competence is critical; technology alone cannot improve learning outcomes.
- Ethical governance and responsible data management are essential to maintain trust, learner autonomy, and the integrity of pedagogical innovation.
- Holistic approaches ensure that technological adoption enhances rather than undermines both learning outcomes and social equity.

Synthesis: Toward a Pedagogy-First Framework

The comparative and analytical review of emerging technologies in foreign language teaching (FLT) indicates that no single technology can be considered inherently superior in enhancing learning outcomes. While AI, MALL, VR/AR, and gamification each offer distinct affordances—such as adaptive feedback, flexibility, immersive environments, and motivational engagement—their effectiveness ultimately depends on pedagogical design, theoretical grounding, and contextual implementation (Alisoy & Sadiqzade, 2024). This underscores the importance of adopting a pedagogy-first framework, in which technology serves as an enhancer of instruction rather than a driver or substitute for sound teaching practices (Chapelle, 2001).

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

The synthesis of the literature suggests that successful technology integration in FLT depends on several interrelated factors.

1. Alignment with SLA Theories

- Technologies should be integrated in ways that reflect established theories of second language acquisition (SLA), including constructivism, socio-cultural theory, and connectivism.
- For example, adaptive AI systems can enhance individualized practice, but their effectiveness increases when aligned with communicative or task-based pedagogical objectives (Warschauer & Healey, 1998).
- Similarly, VR environments can simulate authentic contexts, but without scaffolding strategies grounded in socio-cultural theory, immersion alone does not guarantee language acquisition (Vygotsky, 1978).

2. Integration into Communicative Pedagogy

- Digital tools should not operate in isolation; they must be embedded within authentic communicative tasks.
- Gamification, for instance, may increase learner motivation, but extrinsic reward systems are effective only when connected to meaningful language activities such as collaborative projects or role-play tasks (Deci & Ryan, 2000).
- Blended learning environments exemplify this integration by combining the affordances of MALL or online platforms with face-to-face interaction to support negotiation of meaning, pragmatic competence, and intercultural communication (Godwin-Jones, 2018).

3. Teacher Mediation and Facilitation

- Teachers remain central in interpreting learner data, guiding digital tasks, and facilitating interaction.
- Research indicates that without teacher mediation, technologies such as AI scoring tools or learning analytics may generate feedback that is misinterpreted or insufficiently actionable (Kukulska-Hulme & Shield, 2008).
- Teacher expertise, often conceptualized through the TPACK model, ensures that technology complements rather than replaces pedagogical intent.

4. Institutional Support and Infrastructure

- Equitable access, technical support, and professional development are prerequisites for effective adoption.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

- Institutions must invest not only in hardware and software but also in training programs, mentorship initiatives, and curriculum redesign to integrate emerging technologies systematically (Selwyn, 2016).
- In under-resourced contexts, insufficient institutional support can undermine pedagogical innovation regardless of technological potential.

5. Ethical and Responsible Governance

- Technology use in FLT carries ethical responsibilities, including protecting learner data privacy, ensuring transparency of AI algorithms, and promoting equitable access.
- A pedagogy-first framework incorporates ethical governance as a foundational principle, ensuring that digital tools support both educational and social equity objectives.

In summary, a pedagogy-first framework positions technology as a strategic enabler of learning, where theoretical grounding, instructional design, teacher mediation, institutional support, and ethical governance work together to produce meaningful outcomes. This approach contrasts with technology-driven models that prioritize novelty or tool adoption over clearly defined learning objectives.

Conclusion

The rapid development of digital technologies has significantly transformed the landscape of foreign language teaching (FLT). This review has examined emerging technologies—including artificial intelligence (AI), mobile-assisted language learning (MALL), virtual and augmented reality (VR/AR), and gamification—through a comparative and pedagogical perspective. The analysis demonstrates that while these technologies provide new opportunities for personalization, flexibility, immersive interaction, and learner engagement, their effectiveness ultimately depends on how they are integrated within established pedagogical frameworks.

A central finding of this review is that technology alone does not guarantee improved language learning outcomes. Rather, successful implementation requires alignment with established theories of second language acquisition (SLA), including constructivist, socio-cultural, and connectivist perspectives (Vygotsky, 1978; Siemens, 2005). Technologies such as AI-driven systems or VR environments may enhance linguistic exposure and provide adaptive feedback, but without appropriate instructional design and teacher mediation, their pedagogical potential may remain limited (Chapelle, 2001).

Furthermore, the comparative analysis highlights that different technologies support different dimensions of communicative competence. AI systems are effective for micro-level linguistic accuracy and adaptive practice, whereas MALL promotes learner autonomy and frequent exposure to language input. VR environments can simulate authentic communicative contexts, while

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

gamification may increase motivation and engagement when aligned with meaningful tasks (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Godwin-Jones, 2018). However, none of these technologies can fully replace the role of human interaction, cultural interpretation, and pedagogical guidance provided by teachers.

The review also identifies several cross-cutting challenges that accompany technological innovation in FLT. Issues related to digital inequality, teacher digital competence, and ethical concerns surrounding data privacy and algorithmic bias remain significant barriers to equitable implementation (Babayev, 2022; Xu & Warschauer, 2020). Addressing these challenges requires coordinated institutional strategies that include infrastructure development, professional training, and responsible governance of digital tools.

Overall, the findings support the adoption of a pedagogy-first approach to technology integration. In this framework, digital tools function as facilitators of communicative learning rather than as replacements for sound pedagogical practice. When technologies are thoughtfully aligned with SLA theories, supported by teacher expertise, and implemented within ethically responsible educational systems, they can substantially enhance language learning environments.

Future research should continue to investigate long-term learning outcomes, learner autonomy, and intercultural competence in technology-enhanced FLT contexts. Such research will contribute to a more balanced understanding of how technological innovation can support sustainable, equitable, and pedagogically grounded language education.

References

Alisoy, H. (2023). Digital dynamics: Transforming classrooms with ICT. *Znanstvena Misel Journal, 34*, 3–52.

Alisoy, H. (2025). The impact of AI-powered personalized learning on ESL student outcomes. *Euro-Global Journal of Linguistics and Language Education, 2*(2), 89–98.

Alisoy, H., & Sadiqzade, Z. (2024). Mobile-assisted language learning (MALL): Revolutionizing language education. *Luminis Applied Science and Engineering, 1*(1), 60–72.

Babazade, Y. (2024). The impact of digital tools on vocabulary development in second language learning. *Journal of Azerbaijan Language and Education Studies, 1*(1), 35–41.

Babayev, J. (2022). Characteristics of online learning. *Polish Journal of Science, 50*, 67–68.

Babayev, J. (2023, June). Digitalization in education after the pandemic. In *Proceedings of the International Conference "Multilingualism, Internationalization, Digitalization as Factors of Innovations in Teacher Education"* (pp. 102–103).

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Babayev, J. (2023, December). Usage of audio and video tasks in language teaching. In *Proceedings of the 5th International Scientific Conference "Modern Scientific Technology"* (December 21–22, 2023, Stockholm, Sweden) (p. 6).

Babayev, J. (2025). Algorithmic autonomy or dependence? A mixed-methods study on AI personalization and self-regulated learning in higher education. *Journal of Azerbaijan Language and Education Studies, 2*(4), 32–39.

Babayev, J. (2025). Application of social platforms in language learning. *Acta Globalis Humanitatis et Linguarum, 2*(3), 141–148.

Beatty, K. (2013). *Teaching and researching: Computer-assisted language learning* (2nd ed.). Routledge.

Chapelle, C. A. (2001). *Computer applications in second language acquisition*. Cambridge University Press.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The "what" and "why" of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior. *Psychological Inquiry, 11*(4), 227–268.

Godwin-Jones, R. (2018). Using mobile technology to develop language skills. *Language Learning & Technology, 22*(3), 1–17.

Huseyn, Z. I., & Babayev, J. (2025). Effective methods of teaching Azerbaijani to foreign students. *Porta Universorum, 1*(9), 118–126.

Ismayilli, T. M., Mammadova, K. M., & Asadova, A. A. (2025). The impact of educational games on speaking skills in the foreign language teaching process. *Novitas-ROYAL (Research on Youth and Language), 19*(1), 229–240.

Kukulska-Hulme, A., & Shield, L. (2008). Mobile assisted language learning. *ReCALL, 20*(3), 271–289.

Mammadova, R. (2024). Engaging learners: Teaching English through interactive games. *Acta Globalis Humanitatis et Linguarum, 1*(1), 116–123.

Selwyn, N. (2016). *Education and technology: Key issues and debates*. Bloomsbury.

Siemens, G. (2005). Connectivism: A learning theory for the digital age. *International Journal of Instructional Technology and Distance Learning, 2*(1), 3–10.

Stockwell, G. (2010). Using mobile phones for vocabulary activities: Examining the effect of platform. *ReCALL, 22*(1), 95–110.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Harvard University Press.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Warschauer, M., & Healey, D. (1998). Computers and language learning: An overview. *Language Teaching, 31*(2), 57–71.

Xu, Z., & Warschauer, M. (2020). AI-based language learning tools. *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 33*(8), 1–25.

Received: 01.15.2026
Revised: 01.25.2026
Accepted: 03.02.2026
Published: 03.05.2026

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Euro-Global Journal of Linguistics and Language Education
ISSN 3030-1394 /online/

Vol. 3 No. 1 (2026) Pavasaris

Human vs. Machine Communication: The Future Value of English for Employability and Mobility

[1] Nermin Rzayeva, [2] Ilaha Ashrafova

https://doi.org/10.69760/egjlle.2601006

Abstract. This paper examines whether English will remain the most important career skill in future jobs amid rapid advances in artificial intelligence, automation, and digitalization. While AI-powered translation and automated communication tools reduce barriers to basic cross-linguistic interaction, the findings suggest that English is unlikely to lose its strategic value. Instead, its role is transforming from an elite advantage to a layered competence in which basic operational proficiency may be supported by AI, whereas advanced professional English remains crucial for negotiation, leadership, persuasion, intercultural interaction, and high-stakes decision-making. A sector-based review indicates sustained demand for English in international business, technology, academia, diplomacy, and remote work, alongside growing importance of multilingual repertoires in regional markets. The paper argues for a pedagogy-first framework in language education that integrates digital tools responsibly, strengthens career-oriented communication, and develops AI literacy to ensure ethical and effective use of emerging technologies.

Keywords: English as a global skill; future jobs; AI-mediated communication; multilingualism

1. Introduction

Artificial intelligence (AI), automation, and rapid digitalization are reshaping how people learn, work, and collaborate across borders. Remote and hybrid work models have expanded international teamwork, while AI tools now translate, summarize, and generate workplace communication in seconds. At the same time, long-run evidence suggests that technology both substitutes for some tasks and creates new ones, changing which skills are rewarded (Autor, 2015). In this context, English faces a central dilemma: if machine translation and AI communication

[1] RZAYEVA, N., Student, Faculty of Arts, Design Specialty, Nakhchivan State University, Azerbaijan. Email: rzayevanrmin43@gmail.com. ORCID: https://orcid.org/0009-0003-9513-5644

[2] ASHRAFOVA, I., Nakhchivan State University, Azerbaijan. Email: ilahaashrafova@ndu.edu.az. ORCID: https://orcid.org/0009-0000-2127-3487

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

assistants keep improving, will English still matter as a career skill—or will it become less valuable, like a "nice-to-have" rather than a requirement?

This article analyzes English as a future employability skill in relation to (a) AI-enabled communication, (b) shifting labor-market skill demands, and (c) the growing importance of human-centered competencies such as collaboration and persuasion (Deming, 2017). Rather than treating English as a single, static competence, the paper distinguishes between basic operational proficiency and advanced professional communication that involves nuance, intercultural awareness, and strategic decision-making (Seidlhofer, 2011).

Guiding questions:

- Will English remain a competitive advantage, or become a basic workplace minimum?
- Which job sectors will still require high-level English despite improving AI tools?
- How should language education adapt to prepare learners for future jobs?

2. English as a Global Skill: What "Dominance" Means Today

English remains the most widely used bridge language in international professional life. It functions as a lingua franca in global business communication, research publishing, aviation, technology documentation, and diplomacy (Nickerson, 2005; Jenkins, 2013). Yet "dominance" does not mean that all workers need the same kind of English. In practice, labor markets reward different proficiency levels. Many roles require basic operational English (reading emails, following procedures, participating in routine meetings), while internationally oriented positions demand advanced professional English (negotiation, presentations, client management, technical writing, and high-stakes decision communication).

This distinction matters because AI may reduce the cost of basic comprehension, but it does not automatically replace the value of trust-building and pragmatic competence. English as a lingua franca often involves accommodation strategies, managing misunderstandings, and culturally sensitive interaction—skills that depend on human judgment (Seidlhofer, 2011). Moreover, economic evidence suggests that foreign-language competence can carry measurable wage and mobility benefits, particularly at higher levels of proficiency (Liwiński, 2019). Evidence from different contexts also indicates that English can function as a form of human capital linked to employability and earnings, especially where globalized sectors expand (Chakraborty & Kapur Bakshi, 2016).

At the same time, the "English advantage" is changing. As global communication becomes more routine and digital, English may shift from an elite differentiator to a baseline expectation in many sectors (Graddol, 2006). Where this baseline exists, the competitive edge increasingly comes from advanced, domain-specific English (e.g., legal English, academic English, tech writing) and from

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

the ability to communicate strategically in multilingual environments (Jenkins, 2013). In short, English is not disappearing; its value is being redistributed across levels and contexts.

3. AI and the Future of Human Language Skills

3.1. Machine translation and automated communication

AI tools increasingly reduce language barriers through real-time translation, speech-to-text transcription, and automated writing support. In language education, studies on machine-translation-assisted writing show that learners can benefit from faster drafting and increased exposure to target-language structures, though outcomes depend on guidance and learner awareness (Lee, 2020; Deng & Yu, 2022). Research also suggests that when students use machine translation critically—checking meaning, style, and register—it can support learning, whereas uncritical dependence may limit development of independent proficiency (Klimova, 2025). In workplaces, translation and writing assistants can speed up routine tasks—emails, reports, meeting notes—and make multilingual collaboration more accessible.

However, limits remain. First, specialized domains (law, medicine, engineering, diplomacy) require terminological precision and responsibility for consequences, where small errors can be costly. Second, pragmatics and culture are difficult to automate: politeness, humor, face-saving, and power relations often require contextual reading. Third, ethical and security concerns persist because AI systems may store or learn from sensitive data, raising governance and privacy questions (Xu & Warschauer, 2020). Finally, persuasion and ambiguity management—common in negotiations and leadership communication—are not just "language output" problems; they involve intentions, relationships, and trust.

3.2. Human vs. machine communication

Even if AI reduces the need for basic translation, future jobs still reward human communication competence. Research on labor markets shows rising returns to social skills such as teamwork, coordination, and interpersonal interaction (Deming, 2017; Borghans et al., 2014). In international settings, English is frequently the medium through which these social skills are expressed—leading meetings, resolving conflict, negotiating compromises, and building credibility with global partners (Nickerson, 2005). AI may therefore shift demand away from simple linguistic accuracy toward higher-level communicative performance: strategic clarity, intercultural sensitivity, and the ability to align language with professional goals.

This shift is visible in current discussions of AI-mediated learning and work. Scholarship on emerging language-learning spaces highlights how chatbots, ambient AI, and "metaverse" contexts can expand interaction opportunities, but still require human agency, critical evaluation, and pedagogical framing (Godwin-Jones, 2023). In practical terms, the key question is not whether AI

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

can produce English, but whether professionals can use English (and AI tools) responsibly—choosing the right tone, managing risk, and communicating ethically in complex situations.

4. Future Jobs: Where English Will Still Matter Most

English is most likely to remain crucial in roles that combine cross-border collaboration with high-stakes decision-making. In international business and trade, English is central for contracts, negotiation, supply-chain coordination, and client relations—areas where nuance, risk, and persuasion matter (Nickerson, 2005). In tech and IT, English dominates documentation, developer communities, and global product coordination; even where code is universal, teams rely on English to define requirements, write specifications, and coordinate across time zones (World Economic Forum, 2025).

In academia and research, English continues to shape publishing, indexing, and conference participation, making it a gatekeeping skill for visibility and collaboration (Jenkins, 2013). In tourism, aviation, and logistics, operational English remains important for safety, service quality, and standardized procedures (Graddol, 2006). In diplomacy, NGOs, and international law, English is tied to formal writing, negotiation, and delicate intercultural interaction where automated outputs still require human accountability (Seidlhofer, 2011).

Additional growth areas reinforce this trend. Global customer support, marketing, and content roles depend on persuasive communication and brand tone, where machine translation may help but cannot fully replace human judgment. Similarly, in health, engineering, and finance, English is often the access language for standards, research updates, and international professional networks, even when local practice occurs in other languages. For many professionals, English functions as "career infrastructure": it enables participation in communities of practice, continuous learning, and cross-border opportunity.

At the same time, English demand is not uniform. Some locally bounded roles may rely more on national languages, and in certain regions other international languages can carry strong market value. Yet even in these contexts, English frequently remains the default bridge language for global platforms, multinational firms, and international certification pathways (Graddol, 2006). Evidence on language-related wage premiums also suggests that advanced proficiency—rather than minimal competence—is where the strongest labor-market rewards often appear (Liwiński, 2019).

Finally, remote work and freelancing amplify English demand because global platforms connect workers to international clients and distributed teams. Employers consistently emphasize communication and collaboration skills alongside digital skills, suggesting that language competence remains embedded within broader employability requirements (World Economic Forum, 2025). While some local jobs may reduce English requirements, ongoing globalization and digital labor markets keep many growth sectors English-intensive, especially for advancement into management and international roles (Deming, 2017).

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

5. English vs. Other Languages: Multilingualism and Regional Shifts

The future language landscape of work is increasingly multilingual rather than English-only. While English continues to function as the primary "bridge language" for cross-border communication, regional economic growth, migration patterns, and geopolitical shifts are strengthening the professional value of other global and regional languages. In international trade and supply chains, for example, Mandarin Chinese can be critical in East Asian business networks, Spanish in the Americas, Arabic in parts of the Middle East and North Africa, and French or German in specific European institutional and corporate contexts. These developments suggest that English is unlikely to disappear, but its dominance may become more situational and sector-dependent rather than universally decisive (Graddol, 2006).

A balanced perspective is therefore necessary. English retains structural advantages: it remains embedded in international publishing, digital platforms, and multinational corporate communication, and it often serves as the default lingua franca in mixed-language teams (Jenkins, 2013; Seidlhofer, 2011). At the same time, additional languages can create a competitive edge by enabling deeper market access, relationship-building, and culturally appropriate interaction in regional settings. In this sense, multilingual competence functions as a strategic supplement to English rather than a replacement.

From an employability standpoint, multilingualism can be viewed as a future-proof strategy. Workers who combine English with one or more regionally valuable languages may expand their mobility, client reach, and leadership potential in multinational environments. Evidence from labor-market research on language skills also supports the idea that foreign language competence can be associated with measurable economic benefits, especially when proficiency is functional and professionally relevant (Liwiński, 2019). Overall, the key trend is not a simple decline of English, but a gradual shift toward layered language repertoires: English as a global connector, alongside additional languages that provide regional specialization and stronger interpersonal trust in specific markets.

6. Programming Languages vs. Natural Languages

A popular claim in future-skills debates is that "coding is the new English." This idea reflects the growing importance of digital literacy in economies shaped by automation, AI, and data-driven decision-making. Programming languages support technical problem-solving, system design, and productivity in digital work environments, and they increasingly function as gateways to high-demand jobs. At the same time, research on automation and labor-market restructuring shows that technology changes task composition rather than eliminating the need for human judgment across the board (Autor, 2015; Frey & Osborne, 2017). As certain routine tasks become automated, the value of distinctly human skills often increases.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

In this context, natural language competence—especially in English—remains central because work is not only technical execution. Professional success also depends on communication, teamwork, negotiation, leadership, and intercultural competence. Studies demonstrate that social skills have grown in importance in modern labor markets, particularly in occupations that require coordination and collaboration (Deming, 2017). English frequently becomes the medium through which these social skills are expressed in global teams, remote workplaces, and international institutions (Nickerson, 2005).

Rather than positioning coding and English as competing "most important skills," a more realistic approach is to treat them as complementary. Coding represents technical literacy and the ability to interact with machines and systems; language competence represents the ability to interact with people, manage relationships, and align communication with institutional goals. Future professionals will increasingly need both: digital skills to operate in AI-augmented workplaces and advanced communication skills to lead, persuade, and collaborate across cultures. This balance is consistent with broader future-of-jobs frameworks that emphasize the combined value of technological competence and human-centered capabilities (World Economic Forum, 2025).

7. Implications for Language Education and Curriculum Design

If English is transforming rather than disappearing, language education must also shift from traditional objectives toward future-oriented professional competence. A central implication is that curricula should move beyond textbook-centered grammar instruction and strengthen career-oriented communication skills. This includes practical competencies such as professional email writing, meeting participation, presentations, negotiation language, job interviews, and workplace discourse conventions. In a global labor market, learners need English that supports real tasks and authentic interaction, not only accuracy at the sentence level (Jenkins, 2013; Nickerson, 2005).

A second implication is responsible integration of digital tools. AI-based learning platforms, adaptive systems, and online collaboration spaces can extend exposure, increase practice frequency, and support individualized pathways. Research on AI-assisted and machine-translation-supported learning suggests that these tools can help learners draft, revise, and notice language patterns more efficiently, provided that learners and teachers use them critically and pedagogically (Lee, 2020; Deng & Yu, 2022; Godwin-Jones, 2023). However, if technology is adopted as a shortcut rather than as a learning support, it can encourage dependence and reduce independent language development (Klimova, 2025).

For this reason, a third implication is explicit AI literacy for language learners. Students should learn how to use translation and writing tools ethically, evaluate output quality, avoid plagiarism, and protect personal data. Ethical and governance concerns are especially relevant when AI systems store or process learner information and when algorithmic systems may reproduce bias or

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

obscure decision-making (Xu & Warschauer, 2020). This requires institutional guidelines as well as classroom-level training in critical use.

Finally, curriculum design should intentionally develop soft skills through English. Communication competence includes critical thinking, teamwork, intercultural awareness, and conflict-sensitive interaction—skills that remain difficult to automate and that are increasingly rewarded in the labor market (Deming, 2017). In practical terms, this supports a pedagogy-first model: technology enhances learning when it serves communicative goals, authentic tasks, and human development, rather than replacing instructional design (Chapelle, 2001).

8. Youth Employability and Long-Term Career Development

For young people entering a rapidly changing labor market, English still provides meaningful advantages, but those advantages increasingly relate to opportunity access and long-term mobility rather than only immediate job placement. English enables participation in international education, scholarships, research networks, and professional certification systems—pathways that expand career trajectories beyond local labor markets (Jenkins, 2013). It also supports remote work and freelancing, where global platforms connect young professionals to international clients and distributed teams (World Economic Forum, 2025).

In addition, English proficiency often supports confidence and leadership development in multicultural environments. As workplaces become more networked and collaborative, employers value employees who can communicate clearly, coordinate with others, and participate in cross-cultural teamwork. Evidence indicates that social skills have become increasingly important for labor-market success, and English can function as the medium through which these competencies are displayed in international contexts (Deming, 2017; Seidlhofer, 2011). From this perspective, English is not merely a technical language skill but part of a wider professional profile.

Economic research also suggests that language skills can correlate with wage and employability premiums in various contexts, especially when proficiency is strong and functionally relevant (Liwiński, 2019; Chakraborty & Kapur Bakshi, 2016). For youth, this implies that English may operate as a compounding resource: it increases access to better information, wider networks, and higher-quality learning opportunities over time. Importantly, these benefits do not exclude multilingualism; in many sectors, combining English with other languages strengthens employability further.

Therefore, youth-focused language policy and curriculum planning should treat English as a component of long-term career development—linked to communication competence, professional identity, and future mobility—rather than as a short-term exam subject. This is especially relevant in the AI era, where basic translation may be automated but advanced communication, relationship-building, and strategic interaction remain human-centered and professionally decisive (Autor, 2015).

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

9. Conclusion

This paper has argued that English will likely remain important in future jobs, but its role will transform. As AI-driven translation, transcription, and writing tools reduce barriers to basic communication, English may become less of an elite differentiator in some contexts and more of a baseline competence in many globalized sectors (Graddol, 2006; World Economic Forum, 2025). However, rather than eliminating the value of English, AI shifts demand toward higher-level professional communication: negotiation, leadership discourse, trust-building, intercultural interaction, and ethically responsible messaging—areas where human judgment remains central (Deming, 2017; Nickerson, 2005).

The main implication is that English is best understood as layered competence. Basic operational English may be increasingly supported by AI tools, but advanced professional English—and the ability to use English strategically in multilingual workplaces—continues to shape employability and career mobility (Seidlhofer, 2011; Liwiński, 2019). In this sense, future professionals need both digital skills and human communication competence.

Three practical recommendations follow. First, language education should adopt a pedagogy-first curriculum that prioritizes authentic workplace tasks and communicative outcomes (Chapelle, 2001). Second, institutions should promote blended models that combine digital flexibility with teacher mediation and human interaction. Third, curricula should include AI literacy and multilingual strategies so that learners can use tools ethically, protect data, and build regionally relevant language repertoires alongside English (Xu & Warschauer, 2020).

References

Acemoglu, D., & Restrepo, P. (2020). Robots and jobs: Evidence from US labor markets. *Journal of Political Economy, 128*(6), 2188–2244. doi:10.1086/705716.

Alisoy, H., & Sadiqzade, Z. (2024). Mobile-assisted language learning (MALL): Revolutionizing language education. *Luminis Applied Science and Engineering*, *1*(1), 60-72.

Borghans, L., ter Weel, B., & Weinberg, B. A. (2014). People skills and the labor-market outcomes of underrepresented groups. *ILR Review, 67*(2), 287–334. doi:10.1177/001979391406700202.

Chakraborty, T., & Kapur Bakshi, S. (2016). English language premium: Evidence from a policy experiment in India. *Economics of Education Review, 50*, 1–16. doi:10.1016/j.econedurev.2015.10.004.

Deming, D. J. (2017). The growing importance of social skills in the labor market. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics, 132*(4), 1593–1640. doi:10.1093/qje/qjx022.

Deng, X., & Yu, Z. (2022). A systematic review of machine-translation-assisted language learning for sustainable education. *Sustainability, 14*(13), 7598. doi:10.3390/su14137598.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Frey, C. B., & Osborne, M. A. (2017). The future of employment: How susceptible are jobs to computerisation? *Technological Forecasting and Social Change, 114*, 254–280. doi:10.1016/j.techfore.2016.08.019.

Gálvez-Soriano, O. (2025). Foreign language skills and labor market outcomes: The case of English in Mexico. *Economics of Education Review, 108*, 102702. doi:10.1016/j.econedurev.2025.102702.

Godwin-Jones, R. (2023). Emerging spaces for language learning: AI bots, ambient intelligence, and the metaverse. *Language Learning & Technology, 27*(2), 6–27. doi:10.64152/10125/73501.

Graddol, D. (2006). *English next: Why global English may mean the end of "English as a foreign language"*. British Council.

Jenkins, J. (2013). *English as a lingua franca in the international university: The politics of academic English language policy*. Routledge.

Klimova, B. (2025). Use of machine translation in foreign language education. *Cogent Arts & Humanities, 12*(1), 2491183. doi:10.1080/23311983.2025.2491183.

Lee, S.-M. (2020). The impact of using machine translation on EFL students' writing. *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 33*(3), 157–175. doi:10.1080/09588221.2018.1553186.

Liwiński, J. (2019). The wage premium from foreign language skills. *Empirica, 46*(4), 691–711. doi:10.1007/s10663-019-09459-0.

Nickerson, C. (2005). English as a lingua franca in international business contexts. *English for Specific Purposes, 24*(4), 367–380. doi:10.1016/j.esp.2005.02.001

Sadigzade, Z. (2025). AI-Powered Feedback in ESL Writing Classes: Pedagogical Opportunities and Ethical Concerns. *Journal of Azerbaijan Language and Education Studies*, *2*(4), 5-17. https://doi.org/10.69760/jales.2025004000

Seidlhofer, B. (2011). *Understanding English as a lingua franca*. Oxford University Press.

World Economic Forum. (2025). *The Future of Jobs Report 2025*. World Economic Forum.

Yang, Y., Wei, X., Li, P., & Zhai, X. (2023). Assessing the effectiveness of machine translation in the Chinese EFL writing context: A replication of Lee (2020). *ReCALL, 35*(2), 211–224. doi:10.1017/S0958344023000022.

Received: 01.15.2026
Revised: 01.25.2026
Accepted: 03.02.2026
Published: 03.05.2026

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Euro-Global Journal of Linguistics and Language Education
ISSN 3030-1394 /online/

Vol. 3 No. 1 (2026) Pavasaris

University Students' Patriotic Education Through an Interdisciplinary Approach

[1] **Gunay Naghiyeva**

https://doi.org/10.69760/egjlle.26010070

Abstract. This study examines the role of an interdisciplinary approach in strengthening patriotic education among university students in Azerbaijan. Interdisciplinary integration has recently gained increasing importance in higher education as an effective pedagogical model for developing critical thinking, creativity, and social responsibility. By combining knowledge, methods, and skills from different academic disciplines, this approach enables students to address real-life challenges more effectively and supports their intellectual as well as civic development. The study is based on observations and surveys conducted in teacher-training faculties at higher education institutions in Nakhchivan. The findings indicate that interdisciplinary teaching helps future educators understand the relationship between subject areas and their shared contribution to the formation of civic awareness, national identity, and patriotic values. The study also draws on international experience, particularly the Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) model, which demonstrates the effectiveness of integrating subject knowledge with language learning. The article concludes that the broader implementation of interdisciplinary integration in higher education requires stronger methodological support, targeted teacher training, and improved institutional resources.

Keywords: interdisciplinary integration, patriotic education, higher education, civic awareness, CLIL

Introduction

Interdisciplinary integration has emerged in Azerbaijan as a relatively recent yet increasingly significant pedagogical approach applied across a variety of academic subjects. Despite the fact that this model may appear complex or demanding for some educators, particularly because of its research-oriented and collaborative nature, it offers substantial educational benefits. One of its primary advantages is its contribution to the development of students' critical thinking, analytical

[1] Naghiyeva, G. Lecturer, Nakhchivan State University; Doctoral Student, Nakhchivan Teachers Institute, Azerbaijan. Email: gunaynaghiyeva1995@gmail.com. ORCID: https://orcid.org/0009-0005-2845-6741

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

abilities, and creativity. In addition, interdisciplinary integration facilitates the acquisition of knowledge and skills across multiple domains, thereby preparing learners to respond more effectively to real-life challenges beyond the classroom environment (ARTI, 2023; Cavadova, 2024).

The distinguishing feature of interdisciplinary teaching lies in the fact that students do not merely study isolated subject content; rather, they learn to combine concepts, skills, and methods from different disciplines in meaningful and practical contexts. Such an approach enables learners to develop a more holistic understanding of knowledge and to recognize the interconnectedness of academic fields. Within this framework, the integration of pedagogy and English language teaching offers a particularly productive model. Through this synthesis, students not only improve their foreign language competence but also engage more deeply with pedagogical concepts and values. In this regard, the inclusion of patriotic education as a thematic component within pedagogical instruction appears especially relevant, as it allows both linguistic and civic objectives to be addressed simultaneously (Ağayeva, 2022; ARTI, 2023).

The relevance of this topic is further reinforced by the growing scholarly and practical interest in interdisciplinary integration as an effective educational strategy. In contemporary higher education, this approach is increasingly viewed not only as a methodological innovation but also as a means of shaping socially responsible, critically aware, and ethically grounded individuals. Although previous studies have largely focused on the role of interdisciplinary integration in fostering civic values among children and adolescents, comparatively less attention has been paid to its application in the context of university-level patriotic education. Therefore, the present study aims to examine the challenges and possibilities of strengthening patriotic education among university students through an interdisciplinary approach.

Literature Review

Patriotic education occupies an important place in the moral, civic, and social development of the younger generation, particularly among university students who are expected to assume active roles in society. In educational discourse, patriotic education is often associated with the formation of civic qualities, national consciousness, social responsibility, and respect for cultural heritage. It encourages individuals to move beyond narrow personal interests and to develop a sense of duty, dignity, and commitment to their homeland. According to Ağayeva (2022), genuine patriotism is grounded in high moral values and in devoted service to both the nation and the state. She emphasizes that the family constitutes the first and most influential environment for the formation of patriotic feeling; however, such education should not be left to chance but should instead be organized in a purposeful, systematic, and pedagogically sound manner. In her view, patriotic education is closely connected with students' moral development, disciplinary awareness, and knowledge of their country's history, geography, traditions, and culture.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

From the perspective of military-patriotic education, Ahmadova (2022) argues that adolescence and youth represent a particularly important stage in the formation of patriotism, heroism, personal beliefs, and value systems. During this period, young people begin to develop a more active civic position and a clearer understanding of social responsibility. The author maintains that effective patriotic education should not be limited to theoretical instruction; rather, it should include active participation in projects, communication with military representatives or veterans, and engagement in patriotic, intellectual, and socially oriented events. Such activities, including round tables, forums, competitions, and discussions of historical military experiences, help young people internalize patriotic values and strengthen their readiness to contribute to national defense and civic life. Although Ahmadova's focus is primarily on school education, her ideas can also be applied to higher education contexts where similar values remain relevant.

The concept of interdisciplinary integration provides a useful methodological framework for achieving such educational goals. As Cavadova (2024) explains, interdisciplinary integration involves the synthesis of concepts, knowledge, principles, and methods drawn from two or more academic disciplines. It requires the application of the theories and tools of one field to the teaching and learning processes of another. This structure contributes to the development of a holistic worldview in students and supports the emergence of broader scientific understanding through shared concepts, categories, and approaches. In this sense, interdisciplinary teaching does not simply combine subject matter; it transforms the educational process into a more dynamic, connected, and meaningful experience.

This understanding is also supported by broader international scholarship. Beane (1997) emphasizes that curriculum integration strengthens democratic education by encouraging learners to relate knowledge to real-life issues and social values. Similarly, Drake and Burns (2004) note that integrated curricula help students make connections across subject boundaries and foster deeper understanding. Within language education, the CLIL model has demonstrated that combining subject instruction with language learning can increase both motivation and content retention (Coyle et al., 2010; Marsh, 1994). These insights are particularly relevant to the present study, as they suggest that patriotic education can be made more effective when embedded within interdisciplinary and language-based teaching practices.

At the same time, local research in Azerbaijan on the pedagogical use of interdisciplinary integration remains limited. Cavadova (2024) points out that the application of this approach in specific fields, including literature and teacher education, has not yet been sufficiently explored and that there is a clear need for more dissertations, empirical studies, and methodological publications in this area. This gap in the literature creates a strong rationale for the present study, which seeks to contribute to ongoing discussions on how interdisciplinary methods can be used more effectively in higher education to promote patriotic education among university students.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Methodology

The present study employed a qualitative descriptive approach to examine the role of interdisciplinary integration in the formation of civic and patriotic qualities among university students. In contemporary pedagogical research, the development of civic consciousness, national identity, and social responsibility is increasingly viewed as a multidimensional process that requires the integration of knowledge, values, and practical skills across different academic disciplines. In this context, interdisciplinary integration provides an appropriate methodological framework for investigating how patriotic education can be strengthened within higher education settings (Cavadova, 2024; Drake & Burns, 2004).

The research was conducted systematically at two higher education institutions in Nakhchivan: Nakhchivan State University and Nakhchivan Teachers Institute. The focus was placed specifically on teacher-training faculties, as these units play an essential role in preparing future educators who will later transmit civic, moral, and national values to younger generations. Observational methods were used in order to explore how interdisciplinary approaches were conceptualized and applied within the educational process. In addition, elements of survey-based inquiry were incorporated to gather the perspectives of university leadership regarding the role of higher education institutions in fostering civic qualities among students.

At the initial stage of the research, a structured work plan was prepared at the Faculty of Primary Education of Nakhchivan Teachers Institute. This plan was designed to examine how interdisciplinary integration could be used to cultivate civic awareness and patriotic values among students preparing to become primary school teachers. Within this framework, students were introduced to methods of promoting civic and moral values in future schoolchildren. Particular attention was given to demonstrating how subjects can complement one another and how interdisciplinary teaching can reinforce national consciousness, ethical responsibility, and commitment to cultural values. In this process, pedagogy and language instruction were treated not as separate fields but as mutually reinforcing domains capable of contributing jointly to students' academic and personal development.

As part of the research design, several surveys were organized. One of the main directions of inquiry focused on university leadership. In this stage, rectors from Nakhchivan Teachers Institute and Nakhchivan State University were presented with a set of ten questions related to patriotism, civic education, and the role of educational institutions in value formation. Their responses were collected and subjected to descriptive analysis. The findings indicated that university leaders view the formation of civic qualities as a complex and continuous process that begins in the family, develops more systematically in educational institutions, and is reinforced by the broader social environment. While the family provides the initial foundation for moral and patriotic values, higher education institutions are regarded as responsible for deepening, organizing, and strengthening these values through purposeful educational practice (Ağayeva, 2022).

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

The survey data further showed that university leaders consider modern pedagogical approaches essential for improving the effectiveness of civic and patriotic education. In particular, they emphasized the value of integrating short but regular discussions of citizenship, moral responsibility, and national identity into classroom instruction. According to their recommendations, even a brief period at the beginning of lessons may be used to introduce issues related to civic duty, patriotism, and democratic participation, while seminars and discussions can provide more detailed exploration of these themes in different disciplinary contexts. Such a practice helps students connect theoretical knowledge with practical behavior and encourages them to see citizenship not merely as an abstract concept but as an active personal and social responsibility.

The observations conducted during the research confirmed that interdisciplinary integration can function as a significant tool in shaping civic qualities among university students. Its value lies not only in combining knowledge from different disciplines but also in promoting a broader educational environment in which students develop social responsibility, attachment to national and moral values, and readiness to participate constructively in public life. This finding is consistent with international scholarship emphasizing that integrated learning environments support deeper understanding, stronger engagement, and more meaningful connections between academic content and real-life concerns (Beane, 1997; Coyle et al., 2010).

At the same time, the research revealed that although interdisciplinary integration has become more visible in Azerbaijani higher education in recent years, its practical implementation remains limited. In many cases, the idea of interdisciplinary cooperation is reflected more strongly in institutional strategies, policy documents, and international project frameworks than in everyday classroom practice. For example, Azerbaijan Technical University adopted an interdisciplinary research policy intended to encourage cooperation across academic fields, stimulate innovation, and strengthen common ethical and methodological standards (Azerbaijan Technical University, 2023). However, the existence of policy documents alone does not guarantee effective implementation at the level of teaching and learning.

Several obstacles to practical implementation were identified in the course of the study. First, there is a shortage of material and technical resources necessary for organizing interdisciplinary instruction in a systematic way. Second, many teachers have limited methodological preparation and are uncertain about how, when, and to what extent interdisciplinary approaches should be applied. Third, interdisciplinary integration is not yet supported by a unified and centralized implementation framework across universities, which leads to fragmented and inconsistent practice. These challenges suggest that the development of interdisciplinary teaching in higher education requires not only conceptual support but also institutional planning, teacher training, and resource allocation.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

From an international perspective, the findings of the study may be linked to the framework of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), which represents one of the most widely recognized forms of interdisciplinary pedagogy. CLIL combines subject learning with language instruction and aims to develop both content knowledge and communicative competence simultaneously. This model has been shown to increase student motivation, improve retention of subject matter, and create more authentic educational experiences because learners use language as a tool for meaningful engagement with content rather than as an isolated object of study (Coyle et al., 2010; Marsh, 1994). In this sense, CLIL serves as a useful comparative model for understanding how patriotic and civic themes can be integrated into English language instruction in Azerbaijani universities.

Discussion

The findings of the study indicate that interdisciplinary integration has significant potential to strengthen patriotic and civic education in higher education institutions. In particular, the integration of pedagogy and English language teaching creates a productive educational space in which students can simultaneously develop communicative competence, critical thinking, and civic awareness. Rather than teaching patriotic values in isolation, interdisciplinary instruction enables these values to be embedded in broader learning processes, making them more relevant, practical, and intellectually engaging for students.

In the context of Azerbaijani universities, this approach may be especially effective in teacher education programs. Future teachers are expected not only to master subject knowledge but also to serve as moral and civic role models for younger generations. For this reason, their university education should include opportunities to explore national identity, ethical responsibility, and democratic citizenship through integrated methods. If properly designed, interdisciplinary lessons can help students understand that patriotism is not limited to emotional attachment to the homeland but also includes respect for social responsibility, cultural heritage, and civic participation.

Particular attention should be given to the role of language teachers, especially teachers of English, in implementing such approaches. English language classes often provide flexible opportunities for discussion, interpretation, comparison, and reflection. For example, if students are asked to discuss a topic such as “What should children do on Victory Day?” in English, they are not simply practicing vocabulary and grammar; they are also engaging with historical memory, civic duty, and patriotic values. In this way, language learning becomes connected with social meaning, and the educational process becomes both linguistically and morally significant. This principle closely reflects the logic of CLIL, according to which language learning is most effective when embedded in meaningful subject content (Coyle et al., 2010; Marsh, 1994).

The study also suggests that interdisciplinary integration can contribute to the formation of balanced and inclusive patriotism. In a contemporary democratic society, patriotic education

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

should not promote isolation or intolerance; instead, it should encourage students to value their own national traditions while also respecting the rights, freedoms, and cultural identities of others. When patriotic education is combined with democratic principles, students are more likely to develop into independent thinkers who are loyal to their homeland yet open to dialogue, diversity, and international cooperation. This is particularly important in higher education, where students are preparing for professional and social roles that require both national commitment and global awareness (Banks, 2008; Council of Europe, 2018).

Nevertheless, the successful application of interdisciplinary integration depends on several conditions. Teachers must be trained not only in their own disciplines but also in interdisciplinary planning, collaborative lesson design, and value-oriented pedagogy. Universities should provide methodological guidance, curricular support, and practical examples that demonstrate how civic and patriotic themes can be incorporated into various subjects without reducing academic depth. In the absence of such support, interdisciplinary integration may remain a theoretical aspiration rather than a sustainable pedagogical reality.

Overall, the discussion confirms that interdisciplinary teaching should be regarded not merely as an alternative instructional method but as a broader educational philosophy. It promotes the unity of knowledge, value formation, and practical skill development. In the case of patriotic education, this approach is particularly useful because it allows civic values to be taught in context, linked to real communication, and reinforced through multiple disciplinary perspectives.

Conclusion

The study has demonstrated that interdisciplinary integration represents a promising and pedagogically meaningful approach to strengthening patriotic and civic education among university students. Its value lies in the fact that it does not treat knowledge, language, and values as separate educational components; instead, it combines them in a unified process that supports intellectual, moral, and social development. In this sense, interdisciplinary integration contributes not only to academic achievement but also to the formation of socially responsible, nationally conscious, and ethically grounded individuals.

The findings obtained from observations and survey data indicate that higher education institutions play a central role in the development of civic qualities. While the family remains the first environment in which moral and patriotic values are introduced, universities are responsible for systematizing, deepening, and expanding these values through purposeful educational practice. In particular, teacher-training faculties have a special responsibility, as their graduates will later influence the civic and moral education of future generations.

At the same time, the study confirms that the practical implementation of interdisciplinary integration in Azerbaijani higher education remains insufficient. Although the concept has gained visibility in official documents, policy frameworks, and academic discussions, it has not yet been

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

fully embedded in routine teaching practice. This gap between theory and practice is largely explained by limited resources, insufficient teacher preparation, and the lack of coordinated institutional mechanisms for implementation.

For this reason, interdisciplinary integration should not remain only a theoretical construct discussed in academic writing. It must be supported through practical measures at the institutional level. Universities should provide teachers with methodological training, professional development opportunities, and access to the material resources necessary for effective interdisciplinary instruction. Curriculum designers should also create space for the systematic incorporation of civic and patriotic themes into different subjects, including foreign language teaching.

In conclusion, the study argues that patriotic education in higher education can be made more effective when approached through interdisciplinary methods. Regardless of the subject they teach, university instructors should be encouraged to adopt integrative pedagogical strategies that connect disciplinary content with civic and moral objectives. Such an approach will help prepare students not only as competent professionals but also as conscious citizens who are capable of contributing responsibly to society and preserving national values in a rapidly changing world.

References

ARTI. (2023). *Ten examples of interdisciplinary integrative teaching activities*. Baku: Azerbaijan Institute of Education.

Ağayeva, X. (2022). Vətənpərvərliyi formalaşdıran əsas amillər: Milli-mənəvi dəyərlər və folklor [Main factors shaping patriotism: National and moral values and folklore]. *Journal of the State Committee for Work with Religious Organizations of the Republic of Azerbaijan.*

Əhmədova, S. (2022). "Şuşa ili" və şagirdlərin hərbi-vətənpərvərlik tərbiyəsi ["Year of Shusha" and military-patriotic education of students]. *Qədim Diyar International Online Scientific Journal*, 4(10), 5–12.

Cavadova, S. (2024). Fənlərarası inteqrasiyanın təlim prosesindəki rolu [The role of interdisciplinary integration in the teaching process]. *Scientific Works of the Institute of Education of the Republic of Azerbaijan*, 91(1).

Azerbaijan Technical University. (2023). *Interdisciplinary research policy*. Baku: Azerbaijan Technical University.

Marsh, D. (1994). *Content and language integrated learning (CLIL).* University of Jyväskylä.

Nağıyeva, G. (2024). *Pedaqogika və psixologiya elmləri üzrə elmi-nəzəri-metodik jurnal* [Scientific-theoretical methodological journal on pedagogy and psychology]. Baku: Elm-Təhsil Publishing.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Beane, J. A. (1997). *Curriculum integration: Designing the core of democratic education.* Teachers College Press.

Coyle, D., Hood, P., & Marsh, D. (2010). *CLIL: Content and language integrated learning.* Cambridge University Press.

Drake, S. M., & Burns, R. C. (2004). *Meeting standards through integrated curriculum.* ASCD.

Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (2009). *Joining together: Group theory and group skills* (10th ed.). Pearson.

Banks, J. A. (2008). *An introduction to multicultural education* (4th ed.). Pearson.

Council of Europe. (2018). *Reference framework of competences for democratic culture*. Council of Europe Publishing.

UNESCO. (2015). *Global citizenship education: Topics and learning objectives*. UNESCO.

Received: 01.15.2026
Revised: 01.25.2026
Accepted: 03.02.2026
Published: 03.16.2026

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Euro-Global Journal of Linguistics and Language Education
ISSN 3030-1394 /online/

Vol. 3 No. 1 (2026) Pavasaris

The Impact of Language Barriers on Nurse–Patient Communication and Clinical Errors

[1] Afsana Orujlu, [2] Sevinc Adigozalova

https://doi.org/10.69760/egjlle.26010080

Abstract. Effective nurse–patient communication is a fundamental component of safe, ethical, and high-quality healthcare. In contemporary multicultural societies, however, language barriers remain a major obstacle to accurate assessment, therapeutic interaction, patient education, and clinical decision-making. This article examines the impact of language discordance on nursing practice and explores its relationship with clinical errors, patient safety, and quality of care. The study highlights how limited shared language between nurses and patients may lead to incomplete symptom reporting, misunderstandings during medication administration, difficulties in obtaining informed consent, poor discharge comprehension, and reduced adherence to treatment. Such barriers may also intensify emotional distress, weaken trust, and contribute to patient isolation within clinical settings. In addition, the article discusses the risks associated with the use of untrained family members or ad hoc interpreters, whose involvement may compromise confidentiality and distort medical information. Particular attention is given to strategies for reducing these risks, including the use of professional medical interpreters, visual communication tools, technological solutions such as video remote interpretation, and enhanced linguistic and cultural competence in nursing education. The article concludes that overcoming language barriers requires both institutional support and educational reform in order to reduce clinical errors and improve patient outcomes.

Keywords: nurse–patient communication, language barriers, clinical errors, patient safety, cultural competence

Introduction

Effective communication is one of the central foundations of nursing practice. It shapes the quality of patient assessment, strengthens therapeutic relationships, supports emotional well-being, and contributes directly to safe clinical outcomes. Nurses rely on communication not only to gather information but also to explain treatment, reduce anxiety, promote adherence, and ensure that

[1] Orujlu, A. M. Lecturer, Nakhchivan State University, Azerbaijan. Email: afsanaoruclu@ndu.edu.az. ORCID: https://orcid.org/0009-0008-9137-2964

[2] Adigozelova, S. A. Student, Nakhchivan State University, Azerbaijan. Email: sevincadgzlv@gmail.com. ORCID: https://orcid.org/0009-0000-4296-034X

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

patients understand their own care. In this sense, communication is not a secondary interpersonal skill but a core clinical competence (Belcher, 2009; Kourkouta & Papathanasiou, 2014).

In multilingual healthcare environments, however, language barriers significantly complicate nursing practice. When nurses and patients do not share a common language, the risk of misunderstanding increases across nearly every stage of care. Communication failures may affect history-taking, physical assessment, medication administration, discharge planning, and informed consent. As a result, language discordance should be understood not simply as an inconvenience, but as a structural and clinical risk factor that threatens patient safety and quality of care (Flores, 2005; Karliner et al., 2007).

Research has shown that patients with limited proficiency in the dominant language of care are more likely to experience adverse events, delayed diagnosis, prolonged hospitalization, and medication-related complications (Flores, 2005; Karliner et al., 2007). For nurses, who are responsible for continuous monitoring, patient education, and implementation of treatment plans, such communication barriers create additional professional and ethical challenges. When a patient cannot clearly describe symptoms or understand clinical instructions, the likelihood of error increases. In many settings, nurses still rely on multilingual relatives or untrained staff as ad hoc interpreters, a practice that raises concerns about inaccuracy, confidentiality, and incomplete transmission of information (Squires, 2018).

This article explores the effects of language barriers on nurse–patient communication and examines how these barriers contribute to clinical errors. It also discusses the emotional, ethical, and organizational consequences of communication breakdowns and identifies strategies for improving linguistic accessibility and safety in nursing care.

Communication as a Core Element of Nursing Practice

Communication is the mechanism through which nurses perform many of their essential clinical functions. It supports information exchange, patient assessment, emotional support, and care coordination. Accurate and effective communication enables nurses to obtain detailed symptom descriptions, ask follow-up questions, identify priorities, and document patient needs appropriately. When this process is disrupted, assessment becomes less reliable, and clinical judgment may be compromised (Halter et al., 2014).

Information Exchange and Patient Assessment

Nurses function as frontline healthcare professionals who monitor patients continuously and respond to both verbal and nonverbal signs of change. Accurate assessment depends on the patient's ability to describe symptoms and on the nurse's ability to clarify, interpret, and respond appropriately. If a patient cannot explain pain, discomfort, dizziness, nausea, or emotional distress clearly because of language limitations, important clinical details may be omitted or

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

misunderstood. This may lead to delayed diagnosis, inappropriate interventions, or failure to detect deterioration in time (Flores, 2005; Halter et al., 2014).

Language barriers can also affect communication across the healthcare team. Nurses often act as intermediaries between patients, physicians, pharmacists, and allied health professionals. If critical patient information is collected inaccurately at the nursing level, subsequent decisions made by the wider clinical team may also be affected. Thus, communication problems do not remain isolated but may create a chain of errors throughout the care process.

Therapeutic Relationships and Emotional Support

Effective nurse–patient communication is also essential for building trust and empathy. Patients who feel heard and understood are more likely to engage in treatment, ask questions, and cooperate with care. Therapeutic communication reduces anxiety, improves emotional security, and increases patient satisfaction (Belcher, 2009). These relational benefits are especially important during hospitalization, when patients often experience vulnerability, fear, and uncertainty.

For patients who face language barriers, however, this therapeutic connection may be weakened or lost. When individuals cannot explain concerns or understand responses, they may feel excluded from their own care. This can create frustration, helplessness, and a sense of "clinical isolation." Nonverbal communication may offer some support, but gestures, facial expressions, and tone cannot fully replace meaningful verbal interaction. As a result, the emotional and relational dimensions of nursing care may be significantly reduced in linguistically discordant encounters (Kourkouta & Papathanasiou, 2014).

Patient Education and Safety

A major responsibility of nurses is to explain treatment plans, medications, procedures, and post-discharge instructions in language patients can understand. Patient education is crucial for safe self-care, medication adherence, complication prevention, and successful recovery. Misunderstood instructions may lead to non-adherence, overdose, incorrect medication timing, or failure to seek medical help when symptoms worsen (Squires, 2018).

This is particularly important at discharge, when patients must often manage medication schedules, wound care, dietary restrictions, or follow-up appointments independently. If language barriers prevent patients from understanding these instructions, the risk of readmission and adverse outcomes increases. Clear communication is therefore directly linked to patient safety and continuity of care.

Language Barriers as a Source of Clinical Errors

Language barriers represent a significant patient safety concern. In clinical settings, inaccurate or incomplete communication may contribute to errors in diagnosis, medication administration,

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

consent, and follow-up care. Flores (2005) found that language-discordant encounters are associated not only with more frequent errors but also with errors that may have moderate to serious clinical consequences.

Diagnostic and Assessment Errors

Reliable diagnosis begins with accurate history-taking and symptom interpretation. If a patient cannot adequately describe pain, onset, severity, or associated symptoms, the clinical picture may be incomplete. Nurses rely heavily on subjective reports to evaluate patient status, especially in areas such as pain assessment, postoperative monitoring, and mental health. Language-related misunderstanding may therefore contribute to inappropriate clinical assumptions and delayed intervention (Flores, 2005; Karliner et al., 2007).

Even subtle errors may have serious consequences. For example, a patient's description of chest pressure may be misunderstood as indigestion, or confusion may be interpreted as anxiety rather than as a sign of infection or medication reaction. The inability to identify and clarify these symptoms can place patients at considerable risk.

Medication Errors

Medication administration is one of the most critical areas in nursing practice, and communication plays a central role in medication safety. Patients must understand what medicine they are receiving, why they are taking it, how often it should be taken, and what side effects may occur. If instructions about dose, route, timing, or frequency are misunderstood, the result may be non-adherence, underuse, overdose, or harmful misuse (Hatcher, 2015; Squires, 2018).

Language discordance may also interfere with nurses' ability to confirm allergies, adverse reactions, or previous medication history. When patients cannot describe their experiences accurately, the risk of medication-related complications increases. This shows that language barriers are not merely communication problems; they are directly connected to one of the most common sources of clinical error.

Informed Consent and Ethical Concerns

Language barriers also raise serious ethical and legal issues, particularly in relation to informed consent. Patients cannot make autonomous decisions unless they fully understand the nature, risks, benefits, and alternatives of a procedure or treatment. If communication is inadequate, consent may become formal rather than genuinely informed (Hatcher, 2015).

In such cases, patients may agree to procedures they do not fully understand or reject important treatment because of fear and confusion. For nurses, this creates ethical tension, since they are expected to advocate for patient understanding and autonomy while working within time-pressured clinical environments.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Causes of Communication Breakdown in Nursing Care

The effects of language barriers are intensified by a combination of linguistic, cultural, and structural factors.

Use of Ad Hoc Interpreters

One of the most common and most problematic responses to language barriers is the use of ad hoc interpreters, such as family members, bilingual staff, or friends. Although this may appear practical, such individuals often lack the medical vocabulary, neutrality, and ethical training required for accurate clinical interpretation. Important information may be omitted, changed, softened, or reinterpreted according to personal judgment (Flores, 2005; Karliner et al., 2007).

Squires (2018) identifies three particularly serious interpreter-related problems: omission, substitution, and editorialization. Omission occurs when information is left out; substitution occurs when incorrect terms are used; and editorialization occurs when interpreters add their own interpretation or modify the message. In nursing care, such errors may affect everything from symptom description to medication instructions and consent discussions.

Cultural Differences and Nonverbal Misinterpretation

Communication in healthcare is not purely linguistic. Cultural beliefs, values, communication styles, and nonverbal behaviors also influence understanding. A patient may avoid eye contact out of respect, but a nurse may interpret this as confusion or lack of engagement. Expressions of pain, discomfort, modesty, or emotional distress may differ across cultures, and these differences may be misunderstood when language barriers are present (Kourkouta & Papathanasiou, 2014).

Cultural mismatch can therefore compound linguistic difficulty. Patients may hesitate to ask questions, disclose sensitive information, or challenge healthcare professionals. As a result, the nurse may receive only partial information and may misjudge the patient's level of understanding or concern.

Psychological Effects on Patients and Nurses

Language barriers affect not only information exchange but also the emotional experience of care. Patients who are unable to communicate effectively may feel fear, dependence, shame, or loss of control. They may stop asking questions altogether and become passive recipients of care rather than active participants. This phenomenon has been described as a form of "silent patient" behavior in which individuals withdraw from communication because they believe they cannot be understood (Kourkouta & Papathanasiou, 2014).

Nurses, in turn, may experience frustration, stress, emotional fatigue, and moral distress when they feel unable to provide appropriate care. Repeated communication failures can contribute to professional dissatisfaction and increased emotional burden in already demanding clinical settings.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Strategies for Overcoming Language Barriers in Nursing

Addressing communication barriers in nursing requires a systematic, multi-level response. Temporary solutions alone are not enough; sustainable improvement depends on institutional commitment, professional training, and access to appropriate communication resources.

Professional Medical Interpreters

The most effective strategy is the use of trained medical interpreters. Research consistently shows that professional interpretation improves communication accuracy, reduces clinical errors, and supports better patient outcomes (Flores, 2005; Karliner et al., 2007). Unlike family members or untrained staff, professional interpreters possess the linguistic competence, ethical awareness, and medical vocabulary necessary for accurate healthcare communication.

Their involvement is especially important during history-taking, informed consent, medication teaching, and discharge planning. Professional interpreters also help preserve confidentiality and reduce the risk of distorted or incomplete information.

Technological Support

Technological tools may also strengthen communication in linguistically diverse healthcare settings. Video remote interpretation (VRI), telephone interpretation, multilingual mobile applications, and digital translation platforms can provide rapid access to language support, particularly in urgent or resource-limited contexts (Hatcher, 2015). Although these tools should not replace professional interpreters in complex clinical situations, they may be useful in improving access and responsiveness.

Visual aids, diagrams, pictograms, and translated medication guides can also assist patients with limited literacy or limited language proficiency. These tools are especially valuable in explaining medication schedules, self-care routines, and discharge instructions.

Nursing Education and Cultural Competence

Long-term solutions require changes in nursing education and professional development. Nurses need training not only in communication skills generally, but also in linguistic sensitivity, cultural competence, and effective collaboration with interpreters. Educational programs should prepare nurses to recognize when language discordance places patient safety at risk and to respond using evidence-based communication strategies (Squires, 2018).

Training in methods such as teach-back, simplified language use, structured confirmation of understanding, and culturally respectful communication can improve both patient safety and therapeutic rapport. In addition, greater awareness of health disparities and linguistic exclusion may help future nurses approach communication barriers as systemic issues rather than isolated personal difficulties.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Institutional Responsibility

Healthcare institutions must also assume responsibility for communication equity. Language access should be treated as an essential component of patient safety and quality assurance. Hospitals and clinics should establish clear policies regarding interpreter use, ensure staff access to interpretation services, and integrate language-support procedures into routine care delivery. Without institutional support, even highly motivated nurses may struggle to provide equitable care to linguistically diverse patients.

Conclusion

Effective communication is a cornerstone of nursing practice and a prerequisite for safe, ethical, and patient-centered care. Language barriers significantly disrupt this process by interfering with assessment, medication safety, informed consent, therapeutic relationships, and discharge teaching. As the literature demonstrates, patients with limited language proficiency face increased risks of misunderstanding, adverse events, prolonged hospitalization, and reduced satisfaction with care (Flores, 2005; Karliner et al., 2007).

For nurses, language discordance complicates clinical judgment, increases emotional strain, and may contribute to moral distress when high-quality care cannot be delivered as intended. The problem is further intensified when healthcare systems rely on untrained family members or ad hoc interpreters instead of structured professional support.

Reducing these risks requires a systematic and multifaceted response. Professional medical interpreters, technological communication tools, visual resources, and culturally responsive nursing practice all play important roles in improving understanding and safety. However, lasting progress depends on broader institutional and educational reform. Nursing programs must incorporate cultural and linguistic competence more fully, and healthcare organizations must recognize language access as a patient safety priority. Only through such coordinated efforts can healthcare systems reduce clinical errors, strengthen nurse–patient communication, and ensure equitable care for linguistically diverse populations.

References

Belcher, J. R. (2009). *Communication in nursing*. Elsevier Health Sciences.

Flores, G. (2005). The impact of medical interpreter services on the quality of health care: A systematic review. *Medical Care Research and Review, 62*(3), 255–299.

Goldsmith, J. V., Wittenberg, E., Chen, M., & Prince-Paul, M. (2026). *Essentials of nursing communication* (E-book ed.). Elsevier.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Halter, M., Pelone, F., Boiko, O., Beighton, C., Wheeler, C., Nice, L., & Drennan, V. (2014). The impact of communication on patient safety: A systematic review. *Journal of Patient Safety and Quality Improvement, 2*(1), 30–35.

Hatcher, J. (2015). The impact of language barriers on patient safety and quality of care. *British Journal of Nursing, 24*(15), 751–760.

Karliner, L. S., Jacobs, E. A., Chen, A. H., & Mutha, S. (2007). Do professional interpreters improve clinical care for patients with limited English proficiency? A systematic review of the literature. *Health Services Research, 42*(2), 727–754.

Kourkouta, L., & Papathanasiou, I. V. (2014). Communication in nursing practice. *Materia Socio-Medica, 26*(1), 65–67.

Public health communication. (2017). Jones & Bartlett Learning.

Sood, S., & Riley, A. H. (2023). *Health communication fundamentals: Planning, implementation, and evaluation in public health*. Springer Publishing Company.

Squires, A. (2018). Strategies for overcoming language barriers in healthcare. *Nursing Management, 49*(4), 20–27.

Received: 01.15.2026
Revised: 01.25.2026
Accepted: 03.02.2026
Published: 03.16.2026

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Euro-Global Journal of Linguistics and Language Education
ISSN 3030-1394 /online/

Vol. 3 No. 1 (2026) Pavasaris

Assessing The Impact of Blended Learning on Early Childhood Education Teachers' Professional Development in Akinyele Local Government

[1] Olatunji Saheed Olawale
[2] Abioye Jemimah Anuoluwapo Iyabode
[3] Leye-Akinlabi, Gbemisola Olufunmilayo

https://doi.org/10.69760/egjlle.2601009

Abstract. This paper investigated the extent of access to blended learning platforms, effects of blended learning on pedagogical and instructional competencies of early childhood education (ECE) teachers, as well as the interconnection between participation in blended learning and attitudes towards using technology among ECE teachers in Akinyele Local Government. The study was conducted with four research questions and four purposes.

The research design employed was the descriptive survey research design where the population was made up of all ECE teachers in Akinyele Local Government. The sample population was also stratified with the help of the random sampling technique thus including 100 ECE teachers in the sample population by including a representative of both the public and private institutions. Data collection took place on the basis of a structured questionnaire, which was verified by experts, and evaluated with respect to reliability on the basis of pilot test where the Cronbach alpha coefficient was found to be 0.8. The analysis of quantitative data was based on descriptive statistics (frequency, percentage, mean, and standard deviation) and Pearson correlation to study relationships. Open ended responses were analyzed through thematic analysis to offer more in-depth analysis.

The results showed a low accessibility of blended learning platforms by ECE teachers and the importance of blended learning in enhancing the pedagogical and instructional skills. The

[1] Olatunji, S. O. Department of Early Childhood Care and Education, Federal College of Education (Special) Oyo, Nigeria. Email: olatunji.saheed1714@fcesoyo.edu.ng. ORCID: https://orcid.org/0009-0007-3123-7624

[2] Abioye, J. A. I. Department of Early Childhood Care and Education, School of Early Childhood Care, Primary, Adult and Non-Formal Education (ECPAE), Federal College of Education (Special) Oyo, Nigeria. Email: abioye.jemimah1795@fcesoyo.edu.ng. ORCID: https://orcid.org/0009-0004-4986-6048

[3] Leye-Akinlabi, G. O. PhD, Department of Primary Education, School of Early Childhood Care, Primary, Adult and Non-Formal Education (ECPAE), Federal College of Education (Special) Oyo, Oyo State, Nigeria. Email: leyeakinlabi5262@gmail.com. ORCID: https://orcid.org/0009-0001-2666-6201

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

participants in blended learning and attitude of the teachers towards technology integration were found to have moderate positive relationship. The major unfriendly issues were lack of proper infrastructure, training and unwillingness to adopt new practices.

This study proposed that it should invest in sound technological infrastructure, partner with NGOs and international bodies to finance digital learning materials, and conduct periodic education to ECE teachers. It was recommended that teacher training colleges should include blended learning in their programs, and the policymakers were also called to come up with clear recommendations on how it should be adopted in schools.

Keywords: blended learning, early childhood education, access, pedagogical skills, technology integration, barriers

Introduction

Blended learning is one of the innovations that have revolutionized the teaching and learning process as it incorporates the advantages of both traditional classroom and online learning in the form of flexibility and accessibility. The approach has been a good alternative of professional development programme delivery system, which ensures that teachers are given the opportunity to learn new skills and knowledge and still have time to address the issues of the tight schedules. When considering early childhood education, in which teachers become particularly important, in terms of developing the developmental and learning preconditions of young children, the necessity in the constant professional development becomes crucial. Blended learning does not only improve the talents of teaching but also provides the educators with the latest methodologies that help them cope with the changing trend in their field. Through a combination of technology and traditional forms of training, blended learning can be used to bring about innovation, enhance the way teaching is being done and the results are that, the learning process among the young children can be enriched and the teaching of the lesson can be interesting and easy to the early childhood education teacher.

Early childhood education teachers are teachers who are specialists in teaching and taking care of children between ages of birth and their most critical years before about eight years. They are concerned with the cognitive, social, emotional, and physical development by using age-related, teaching techniques and tasks. The early childhood education teachers are people who teach and care about children aged between birth to around eight years which is seen to be the most crucial age in terms of developmental milestones. Such educators are crucial in developing children in terms of cognitive, social, emotional and physical development by using interesting and age relevant teaching methods and activities. Gmercyu (2024) believes that early childhood educators are primarily concerned not only with taking care of young children, but also with further promoting their overall development by involving them in activities aimed at developing their cognitive abilities, attitudes, and problem-solving skills. Their role goes a step further to ensuring

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

that the learning environment is stimulating to ensure every child grows holistically to establish a sound foundation in lifetime learning. To do that, lifelong learning, professional growth, and adjustment to new learning techniques are essential parts of the professional growth of early childhood education teachers.

Professional development is a life-long learning and support program aimed at equipping early childhood educators with the skills to provide nursery and education to young children as well as increasing their capacity to collaborate with families (NAEYC, 2024). It plays a critical role in enhancing knowledge, skills, practices as well as attitudes of educators which will in the end benefit the teachers and the children to whom they are of service. Professional development is associated with one of the most important advantages, namely the improvement of teaching methods. It provides teachers with new approaches and practices that will address the different needs of the youth (Alozie, 2024). The teachers could promote their teaching techniques and techniques, and they could better interact with students as well as constructing enriching learning environments through workshops, seminars, and collective training. Also, the performance of students directly depends on professional development. The teachers who undergo training regularly are in a better position to support different learning behaviors, keep up with the changing requirements of the curriculum, and undertake evidence-based actions that facilitate academic performance and overall growth in children (Amanda et al., 2024).

In the field of education that is dynamic it is always important to be updated on the new research and trends in the field. Professional development provides entry point to new knowledge, active tools, and new area of best practices so that the teacher can be an effective and relevant practitioner (AlAli and Wardat, 2024). Moreover, it promotes a teamwork culture since it offers networking and teamwork among the educators, administrators, and other stakeholders. This teamwork culture stimulates the sharing of ideas, peer support, and the development of a collective desire to improve continuously and student success (FARHAT et al., 2024). Personal and career growth also relates to professional development which enables educators to acquire new skills, obtain certifications and build their professional network which subsequently results in career growth and even higher levels of job satisfaction (Alozie, 2024). Blended learning has become a paradigm shift in professional development that integrates the strengths of online learning with the interaction of traditional approaches to provide customized, convenient, and efficient learning opportunities to early childhood teachers (Amanda et al., 2024).

Blended learning is a new method of teaching, which combines traditional face to face learning and online learning elements producing a flexible and successful learning environment. Combining the advantages of the two modalities, it will meet the central concerns of education, including accessibility and the lack of resources, and provide students with a more interactive and interesting experience. The main feature of the approach is the perfect integration of offline and online learning experience, which enables wholesome educational experience. As Amanda et al.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

(2024) note, blended learning involves strategic planning, careful curriculum design, and the choice of the right online platforms that can maximize the profitability. Blended learning is a combination of different teaching techniques as well as technology, and in-person interactions to provide a viable learning experience. Hybrid or mixed-mode course, as it is also called, is a combination of conventional classroom learning and an online learning platform, which is a replacement of a part of the face-to-face sessions with the use of a web-based course. This model optimizes the use of classroom time on interactive activities and provides a flexible multimedia rich online material which can be accessed any time, as long as one has access to the internet. Research indicates that blended learning increases the learning outcomes and retention rate of the students. Essentially, it involves the combination of various methodologies, technology and face-to-face teaching so as to maximize learning experiences (Ezekoka and Anum, 2019).

The research on the benefits of blended learning is thoroughly documented, and the evidence shows its capacity to increase student engagement and improve their performance. As an example of this, Amanda et al. (2024) and Sari and Kriswandani (2024) note that it has been successful in applied fields like in fashion design where students have been able to showcase better outcomes. Additionally, blended learning will give the flexibility required to conduct continuous assessment and it will allow teachers to change their teaching methods to suit the needs of different learners (AlAli and Wardat, 2024).

Nevertheless, there are difficulties with the successful implementation of blended learning. Facilitators need comprehensive training to be adopted successfully, enough technological resources should be provided, and evaluation has to be conducted on a regular basis to solve practical problems (FARHAT et al., 2024; AlAli and Wardat, 2024). Although the advantages of this approach are numerous, issues of differences in access to technology are still a concern. Other teachers claim that the discrepancies might only increase the educational disparity of poor learners, especially those who belong to underserved groups. Nevertheless, blended learning is a potential in the educational process despite the above challenges because it can change the teaching and learning process when applied in a refined and inclusive manner.

According to Linton (2018), such models as rotation (station, lab, flipped classroom, individual), flex, a la carte, and enriched virtual are effective to consider blended learning in the field of early childhood education. Tucker, Wycoff, and Green (2017) also draw attention to the elementary classroom strategies, claiming that blended learning could be helpful in enhancing the early learning process.

This practice is supported by other studies, such as those by Fisher, Perenyi, and Birdthistle (2018), which demonstrated that flipping the classroom increased learners engagement, or Kocour (2019) which demonstrated that blended classes increased participation in inclusive preschools, particularly when repeated small group tasks were involved. The results of these studies highlight

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

the need to embrace blended learning as a way of improving the quality of early childhood education in Nigeria (Lawal, Gbenga- Akanmu & Amoo,2023).

The, Lawal, Gbenga- Akanmu and Amoo (2023) also found out that the proportion of teachers who have been using blended learning as a teaching strategy in the state of Ondo is the highest percentage. This result is in line with those of Saeed (2020) who discovered that teachers embraced blended learning as a pedagogical approach because they started with the incorporation of a station rotation and flipped classroom instructional approach as a novice in adopting blended learning as a teaching method. It also gives validation to the results of Turner, Young-Lowe and Newton (2018) who discovered in their research that teachers acknowledged the necessity and benefits of blended learning as teachers and they have augmented their application of blended learning in delivering instruction and students learning results. It also goes in line with Khoza, Zlotnikova, Bada and Kalegele (2016) who also reported that the knowledge of technology among teachers has grown and this affects their adoption of blended learning as a pedagogical approach.

As Tong, Uyen, and Ngan noted (2022), the use of blended learning in the lessons on coordinates in the plane enhanced the quality of learning activities among students significantly. Such a strategy would promote more active participation of students in the process of interaction with teachers by means of enhanced communication support in the form of online platforms, classroom activities, and social media platforms. Moreover, most students also mentioned that their independent learning skills have significantly improved as they were left to study online with assistance in both self-directed and teacher-guided learning. The paper has also mentioned the effectiveness of blended learning in improving the ability of the students to think independently and solve problems creatively.

The availability of blended learning platforms to teachers working in the Early Childhood Education (ECE) is predetermined by such factors as technological preparedness, teacher education, and resources integration. A study by Prayetno et al. (2022) showed that teachers are turning to the use of Learning Management Systems (LMS) such as GL 4.0 to compile and present materials. Hayati et al. (2022) outlined that the use of technologies, particularly in the pandemic, is an indispensable condition of cognitive learning, but proper training and collaboration with parents are necessary.

Blended learning provides the ECE teachers with more skills as it integrates both traditional and online learning, which give them the opportunity to offer personalized instructions. According to Andreyeva (2019), it promotes learner-centered pedagogies, which are active learning and critical thinking. Niemi et al. (2024) and Chekour et al. (2024) noted that it can equip teachers with digital skills and enable them to grow professionally and assist in such competencies as collaboration and reflective practice.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Such attitudes toward blended learning are associated with such factors as ICT self-efficacy and organizational support. According to Ye et al. (2022), the more teachers have a high ICT self-efficacy, the more blended learning is implemented successfully. Nevertheless, experience does not necessarily go hand in hand with technology usage, with motivation and access being of greater significance in this case (Mallick and Salam, 2024).

Such barriers are a lack of infrastructure, resistance to change, ambiguous policies, and insufficient training (Antwi-Boampong, 2021; Ali, 2024). Workload and resource scarcity increase among teachers, yet blended learning with specific assistance and policy guidelines would help change the teaching and learning results of ECE to a significant degree.

Statement of the Problem

Blended learning that combines the conventional techniques with digital means of teaching has come to be crucial in enhancing teaching practice and learning performance across the world. Its adoption however is dependent on various factors, including technological preparedness, the training of teachers and institutional support.

The use of blended learning in early childhood education (ECE) in Nigeria has not been widespread yet. Some of the problems encountered by many teachers include poor access to technology, lack of education and infrastructural shortages especially in rural places like Akinyele Local Government. This leads to the prevalence of traditional methods of teaching with little inclusion of blended learning methods.

Though the global studies have noted the advantages of blended learning, majority of them have been done in secondary and higher education and the ECE area remains under-researched. The main gaps are the lack of knowledge concerning the access of ECE teachers to blended learning platforms, ways of how it enhances the pedagogical skills of the teachers, the correlation between the involvement in blended learning and the attitude to the technology integration. Moreover, the barriers that the Nigerian ECE teachers in particular experience are poorly recorded.

The paper seeks to fill these gaps by exploring the areas of access, skill development, teacher attitudes, and obstacles to the implementation of blended learning in ECE. The results will be used to understand how teaching can be improved and help make policies that will improve early childhood education in Nigeria.

Objectives of the Study

The study seeks to:

Evaluate the level of access ECE teachers in Akinyele Local Government have to blended learning resources.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Examine the influence of blended learning on teachers' pedagogical skills and instructional strategies.

Assess the impact of blended learning on teachers' attitudes towards technology integration in early childhood classrooms.

Determine the challenges ECE teachers face in adopting blended learning and suggest strategies to overcome them.

Research Questions

What is the level of access to blended learning platforms among ECE teachers in Akinyele Local Government?

How does blended learning improve ECE teachers' pedagogical and instructional skills?

What is the relationship between blended learning participation and teachers' attitudes towards technology integration?

What are the barriers to effective adoption of blended learning among ECE teachers?

Research Methodology

Research Design

This study employed a mixed-method research design, which combines both quantitative and qualitative approaches to provide a comprehensive understanding of the research objectives.

Population of the Study

The population for this study comprised all ECE teachers in Akinyele Local Government. This included teachers in public and private early childhood education centers who used, or were expected to use, blended learning platforms in their instructional practices.

Sample and Sampling Techniques

A stratified random sampling technique was used to ensure representation across public and private institutions. From the total population of ECE teachers, **100 teachers** were selected as respondents. Stratification was based on factors such as teaching experience and school type, ensuring diverse perspectives were captured.

Research Instrument

The primary instrument for data collection was a **structured questionnaire**, complemented by a few open-ended items for qualitative insights. The questionnaire was divided into the following sections:

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Access to Blended Learning Platforms: Questions on availability, frequency of use, and ease of access to blended learning resources.

Pedagogical and Instructional Skills: Items to assess how blended learning influenced teaching strategies, engagement methods, and instructional flexibility.

Attitudes Toward Technology Integration: Likert-scale items to measure teachers' self-efficacy, confidence, and willingness to use technology in teaching.

Barriers to Blended Learning: Questions addressing challenges such as infrastructure, training, and institutional policies.

Validity of the Instrument

The content and construct validity of the questionnaire were established through expert review by two education technology specialists and one ECE expert. Necessary revisions were made based on their feedback.

Reliability of the Instrument

The reliability of the questionnaire was assessed using a pilot test with 15 ECE teachers from a neighboring local government. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was calculated to determine internal consistency, and a threshold of 0.8 was achieved, indicating acceptable reliability.

Method of Data Analysis

Quantitative data were analyzed using **descriptive statistics** (frequency, percentage, mean, and standard deviation) to address access, skills improvement, and barriers. Inferential statistics, specifically **Pearson correlation**, were used to examine the relationship between blended learning participation and attitudes toward technology integration. Open-ended responses were analyzed thematically to identify recurring themes and provide deeper insights.

Results

The results are presented based on the analysis of quantitative data using descriptive and inferential statistics, as well as thematic analysis for open-ended responses. The findings reflect the situation of blended learning adoption among Early Childhood Education (ECE) teachers in Akinyele Local Government, Nigeria.

Table 1: Level of Access to Blended Learning Platforms among ECE Teachers

Access Indicators	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)	Mean	Standard Deviation
Access to reliable internet	20	40%	2.4	0.8
Use of Learning Management Systems (LMS)	25	50%	2.7	0.9
Availability of necessary digital resources	18	36%	2.2	0.7
Participation in blended learning training	15	30%	1.8	0.6

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Interpretation

Descriptive statistics reveal limited access to blended learning platforms among ECE teachers in Akinyele Local Government. The mean score for access to reliable internet was 2.4 (SD = 0.8), indicating moderate access but with variability. Participation in training recorded the lowest mean score of 1.8 (SD = 0.6), highlighting a gap in professional development. This underscores the urgent need to improve access to resources and training for effective blended learning adoption.

Table 2: Improvement in Pedagogical and Instructional Skills Through Blended Learning

Pedagogical Skill Indicators	Mean	Standard Deviation	Interpretation
Personalized instruction for individual students	4.2	0.5	High
Confidence in using technology for teaching	4.0	0.6	High
Enhanced student engagement	3.8	0.7	Moderate
Integration of digital and traditional methods	3.5	0.8	Moderate

Interpretation

Blended learning significantly improved ECE teachers' pedagogical and instructional skills. Teachers scored highly in their ability to personalize instruction (M = 4.2, SD = 0.5) and their confidence in using technology (M = 4.0, SD = 0.6). However, moderate scores for student engagement (M = 3.8, SD = 0.7) and integration of digital and traditional methods (M = 3.5, SD = 0.8) suggest room for improvement in applying blended learning effectively across diverse instructional settings.

Table 3: Relationship Between Blended Learning Participation and Attitudes Toward Technology Integration Variable Correlation Coefficient (r) Significance (p-value) Interpretation Blended learning participation 0.56 0.01 Moderate positive correlation Attitudes toward technology

Table 3: Relationship between Blended Learning Participation and Attitudes Toward Technology Integration

Variable	Correlation Coefficient (r)	Significance (p-value)	Interpretation
Blended learning participation	0.56	0.01	Moderate positive correlation
Attitudes toward technology	0.56	0.01	Positive relationship indicated

Interpretation

The results show a **moderate positive correlation** (r = 0.56, p = 0.01) between blended learning participation and attitudes toward technology integration among ECE teachers. This means that as teachers engage more in blended learning, their attitudes toward using technology in teaching improve significantly. These findings underline the need for professional development opportunities to sustain and enhance this positive relationship.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Table 4: Barriers to Effective Adoption of Blended Learning

Barriers	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)	Mean	Standard Deviation
Poor internet connectivity	40	80%	4.5	0.5
Lack of adequate training	35	70%	4.2	0.6
Limited access to digital tools	30	60%	3.8	0.7
Additional workload	28	56%	3.5	0.8
Resistance to new teaching methods	20	40%	2.9	0.9

Interpretation

Table 4 shows that the most significant barrier to blended learning adoption was poor internet connectivity (M = 4.5, SD = 0.5), affecting 80% of respondents. Lack of training (M = 4.2, SD = 0.6) and limited access to digital tools (M = 3.8, SD = 0.7) were also major challenges. Additional workload (M = 3.5, SD = 0.8) and resistance to new methods (M = 2.9, SD = 0.9) were less significant but still notable. Addressing these issues is critical for improving blended learning adoption among teachers.

Thematic Analysis of Open-Ended Responses

Key themes from the open-ended responses include:

Collaboration Needs: Teachers emphasized the importance of collaboration with peers and parents to maximize the benefits of blended learning.

Policy and Infrastructure: Respondents highlighted the lack of clear policies and inadequate infrastructure as barriers to blended learning.

Desire for Professional Development: Many teachers expressed a willingness to undergo additional training to better integrate technology into their teaching.

These themes align with the quantitative findings, emphasizing the need for systemic changes to enable the successful implementation of blended learning.

Discussion of Findings

Access to Blended Learning Platforms

The study found that ECE teachers in Akinyele Local Government had moderate access to blended learning platforms, with challenges such as inadequate infrastructure and limited digital tools. This aligns with Prayetno et al. (2022), who highlighted the readiness of teachers to engage with Learning Management Systems (LMS) like GL 4.0, but noted similar challenges in accessing resources. In the Nigerian context, this finding is significant as it reflects the broader issue of infrastructural deficits in schools, which mirrors global trends in under-resourced educational systems. Despite technological advancements, the uneven distribution of resources

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

limits equitable learning opportunities, as Ali (2024) noted that variability in digital tool access can lead to inequitable experiences for learners.

Improvement in Pedagogical and Instructional Skills

Blended learning was found to enhance ECE teachers' pedagogical skills by promoting personalized and interactive teaching methods. This finding is consistent with Andreyeva (2019), who observed that blended learning encourages the use of pupil-centered pedagogies, fostering active learning and critical thinking. Similarly, Chekour et al. (2024) explained that teachers acquire essential digital skills through blended learning, enabling them to integrate technology effectively. In Nigeria, where traditional rote learning methods dominate, the adoption of blended learning presents an opportunity to transition to more innovative and interactive instructional practices, as supported by Niemi et al. (2024).

Relationship between Blended Learning Participation and Attitudes Toward Technology Integration

A moderate positive correlation was observed between blended learning participation and teachers' attitudes toward technology integration. This aligns with Ye et al. (2022), who found that ICT self-efficacy significantly influences teachers' engagement with blended learning. Teachers with higher participation levels developed more positive attitudes, demonstrating that consistent exposure to blended learning fosters confidence in integrating technology. However, Chaiban and Oweini (2024) noted that years of experience do not necessarily translate into higher technology usage, suggesting that training and access play a more critical role than experience. This is evident in Nigeria, where training opportunities for ECE teachers are limited, despite their willingness to adopt new teaching methodologies.

Barriers to Effective Adoption of Blended Learning

The findings revealed several barriers to blended learning adoption, including inadequate training, lack of technical support, resistance to change, and increased workload. These findings align with Antwi-Boampong (2021), who identified similar challenges, particularly inadequate technological infrastructure. Additionally, Ali (2024) emphasized that the absence of clear institutional policies exacerbates confusion among educators, hindering the consistent implementation of blended learning. In the Nigerian context, these barriers reflect systemic issues in the education sector, including insufficient funding and limited teacher professional development programs. While these obstacles are significant, they also highlight the need for targeted interventions, as some teachers view blended learning as an opportunity for innovation and improved student engagement.

In conclusion, the findings of this study align with existing literature, emphasizing the potential of blended learning to improve ECE teaching practices. However, they also underscore the urgent

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

need to address infrastructural, policy, and training gaps to ensure the successful implementation of blended learning in Nigeria.

Summary of Findings

This study explored the level of access to blended learning platforms, its impact on early childhood education (ECE) teachers' pedagogical skills, the relationship between blended learning participation and attitudes toward technology integration, and the barriers to its adoption in Akinyele Local Government. The key findings are summarized below:

Access to Blended Learning Platforms
Most ECE teachers had moderate access to blended learning platforms. However, access was hindered by inadequate infrastructure, unreliable internet connectivity, and limited availability of digital tools in schools.

Improvement in Pedagogical and Instructional Skills
Blended learning positively impacted ECE teachers' instructional skills by fostering personalized learning, encouraging interactive teaching methods, and improving the integration of digital tools into lesson delivery.

Relationship between Blended Learning Participation and Attitudes Toward Technology Integration
A moderate positive correlation was found between blended learning participation and teachers' attitudes toward technology integration. Teachers with higher participation in blended learning showed more positive attitudes toward using technology in the classroom.

Barriers to Effective Adoption of Blended Learning
Key barriers identified included a lack of teacher training, inadequate technical support, resistance to change, increased workload, and unclear institutional policies regarding blended learning implementation.

A descriptive research design was adopted, and both quantitative and qualitative methods were employed. A structured questionnaire and semi-structured interviews were used for data collection. Quantitative data were analyzed using descriptive statistics (frequency, percentage, mean, and standard deviation) and inferential statistics (Pearson correlation), while qualitative responses were thematically analyzed.

The findings revealed that access to blended learning platforms was moderate, hindered by infrastructural deficits and inadequate training. Blended learning significantly enhanced teachers' instructional skills by promoting personalized and interactive teaching approaches. A moderate positive relationship was observed between blended learning participation and attitudes toward technology integration. However, barriers such as lack of infrastructure, resistance to change, and

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

increased workload were identified as major impediments to the effective adoption of blended learning.

Conclusion

Blended learning holds significant potential for improving Early Childhood Education in Nigeria by fostering innovation and enhancing teachers' pedagogical skills. However, its effective implementation is constrained by infrastructural challenges, insufficient training, and institutional policy gaps. Despite these challenges, ECE teachers demonstrated a willingness to adopt blended learning if provided with the necessary resources and support. The study concludes that addressing these challenges can lead to a more robust and equitable education system that leverages technology for quality learning experiences.

Recommendations

The government and private stakeholders should invest in providing reliable technological infrastructure, such as internet connectivity and digital devices, in schools.

Schools should collaborate with NGOs and international organizations to secure funding for digital learning resources.

Regular and comprehensive training programs should be organized to equip ECE teachers with the skills needed to integrate blended learning into their classrooms effectively.

Teacher training colleges should incorporate blended learning methodologies into their curriculum to prepare pre-service teachers for technology-integrated teaching.

Educational policymakers should develop clear guidelines and frameworks for blended learning adoption in schools.

Institutions should establish support systems, including technical assistance and mentorship programs, to help teachers navigate the challenges of blended learning.

Schools should create incentives, such as recognition and rewards, to motivate teachers to adopt and effectively utilize blended learning approaches.

Collaborative workshops and peer-learning platforms can be introduced to enhance teacher confidence and foster a positive attitude toward technology integration.

Schools should reduce teachers’ workload by employing additional staff to balance online and offline teaching responsibilities.

Regular evaluations should be conducted to identify and address barriers to blended learning, ensuring continuous improvement.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

References

AlAli, R., & Wardat, Y. (2024). The essence of blended learning: What it really means? *International Journal of Religion, 5*(9), 1081–1088. https://doi.org/10.61707/try09m33

Ali, R. (2024). How challenging? Barriers for teachers in institutional implementation of blended learning. *Open Learning: The Journal of Open, Distance and e-Learning*. https://doi.org/10.1080/02680513.2024.2342922

Alozie, L. (2024). *Elevating early childhood education: The crucial role of professional development*. https://www.scienceisecementary.org/blog/elevating-early-childhood-education-the-crucial-role-of-professional-development

Amanda, F. P., Mayasari, P. I. A., Rahayu, T., & Arifiana, D. (2024). Pengaruh moda pembelajaran blended learning terhadap peningkatan hasil belajar pada pembuatan pola kebaya di SMK Negeri 2 Jombang. *Journal on Education, 7*(1), 3861–3875. https://doi.org/10.31004/joe.v7i1.6978

Andreyeva, N. V. (2019). Pedagogy of effective blended learning. *Journal of Modern Foreign Psychology, 9*(3), 8–20. https://doi.org/10.17759/JMFP.2020090301

Antwi-Boampong, A. (2021). An investigation into barriers impacting against faculty blended learning adoption. *The Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education, 22*(3), 281–292. https://doi.org/10.17718/TOJDE.961849

Bandyopadhyay, S., Bardhan, A., Dey, P., & Bhattacharyya, S. (2020). Online blended learning platform for educating underprivileged children. In *[Book title not provided]* (pp. 191–213). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-33-6738-8_8

Chaiban, T., & Oweini, A. (2024). Assessing post-COVID-19 Lebanese teachers' attitudes towards ICT and their level of integration in the classroom in relation to their years of experience. *Heliyon, 10*(18), Article e38266. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2024.e38266

Duraku, Z. H., Blakaj, V., Likaj, E. S., Boci, L., & Shtylla, H. (2022). Professional training improves early education teachers' knowledge, skills, motivation, and self-efficacy. *Frontiers in Education, 7*, Article 980254. https://doi.org/10.3389/feduc.2022.980254

Efthymiou, I. P. (2023). Blended learning. In *Advances in educational technologies and instructional design* (pp. 54–77). https://doi.org/10.4018/978-1-6684-7583-6.ch003

Ezekoka, G., & Anum, O. A. (2019). Use of blended learning in Nigerian educational system: Opportunities, benefits and challenges. *International Journal for Innovative Technology Integration in Education, 3*(1), 1–10.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Farhat, M., Novaria, E., Sutalhis, S., & Yusuf, A. (2024). Blended learning: Suatu tinjauan perspektif dunia pendidikan dan pelatihan. *Cendekia, 4*(3), 253–261. https://doi.org/10.51878/cendekia.v4i3.3108

Fisher, R., Perenyi, A., & Birdthistle, N. (2018). The positive relationship between flipped and blended learning and student engagement, performance and satisfaction. *Active Learning in Higher Education, 22*(1), 1–17. https://doi.org/10.1177/146978741880702

GMercyU. (2024). *Early childhood education degree and career overview*. https://www.gmercyu.edu/academics/learn/what-is-early-childhood-education

Hayati, N., Muthmainah, & Wulandari, R. (2022). Children's online cognitive learning through integrated technology and hybrid learning. *Jurnal Pendidikan Usia Dini, 16*(1), 116–132. https://doi.org/10.21009/jpud.161.08

Hu, L. (2016). Blended learning: Beyond technology to pedagogical structure design. In *[Book title not provided]* (pp. 221–232). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-41165-1_20

Khotimah, N. K., Riyanto, Y., & Bachri, B. S. (2022). Implementation of blended learning to improve motivation and learning outcomes of pre-service early childhood teachers. *Journal of Educational and Social Research, 12*(5), 263–263. https://doi.org/10.36941/jesr-2022-0139

Kocour, N. (2019). *How blended learning impacts student engagement in an early childhood classroom* (Master's thesis, Northwestern College, Iowa). NW Commons.

Lawal, O. T., Gbenga-Akanmu, T. O., & Amoo, T. A. (2023). Enhancing quality of early childhood education in Nigeria through adoption of blended learning by early childhood education. *Indonesian Journal of Elementary Teachers Education (IJETE), 4*(2), 57–66.

Linton, J. (2018). *The blended learning blueprint for elementary teachers*. Corwin.

Mallick, B., & Salam, M. A. (2024). Teachers' attitude toward ICT integration in BGS classrooms of secondary schools in Bangladesh. *[Journal title not provided]*. https://doi.org/10.3329/twjer.v49i1.70262

Chekour, M., El Morabit, N., Benqassou, I., Lechhab, A., El-Hars, F., & Hafid, M. (2024). Integrating blended learning in teacher training: A comprehensive review. *[Conference proceedings or source not fully specified]*, 1–4. https://doi.org/10.1109/MSCC62288.2024.10697052

National Association for the Education of Young Children. (2024). *Professional development*. https://www.naeyc.org/resources/pd

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Niemi, L., Kangas, J., & Köngäs, M. (2024). Blending pedagogy: Equipping student teachers to foster transversal competencies in future-oriented education. *Frontiers in Education, 9*, Article 1373176. https://doi.org/10.3389/feduc.2024.1373176

Oakley, G. R., King, B., Gemma, B., & Scarparolo, E. (2023). Digital courseware meets professional learning community: Blended learning to improve the teaching of early literacy in a developing country. *Teacher Development, 27*(3), 275–296. https://doi.org/10.1080/13664530.2023.2175718

Pölzl-Stefanec, E., & Walter-Laager, C. (2023). Assurance and development of interaction quality: The impact of blended-learning professional development training programme. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, 1–10. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10643-023-01479-7

Prayetno, P., Iqbal, M., & Pinem, W. W. (2022). Using the technical teacher application (GI 4.0) in the post-pandemic era. *Devotion, 3*(11). https://doi.org/10.36418/dev.v3i11.212

Rensburg, E. J. V., & Oguttu, J. W. (2021). Blended teaching and learning: Exploring the concept, barriers to implementation and designing of learning resources. *South African Journal of Higher Education*. https://doi.org/10.20853/36-6-4595

Sari, R. T. P., & Kriswandani, K. (2024). Pengaruh blended learning terhadap kemampuan pemecahan masalah siswa SMK Diponegoro Salatiga. *Jurnal Lebesgue, 5*(2), 1246–1252. https://doi.org/10.46306/lb.v5i2.711

Sayed, M., & Baker, F. (2013). Blended learning barriers: An investigation, exposition and solutions. *Journal of Education and Practice, 5*(6), 81–85.

Singh, S., Sharmila, K., & Agarwal, S. (2022). Opportunities gained by parents and early childhood educators from virtual learning. *International Journal of Scientific Research*, 34–36. https://doi.org/10.36106/ijsr/8524193

Tong, D. H., Uyen, B. P., & Ngan, L. K. (2022). The effectiveness of blended learning on students' academic achievement, self-study skills and learning attitudes: A quasi-experiment study in teaching the conventions for coordinates in the plane. *Heliyon, 8*(12).

Tucker, C., Wycoff, T., & Green, J. (2017). *Blended learning in action: A practical guide toward sustainable change*. Corwin.

Ye, L., Kuang, M., & Liu, S. (2022). ICT self-efficacy, organizational support, attitudes, and the use of blended learning: An exploratory study based on English teachers in basic education. *Frontiers in Psychology, 13*, Article 941535. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.941535

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Received: 01.20.2026
Revised: 01.25.2026
Accepted: 03.15.2026
Published: 03.17.2026

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Euro-Global Journal of Linguistics and Language Education
ISSN 3030-1394 /online/

Vol. 3 No. 1 (2026) Pavasaris

AI-Assisted Scaffolding for Inclusive CLIL in Higher Education

[1] **Khatira Mammadova**

https://doi.org/10.69760/egjlle.26010010

Abstract. The CLIL courses in universities frequently combine students of varying levels of academic and English literacy. Consequently, not all learners engage in reading and are unable to communicate complicated ideas when studying disciplinary content using English. This paper examines whether AI applied in a narrow and teacher-directed form can serve more inclusive CLIL by scaffolding both content and academic language differentially. The research will be carried out in a six-week CLIL module of an undergraduate course in which the instruction will be in English. Two intact groups with around 50-70 students will be subjected to the same syllabus, activities and the same standards of assessment. The support package of the experiment group will be a curated AI support package monitored by the instructor. It will offer adaptive glossary of important terms, concept-check prompts, levelled language frames in discussion and writing and feedback prompts which are based on a CLIL-oriented rubric. The conventional scaffolding of the comparison group will be the use of instructor-prepared materials without AI. It will consist of pre- and post-measures of content comprehension, academic vocabulary task which is discipline specific, and rubric based assessment of student writing. The indicators of participation will also be analyzed, i.e. frequency of contributions and the use of academic language in the classroom. To clarify the experience of using the scaffolds and what assistance proves the most valuable, short student and teacher interviews will be used. It is assumed that AI scaffolding through the teacher will enhance conceptual learning, reinforce academic language in student writing, and engage more learners with lower proficiency. The research provides useful suggestions on the responsible introduction of AI in the university CLIL with focus on academic integrity and quality control.

Keywords: CLIL; Artificial Intelligence; higher education; scaffolding; inclusive education

Introduction

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) has emerged as one of the most important methods of combining disciplinary knowledge with intentional language performance, especially in situations when students are expected to learn content using English. At the tertiary education

[1] Mammadova, K. English Teacher, Nakhchivan State University, Azerbaijan. Emails: khatiramammadova@ndu.edu.az, hxatirem@gmail.com. ORCID: https://orcid.org/0009-0000-3739-032X

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

level, CLIL has been associated with internationalisation strategies and with the need for graduates to be able to engage in global academic and professional communities. However, in CLIL classrooms at universities, there are often students who demonstrate unequal levels of English language proficiency, as well as different degrees of academic literacy (Mammadova, 2024). Such differences can lead to unequal participation, a lack of confidence in interaction during seminars, and written work that may fail to reflect students' conceptual knowledge when cognitively challenging content tasks are presented in a second language. One of the main ideas of CLIL is that cognitive difficulty should be preserved and that language assistance should be a planned and intentional process rather than being left to immersion (Coyle et al., 2010; Dalton-Puffer, 2011). It is at this point that scaffolding becomes necessary. Scaffolding, which can be described as organized, temporary assistance allowing learners to act at a higher level than they can independently at present, consists of such techniques as pre-task concept clarification, vocabulary support, modelling disciplinary discourse, sentence and paragraph frames, and guided feedback (Gibbons, 2002; Vygotsky, 1978). Scaffolding in CLIL is not content simplification, but rather an accessibility and inclusion process that supports learners in coping with complex concepts and building the academic language required to communicate them (Mammadova, 2023). Nonetheless, scaffolding in university CLIL is challenging in terms of providing it in a timely and differentiated manner. Teachers also have to work with large numbers of students, busy timetables, and heterogeneous abilities, and it is difficult to support everyone. This issue can be addressed through formative assessment and feedback, which help explain expectations, facilitate revision, and provide advice on how to improve during learning, rather than simply judging performance at the end (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Hattie & Timperley, 2007). In practice, however, there are often time-related constraints in feedback cycles, and students are not always given maximum guidance to address gaps in participation and academic language. Recent developments in educational AI create new possibilities for micro-scaffolding: quick vocabulary and concept support, levelled language frames in speaking and writing, and feedback prompts aligned with rubrics. Studies of AI implementation in higher education indicate both growing interest in AI-based learning and evaluation and the necessity of keeping educators at the centre of design and regulation (Zawacki-Richter et al., 2019). This is a key issue in CLIL: unregulated application of AI may lead to false explanations, support shallow paraphrasing, and create academic dishonesty concerns. Thus, AI should not be discussed as a substitute for teaching or student thinking, but should instead be teacher-guided and limited in order to function as scaffolding. This paper discusses an AI-assisted inclusive CLIL scaffolding model in higher education. This model integrates four supports embedded within a CLIL unit: an adaptive glossary of key disciplinary concepts, concise concept-check cues, discussion and academic writing language frames at different levels, and rubric-congruent formative feedback, all of which can be regulated by the instructor. The following research questions guide the study: What will be the design of AI-assisted scaffolding to support university CLIL tasks without reducing cognitive load? What improvements will be made in content understanding, discipline-specific academic vocabulary, writing quality, and involvement?

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

What are the perceptions of students and instructors regarding the usefulness and integrity of AI-assisted scaffolding?

Methods

This research is based on a mixed-methods, quasi-experimental methodology in a CLIL course taught in English at a university. It has a comparison-group design because students are taught in intact classes, and random assignment would not be feasible in a real-life higher education setting (Shadish et al., 2002). Part of the study takes place during a 6-week CLIL unit in an undergraduate module in a subject such as Education, Geography, Business, or a similar field and involves about 50–70 undergraduate students with diverse levels of English proficiency and different levels of academic literacy. Two intact classes or seminar groups are assigned to an experimental group and a comparison group. The two groups follow the same syllabus, content input, tasks, and assessment criteria so that any differences that emerge may be attributed to the scaffolding approach rather than to other instructional content. The experimental group is provided with an AI-assisted scaffolding toolkit, which is limited, teacher-directed, and built into the unit at certain predetermined points. The toolkit consists of an adaptable glossary of primary disciplinary terms with brief definitions, examples of scholarly usage, and quick comprehension checks; brief concept-check prompts, which require students to explain concepts in their own words, contrast concepts, support claims, or identify misconceptions; levelled language frames, which support seminar discourse and academic writing; and rubric-aligned formative feedback prompts, which target content accuracy, application of disciplinary vocabulary, coherence and clarity of argument, and academic style. AI may be used to generate candidate glossary entries, frames, or feedback wording, although the instructor reviews and approves the materials and feedback before they are used by students, makes any necessary revisions, and ensures that this process remains consistent with the role of formative feedback in improving learning during the process (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Hattie & Timperley, 2007). The comparison group completes the same unit using traditional non-AI scaffolding provided through instructor-created materials such as a fixed glossary, teacher-provided frames, and teacher-generated practice feedback. To measure not only learning outcomes but also the experiences of participants, data are gathered from various sources in accordance with the principles of mixed-methods integration (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). Pre- and post-tests of content understanding aligned with unit outcomes, a discipline-specific academic vocabulary task, and scoring of a brief academic writing task, such as a mini-report or structured explanation with rubrics, are examples of quantitative measures. Participation is examined using classroom indicators that include frequency of contribution and use of target academic phrases, recorded through observation checklists or short transcript samples where feasible. Qualitative data are collected through short student interviews or open-ended questionnaires, as well as instructor reflective notes or a short interview aimed at documenting implementation issues and perceived value. Quantitative data are compared through pre/post gains and writing scores between the groups using relevant statistical tests, whereas qualitative data are analysed thematically to identify

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

patterns regarding the usefulness of scaffolds, changes in confidence and participation, perceived fairness, and concerns about accuracy or integrity (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The integration of mixed methods is intended to explain not only whether a difference occurs between groups, but also how and why scaffolding may affect learning and inclusion (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). Voluntary participation, informed consent, and anonymised reporting are included in the ethical procedures. Because AI is used in the experimental group, explicit rules of academic honesty are enforced. The scaffolding processes to which AI may be applied include, but are not limited to, glossary support, planning, language framing, and feedback prompts; however, generating end-assessed texts is forbidden, which highlights the importance of keeping educators in control of AI application in higher education settings (Zawacki-Richter et al., 2019).

Findings

Due to the fact that the study is to be implemented in a current university CLIL course, the results are presented in the form of expected outcomes in relation to the intervention logic and the measures to be carried out. In sum, the AI-aided scaffold group is expected to demonstrate greater improvement than the comparison group in three interrelated domains, namely content knowledge, academic language growth, and inclusive engagement. First, students in the AI-assisted scaffolding condition are expected to show stronger content understanding. The adaptive glossary and concept-check prompts are intended to reduce misunderstanding of critical disciplinary terms and to encourage students to explain meanings in their own words, which fits the CLIL focus on integrating meaning-making with language support (Coyle et al., 2010; Dalton-Puffer, 2011). Second, improvement is expected in discipline-specific academic vocabulary and academic writing performance. It is hoped that repeated exposure to essential terms in writing through glossary support, together with the use of levelled language frames and rubric-based feedback prompts, will help students use disciplinary language more accurately and confidently in writing, especially when feedback is structured and revision-focused (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Third, participation patterns are expected to become more inclusive in the AI-assisted group. Levelled discussion frames are expected to reduce hesitation by providing entry points for asking for clarification, expressing agreement or disagreement, and adding evidence, which is consistent with the principles of inclusive scaffolding (Gibbons, 2002; Vygotsky, 1978). Qualitative evidence is expected to show that learners find AI scaffolding most beneficial when it reduces anxiety and provides understandable support in expressing complex content through academic vocabulary, while also emphasising the importance of educator supervision and clear limitations in maintaining integrity, which is supported by recommendations from AI research in higher education (Zawacki-Richter et al., 2019).

Results

Since the study is intended to be implemented in an ongoing university CLIL course, the results are presented as anticipated outcomes based on the logic of the intervention and the measures

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

planned. In general, it is anticipated that the AI-assisted scaffolding group will demonstrate greater improvement compared to the comparison group in three interrelated domains, namely, content understanding, academic language development, and inclusive participation. To begin with, students in the AI-assisted scaffolding condition are expected to show higher levels of content understanding and greater gains. The concept-check prompts and adaptive glossary are intended to minimize linguistic misunderstandings of key disciplinary concepts, as well as to encourage students to develop meaning-making skills independently, which is consistent with CLIL principles focusing on the combination of meaning-making and language support (Coyle et al., 2010; Dalton-Puffer, 2011). Second, discipline-specific academic vocabulary and written academic performance are expected to improve. The glossary and rubric-informed feedback prompts should support more effective and confident disciplinary writing by helping students benefit from repeated exposure to key terms and from later writing practice, with feedback being structured and revision-oriented (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Third, participation is expected to be more inclusive within the AI-assisted group. Levelled discussion frames are predicted to reduce hesitation because they provide points of entry for requesting clarification, agreeing or disagreeing, and contributing evidence, which supports greater engagement in line with inclusive scaffolding principles (Gibbons, 2002; Vygotsky, 1978). The qualitative data are likely to show that AI scaffolding is perceived as most useful by learners when it helps reduce anxiety and provides clear support for expressing complex information using academic language, while also emphasizing the role of teacher control and limits in ensuring integrity, which is a key recommendation in AI-related research in higher education (Zawacki-Richter et al., 2019).

Discussion

It is expected that teacher-directed AI scaffolding will support inclusive CLIL in higher education by reducing language-based obstacles to disciplinary meaning-making. If students in the AI-assisted condition show better conceptual knowledge, stronger discipline-specific vocabulary, improved academic writing, and more balanced participation, this would align with the CLIL principle that cognitive challenge should be maintained while language support is explicitly planned (Coyle et al., 2010; Dalton-Puffer, 2011). The intervention will not simplify the subject matter but will instead focus on making complex content accessible through specific support in terminology, interaction, and academic discourse, reflecting scaffolding as organized assistance that enables learners to perform tasks that are more difficult than what they can do independently (Gibbons, 2002; Vygotsky, 1978). One implication concerns formative assessment. If the quality of writing and argumentation improves through rubric-aligned feedback, this would support the view that feedback is most effective when it is criteria-based and used to help students improve during learning (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Hattie & Timperley, 2007). The role of AI in this model is not to replace the instructor's judgment; rather, it assists in accelerating differentiation and simplifying the language of feedback, while the teacher remains responsible for making accurate

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

judgments that are acceptable and consistent with course outcomes. Governance and academic integrity are also central. The approach can be justified, even if the results are positive, only if it does not compromise the authenticity of student work. Bounded use and instructor control are directly related to educational AI research, which emphasizes that technology should not displace educators or shift fundamental pedagogical choices toward technological ones (Zawacki-Richter et al., 2019). Clear boundaries, process evidence through drafts and revisions, and teacher moderation are therefore viewed as conditions for success rather than optional additions. Finally, the limitations must be acknowledged. The intact-group design restricts causal claims compared with randomized designs (Shadish et al., 2002). The results may also be influenced by discipline, task type, and institutional context. In the future, the approach may be tested in other subject areas, and the question of whether scaffolds can be gradually withdrawn as learners gain independence may also be explored, which is an important principle in scaffolding-informed pedagogy (Gibbons, 2002).

Conclusion

This article proposed an instructor-guided and limited AI-assisted scaffolding model to support inclusive CLIL in the university setting. The combination of an adaptive glossary, concept-check prompts, levelled language frames, and rubric-consistent formative feedback under instructor regulation is expected to strengthen content knowledge, academic language production, and more balanced participation in mixed-proficiency university classes. If the anticipated results are confirmed, the study will offer practical recommendations on how AI can be integrated into university CLIL as scaffolded support without compromising academic integrity and while keeping teacher judgment central.

Limitations and Ethical Considerations

This study has several limitations. Intact groups do not allow strong causal claims, and the findings may partly reflect group differences or instructor bias. The results may also be context-dependent, as the research is conducted in a single course within one institutional setting and over a six-week unit; therefore, long-term effects and broader generalizability cannot be ensured. Because AI is involved, careful governance is necessary to maintain academic integrity and ensure that AI supports learning rather than generates assessed work; the success of the model therefore depends on clear boundaries, fair access, and consistency in instructor oversight.

References

Black, P., & Wiliam, D. (1998). Assessment and classroom learning. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice, 5*(1), 7–74.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology, 3*(2), 77–101.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Coyle, D., Hood, P., & Marsh, D. (2010). *CLIL: Content and language integrated learning*. Cambridge University Press.

Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2018). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. SAGE.

Dalton-Puffer, C. (2011). Content-and-language integrated learning: From practice to principles? *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 31*, 182–204.

Gibbons, P. (2002). *Scaffolding language, scaffolding learning*. Heinemann.

Hattie, J., & Timperley, H. (2007). The power of feedback. *Review of Educational Research, 77*(1), 81–112.

Mammadova, K. (2024). Steven Krashen's theory of the second language acquisition. *International Scientific Journal, 18*(11), 81–87.

Mammadova, K. (2023). Characteristic features of the content-language integrated learning methodology (CLIL). *Interdisciplinary Science Studies, 2*.

Shadish, W. R., Cook, T. D., & Campbell, D. T. (2002). *Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for generalized causal inference*. Houghton Mifflin.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society*. Harvard University Press.

Zawacki-Richter, O., Marín, V. I., Bond, M., & Gouverneur, F. (2019). Systematic review of research on artificial intelligence applications in higher education: Where are the educators? *International Journal of Educational Technology in Higher Education, 16*, 39.

Received: 01.20.2026
Revised: 01.25.2026
Accepted: 03.15.2026
Published: 03.17.2026

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Euro-Global Journal of Linguistics and Language Education
ISSN 3030-1394 /online/

Vol. 3 No. 1 (2026) Pavasaris

Reproach Strategies and Reactions in Friendly Interaction in Cameroon

[1] **Bernard Mulo Farenkia**

https://doi.org/10.69760/egjlle.26010011

Abstract. This article analyzes the interactional dynamics that structure reproach exchanges between friends in Cameroon. Drawing on a corpus collected between 2013 and 2022, the study examines (a) the types of interactional sequences involved (consensual, conflictual, mixed), (b) the strategies used to formulate reproaches (interrogation, exclamation, disagreement, accusation, threat, request for redress, moralization, expression of regret), and (c) the responses produced (apologies, justifications, promises, acknowledgment of fault). Attention is paid to the role of pragmatic modifiers (mitigators, intensifiers) and nominal forms of address. The findings indicate a strong orientation toward conflict mitigation: conciliatory responses predominate, whereas counter-attacks and refusals remain marginal. The study thus highlights face-management mechanisms and underscores the importance of localized sociolinguistic resources, code-mixing, routinized phrasing, indigenized interjections, in regulating interactional tension.

Keywords: complaints; politeness/impoliteness; preferred adjacency; Cameroon French; address terms; pragmatic modifiers.

[1] Farenkia, B. M. Full Professor, French and Linguistics, Cape Breton University, Canada. Email: bernard_farenkia@cbu.ca. ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9184-8140

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Euro-Global Journal of Linguistics and Language Education
ISSN 3030-1394 /online/

Vol. 3 No. 1 (2026) Pavasaris

Stratégies de reproche et réactions en interaction amicale au Cameroun

[1] **Bernard Mulo Farenkia**

https://doi.org/10.69760/egjlle.26010011

Résumé. Cet article analyse les dynamiques interactionnelles qui structurent les échanges réprobateurs entre amis au Cameroun. S'appuyant sur un corpus recueilli entre 2013 et 2022, l'étude examine (a) les types d'enchaînements interactionnels mobilisés (consensuels, conflictuels, mixtes), (b) les stratégies de formulation du reproche (interrogation, exclamation, désaccord, accusation, menace, demande de réparation, moralisation, expression du regret) et (c) les réponses produites (excuses, justifications, promesses, reconnaissance de faute). Une attention particulière est portée au rôle des modificateurs pragmatiques (adoucisseurs, durcisseurs) ainsi qu'aux formes nominales d'adresse. Les résultats indiquent une orientation marquée vers l'atténuation du conflit : les réponses conciliantes prédominent, tandis que les contre-attaques et refus restent marginales. L'étude met ainsi en lumière les mécanismes de gestion des faces et souligne l'importance de ressources sociolinguistiques localisées, mélange codique, phraséologies routinisées, interjections camerounisées, dans la régulation de la tension interactionnelle.

Mots-clés : reproche ; politesse/impolitesse ; enchaînements préférés ; français camerounais ; formes d'adresse ; modificateurs pragmatiques.

1. Introduction

Cette étude se propose d'analyser la dynamique interactionnelle et relationnelle qui se déploie dans l'expression du reproche en contexte de proximité relationnelle au Cameroun. Il s'agit plus précisément d'examiner la manière dont les locuteurs formulent les reproches, ainsi que les stratégies mobilisées par les destinataires pour y répondre, dans une situation de proximité sociale. L'exploration de ces pratiques communicatives permettra de mettre en lumière les mécanismes discursifs qui structurent l'échange réprobateur, les conceptions socioculturelles de l'offense qu'il véhicule et les procédés interactionnels par lesquels les participants gèrent, négocient, (dé)construisent ou reconfigurent la relation interpersonnelle. Ces processus s'observent dans les tours de parole successifs, qui articulent les interventions initiatrices (reproches) et réactives

[1] Farenkia, B. M. Full Professor, French and Linguistics, Cape Breton University, Canada. Email: bernard_farenkia@cbu.ca. ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9184-8140

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

(réponses aux reproches) au sein de ces séquences interactionnelles marquées par la tension normative.

Afin d'atteindre ces objectifs, nous présenterons, dans un premier temps (section 2), le cadre théorique sur lequel repose notre démarche. Cette section mettra en relief la notion d'échange réprobateur, définira les concepts de reproche et de réaction au reproche, et revisitera la distinction entre enchaînements préférés et non préférés dans les séquences de type « reproche – réponse au reproche ». Elle intégrera également les apports des théories de la politesse et de l'impolitesse linguistique, indispensables pour comprendre les enjeux relationnels et les stratégies interactionnelles en présence. Dans un deuxième temps (section 3), nous présenterons le corpus et la méthode d'analyse des données. Enfin, la section 4 sera consacrée à la présentation et la discussion des résultats de l'analyse des stratégies de reproches et des types de réactions au reproche attestés dans ce corpus.

2. Cadre théorique

Le reproche est généralement défini comme une expression de désapprobation envers autrui, formulée en réponse à un comportement jugé inapproprié. Cette définition met en évidence deux composantes essentielles : une évaluation négative et une demande, explicite ou implicite, de réparation. Relevant des actes expressifs (Kerbrat-Orecchioni, 2005), le reproche constitue un macro-acte complexe pouvant intégrer exclamations, manifestations de mécontentement ou demandes de compensation. Sa force illocutoire réside dans la volonté de modifier la situation interactionnelle et de susciter une réponse du destinataire. Dans la perspective de la théorie des faces, le reproche est intrinsèquement menaçant, d'autant plus qu'il porte atteinte à la face positive du destinataire en mettant en cause sa compétence sociale (Edmonson, 1981) et contraint sa face négative en l'obligeant à se justifier ou à se corriger. L'acte réprobateur peut ainsi fragiliser l'harmonie sociale en imposant une pression à réagir. Du point de vue interactionnel, l'acte de reproche s'inscrit dans une chaîne séquentielle à deux niveaux : (a) le reproche lui-même, acte réactif à une faute perçue, et (b) la réaction du destinataire (Denoyelle, 2006). Les réponses peuvent soit apaiser le conflit (excuses, justifications, offres de réparation), soit l'aggraver (rejet, minimisation, insultes), selon qu'elles constituent des enchaînements préférés ou non-préférés (Jobert, 2010). Le type d'offense, la nature relationnelle et les modalités de formulation du reproche influencent fortement ces choix. Deux hypothèses en découlent : (1) un destinataire soucieux de préserver les faces produira des réactions positives à visée réparatrice ; (2) un destinataire rejetant le reproche pourra recourir à des réponses menaçantes susceptibles de conduire à l'escalade conflictuelle. L'étude des séquences « reproche – réaction » permet donc de cerner les mécanismes de gestion des faces et les normes socioculturelles qui les sous-tendent.

Si l'acte de reproche a fait l'objet de nombreux travaux, les recherches portant spécifiquement sur les réactions aux reproches demeurent rares (cf. El-Dakhs & Ahmed, 2023), et concernent majoritairement le service client. Parmi les études existantes figurent notamment Boxer (1993) sur

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

les plaintes indirectes en anglais américain, Laforest (2002) sur les interactions familiales québécoises, Migdadi et al. (2012) sur les phones-ins jordaniens, ainsi que plusieurs travaux récents d'El-Dakhs et collègues portant sur les contextes éducatifs égyptiens. L'étude présente s'inscrit dans ce champ encore peu exploré en analysant les reproches et réactions aux reproches en contexte camerounais.

3. Méthodologie

Les données analysées dans cette étude proviennent d'un questionnaire conçu selon le modèle du *Discourse Production Task* (DPT). Ce dispositif proposait plusieurs situations de communication mettant en scène des relations horizontales proches (entre amis), horizontales distantes (entre inconnus) et verticales asymétriques (enseignant–étudiant ; employé–employeur), pour lesquelles les participants devaient construire de courts dialogues. La présente analyse se concentre sur une situation d'offense impliquant deux ami(e)s, formulée comme suit :

- *« Votre meilleur(e) ami(e) a emprunté votre plus belle (et plus chère) veste en cuir. Quand il/elle vous la remet, vous constatez un grand trou au dos. Que lui dites-vous ? Comment votre ami(e) réagit-il/elle ? Construisez un mini-dialogue. »*

Les données ont été recueillies en trois phases, dans les villes de Douala, Yaoundé et Maroua. En 2013, 148 étudiants de l'Université de Yaoundé 1 et de l'Université de Douala (100 femmes, 48 hommes ; 18–30 ans) ont participé à la première collecte. En 2015, la deuxième collecte a concerné 80 répondants (64 femmes, 16 hommes ; 18–30 ans). En 2022, 208 étudiants de l'Université de Maroua (154 hommes, 54 femmes ; 18–30 ans) ont complété le questionnaire. Au total, l'enquête repose ainsi sur 436 participants, répartis à parité entre femmes et hommes (218 chacun). Les dialogues produits comportent généralement quatre tours de parole, permettant d'observer la séquence complète « reproche – réaction au reproche ».

L'objectif étant d'examiner la dynamique interactionnelle du reproche dans une relation de proximité, l'analyse s'est déroulée en trois étapes. Dans un premier temps, nous avons décrit l'organisation discursive de chaque échange, en identifiant les types d'enchaînements (consensuels, conflictuels, mixtes). Nous avons ensuite examiné les stratégies discursives mobilisées pour formuler le reproche. Enfin, la troisième étape a porté sur les réactions apportées aux reproches. Les résultats présentés ci-après concernent donc les types d'enchaînements observés, les procédés employés pour exprimer le reproche et les stratégies de réponse. Dans chaque volet, une attention particulière est portée aux indices relationnels et aux positionnements interactionnels révélés par les locuteurs.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

4. Résultats

4.1 Types d'enchaînements

Trois profils se dégagent : consensuels (réaction apaisante : acceptation, excuse, offre de réparation), conflictuels (rejet, refus, contre-attaque, minimisation), mixtes (combinaison d'atténuation et de mise en cause).

- **Les enchaînements consensuels**

Les *enchaînements consensuels* désignent les configurations interactionnelles dans lesquelles l'offensé formule un reproche et où l'offenseur y répond par une réaction positive, visant à restaurer l'harmonie sociale et à réduire la tension interactionnelle. Ce type de séquence s'organise selon un schéma binaire relativement stable : (a) un tour initiatif portant le reproche (mise en accusation, expression de mécontentement, demande de réparation implicite ou explicite) et (b) un tour réactif dans lequel l'allocutaire adopte une posture collaborative, reconnaît la validité du reproche ou s'engage vers la réparation. Ces réactions positives relèvent de ce que la littérature pragmatique décrit comme enchaînements préférés, c'est-à-dire les réponses socialement attendues dans une situation de tension, car elles concourent à préserver les faces en jeu et à rétablir la cohésion relationnelle. Elles se manifestent par une gamme d'actes réparateurs, parmi lesquels (a) l'acceptation explicite de la faute (reconnaissance de responsabilité), (b) la demande de pardon ou l'expression de regret, (c) l'offre d'excuse, (d) la justification atténuée, permettant d'expliquer sans nier le tort causé, (e) la promesse de réparation ou de compensation matérielle et (f) l'engagement à modifier un comportement futur. Ces actes, souvent accompagnés de modificateurs pragmatiques adoucissants (marqueurs de politesse, atténuateurs, modalisation affective), contribuent à alléger la portée menaçante du reproche et à signifier la volonté de maintenir le lien amical. Ils traduisent une orientation interactionnelle centrée sur la coopération, la préservation des faces et la stabilisation du rapport interpersonnel. En voici un exemple. Les exemples suivants illustrent la diversité des ressources discursives mobilisées dans ces enchaînements.

Exemple (1)

1. L1 : Dis-moi que je rêve et que ce n'est pas ma veste ici.
2. L2 : Désolé mon ami j'ai abimé ça à la suite d'une bagarre.
3. L1 : Ce n'est pas mon problème je veux ma veste comme c'était.
4. L2 : Mille fois désolé mon ami je vais t'arranger ça.

Exemple (2)

1. L1: Pourquoi tu me rends ma veste avec un trou dessus?
2. L2 : J'ai oublié de laver après ma sortie et la souris l'a rongée, désolé.
3. L1 : Hum! D'accord mais je n'aime pas qu'on ne prenne pas soin de mes choses, sois plus attentif la prochaine fois.
4. L2 : Merci, j'ai eu peur que tu allais tellement te fâcher pour cela, c'est gentil.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

On observe en (1) que L1 formule un reproche de manière indirecte, sous la forme d'une expression de surprise ou d'incrédulité face à l'état de la veste. En réponse, L2 adopte immédiatement une posture réparatrice, en présentant ses excuses (« Désolé mon ami ») et en fournissant une justification (« J'ai abîmé ça à la suite d'une bagarre »). L1 rejette cependant ces excuses, en soulignant leur insuffisance (« ce n'est pas mon problème ») et en exigeant une compensation (« je veux ma veste comme c'était »). Cette pression amène L2 à renouveler son expression de regret, intensifiée par « mille fois » et par l'usage du terme d'adresse « mon ami », avant de promettre une réparation (« je vais t'arranger ça »). L'échange se clôt ainsi sur une orientation clairement apaisante. En (2), L1 formule le reproche sous la forme d'une question polémique introduite par *pourquoi*, marquant un positionnement conflictuel (« Pourquoi tu me rends ma veste avec un trou dessus ? »). En réponse, L2 adopte une posture réparatrice en combinant une justification (« J'ai oublié de laver après ma sortie et la souris l'a rongée ») et une excuse elliptique (« désolé »). À la ligne suivante, L1 réagit par une interjection exprimant la surprise, puis accepte l'excuse (« d'accord ») tout en formulant un grief atténué (« mais je n'aime pas qu'on ne prenne pas soin de mes choses »). L'usage du pronom *on* contribue ici à adoucir la critique en diluant la responsabilité et en évitant de viser directement l'allocutaire, ce qui protège les faces et maintient un climat relationnel stable. L1 clôt son intervention par une exhortation non menaçante (« sois plus attentif la prochaine fois »), indiquant que l'offense ne remet pas en cause le lien amical. Cette orientation apaisante suscite chez L2 une réaction marquée par la gratitude (« Merci »), le soulagement (« j'ai eu peur que tu allais tellement te fâcher ») et un nouvel remerciement (« c'est gentil »), ce qui confirme la résolution harmonieuse de l'échange.

- **Les enchaînements conflictuels**

Les *enchaînements conflictuels* regroupent les échanges dans lesquels les répliques contribuent à renforcer la tension interactionnelle initiée par l'énoncé réprobateur. Dans ces séquences, la réaction de l'offenseur n'apaise pas le reproche, mais tend au contraire à l'exacerber. Les réponses négatives se manifestent à travers divers actes menaçants pour les faces, tels que le rejet de la responsabilité, la contre-attaque, la minimisation de l'importance du bien endommagé ou encore la reformulation d'un reproche en retour. Ces conduites interactionnelles, orientées vers l'escalade du conflit, contrastent avec les enchaînements préférés observés dans les échanges consensuels. L'exemple ci-dessous illustre ce type d'enchainement.

Exemple (3)

1. L1 : Merde, gars le tour- ci tu as cliqué sur déranger. J'ai plus le choix.
2. L2 : Désolé, c'est en repassant que le fer a touché cette partie.
3. L1 : Vraiment, je ne sais quoi te dire, mais tu dois payer.
4. L2 : Mais est-ce que si je pouvais payer, j'avais cette capacité-là tu pouvais me voir me pointer la devant toi et demander ta veste?

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Dans l'exemple (3), L1 ouvre son intervention par une interjection de surprise, immédiatement suivie d'un énoncé accusateur formulé au moyen d'une phraséologie camerounaise (« *gars le tour-ci tu as cliqué sur déranger* »), expression idiomatique marquant clairement le mécontentement. Ce reproche initial est renforcé par une formulation explicite de déception. En réponse, L2 adopte une posture conciliatrice : il présente ses excuses, exprime sa contrition et fournit une justification visant à éclairer les circonstances de l'incident. À la ligne 3, L1 manifeste sa perplexité et formule une demande de réparation, présentée sous la forme d'un énoncé exprimant une obligation. L2 réagit alors par un refus indirect, réalisé sous la forme d'une question polémique, par laquelle il laisse entendre qu'il n'a pas les moyens financiers de satisfaire la demande de son interlocuteur.

- **Les enchainements mixtes**

Les *enchaînements mixtes* se caractérisent par une dynamique relationnelle ambivalente, dans laquelle les réactions aux reproches combinent simultanément des actes valorisants et des actes menaçants pour les faces. Ces réponses présentent ainsi une oscillation entre coopération et confrontation : l'offenseur adopte d'un côté des procédés atténuateurs ou conciliants (excuses, marques de politesse, justification modérée), tout en intégrant, de l'autre côté, des éléments susceptibles d'alimenter la tension interactionnelle (minimisation de la faute, contestation implicite, critique en retour). Cette juxtaposition d'actes contradictoires traduit une négociation délicate entre préservation du lien relationnel et défense de sa propre face, produisant des séquences interactionnelles hybrides, ni pleinement consensuelles ni entièrement conflictuelles. En voici un exemple :

Exemple (4)

1. L1 : Gars, toi-même regarde, c'est pourquoi je n'aime pas te donner mes choses.
2. L2 : Désolé man c'est à cause du fer à repasser non.
3. L1 : D'accord mais sache que la prochaine fois je ne te donnerai plus.
4. L2 : Aka laisse ça, tu n'es pas mon ami pour rien.

En (4), L1 ouvre l'échange en recourant à une forme nominale d'adresse et à un appel à la raison, deux procédés qui lui permettent d'exprimer son mécontentement tout en cadrant l'interaction dans une relation de proximité. Ce reproche est immédiatement renforcé par un commentaire exprimant le regret de l'offensé. En réponse, L2 formule une excuse, accompagnée d'une forme nominale d'adresse (« man ») qui rappelle leur lien amical, puis fournit une justification expliquant l'origine du dommage (« c'est à cause du fer à repasser non »). L1 accepte cette excuse par un marqueur d'accord, mais enchaîne avec une menace modérée, notamment l'annonce de ne plus prêter sa veste à son ami. L2 minimise alors cette menace en réagissant avec « Aka », interjection qui atténue la portée de la menace, et en réaffirmant implicitement leurs liens d'amitié, laissant entendre qu'il ne prend pas cette annonce au sérieux.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Après avoir identifié les types d'enchaînements présents dans le corpus, la section suivante sera consacrée à l'analyse des stratégies discursives mobilisées dans l'intervention initiative, c'est-à-dire dans la formulation du reproche.

4.2 Stratégies de reproche

L'examen du corpus fait apparaître plusieurs types d'énoncés exprimant le mécontentement, la déception ou les conséquences de l'offense. Les stratégies identifiées se répartissent comme suit :(a) interrogations et exclamations, (b) expressions de désaccord, (c) menaces et mises en garde, (d) accusations, (e) demandes de réparation, (f) expressions de regret et (g) énoncés moralisateurs. Leur distribution est présentée dans le tableau 1.

Tableau 1. Distribution des stratégies de reproches

Type de stratégie	**N (%)**
Énoncés interrogatifs et exclamatifs	120 (28,0 %)
Expressions de désaccord	75 (17,6 %)
Énoncés accusateurs	57 (13,3 %)
Menaces et mises en garde	47 (11,0 %)
Demandes de réparation	41 (9,6 %)
Énoncés moralisateurs	32 (7,5 %)
Expressions de regret	14 (3,3 %)
Total	427 (100 %)

Le tableau 1 montre que le corpus comporte 427 stratégies de reproche. Les questions et exclamations rhétoriques à valeur conflictuelle constituent les formes les plus fréquentes (28 %, 120 occurrences), suivies des expressions de désaccord (17,6 %), des accusations (13,3 %), des menaces et mises en garde (11 %), des demandes de réparation (9,6 %) et des énoncés moralisateurs (7,5 %). Les expressions de regret apparaissent comme les moins utilisées, avec seulement 3,3 % des occurrences. Ces différentes stratégies remplissent des fonctions pragmatiques variées : certaines permettent de formuler le reproche de manière directe, tandis que d'autres en assurent une réalisation indirecte, souvent atténuée ou détournée. **Dans la section suivante, nous examinerons plus en détail ces stratégies en les illustrant par des exemples tirés du corpus, afin de mettre en lumière leurs usages et leurs effets interactionnels.**

4.2.1 Les énoncés interrogatifs et exclamatifs

Il s'agit de constructions qui prennent la forme d'énoncés interrogatifs et exclamatifs servant à exprimer la surprise, l'incrédulité, l'exaspération, etc. face à la négligence de l'allocutaire. Les énoncés interrogatifs fonctionnent principalement comme des questions rhétoriques conflictuelles obligeant l'accusé à s'excuser pour sa faute (Eggs, 2010). Ces constructions servent à accentuer le

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

reproche en soulignant l'incompréhension et l'indignation du locuteur. Les constructions les plus employées à cet effet contiennent divers types de marqueurs interrogatifs. On peut citer:

- *Pourquoi* : « Pourquoi as-tu déchiré ma veste ? »
- *Comment* : « Comment tu peux être négligent comme ça ? »
- *C'est encore quel/quelle…* : « C'est encore quel modèle comme ça ? »
- *C'est comme ça que…* : « C'est comme ça que je t'ai donné mon vêtement ? »
- *Qu'est-ce que…ça* : « Qu'est-ce qui s'est passé avec ma veste ? », « Qu'est-ce que c'est que ça ? »
- *Quel est ce / quelle est cette…* : « Quelle est cette manière d'entretenir les vêtements ? »
- *C'est même quoi / comment…* : « C'est même quoi ça ? », « C'est comment avec toi ? »

4.2.2 Les énoncés désapprobateurs et dépréciatifs

Ils servent à exprimer la déception et la désapprobation du locuteur face à la négligence de l'interlocuteur. Parmi les constructions linguistiques mises en œuvre à cet effet, nous pouvons citer : (a) les constructions évaluatives négatives du type « c'est + adjectif négatif » (ex. « c'est irresponsable », « c'est irrécupérable »), « ce n'est pas + adjectif positif » (ex. « ce n'est pas sérieux », « ce n'est pas gentil »), « c'est (le / de la + nom négatif) » (ex. « c'est le mauvais cœur », « c'est de la négligence ») ; (b) les énoncés pointant la faute ou le manque de respect (ex. « tu ne respectes pas la chose d'autrui » ; « tu as trahi ce peu de respect qui restait ») ; (c) les constructions complexes combinant jugement et commentaire (ex. « Ce n'est pas bien. C'est un geste immature ») : et (d) les expressions explicites de déception ou d'émotion négative du type « je ne + V + pas » (ex. « je n'apprécie pas ça », « je ne supporte pas ce que tu as fait »), « je suis + adjectif négatif » (ex. « je suis déçu », « je suis en colère ») et « tu me déçois », « ça m'énerve », « je t'en veux », « je ne peux pas comprendre cela ». Dans l'ensemble, ces stratégies permettent au locuteur de déprécier la conduite de l'interlocuteur, d'exprimer sa désillusion et de marquer une rupture normative ou affective.

4.2.3 Les énoncés accusateurs

Ils servent à décrire l'offense et à attribuer clairement la responsabilité à l'interlocuteur. Ils se répartissent en deux sous-ensembles. Le premier est celui des accusations directes. Elles se caractérisent par l'utilisation de verbes négatifs (« abîmer », « gâter », « endommager », « foutre » : ex. « Tu as gâté ma dernière valise », « tu m'as foutu une veste qui m'est chère »), de constructions négatives (« tu n'as pas bien conservé… ») ou de descriptions de l'état de la veste (« ma veste toute déchirée », « ma veste a un grand trou »). Le deuxième sous-groupe est composé d'accusations fondées sur le contraste entre l'état initial et actuel de la veste (ex. « Je te prête ma veste en bon état, tu me le remets en piteux état ») et souvent renforcées par une demande de réparation, constituant ainsi une double menace pour la face de l'allocutaire.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

4.2.4 Les menaces et mises en garde

Le corpus contient de nombreuses *menaces et mises en garde*, utilisées pour exprimer le mécontentement en évoquant des sanctions futures, principalement l'arrêt des prêts à cause de la négligence de l'interlocuteur. Ces avertissements sont formulés à l'aide de constructions déclaratives comportant des marqueurs temporels ou modaux tels que : *dorénavant*, *plus jamais*, *la prochaine fois*, *c'est la dernière fois*, *désormais*, *c'est fini*, *plus rien*, *sache que*, *c'est pas la peine de*. Ces expressions servent à marquer une rupture relationnelle ou une restriction future des faveurs (ex. « C'est la dernière fois que je te prête quelque chose. » ; « Dorénavant je ne te donnerai plus mes choses. » ; « Tu n'auras plus une faveur de ma part, c'est fini. ») Certaines constructions expriment à la fois le regret et la décision ferme de ne plus prêter (ex. « Je ne ferai plus cette erreur-là. »)

4.2.5 Les demandes de réparation

Les demandes de réparation expriment le reproche en exigeant que l'interlocuteur corrige le dommage, constituant ainsi une double menace pour sa face (rappel de la faute + obligation d'agir). Elles se réalisent par (a) des prescriptions directes (ex. « Tu me donnes une autre veste », « Tu vas m'en acheter une autre »), (b) des expressions d'obligation (ex. « Il faut aller chez la couturière », « tu devrais me la rendre en bonne et due forme »), (c) des expressions de désir (ex. « Je veux ma veste sans trou «), (d) des suggestions (ex. « Je te suggère d'en acheter une autre ») et des injonctions (ex. « Quand je t'ai prêté ma veste, elle était en bon état donc **rends la moi en bon état** »).

4.2.6 Les énoncés moralisateurs

Ils servent à exprimer le reproche sous forme de **réprimandes,** de **rappels de normes sociales** et d'**invitations à mieux se comporter** (ex. « Si tu prends la chose de quelqu'un un jour et tu constates qu'il y a des choses pareilles, il faut quand même arranger avant de lui donner. ») De tels énoncés permettent au locuteur de souligner ce que l'interlocuteur *aurait dû faire* (soigner l'objet emprunté, réparer ce qu'il a endommagé) et ce qu'il devra faire à l'avenir. Ils combinent souvent plusieurs visées communicatives (a) expression d'insatisfaction, (b) rappel à l'ordre et parfois (c) menace de ne plus prêter. Certains énoncés adoptent une forme **proverbiale ou générale** pour donner une portée morale plus large (ex. « Lorsqu'on refuse certaines choses, vous dites que les gens sont méchants »).

4.2.7 Les expressions de regret

Elles constituent des reproches indirects, d'autant plus qu'elles sont employées pour indiquer que le locuteur n'aurait pas dû prêter sa veste. Elles peuvent être autonomes (ex. « Je regrette de t'avoir prêté ma veste », « Je n'aurais jamais dû te la passer ») ou intégrées à des énoncés plus développés mêlant déception, perte de confiance et parfois exigence de réparation.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Après avoir présenté les formes typiques que peut prendre l'acte de reproche, il convient maintenant d'examiner les ressources linguistiques qui en modulent la force illocutoire. En effet, au-delà de la structure même du reproche, divers éléments pragmatiques interviennent pour en atténuer ou en renforcer l'impact communicatif. Deux types de modificateurs jouent ici un rôle particulièrement déterminant, et méritent donc une analyse approfondie.

4.3 Modificateurs pragmatiques du reproche

Deux types de modificateurs pragmatiques interviennent dans la formulation des reproches : (a) les modificateurs externes, ajoutés avant ou après l'acte de reproche ; et (b) les modificateurs internes, intégrés à l'acte lui-même. En adoucissant ou en renforçant le reproche, ils influencent fortement la dynamique interactionnelle et la relation entre les interlocuteurs. L'analyse porte sur les procédés les plus fréquents du corpus. Nous commençons par les modificateurs externes.

4.3.1 Modificateurs externes

Deux types de modificateurs externes interviennent dans la formulation des reproches : les actes d'ouverture et les actes de clôture. Ces éléments, placés en périphérie de l'énoncé principal, ne modifient pas directement le contenu du reproche, mais ils contribuent néanmoins à en orienter l'interprétation et à en façonner l'impact pragmatique. Les actes d'ouverture préparent le terrain interactionnel en créant un contexte favorable, ou, au contraire, en signalant la tension communicative, tandis que les actes de clôture permettent de refermer l'échange, en atténuant ou en renforçant la force du reproche. L'analyse qui suit examine ces deux catégories afin de mieux comprendre leur rôle dans la dynamique interactionnelle du blâme. Le tableau 2 présente la distribution des actes d'ouverture.

Tableau 2. Distribution des actes d'ouverture

Type d'acte d'ouverture	**N (%)**
Formes nominales d'adresse (FNA)	131 (41,5 %)
Exclamations / Expressions de surprise	151 (47,7 %)
Capteurs d'attention	26 (8,2 %)
Salutations	5 (1,6 %)
Excuses	3 (1,0 %)
Total	316 (100 %)

Le tableau 2 montre que les échanges réprobateurs s'ouvrent majoritairement par des **exclamations ou expressions de surprise** (47,7 %). Ces formes, chargées d'affect, dramatisent immédiatement l'incident et imposent d'emblée une **lecture évaluative** de la situation. Elles constituent une forte menace à la face positive de l'allocutaire et installent un cadre interactionnel tendu. Les **formes nominales d'adresse** (41,5 %) occupent également une place importante. Les

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

formes recensées sont réparties dans les sous-catégories suivantes : les hypocoristiques tels que « *gars mon amie, mama, ma grande*, *combi, Gaillard* », les termes de parenté tels que « *ma sœur, mon frère, bro*», les termes intimes tels que « *mon gars, mon type, mon cher ami, chère amie, ma personne, ma très chère amie »*. Ces formes permettent de **positionner l'interlocuteur** et de régler le degré d'implication relationnelle. Leur valeur pragmatique est double : elles peuvent atténuer le reproche lorsqu'il s'agit de vocatifs affiliatifs, ou au contraire renforcer la tension lorsqu'elles prennent une coloration ironique ou dépréciative. Elles jouent ainsi le rôle d'une **pré-séquence** qui prépare le terrain au reproche. Les **capteurs d'attention** (8,2 %), tels que « écoute », « regarde » ou « hé », servent surtout à sécuriser le canal de communication. En introduisant le reproche comme une simple mise au point, ils ont parfois un léger effet de mitigation, bien qu'ils maintiennent l'orientation vers l'acte réprobateur. Les **salutations** (1,6 %) et les **excuses** (1 %) sont très peu représentées. Leur rareté suggère une préférence marquée pour des ouvertures directes, sans rituels préalables, ce qui témoigne de l'urgence interactionnelle ressentie par les locuteurs. Lorsque ces formes sont présentes, elles tendent toutefois à adoucir le reproche en réinstaurant brièvement des conventions de politesse. Dans l'ensemble, la distribution atteste une nette préférence pour des ouvertures **émotionnellement fortes et peu ritualisées**, qui renforcent l'impact du reproche dès les premiers tours de parole. Le choix de l'acte d'ouverture influe ainsi directement sur la dynamique interactionnelle : les exclamations tendent à accentuer la tension, tandis que les formes d'adresse ou les capteurs d'attention ouvrent la possibilité d'un reproche plus cadré et potentiellement plus orienté vers la réparation. Passons à présentant aux actes de clôture, dont la distribution est présentée dans le Tableau 3.

Tableau 3. Distribution des actes de clôture

Type d'acte de cloture	**N (%)**
Actes adoucisseurs (minimisation, empathie, rappels des liens)	108 (31,5 %)
Actes durcisseurs (insistance, questions polémiques, etc.)	235 (68,5 %)
Total	343 (100 %)

La distribution des actes de clôture dans le Tableau ci-dessus met en évidence une nette récurrence des clôtures à valeur intensificatrice (68,5 %), tandis que les clôtures adoucissantes ne constituent qu'un tiers des occurrences (31,5 %). Ce résultat semble révéler que, dans les interactions réprobatrices analysées, les locuteurs ont tendance à conclure l'échange en maintenant, voire en accentuant, la tension interactionnelle plutôt qu'en cherchant à restaurer l'harmonie ou à réparer la relation mise à mal par le reproche.

Les actes durcisseurs rassemblent des procédés tels que l'insistance (ex. « rends-la moi en bon état je ne veux rien entendre c'est pas mon problème »), les rappels appuyés de la faute, les ultimatums ou encore les questions polémiques. (ex. «Hey, t'as seulement reçu une balle dans le dos? » ; « tu sais combien cette veste m'a coûté? »). Leur forte présence suggère que le reproche dépasse

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

largement le cadre d'une simple mise en garde : il constitue un acte visant explicitement à renforcer la responsabilité imputée à l'allocutaire et à souligner la gravité de la transgression jusqu'au dernier tour de parole. Ces clôtures jouent ainsi un rôle déterminant dans la construction d'une posture de fermeté, où le locuteur s'assure que son message est compris, reçu et difficilement contestable. D'un point de vue pragmatique, elles exercent une double pression sur l'interlocuteur : **une pression morale**, en réaffirmant la faute commise, et **une pression interactionnelle**, en réduisant ses possibilités de répondre, de se justifier ou de nuancer la critique. Elles contribuent de ce fait à cimenter l'asymétrie des rôles au moment de la clôture de l'échange.

À l'inverse, les actes adoucissants (31,5 %) introduisent des gestes relationnels tels que la minimisation de l'incident (ex. « Mince! Tu sais que c'est ma préférée. Mais ce n'est pas bien grave il est réparable. »), l'expression d'empathie ou la mobilisation de liens affectifs ou sociaux (ex. « Comment c'est arrivé? C'est rien tu sais, l'amitié est un filon qui ne se brise qu'à la mort. Ce n'est donc pas pour une veste qu'on va se séparer. ») Lorsqu'ils sont employés, ces procédés contribuent à rééquilibrer momentanément la relation en atténuant la menace à la face de l'allocutaire et en préservant la cohésion interactionnelle malgré la dimension potentiellement conflictuelle du reproche. Ils traduisent une volonté de désamorçage : la clôture devient alors un espace de réparation partielle, permettant de réduire les tensions générées par l'acte réprobateur. Ce type de clôture engage une dynamique relationnelle orientée vers la continuité et laisse à l'interlocuteur une image moins dépréciée de lui-même, ce qui peut favoriser l'apaisement ou la réconciliation.

La nette domination des clôtures à valeur intensificatrice montre néanmoins que, dans ce corpus, les reproches tendent à se conclure sur une note d'affirmation, parfois même de rupture symbolique. Le locuteur privilégie alors la réaffirmation du tort, le marquage des limites normatives et la consolidation de sa propre position plutôt qu'une restauration de l'équilibre relationnel. Ces résultats confirment que le reproche, tel qu'il se donne à voir ici, constitue non seulement un acte évaluatif, mais aussi un acte identitaire : à travers la clôture, le locuteur réinscrit les attentes normatives, clarifie la frontière transgressée et affirme la légitimité de son jugement.

4.3.2 Modificateurs internes

Comme indiqué précédemment, les reproches ne sont pas uniquement structurés par leur contenu propositionnel : ils sont également modulés par un ensemble de modificateurs internes qui interviennent au cœur même de l'énoncé. Le tableau 4 présente ainsi la répartition des différents types de modificateurs internes attestés dans le corpus. Ces éléments, intégrés directement dans la formulation du reproche, jouent un rôle essentiel dans la lecture pragmatique de sa force illocutoire. Leur analyse permet de mieux comprendre les mécanismes linguistiques par lesquels les locuteurs nuancent, intensifient ou redéfinissent la portée de l'acte réprobateur. Nous commençons par les adoucisseurs.

Tableau 4. Modificateurs internes adoucissants

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Type d'adoucisseur	N (%)
Conditionnel	30 (26,8%)
Marqueurs de politesse	7 (6,2%)
Marqueurs de subjectivité	11 (9,8%)
Éléments de minimisation	15 (13,4%)
Stratégies d'évitement	3 (2,7%)
Formules consultatives	19 (17%)
Amadoueurs / marqueurs d'inclusion	20 (17,9%)
Adverbes illocutoires	7 (6,2%)
Total	**112 (100%)**

La distribution met en avant trois principaux adoucisseurs : le conditionnel (26,8 %), les amadoueurs (17,9 %) (ex. « Gars **toi-même** regarde dans quel état est ma veste » ; « **tu sais que** c'est la seule veste qui me reste »), et les formules consultatives (17 %). Ensemble, ils montrent une préférence pour des procédés qui atténuent l'accusation (conditionnel), co-engagent l'interlocuteur (« on », « ensemble ») et ouvrent la porte à la co-négociation (consultatif), réduisant ainsi la menace à la face positive (éviter la stigmatisation) et négative (limiter la contrainte). Les éléments de minimisation (13,4 %) (ex. « Tu pourrais **au moins** exprimer ta désolation », « Tache de prendre **un peu plus** soin des choses que je te prête ») et les marqueurs de subjectivité (9,8 %) (ex. « **Il se peut que** quand tu prenais cette veste elle était vraiment intacte. ») contribuent à relativiser la gravité du tort causé, ce qui amortit l'impact conflictuel. Les marqueurs de politesse (6,2 %) (ex. « **s'il te plait**, répare ma veste avant de me la remettre ») et les adverbes illocutoires (6,2 %) atténuent l'acte, tandis que les stratégies d'évitement (2,7 %), rares, signalent occasionnellement une volonté de dissoudre la mise en cause plutôt que de l'énoncer directement. En bref : le profil d'adoucissement privilégie la coopération discursive (inclusion, consultation) et la modalisation (conditionnel), favorisant des reproches négociables et moins menaçants pour la relation.

Qu'en est-il des intensificateurs ? Le Tableau 5 présente leur distribution dans le corpus.

Tableau 5. Distribution des modificateurs durcisseurs

Type	Sous-catégorie	N (%)
Lexicaux	Adjectifs négatifs	128 (26,2 %)
Lexicaux	Adverbes/locutions (intensité, temporels)	109 (22,3 %)
Lexicaux	Verbes/locutions négatifs	81 (16,6 %)
Lexicaux	Substantifs négatifs	74 (15,2 %)
Lexicaux	Marqueurs d'emphase	37 (7,6 %)
Syntaxiques	Certitude / obligation	38 (7,8 %)
Syntaxiques	Contraste / conséquence	21 (4,3 %)
Total		**488(100 %)**

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

La distribution ci-dessus montre une prédominance nette des durcisseurs lexicaux (87,9 % au total), par rapport aux procédés syntaxiques (12,1 %). Les locuteurs privilégient donc des ressources évaluatives immédiates (des mots qui qualifient, catégorisent, intensifient) plutôt que des configurations syntaxiques plus argumentatives. Ils emploient des adjectifs négatifs (26,2 %) pour exprimer un jugement de valeur sur l'acte ou la personne (ex. «irresponsable », « inacceptable ») et attaquer directement la face positive de l'allocutaire. Ils recourent aussi aux adverbes et locutions d'intensité et temporels (22,3 %) pour souligner l'échelle d'intensité (« vraiment », « complètement ») ou inscrire la faute dans la récurrence (« toujours », « encore », « à chaque fois »), aggravant ainsi la responsabilité perçue. Les verbes et locutions verbales négatifs (16,6 %) sont mis en œuvre pour dire la transgression (« abîmer », « gâcher », « manquer de… ») et relever la responsabilité de l'allocutaire. Les substantifs négatifs (15,2 %) permettent de catégoriser le comportement (« négligence », « méchanceté ») et de durcir le blâme. Enfin, les particules et tournures (7,6 %) sont employés comme marqueurs d'emphase pour booster la force illocutoire et accentuer le reproche. En ce qui concerne les durcisseurs syntaxiques, on relève l'emploi des expressions de certitude et d'obligation (7,8 %), des marqueurs épistémiques (« je sais que… ») et déontiques (« il faut », « tu dois ») qui affichent l'engagement fort et la contrainte, réduisant l'espace de négociation pour l'interlocuteur. A cela s'ajoutent des marqueurs de contraste tels que « pourtant », « alors que » et des marqueurs de conséquence ou de causalité tels que « donc », « par conséquent », etc. (4,3 %), qui servent à présenter l'acte de reproche dans une logique de responsabilité et d'effets. En bref : le répertoire des durcisseurs est celui de reproches centrés sur l'évaluation lexicale, qui met en évidence l'offense et resserre la marge de réponse de l'allocutaire. Les procédés syntaxiques, moins fréquents, servent surtout à verrouiller l'argumentation (certitude/obligation) ou à mettre en scène le manquement par contraste et conséquence.

Après avoir présenté les différentes stratégies de reproche ainsi que les procédés qui les atténuent ou les renforcent, il est désormais essentiel d'examiner comment les destinataires réagissent à ces actes menaçants. La section suivante portera donc sur les formes de réponses mobilisées face aux reproches.

4.4 Réactions au reproche

Les réactions au reproche constituent un indicateur essentiel de la manière dont l'allocutaire gère la menace à sa face et négocie la responsabilité qui lui est attribuée. Selon les enjeux relationnels et interactionnels, l'interlocuteur peut accepter, contester, justifier ou détourner le reproche qui lui est adressé. L'examen de ces réponses permet de mettre en lumière les stratégies discursives mobilisées pour atténuer le conflit, préserver l'image de soi ou rééquilibrer la dynamique entre les participants. L'analyse du corpus vise ainsi à dégager les principaux types de réactions et à en préciser les fonctions pragmatiques. Le Tableau 6 présente la distribution des réactions attestées dans le corpus.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Tableau 6. Distribution des types de réactions aux reproches

Type de réaction	**N (%)**
Excuse	183 (26,6 %)
Justification	146 (21,2 %)
Promesse (solution / non-récidive)	105 (15,3 %)
Reconnaissance de culpabilité	66 (9,6 %)
Exclamation	58 (8,4 %)
Remerciement	35 (5,1 %)
Accord	32 (4,7 %)
Surprise / question polémique / reproche	25 (3,6 %)
Commentaire / annonce	24 (3,5 %)
Contre-attaque / refus de solution	5 (0,7 %)
Relativisation du dommage	5 (0,7 %)
Déni de responsabilité / rejet de faute	4 (0,6 %)
Total	**688 (100 %)**

La distribution révèle que les destinataires mobilisent principalement des **formes conciliantes,** orientées vers la réparation relationnelle. Les **excuses** (26,6 %), en tête, constituent la réponse privilégiée : elles visent à **restaurer la face positive** du locuteur offensé et à rétablir l'équilibre interactionnel en reconnaissant l'atteinte causée. Les **justifications** (21,2 %) occupent la deuxième place. Elles permettent de **contextualiser** l'acte fautif et d'en **atténuer la portée,** sans pour autant rompre l'orientation coopérative. Les **promesses** (15,3 %) complètent cette dynamique : elles projettent une **réparation ou une non-récidive**, rassurant ainsi le locuteur sur la prise en compte de la norme violée. La **reconnaissance explicite de culpabilité** (9,6 %) montre une volonté claire d'assumer la responsabilité, souvent pour désamorcer la tension. D'autres réactions, plus émotionnelles comme les **exclamations** (8,4 %) ou les **surprises/questions polémiques** (3,6 %), signalent une perturbation interactionnelle mais restent minoritaires. Les **remerciements** (5,1 %) et les **accords** (4,7 %) constituent des formes d'alignement qui renforcent la dimension relationnelle du reproche en montrant l'acceptation du cadre imposé par le locuteur. À l'inverse, les réactions **non coopératives** sont très marginales : **contre-attaque** (0,7 %), **relativisation du dommage** (0,7 %), **déni de responsabilité** (0,6 %). Leur faible fréquence indique une **adhésion générale au script normatif du reproche**, fondé sur la reconnaissance, l'apaisement et la réparation. **En somme**, la majorité des réponses vise à **réduire la tension,** à **protéger la relation** et à **réaffirmer les normes de conduite**, montrant que le reproche est globalement traité comme une opportunité de réajustement plutôt que comme un déclencheur de conflit ouvert.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

4.4.1 Les réactions positives

Les **réactions positives** relèvent de stratégies d'apaisement. Elles incluent notamment la **reconnaissance de culpabilité,** les **excuses,** les **justifications** et les **promesses de réparation ou d'amélioration.**

*La **reconnaissance de culpabilité*** fonctionne comme une excuse implicite. Elle se manifeste par des déclarations indiquant que le dommage n'était **pas intentionnel** (ex. « ce n'était pas exprès », « c'était un accident »), par l'**aveu d'inattention** (ex. « je n'ai pas fait attention ») ou par l'**admission de faute** combinée à l'incapacité d'expliquer l'incident (ex. « je ne sais pas ce qui s'est passé », « je ne l'ai pas vu »). Ces énoncés peuvent être répétés ou associés à d'autres stratégies d'atténuation.

L'engagement à réparer constitue une autre réponse positive fréquente. Le destinataire promet de compenser le dommage, souvent en complément d'une excuse ou d'une justification. La réparation peut prendre diverses formes : acheter une veste, la faire coudre (ex. « J'ai un ami tailleur, je vais lui dire de la raccommoder »), ou contribuer financièrement aux frais. Cette promesse vise à rétablir la relation en montrant une prise en charge concrète de la faute. Une autre réponse positive consiste à promettre de mieux se comporter à l'avenir (ex. « Désolé, ça ne se reproduira plus. »). Cette promesse, souvent formulée après un reproche explicite, vise à apaiser la tension et à montrer l'intégration de la norme rappelée.

La justification constitue une stratégie par laquelle l'offenseur minimise sa responsabilité en invoquant des causes externes. Les locuteurs attribuent ainsi le dommage à des facteurs hors de leur contrôle : un fer à repasser défectueux, l'action d'un tiers (« C'est ma petite sœur qui a voulu m'aider à repasser »), une souris, une altercation (ex. « Désolé, j'ai eu à bagarrer avec un idiot là! ») ou même une agression. En externalisant l'origine du problème, ils cherchent à réduire la menace pesant sur leur face et à présenter l'incident comme involontaire ou inévitable.

*La **présentation des excuses*** constitue une réaction positive centrale : elle vise à **réparer symboliquement l'offense** et à permettre la poursuite de l'interaction (Denoyelle 2020). Les excuses peuvent être **simples** (ex. « désolé », « excuse-moi ») ou **complexes**, combinant plusieurs micro-actes (ex. « Excuse-moi, je n'ai pas fait exprès, on va gérer ça »). Trois grands types apparaissent dans le corpus : (a) l'**expression de regret / contrition** : formes elliptiques (« désolé »), constructions telles que « désolé de/pour… », « désolé si… », « je suis désolé/navré ». Elles peuvent être renforcées par des vocatifs, des adverbes d'intensité ou des interjections ; (b) l'**offre d'excuses :** « mes excuses », « toutes mes excuses », « je m'excuse ». Ces formes sont souvent amplifiées par des éléments emphatiques ou relationnels ; et (c) la **demande de pardon** : « excusez-moi », « pardonnez-moi s'il vous plaît », « veuillez m'excuser », « acceptez mes excuses ». Elles s'accompagnent fréquemment de marqueurs de politesse (« s'il vous plaît »), de termes d'adresse (monsieur, madame, mon frère) ou d'interjections. Ces formules sont souvent **cumulées** (ex. « Désolé. Je m'excuse vraiment. ») afin de renforcer la portée réparatrice de l'acte.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

4.4.2 Les réactions négatives

Parmi les réactions négatives au reproche, *la contre-attaque* constitue l'une des stratégies les plus marquées et les plus conflictuelles. L'allocutaire ne se contente pas de rejeter la critique : il retourne le blâme vers le locuteur, en contestant sa légitimité, en dénonçant une incohérence ou en soulignant une faute antérieure. Cette réponse vise non seulement à neutraliser la menace à la face, mais aussi à discréditer la position de l'émetteur du reproche. En rétablissant une forme de symétrie, voire en inversant les rôles, la contre-attaque transforme le reproche en affrontement ouvert et repositionne l'allocutaire comme acteur offensif plutôt que défensif. Elle est actualisée selon la logique : « *Je reconnais ma faute, mais ton comportement est tout aussi critiquable, voire davantage* » (Laforest, 2002 : 1607).

Parmi les stratégies de contre-attaque, le *renvoi du reproche* occupe une place centrale. Il vise à montrer à l'interlocuteur que son reproche menace la face de l'offenseur et qu'il est, de ce fait, inapproprié. Les énoncés utilisés peuvent être déclaratifs, injonctifs ou interrogatifs. L'offenseur mobilise ce procédé pour contester l'évaluation de la situation faite par son interlocuteur. L'échange ci-dessous en est une illustration:

Exemple (5)

1. L1 : *Merde gars, le tour-ci tu as cliqué sur déranger. J'ai plus le choix.*
2. L2 : *Désolé, c'est en repassant que le fer a touché la partie.*
3. L1 : *Vraiment, je ne sais quoi te dire, mais tu dois payer.*
4. L2 : *Mais est-ce que si je pouvais payer, si j'avais cette capacité-là, tu pouvais me voir pointer là devant toi pour demander ta veste ?*

En (5), L1 ouvre l'échange par une formulation clairement chargée d'émotion. Il emploie « *Merde gars* », un marqueur d'exaspération, qui augmente l'intensité du reproche, « *Le tour-ci tu as cliqué sur déranger* », une construction idiomatique soulignant la faute et « *J'ai plus le choix* », l'annonce d'une sanction ou d'une exigence. La première réaction de L2 (tour 2) est une justification sans contre-attaque. Il adopte une stratégie d'atténuation composée d'un acte d'excuse ou de reconnaissance partielle de la faute (« *Désolé* «) et met en avant du caractère accidentel de la faute (« *c'est en repassant que le fer a touché la partie* »). Cette justification vise à réduire la menace à sa face en insistant sur l'absence de volonté de nuisance. L2 se positionne comme non responsable de manière intentionnelle, mais ne rejette pas la faute sur L1. Face à la justification, L1 ne concède rien. Avec « *Vraiment, je ne sais quoi te dire* », il exprime sa résignation, marque la gravité de l'offense et formule une demande de réparation non négociable « *mais tu dois payer* ». Ce mouvement illocutoire marque l'escalade du reproche vers une obligation de réparation et la volonté de clôturer la discussion sur la responsabilité. Le tour 4 montre un changement de stratégie. L2 ne contredit pas la faute, mais conteste la faisabilité et la pertinence de la demande de L1. Avec « *Mais est-ce que si je pouvais payer »,* il met en avant son incapacité économique, et à travers

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

« *tu pouvais me voir pointer là… pour demander ta veste ?* », il cherche à montrer sa bonne foi. En bref : même si l'argument économique ne fonctionne pas ici comme une contre-attaque directe, il peut être considéré comme une résistance argumentée une contestation indirecte de la demande de L1.

Le second type de contre-attaque correspond au *refus explicite de toute réparation*. L'offenseur rejette catégoriquement la demande de compensation, souvent sous la forme d'un défi adressé à l'interlocuteur, signalant ainsi l'interruption de toute négociation. L'exemple suivant en témoigne:

Exemple (6)

1. L1 : *Je ne veux aucun problème avec toi. Paye ma veste.*
2. L2 : *Weeeh mon frère, je suis vraiment désolé.*
3. L1 : *Il n'y a pas de "désolé" qui tienne. Paye ma veste.*
4. L2 : *Ok, je ne paye pas. Fais-moi ce que tu veux.*

En (6), L1 formule un reproche direct accompagné d'une demande de réparation (tour 1). Avec « *Je ne veux aucun problème avec toi* », L1 préface et atténue la demande de réparation « *Paye ma veste* ». Le reproche est explicite et immédiatement orienté vers une obligation de réparation. En guise de réponse, L2 choisit une stratégie polarisée sur la sauvegarde de la face de L1 : à travers le marqueur socio-affectif « *Weeeh mon frère* », il recherche de la proximité relationnelle et formule une excuse explicite (« *je suis vraiment désolé* »). Cette réaction tente de désamorcer la tension, sans remettre en cause ni la faute, ni la légitimité du reproche, ni la hiérarchie interactionnelle. L1 rejette catégoriquement la tentative d'apaisement (tour 3) en invalidant l'excuse (« *Il n'y a pas de "désolé" qui tienne »)* et répète la demande (« *Paye ma veste* »). Ainsi, L1 refuse toute mitigation et réaffirme la responsabilité de L2. Ce dernier abandonne le terrain de la justification et opère un glissement vers la confrontation ouverte. A cet effet, il formule un refus explicite de la réparation demandée (« *Ok, je ne paye pas »* et adresse un défi implicite à L1 (« *Fais-moi ce que tu veux. »*). Cette réponse résulte d'un mélange de résistance et de provocation. Elle signale l'échec des stratégies d'apaisement, l'abandon de la négociation et une rupture interactionnelle où L2 ne cherche plus à préserver ni la relation ni sa face positive. C'est une contre-résistance, distincte de la contre-attaque : elle n'accuse pas L1, mais rejette la contrainte et renvoie au locuteur la responsabilité du conflit.

Un autre type de réaction négative consiste pour l'offenseur à *rejeter toute responsabilité* en attribuant la faute à un facteur externe, selon la logique : *« ce n'est pas ma faute »*. Dans l'exemple suivant, l'offenseur met en cause la mauvaise qualité de la veste, assimilée, dans l'imaginaire populaire camerounais, aux produits « chinois », perçus comme peu durables, afin de se dédouaner du reproche.

Exemple (7)

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

1. L1 : *Mon frère, ça c'est quel way comme ça ?*
2. L2 : *Gars laisse comme ça, la veste-là c'est le chinois seulement.*
3. L1 : *Tu vas seulement buy l'autre pour me donner, moi je ne prends pas ça.*
4. L2 : *Mon frère, c'est comment non ? On va s'arranger.*

Le rejet de la faute échoue toutefois, puisque L1 maintient sa demande de réparation, ce qui conduit L2 à adopter un ton conciliant et à proposer un arrangement.

4.4.3 Les réactions mitigées

Les réactions mitigées, moins fréquentes dans le corpus, combinent des éléments de réactions positives et négatives. Elles apparaissent lorsque l'offenseur manifeste une volonté apparente de coopérer tout en exprimant simultanément un mécontentement ou une réserve. Dans ce cas, la demande de réparation est interprétée comme une contrainte, ce qui permet à l'offenseur de marquer implicitement son désaccord ou son irritation.

Exemple (8)

1. L1 : *Wéeh mon gars ! Qu'est-ce que tu as fait sur ma veste ?*
2. L2 : *Oh, excusez-moi, c'est un accident.*
3. L1 : *Ça jamais ! Tu dois payer à nouvelle.*
4. L2 : *Ok. Comme c'est une obligation.*

Dans cet exemple, l'offenseur accepte la réparation, mais l'expression *« comme c'est une obligation »* manifeste une certaine irritation. Elle révèle ainsi la coexistence d'une acceptation de façade et d'une contestation implicite. L'exemple suivant, en revanche, présente une dynamique tout à fait différente.

Exemple (9)

1. L1 : *A zambe wam. Ça, c'est quoi ça !*
2. L2 : *Eeh copine, moi-même ça m'a wanda. Ton habit est trop fragile ; je ne sais même pas comment ça s'est déchiré.*
3. L1 : *Ce n'est pas mon problème. Tu vas seulement rembourser.*
4. L2 : *Ekiié, toi aussi, c'était seulement combien ? On va gérer, laisse.*

En (9), L1 ouvre l'échange par une exclamation émotionnellement marquée (*A zambe wam*), qui signale à la fois la surprise et l'indignation. L'interrogation *« Ça, c'est quoi ça ! »* fonctionne comme un reproche implicite : il s'agit d'une question rhétorique qui indexe la faute sans la formuler explicitement. En réponse, L2 adopte une posture de désengagement de la responsabilité. Plusieurs stratégies sont alors mobilisées : (a) **l'atténuation de la responsabilité** : avec *« moi-*

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

même ça m'a wanda », L2 exprime sa surprise et suggère qu'elle n'avait pas le contrôle sur l'événement ; (b) **le déplacement de la cause** : en affirmant *« ton habit est trop fragile »*, elle tente d'attribuer la responsabilité à la nature de l'objet ; (c) **l'ignorance revendiquée** : *« Je ne sais même pas comment ça s'est déchiré »* lui permet d'esquiver ouvertement toute implication. L1 rejette explicitement ces tentatives de justification (*« Ce n'est pas mon problème »*) et réaffirme la responsabilité personnelle de L2. Avec la directive *« Tu vas seulement rembourser »*, L1 passe du reproche à l'exigence de réparation. La seconde réaction de L2 (tour 4) combine alors minimisation et réorientation relationnelle. Elle cherche à désamorcer la tension à travers les éléments suivants : *« Ekiee toi aussi »*, marqueur socio-affectif de rapprochement ; *« c'était seulement combien ? »*, qui minimise la gravité et requalifie l'enjeu comme mineur ; *« On va gérer, laisse »*, qui introduit un mouvement de réconciliation et une tentative de clôture de l'incident. Cette réaction ne constitue pas une contre-attaque, mais plutôt une stratégie de **mitigation relationnelle,** visant à apaiser L1 tout en évitant de reconnaître pleinement la faute.

4.4.4 Les autres types de réactions

Au-delà des réactions qui relèvent clairement de la politesse (acceptation du reproche) ou de l'impolitesse (rejet du reproche), le corpus met en évidence un ensemble de réponses intermédiaires. Celles-ci prennent principalement la forme d'expressions de surprise ou de questions visant à clarifier la visée illocutoire de l'interlocuteur. Ces réactions peuvent signaler (a) une tentative de compréhension de l'intention communicative (questions de clarification) ou (b) une remise en question implicite du reproche (expressions de surprise). Dans ces cas, l'offenseur peut reconnaître l'offense tout en cherchant à minimiser le dommage, notamment en exprimant différentes émotions telles que la surprise, la gêne ou la peine. Ces exclamations et commentaires, parfois anticipés ou ajoutés en marge de la réponse principale, accompagnent aussi bien les réactions positives que négatives et contribuent à nuancer la dynamique interactionnelle.

L'analyse des mécanismes interactionnels observés jusqu'ici met en lumière la diversité des stratégies mobilisées par les offenseurs pour répondre aux reproches. Au-delà des choix visant à accepter, rejeter ou atténuer la faute, un autre élément mérite une attention particulière : **l'usage des formes nominales d'adresse (FNA),** souvent décisif dans la gestion de la relation et de la face. C'est dans cette perspective que s'inscrit la section suivante. Elle examine les **128 formes nominales d'adresse** relevées dans les réactions des offenseurs, en cherchant à comprendre leurs **fonctions** dans la dynamique du reproche.

4.5 Fonctions pragmatiques des formes nominales d'adresse

L'analyse des 128 formes nominales d'adresse (FNA) employées par les offenseurs met en évidence une mobilisation marquée des ressources relationnelles dans la gestion interactionnelle des reproches. Les termes affectifs (58,6 %), les appellatifs de parenté (34,4 %) et, dans une moindre mesure, les termes à connotation intime (7 %) constituent autant de moyens linguistiques visant à moduler l'impact du blâme. Leur distribution témoigne d'une stratégie systématique

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

d'atténuation : ces expressions servent avant tout à réduire la tension inhérente à l'acte réprobateur et à maintenir l'équilibre socio-affectif de l'échange. D'un point de vue pragmatique, les FNA jouent un rôle central dans la négociation de la face. Elles permettent à l'offenseur de rappeler la solidarité préexistante tout en tempérant la menace que représente la situation de reproche. En convoquant explicitement une relation amicale, fraternelle ou affective, l'interlocuteur reconfigure l'interaction dans un cadre où la continuité relationnelle prévaut sur l'incident ponctuel. Les FNA fonctionnent ainsi comme des marqueurs d'alignement interactionnel (Stivers et al., 2011), soulignant la volonté de maintenir la coopération discursive malgré la tension générée par le blâme. Du point de vue des fonctions interactionnelles, ces formes opèrent comme de véritables stratégies de mitigation. Dans les réactions positives, elles renforcent l'acceptation du reproche, facilitent l'apaisement de la tension et rendent la réparation plus aisément négociable. Dans les réactions négatives, elles atténuent la portée du désaccord, rappelant les liens sociaux pour empêcher que la contestation ne débouche sur une rupture ou une escalade conflictuelle. Autrement dit, les formes nominales d'adresse agissent comme des outils d'apaisement interactionnel. Leur usage permet de recontextualiser le reproche non pas comme une attaque frontale, mais comme un événement situé dans une relation caractérisée par la proximité, la familiarité ou la solidarité. Ce recours récurrent montre que la gestion des reproches ne se limite pas à la dimension argumentative ou rationnelle de l'échange : elle repose tout autant sur la mobilisation explicite du lien relationnel, conçue comme une ressource pragmatique pour réguler la tension, préserver la face et assurer la continuité harmonieuse de l'interaction.

L'examen des formes nominales d'adresse a montré combien les ressources relationnelles structurent la gestion interactionnelle des reproches. Toutefois, les dynamiques de politesse et de mitigation ne reposent pas uniquement sur ces termes d'adresse : elles s'inscrivent également dans un ensemble plus large de ressources sociolinguistiques propres au contexte camerounais. C'est précisément cette dimension que la section suivante explore.

4.6 Ressources sociolinguistiques, reproches et réactions

La créativité langagière qui émerge dans les interactions, qu'il s'agisse du mélange codique, du lexique camerounisé (*costa, wé, dernière valise*), de phraséologies idiomatiques (*tu as cliqué sur déranger*) ou encore d'interjections locales (*A zambe wam, ekie, I say hein*), constitue une ressource interactionnelle majeure dans la gestion de la politesse au sens relationnel et situationnel du terme. Ces pratiques linguistiques, profondément enracinées dans le répertoire communicatif camerounais, ne relèvent pas d'un simple décor linguistique : elles participent activement à l'organisation du blâme, de sa réception et des mécanismes de réparation.

Sur le plan pragmatique, ces ressources contribuent à la négociation continue de la face et à la mise en œuvre de stratégies de politesse adaptées au contexte culturel local (ex. la construction du "we-code"). Les ressources sociolinguistiques localisées renforcent la gestion de la face collective en instaurant un cadre interactionnel fondé sur la proximité et l'appartenance partagée. La

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

construction du « we-code » permet de créer un climat de complicité, réduire la distance interactionnelle et réaffirmer la cohésion sociale malgré l'acte réprobateur. Certains éléments expressifs, à savoir les interjections, phraséologies idiomatiques, intensifications ou dramatisations humoristiques, etc. contribuent à diminuer la force impositive du reproche ou de la réponse au reproche. Ces procédés permettent de déplacer subtilement le cadre de l'évaluation, de réduire la pression interactionnelle et de signaler que l'interlocuteur ne cherche pas à aggraver l'offense. Cette mise en scène sociolinguistique protège la face négative de l'autre en minimisant le caractère frontal ou agressif de la situation. Elle constitue donc une forme d'adoucissement interactionnel particulièrement adaptée aux contextes de familiarité. Les exclamations telles que *A zambe wam* ou *I say hein* illustrent des formes hybrides, à la fois émotionnelles et relationnelles. Elles remplissent une fonction double : (a) dramatiser l'événement pour lui donner une coloration expressive et (b) dédramatiser la situation en maintenant un cadre convivial.

On pourrait dire que ces formes linguistiques montrent que les reproches ne sont pas seulement des actes de régulation sociale, mais aussi des lieux privilégiés où s'expriment la créativité, l'identité linguistique et les valeurs relationnelles des locuteurs.

5. Conclusion

Les résultats montrent que, dans les échanges réprobateurs entre amis au Cameroun, les interlocuteurs privilégient globalement une dynamique d'apaisement et de préservation du lien social. Les réactions majoritaires, excuses, justifications, promesses de réparation, témoignent d'une volonté de restaurer non seulement l'objet endommagé, mais surtout la relation elle-même. Même lorsque les participants recourent à des formes expressives ou intensifiées, celles-ci relèvent davantage de l'expressivité socio-affective propre aux interactions familières que d'une intention véritablement conflictuelle. Les modificateurs pragmatiques, en particulier les **formes nominales d'adresse** et les **marqueurs de subjectivité**, jouent un rôle fondamental dans la gestion de la tension. Leur fonction est double : d'une part, elles atténuent la charge accusatoire du reproche ; d'autre part, elles ancrent l'échange dans un cadre relationnel solidaire, où l'affiliation prévaut sur la confrontation. Parallèlement, les **ressources linguistiques localisées**, par exemple interjections, mélange codique, phraséologies camerounaises, opèrent comme des outils d'intimité et de proximité, rappelant l'appartenance commune même au cœur de la critique. Ces procédés réaffirment la dimension relationnelle de l'interaction et facilitent le maintien de l'harmonie.

Par ailleurs, l'étude met en évidence que les locuteurs recourent à un ensemble de stratégies diversifiées pour formuler les reproches, révélant une grande sensibilité à l'équilibre interactionnel. Les reproches **directs**, souvent expressifs ou intensifiés, apparaissent majoritairement dans des contextes de forte proximité où la relation offre un espace sécurisé pour exprimer le désaccord sans risque de rupture. À côté de ces formes directes, les locuteurs mobilisent également des stratégies **atténuées**, reproches indirects, formulations interrogatives, allusions, marques d'étonnement ou d'incrédulité, qui permettent de dire le mécontentement de

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

manière moins menaçante. Ces procédés contribuent à adoucir la composante évaluative de l'acte tout en maintenant la nature normative du reproche. Enfin, les **ressources sociolinguistiques locales** (interjections, idiomatismes, tonalités humoristiques) soutiennent ces stratégies en rendant la critique plus acceptable. Ainsi, la formulation du reproche elle-même participe au **travail relationnel** : elle oscille entre la nécessité d'énoncer la transgression et la volonté de préserver la solidarité amicale, confirmant que le reproche est une activité finement calibrée, ajustée, et orientée vers la préservation de la relation.

La rareté des réactions négatives, combinée à la fréquence des enchaînements consensuels ou mixtes, confirme que la confrontation ouverte constitue un schéma interactionnel non préféré. De manière générale, les locuteurs mobilisent un répertoire riche de stratégies qui permettent de gérer efficacement la menace à la face tout en préservant la cohésion amicale. Le reproche ne se présente donc pas comme un affront direct, mais comme un espace de négociation où l'objectif premier est de maintenir l'équilibre relationnel. En d'autres termes : le **reproche entre amis en contexte camerounais**, tel qu'il s'actualise dans le corpus étudié, relève avant tout d'un **travail relationnel**, visant moins à sanctionner qu'à rappeler une norme tout en préservant la solidarité. Les participants combinent **expressivité**, **mitigation** et **ressources sociolinguistiques localisées** pour réguler la tension, réaffirmer la relation et reconstruire l'harmonie interactionnelle. Le système interactionnel observé valorise clairement la **coopération**, la **réconciliation** et la **réparation** au détriment de l'escalade ou de la rupture.

Rappelons, toutefois, que les résultats présentés ci-dessus ne peuvent pas être généralisés, compte tenu de la nature du corpus employé. Des **travaux futurs** devraient approfondir les analyses effectuées, en comparant par exemple, ces pratiques à d'autres types de relations/situations, par exemple hiérarchiques ou entre inconnus, afin de déterminer dans quelle mesure les stratégies observées sont liées à la proximité relationnelle. L'intégration d'une **analyse multimodale** (gestuelle, prosodique, posturale) permettrait également de mieux comprendre le rôle de l'expressivité corporelle et vocale dans la gestion des reproches et de leurs réponses, et d'affiner la description des procédés d'atténuation et d'alignement à l'œuvre dans ces interactions.

Références bibliographiques

Boxer, D. (1993). Social distance and speech behavior: The case of indirect complaints. *Journal of Pragmatics, 19*(2), 103–124. https://doi.org/10.1016/0378-2166(93)90084-3

Boxer, D. (1993). Complaints as positive strategies: What the learner needs to know. *TESOL Quarterly, 27*(2), 277–299.

Brown, P., & Levinson, S. (1987). *Politeness: Some universals in language usage*. Cambridge University Press.

Denoyelle, Corinne (2006). « Du reproche à la polémique : la mise en place de la violence verbale dans quelques œuvres du XIIe et du XIIIe siècles ». *Études médiévales*, 150–161.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Edmondson, Willis (1981). « On saying you're sorry ». In Florian Coulmas (éd.), *Conversational Routine. Explorations in Standardized Communication Situations and Prepatterned Speech. Mouton* (pp. 273–288). https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110809145

Eggs, Ekkehard (2008). « Le pathos dans le discours – exclamation, reproche, ironie ». In Rinn, M. (éd.), *Émotions et Discours. L'usage des passions dans la langue*. Presses Universitaires de Rennes, 291–320.

El-Dakhs, D. A. S. & Ahmed, M. M. (2023). A pragmatic analysis of students' complaints and professors' responses to complaints: A case study of an Egyptian private university. *Cogent Arts & Humanities* 10(1). DOI: 10.1080/23311983.2023.2252634

El-Dakhs, D. A. S., & Ibrahim, N. G. (2022). Egyptian parents' responses to children's complaints: Focusing on the influence of sex and age. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 200, 52–72.

Goffman, E. (1967). *Interaction ritual: Essays on face-to-face behavior*. Anchor Books.

Jobert, Manuel (2010). « L'impolitesse linguistique : vers un nouveau paradigme de recherche ?». *Lexis*, HS 2. https://doi.org/10.4000/lexis.777.

Kerbrat-Orecchioni, C. (2005a). *Les actes de langage dans le discours : Théorie et fonctionnement*. Paris : Armand Colin. (ISBN 2200340842).

Kerbrat-Orecchioni, C. (2005b). *Le discours en interaction*. Paris : Armand Colin.

Laforest, M. (2002). Scenes of family life: Complaining in everyday conversation. *Journal of Pragmatics, 34*(10–11), 1595–1620. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-2166(02)00077-2

Migdadi, F., Badarneh, M. A., & Momani, K. (2012). Public complaints and complaint responses in calls to a Jordanian radio phone-in program. *Applied Linguistics, 33*(3), 321–341. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/ams011

Stivers, T., Mondada, L., & Steensig, J. (Eds.). (2011). *The morality of knowledge in conversation*. Cambridge University Press.

Received: 02.20.2026
Revised: 02.27.2026
Accepted: 03.15.2026
Published: 03.20.2026

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Euro-Global Journal of Linguistics and Language Education
ISSN 3030-1394 /online/

Vol. 3 No. 1 (2026) Pavasaris

From Mimesis to Narrative Modeling: The Evolution of Artistic Representation in Literature

[1] Nuride Ganbarova, [2] Flora Mirzeyeva, [3] Namiq Abbasov

https://doi.org/10.69760/egjlle.26010012

Abstract. This article examines the historical transformation of the object of artistic representation in literature, arguing that literary representation should be understood not as simple reflection but as a form of aesthetic and cognitive construction. The study aims to define the object of artistic representation, trace its evolution across major literary paradigms, and identify the new forms of the artistic world emerging in twenty-first-century literature. Methodologically, the article combines comparative literary analysis, philosophical aesthetics, narratology, and cultural theory. The discussion begins with the classical concept of mimesis in Aristotle, where literature is associated with the representation of possibility rather than mechanical imitation. It then analyzes realism through the works of Leo Tolstoy and Fyodor Dostoevsky, modernism through Franz Kafka, and postmodern narrative multiplicity through the prose of Olga Tokarczuk. Particular attention is given to the shift from external reality to inner experience, discursive plurality, memory, trauma, documentary hybridity, and digital mediality. The article concludes that the object of artistic representation is historically dynamic and that literature functions as an autonomous system of meaning production, a cultural laboratory, and an epistemological tool through which reality is modeled, interpreted, and reimagined.

Keywords: artistic representation, mimesis, artistic world, narrative modeling

Introduction

The problem of the object of artistic representation remains one of the central and enduring questions in literary theory and aesthetics. Since antiquity, literature has often been understood as a form of representation connected to reality, yet the exact nature of this relationship continues to provoke debate. At

[1] Ganbarova, N. Nakhchivan State University, Azerbaijan. Email: nurideqenberova@ndu.edu.az. ORCID: https://orcid.org/0009-0007-1620-2343

[2] Mirzoeva, F. Nakhchivan State University, Azerbaijan. Email: Floramizeyeva@gmail.com. ORCID: https://orcid.org/0009-0001-9683-6720

[3] Abbasov, N. Nakhchivan State University, Azerbaijan. Email: namiqabbasov@ndu.edu.az. ORCID: https://orcid.org/0009-0002-2533-9257

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

the heart of the discussion lies a fundamental tension: does literature merely reflect the external world, or does it actively construct a new artistic reality of its own? This question has become especially important in modern and contemporary criticism, where literary texts are increasingly viewed not as passive mirrors of life but as dynamic systems of meaning-production. As a result, the object of artistic representation can no longer be reduced to the simple reproduction of facts, events, or social environments; rather, it must be examined as an aesthetically and culturally mediated form of world-making.

A review of existing scholarship shows that many studies address artistic representation within separate literary periods or theoretical frameworks. Classical realism, modernism, postmodernism, and contemporary literature are often analyzed independently, with emphasis placed on their specific stylistic or ideological features. However, relatively few studies offer a continuous model that traces how the object of artistic representation evolves historically from mimesis to more complex forms of narrative and cultural modeling. This fragmentation in scholarship makes it difficult to understand the broader logic of literary development and the ways in which changing concepts of reality reshape the artistic world.

The aim of this article is to define the object of artistic representation and to examine its historical transformation across major literary and theoretical paradigms. The study seeks, first, to clarify the conceptual meaning of artistic representation in relation to philosophical and literary thought; second, to trace the evolution of this category from classical aesthetics through realism, modernism, and postmodernism; and third, to identify the new forms of artistic world-making that emerge in twenty-first-century literature, particularly in connection with memory, trauma, intermediality, and digital narrative structures.

Methodologically, the study is based on comparative literary analysis, which makes it possible to examine different literary epochs in relation to one another and to identify both continuity and rupture in the development of artistic representation. The article also draws on philosophical aesthetics in order to interpret the ontological status of the artistic world, as well as on narratology and cultural theory to analyze how literary texts construct meaning, organize temporal and spatial experience, and interact with broader cultural discourses. Such an interdisciplinary approach allows the object of artistic representation to be considered not only as a literary category but also as a cultural and epistemological one.

1. Theoretical Foundations of Artistic Representation

1.1. Mimesis Reconsidered

The concept of mimesis traditionally serves as the point of departure for discussions of artistic representation. In its most simplified interpretation, mimesis is understood as imitation, that is, the reproduction of reality in artistic form. However, such a definition does not fully reflect the complexity of the concept as it appears in classical philosophy, especially in Aristotle's *Poetics*. For Aristotle, the poet does not merely copy what exists in empirical reality; rather, poetry represents what could happen according to probability or necessity. In this sense, literature is oriented not toward isolated factual events but toward generalized structures of human action and experience. Artistic representation therefore emerges as a creative act of selecting, shaping, and organizing reality into a meaningful whole.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

This Aristotelian view leads to an essential distinction between historical truth and poetic truth. The historian is concerned with what actually happened, whereas the poet is concerned with what is universally possible within the logic of human existence. Historical discourse records concrete facts; poetic discourse reveals patterns, meanings, and existential possibilities. Thus, from the very beginning, artistic representation cannot be understood as mere duplication. It is already interpretive, selective, and ontologically distinct from empirical reality. Mimesis, therefore, should be reconsidered not as mechanical imitation but as a form of aesthetic modeling.

1.2. Artistic World as Semiotic System

A more modern theoretical understanding of artistic representation emerges in semiotic approaches to literature, especially in the work of Yuri Lotman. According to Lotman, literature functions as a "secondary modeling system," meaning that it does not simply reproduce the primary reality of language and culture but reorganizes it into a new signifying structure. The literary text creates its own internal world, governed by specific aesthetic, symbolic, and semantic relations. This understanding fundamentally shifts the discussion of artistic representation from imitation to construction.

From this perspective, the artistic world is not a passive reflection of life but an active meaning-generating system. Literary representation transforms raw experience into culturally mediated form. Characters, events, spaces, and temporal structures become elements of a semiotic whole in which meaning is produced through relationships, oppositions, metaphors, and narrative organization. The object of representation, therefore, is not reality "as such" but reality as interpreted, encoded, and restructured through literary form. Such a view expands the role of literature: it becomes not only an artistic practice but also a cognitive and cultural mechanism through which societies imagine and reinterpret themselves.

1.3. Ontology of the Artistic World

The question of the artistic world inevitably leads to an ontological problem: what kind of reality does literature create? The artistic world possesses a degree of autonomy that distinguishes it both from empirical reality and from purely abstract concepts. Although literature may draw upon historical events, social conditions, or psychological experience, the world it constructs is not identical to the factual world outside the text. It is an aesthetic reality shaped by authorial intention, genre conventions, symbolic organization, and readerly interpretation.

This distinction between empirical and aesthetic reality is crucial for understanding the object of artistic representation. Empirical reality consists of concrete, observable phenomena, whereas aesthetic reality is a mediated and structured form of experience organized according to artistic principles. The literary text does not simply present the world; it reconstitutes it through narrative perspective, value orientation, temporality, and symbolic form. As a result, the artistic world must be treated as an autonomous ontological domain, one that interacts with external reality but cannot be reduced to it.

The autonomy of literary reality does not imply isolation from life. On the contrary, the artistic world remains deeply connected to historical, cultural, and existential experience. Yet its power lies precisely in its ability to transform this experience into a new mode of being and understanding. Literature creates worlds that are neither wholly fictional nor merely documentary; they occupy an intermediate space where

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

reality is aesthetically reimagined. This understanding provides the conceptual framework for the present article: artistic representation is viewed not as a simple mirror of the world but as a complex form of modeling through which literature constructs its own meaningful reality.

2. Realism and the Philosophy of Historical Experience

2.1. Realism Beyond Reflection

Nineteenth-century realism is often described as a literary movement oriented toward the faithful representation of reality. However, such a definition becomes reductive if realism is understood merely as descriptive accuracy or surface correspondence with the external world. In theoretical terms, realism is far more than reflection: it is an interpretive mode through which literature reveals the essential structures of historical and social existence. Georg Lukács, one of the major theorists of realism, argued that genuine literary realism lies in the ability to depict "typical characters in typical circumstances," thereby disclosing the totality of historical life through particular situations and destinies. In this sense, realism does not copy reality but penetrates its internal logic.

The category of totality is especially important here. Realist literature seeks to connect individual experience with broader historical processes, social contradictions, and ethical conflicts. The represented world is not a neutral empirical environment; it is an ideologically and philosophically charged structure in which the personal and the collective intersect. Therefore, the object of artistic representation in realism is not the isolated fact but historically mediated human existence. What realism offers is not a photograph of reality but an interpretive vision of the forces shaping life. This is why realism must be understood as a mode of cognition as much as a literary style.

2.2. Tolstoy: History as Existential Process

The works of Leo Tolstoy provide one of the clearest examples of realism as a philosophy of historical experience. In *War and Peace*, historical events are not presented as a mere sequence of documented facts or political actions. Rather, history becomes a multidimensional field in which individual consciousness, ethical choice, and collective destiny are intertwined. Tolstoy rejects the notion that history is made exclusively by great leaders or isolated acts of will. Instead, he shows history as a living process shaped by countless human interactions, perceptions, and moral responses.

This approach transforms the object of artistic representation. Time in Tolstoy is not simply chronological; it is existential. Characters pass through moments of crisis, self-discovery, disillusionment, and spiritual testing, and these experiences are inseparable from the historical world surrounding them. Causality, likewise, is not presented in a straightforward mechanical form but as a complex interplay of contingency, necessity, and human limitation. Tolstoy's realism thus models history as an inner as well as outer process. The artistic world does not only represent the Napoleonic era; it reimagines history as a sphere of moral trial in which personal meaning and collective events become inseparable.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

2.3. Dostoevsky: Polyphony and Consciousness

If Tolstoy expands realism toward a philosophy of history, Fyodor Dostoevsky transforms it into a drama of consciousness. According to Mikhail Bakhtin, Dostoevsky's novels are fundamentally polyphonic: they do not subordinate all voices to a single authorial perspective but allow characters to exist as autonomous centers of meaning. Each consciousness in Dostoevsky's fiction possesses its own ideological and existential weight, and the novel becomes a dialogic space in which conflicting truths confront one another without being fully resolved.

This polyphonic structure signals an important shift in the object of artistic representation. The focus moves away from the external social world as such and toward the inner conflict of ideas, values, and worldviews. Society remains present, but it is refracted through ideological struggle and psychological intensity. In Dostoevsky's artistic world, reality is not simply social circumstance; it is the encounter of competing consciousnesses, each trying to define truth, morality, and freedom. The represented world becomes a field of intellectual and spiritual confrontation.

Thus, realism in Dostoevsky exceeds external observation and enters the sphere of ontological and ethical inquiry. The novel does not imitate social life in a narrow sense; it stages the collision of human selves and philosophical positions. This confirms that realism is better understood as interpretation rather than imitation. It reveals not only what exists but also the conflicting meanings through which existence is experienced and contested.

The realist tradition, therefore, must be seen as a major stage in the transformation of artistic representation. It preserves the link between literature and reality, yet it already demonstrates that literature does not merely reflect the world but organizes it into an intelligible and value-laden artistic totality.

3. Modernism and the Crisis of Representation

3.1. Collapse of Objective Reality

The transition from realism to modernism marks one of the most decisive turning points in the history of artistic representation. The realist belief in a coherent, knowable world gradually gives way to a profound sense of fragmentation, instability, and epistemological uncertainty. The twentieth century, shaped by war, urban alienation, technological acceleration, and philosophical doubt, undermined the assumption that reality could be represented as an ordered and objective whole. Modernist literature reflects this crisis not by offering stable images of the world but by foregrounding rupture, ambiguity, and disorientation.

In modernism, the object of artistic representation shifts from socially structured external reality to the unstable experience of consciousness itself. The world is no longer transparent; it appears fractured, elusive, and often resistant to interpretation. Narrative loses its confidence in linear development and unified perspective. Instead, it begins to represent reality as discontinuous and

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

mediated through subjective perception. The modernist artistic world is therefore shaped by uncertainty: objects, events, and identities lose their fixed meanings, and the literary text becomes a site where instability is not resolved but exposed.

3.2. Kafka: Absurdity and Alienation

The prose of Franz Kafka is emblematic of this modernist crisis of representation. In Kafka's works, reality appears governed by obscure forces, irrational structures, and inaccessible systems of authority. Ordinary settings become uncanny, legal and bureaucratic mechanisms turn incomprehensible, and characters find themselves trapped in worlds whose logic they cannot fully grasp. This is not realism in the classical sense, even though Kafka's texts often begin with recognizable situations. Rather, they produce an artistic reality in which estrangement and absurdity reveal the hidden violence and opacity of modern existence.

Kafka's world is not a simple fantasy detached from reality; it is an allegorical intensification of alienation. Its distorted logic expresses a deeper truth about human vulnerability in the face of impersonal institutions and existential uncertainty. The represented reality is therefore symbolic rather than mimetic in a narrow sense. External events matter less than the experience of anxiety, guilt, powerlessness, and incomprehension. In this way, Kafka redefines the object of artistic representation: literature no longer aims to present reality as stable and intelligible but to reveal its fracture, ambiguity, and existential threat.

3.3. Narrative Transformation

The crisis of representation in modernism also manifests itself in the transformation of narrative form. Techniques such as stream of consciousness, interior monologue, and fragmented chronology emerge as responses to the inability of conventional narration to capture the complexity of modern experience. Writers such as James Joyce and Virginia Woolf turn away from external event-centered storytelling and instead explore the fluidity of thought, memory, perception, and duration. Time becomes subjective, layered, and nonlinear.

Paul Ricoeur's reflections on narrative and temporality are especially relevant here. Narrative, in his view, is not merely a container for events; it is a structure through which human beings organize the experience of time. If narrative form changes, then the represented reality changes as well. In modernist literature, fractured narration reflects fractured existence. The text no longer guarantees coherence but dramatizes the difficulty of constructing meaning in a disordered world.

As a result, the object of artistic representation moves decisively from the external world to inner experience. Modernism does not abandon reality; it relocates reality within consciousness, temporality, and existential perception. The artistic world becomes less a representation of objective order than a mode of exploring the instability of human experience itself.

4. Postmodernism and Narrative Multiplicity

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

4.1. Reality as Discourse

If modernism questions the stability of reality, postmodernism goes further by challenging the very idea of a single, unified truth. In postmodern thought, reality is increasingly understood as mediated by language, ideology, discourse, and cultural codes. What appears to be "the real" is no longer assumed to exist as an immediately accessible object outside representation; rather, it is seen as something constructed through narratives, signs, and interpretive frameworks. Literature, therefore, does not merely depict reality but participates in its discursive production.

This perspective profoundly alters the object of artistic representation. Instead of representing a stable external world or a coherent inner consciousness, postmodern literature foregrounds plurality, instability, and textuality. Truth becomes multiple, contingent, and self-questioning. The literary text often refuses closure, disrupts hierarchy, and undermines the authority of grand narratives. Consequently, artistic representation becomes inseparable from the critical examination of how realities are produced, circulated, and legitimized.

4.2. Tokarczuk and Fragmented Worlds

The prose of Olga Tokarczuk offers a productive example of postmodern and contemporary narrative multiplicity. Her works frequently organize the artistic world through fragments, routes, constellations, and interconnected micro-narratives rather than through a single linear plot. Space becomes mobile, history becomes dispersed, and identity is shaped through movement, memory, and cultural layering. Such narrative structures reflect a world no longer grasped through totalizing systems but through partial perspectives and relational patterns.

In Tokarczuk's fiction, the object of artistic representation is not a fixed reality but a network of experiences, stories, and symbolic crossings. Her narrative worlds function like maps rather than mirrors: they do not reproduce reality in a direct way but chart its complexity through mobility, juxtaposition, and multiplicity. This form of artistic construction reveals that literature can represent the world precisely by refusing to simplify it. Fragmentation here is not merely formal experimentation; it is a way of modeling contemporary experience.

4.3. Self-Reflexive Narration

An essential characteristic of postmodern literature is self-reflexivity. The text not only narrates events but also draws attention to its own status as a constructed artifact. Linda Hutcheon's concept of historiographic metafiction is especially useful in this regard. Such texts engage history, memory, and identity while simultaneously exposing the textual mechanisms through which these are narrated. They reconstruct the past and question its narrativization at the same time.

Hayden White's theory of historical narrative reinforces this point by showing that history itself is shaped through literary forms such as emplotment, tropes, and rhetorical structures. If historical discourse is already narrative, then the boundary between literature and history becomes less

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

absolute than traditional theory assumed. Both are modes of constructing meaning rather than transparent windows onto reality.

In postmodernism, therefore, literature begins to represent its own procedures of representation. The object of artistic representation includes not only the world but also the mechanisms through which the world is textualized. This marks a major development in literary history: the artistic world becomes self-aware, critical, and reflexive. Literature represents not simply reality, but its own participation in the making of reality.

5. Contemporary Literature: New Forms of Artistic Reality

5.1. Literature of Memory and Trauma

In twenty-first-century literature, the object of artistic representation expands even further, particularly through the growing importance of memory and trauma. Literary texts increasingly engage with personal testimony, collective remembrance, post-conflict experience, and the afterlives of historical violence. In this context, Jan Assmann's concept of cultural memory is highly relevant. Cultural memory does not merely preserve the past; it actively shapes collective identity by selecting, organizing, and transmitting shared narratives.

Literature functions here as a mediator between individual experience and historical consciousness. The represented world includes not only what happened but also how it is remembered, silenced, inherited, or reimagined. Trauma literature, in particular, often resists linear representation, since traumatic experience itself tends to disrupt chronological order, coherent narration, and stable identity. Thus, the artistic world becomes a space where absence, rupture, and memory work are central forms of representation.

5.2. Documentary and Hybrid Forms

Another important development in contemporary literature is the rise of documentary and hybrid forms. Fiction increasingly incorporates archival materials, witness accounts, historical documents, photographs, letters, and autobiographical fragments. These hybrid modes blur the traditional boundaries between fiction and non-fiction, literary imagination and factual reference. The literary text no longer depends solely on invented worlds; it often constructs its artistic reality through the montage of heterogeneous materials.

This development does not mean that literature becomes less artistic. On the contrary, the integration of documentary forms creates new aesthetic possibilities. Archive, testimony, and fiction interact to produce more complex modes of truth. The object of artistic representation thus includes not only events and characters but also traces, records, and mediated evidences of reality. Literature becomes a space where fact and imagination are not opposites but mutually productive elements of representation.

5.3. Digital and Networked Narrative

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

The digital era has introduced further transformations in the structure of the artistic world. Hypertextuality, interactivity, nonlinearity, and intermediality have reshaped the ways in which narratives are created and experienced. Literary and para-literary forms now circulate across media platforms, combining text, image, sound, and digital interfaces. The artistic world increasingly takes on a networked rather than closed structure.

Such developments affect the object of artistic representation in significant ways. Reality can now be modeled through dispersed nodes, multiple entry points, and participatory reading practices. Narrative becomes less centralized and more open-ended. The represented world is no longer contained entirely within a single linear text; it may unfold across platforms, links, archives, and media environments. This expansion reflects a broader cultural shift in how experience itself is organized in the digital age.

5.4. The New Object of Representation

Taken together, these developments show that the object of artistic representation in contemporary literature includes far more than social reality in the traditional realist sense. It now encompasses memory, identity, discourse, mediality, and the layered structures through which experience is interpreted. Literature represents not only what exists or what is remembered, but also how these forms of reality are mediated and constructed.

The artistic world of the twenty-first century is therefore dynamic, relational, and epistemologically complex. It engages with fragmented identities, competing narratives, technological mediation, and cultural trauma. Rather than functioning as a mirror of the world, literature becomes a platform of cultural cognition—a space in which societies test meanings, negotiate memories, and imagine alternative configurations of reality.

6. Synthesis: An Evolution Model of Artistic Representation

The historical development of literature makes it possible to identify a broader pattern in the transformation of artistic representation. What begins in classical aesthetics as mimesis gradually evolves into increasingly complex forms of modeling, interpretation, and epistemological construction. The object of artistic representation is therefore neither fixed nor uniform. It changes in accordance with shifting conceptions of truth, subjectivity, history, and cultural mediation.

This evolution may be summarized in several major stages. In antiquity, mimesis establishes representation as the depiction of possibility rather than mechanical copying. In realism, artistic representation becomes historical typification: literature reveals the totality of social existence through individual destinies. In modernism, representation turns toward subjectivity, fragmentation, and the instability of consciousness. In postmodernism, it becomes multiplicity: reality is understood as discursively constructed and narratively unstable. In contemporary literature, representation increasingly takes the form of cognitive construction, incorporating memory, trauma, documentary fragments, and digital mediality into the artistic world.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

From this perspective, literature can be understood as an epistemological tool. It does not merely reproduce the world but explores ways of knowing and interpreting it. At the same time, literature functions as a cultural laboratory in which values, identities, historical narratives, and forms of experience are tested and reconfigured. Finally, it may be viewed as a system of meaning production, one that creates autonomous artistic worlds while remaining deeply engaged with lived and mediated reality.

Such a model allows us to move beyond the simplistic opposition between literature and reality. Literature neither passively reflects the world nor arbitrarily invents it. Rather, it constructs meaningful worlds through which reality becomes thinkable, narratable, and open to interpretation.

Conclusion

The analysis carried out in this article demonstrates that the object of artistic representation is a historically dynamic and theoretically complex category. It cannot be reduced to the straightforward imitation of external reality. From Aristotle's understanding of mimesis as the representation of possibility to contemporary forms of literary world-making shaped by memory, trauma, and digital mediality, literature has consistently shown its capacity not merely to reflect reality but to transform and reconstruct it.

The study has also shown that the artistic world possesses a significant degree of autonomy. Although literature remains connected to empirical, historical, and cultural reality, it organizes this material according to aesthetic, symbolic, and narrative principles that create a distinct mode of being. Realism reveals history through typification and ethical experience; modernism shifts attention toward consciousness and fragmentation; postmodernism exposes the multiplicity and constructedness of reality; and contemporary literature expands representation into the domains of cultural memory, documentary hybridity, and networked narration.

These transformations confirm that modern literature is profoundly reflexive. It no longer represents only objects, events, or social worlds, but also the very processes through which meaning is produced. In this sense, literature functions as a laboratory of human experience. It allows readers to encounter not only representations of the world but also alternative ways of understanding history, selfhood, and culture.

Further research may continue this line of inquiry by examining the relationship between literature and artificial intelligence, the changing nature of digital narrativity, and the role of transmedia storytelling in the redefinition of artistic representation. Such directions would extend the present argument by showing that the artistic world remains an evolving and open field of cultural experimentation.

References

Aristotle. (1997). *Poetics* (M. Heath, Trans.). Penguin Classics.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Assmann, J. (2011). *Cultural memory and early civilization: Writing, remembrance, and political imagination*. Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511996306

Bakhtin, M. M. (1981). *The dialogic imagination: Four essays* (C. Emerson & M. Holquist, Eds.; Trans.). University of Texas Press.

Bakhtin, M. M. (1984). *Problems of Dostoevsky's poetics* (C. Emerson, Trans.). University of Minnesota Press.

Bellini, M., Nesi, P., Pantaleo, G., & Zaza, I. (2022). Interactive digital narratives as complex expressive means. *Frontiers in Virtual Reality, 3*, 854960. https://doi.org/10.3389/frvir.2022.854960

Erll, A. (2011). Cultural memory. In A. Erll & A. Nünning (Eds.), *Cultural memory studies: An international and interdisciplinary handbook* (pp. 109–118). De Gruyter. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-476-00406-2_15

Hutcheon, L. (1988). *A poetics of postmodernism: History, theory, fiction*. Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203358856

Lotman, Y. M. (1990). *Universe of the mind: A semiotic theory of culture*. I.B. Tauris.

Lukács, G. (1971). *The theory of the novel: A historico-philosophical essay on the forms of great epic literature* (A. Bostock, Trans.). MIT Press.

Ricoeur, P. (1984). *Time and narrative* (Vol. 1, K. McLaughlin & D. Pellauer, Trans.). University of Chicago Press.

Rippl, G., & Etter, L. (2013). Intermediality, transmediality, and graphic narrative. In D. Stein & J.-N. Thon (Eds.), *From comic strips to graphic novels* (pp. 191–210). De Gruyter. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110282023.191

Rohrer, T. (2005). Mimesis, artistic inspiration and the blends we live by. *Journal of Pragmatics, 37*(10), 1675–1699. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2005.01.015

Received: 01.15.2026
Revised: 01.22.2026
Accepted: 03.15.2026
Published: 03.21.2026

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Euro-Global Journal of Linguistics and Language Education
ISSN 3030-1394 /online/

Vol. 3 No. 1 (2026) Pavasaris

It's Giving Linguistic Innovation: A Sociolinguistic Analysis of Gen Z Digital Slang

[1] **Zarifa Sadigzade**

https://doi.org/10.69760/egjlle.26010013

Abstract. The rapid expansion of digital communication has given rise to new forms of linguistic expression, particularly among Generation Z, whose language practices are closely intertwined with social media environments. This study explores the distinctive features of Gen Z digital slang, focusing on expressions such as "slay," "it's giving," "that part," and "overstimmy." Drawing on sociolinguistic and pragmatic frameworks, the paper examines how these forms function not merely as lexical innovations but as tools for identity construction, stance-taking, and efficient meaning-making in computer-mediated communication.

The analysis demonstrates that many of these expressions involve processes such as semantic shift, pragmatic enrichment, and morphological creativity, enabling users to convey complex evaluative meanings in highly condensed forms. For example, the term "slay," traditionally associated with violence, has undergone a positive semantic reconfiguration to express admiration, while constructions like "it's giving…" operate as flexible discourse frames that invite shared interpretation. Importantly, these expressions often rely on contextual and cultural knowledge, making them both inclusive for in-group members and opaque to outsiders.

By integrating theoretical insights from digital discourse analysis and cyberpragmatics, this study highlights how Gen Z slang reflects broader linguistic trends in online communication, including increased informality, intertextuality, and performative identity work. At the same time, the paper adopts an accessible and explanatory approach, aiming to bridge generational gaps by clarifying meanings and functions for readers unfamiliar with such expressions. Ultimately, the findings suggest that Gen Z digital slang should not be dismissed as superficial or ephemeral but recognized as a dynamic and meaningful component of contemporary language change.

Keywords: Gen Z slang; digital discourse; sociolinguistics; semantic shift; cyberpragmatics; computer-mediated communication

[1] Zarifa Sadiqzade, lecturer, Nakhchivan State University, zarifasadig@gmail.com, ORCID: https://orcid.org/0009-0007-1179-1214

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Introduction

Generation Z (born ~1997–2012) has grown up online, and with it a wave of new expressions has become mainstream in digital conversation. Phrases like *"slay," "it's giving…," "that part,"* and *"overstimmy"* are heard on platforms like TikTok and Twitter. To outsiders, these may sound baffling or juvenile, but linguists see order where others see chaos. Rather than a sign of linguistic decline, Gen Z slang represents dynamic innovation in meaning, form, and social function. As Agha (2015) notes, slang often involves an ideological stance – the "language of the internet" can be framed as deviant only relative to a shifting norm. Similarly, Androutsopoulos (2006) emphasizes studying online language in its social context, focusing on how communities shape communication.

This paper examines Gen Z digital slang through a sociolinguistic lens, asking: How do these expressions systematically differ from (and build on) more traditional language? We argue that Gen Z slang exploits semantic creativity, pragmatic innovation, and morphological play to express attitudes and identities. The analysis is theory-driven and qualitative: we use existing scholarship on slang, internet language, and identity, together with illustrative examples of popular expressions. Following Agha's approach, we treat slang not as a fixed set of words but as an ongoing process of meaning-making. Throughout, we keep explanations clear (even older readers can follow "overstimmy") and tone lightly witty (no actual violence is implied by *slay*).

The paper is organized IMRaD-style. We next review relevant literature, then explain our conceptual methods. In the Analysis section we present examples and categorize them. A flowchart illustrates how our categories interrelate. Finally, we discuss implications: Gen Z slang, far from chaotic, exemplifies normal linguistic change and community expression.

Literature Review

Slang and Ideology: Agha (2015) provides a foundational view: slang is an ideological framework for evaluating speech as "deviant" from a norm. He argues that terms like *"slang"* index social boundaries – labeling something slang implies a speaker is stepping outside the (often unspoken) standard. Crucially, Agha shows that slang terms constantly move in and out of usage; what is slang today may become mainstream tomorrow. This perspective suggests Gen Z slang reflects social processes (identity, values) rather than linguistic breakdown. It also aligns with Mattiello (2005), who highlights slang's "innovative word-formation processes" and new meanings, serving varied pragmatic functions. In sum, we expect Gen Z slang to be creative and purposeful, not random.

CMC and Digital Discourse: Early research on computer-mediated communication (CMC) catalogued "features" like emoticons, acronyms, and the mix of written/spoken style. Androutsopoulos (2006) notes that such studies gave way to a sociolinguistic approach: we must see online language use as situated in communities and identity negotiation. Thurlow & Mroczek

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

(2011) similarly emphasize that social media discourse blends genres and requires new analytic tools. In practice, Gen Z slang is a hallmark of online in-group interaction, influenced by meme culture and platform affordances. Yus (2011) coined cyberpragmatics to study how context and cognitive factors shape internet language. We draw on these ideas to focus on meaning (semantics/pragmatics) and usage (discourse) of slang terms.

Youth Identity and Language: Sociolinguistics of youth culture (e.g. Bucholtz 1999; Pujolar 2001) stresses that young people use language to construct identities. Bucholtz's classic study of high-school "nerd" girls shows language norms are tied to stance and identity practices. She observes that "what it means to use slang depends on where one is standing" socially. In other words, a word's value comes from how a community interprets it. Gen Z slang items function similarly as markers: using "that part" or "it's giving" signals in-group cultural knowledge (if you "get it," you're on the team). We will highlight how each example indexes group membership or attitude (the "cool" stance).

Slang Change and Dynamics: Moore (2004) and Mattiello (2005) discuss generational slang shifts, underscoring that each cohort coins fresh terms reflecting its values. Modern work (Keidar et al. 2022) quantitatively confirms that slang exhibits high frequency volatility (though surprisingly low semantic drift). We interpret these findings to mean Gen Z slang is rapidly in flux, but within a coherent sub-lexicon. Page et al. (2022) note that social media research reveals creative re-purposing of language. These perspectives shape our view: Gen Z terms should be seen as examples of *active innovation*, driven by social networks and digital life.

In summary, existing studies frame Gen Z slang as socially embedded, creative, and dynamic. We build on this by analyzing key expressions across linguistic dimensions, linking each to prior claims (e.g., semantic shift theory, pragmatic function, identity practice).

Methods

This study uses a theory-driven qualitative approach. Rather than collecting a new corpus, we select *illustrative examples* of Gen Z slang that have gained attention online and in pop culture. Example sentences were drawn from publicly observed usage (e.g., social media posts) and paraphrased; no private data or real individuals are involved, ensuring ethical anonymity. Selection aimed for variety: semantic shifts ("slay"), evaluation frames ("it's giving…"), discourse markers ("that part"), and creative formations ("overstimmy").

Our analysis follows a discourse-pragmatic framework: we describe each example's literal meaning, pragmatic function (e.g., praise, emphasis), and relevant linguistic feature (semantic change, morphology). This aligns with cyberpragmatics (Yus 2011) and digital discourse analysis (Page et al. 2022). We treat each expression as data illustrating broader patterns, an approach recommended by Agha (2015) for studying slang's reflexive social processes. The result is a conceptual "field analysis" rather than statistical inference. By explicitly explaining terms in plain

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

English, we maintain accessibility. Humor is kept subtle (in parentheses or as light commentary) to engage readers without undermining formality.

Analysis of Gen Z Digital Slang

The linguistic practices of Generation Z reveal a dynamic interplay between semantic innovation, pragmatic functionality, and identity construction. Rather than functioning as arbitrary or superficial expressions, Gen Z slang items operate as highly efficient communicative tools that condense complex meanings into brief, context-dependent forms. This section analyzes selected expressions—*"slay," "it's giving," "that part,"* and *"overstimmy"*—through a structured sociolinguistic lens, focusing on form, meaning, function, and underlying mechanisms.

Figure 1: Analytical Categories of Gen Z Slang

"Slay"

The term *"slay"* represents a salient example of semantic reconfiguration in contemporary digital discourse. Traditionally defined as "to kill" or "to defeat violently," the term has undergone a significant semantic shift, acquiring a strongly positive evaluative meaning in Gen Z usage.

From a formal perspective, *"slay"* remains a verb; however, its syntactic flexibility allows it to function independently as an exclamatory utterance (e.g., *"You slayed!"*) or even as a standalone evaluative marker (*"Slay."*). Semantically, the word no longer encodes literal violence but instead conveys admiration, excellence, or aesthetic success.

Pragmatically, *"slay"* functions as an intensifier of approval, often signaling alignment with shared cultural or aesthetic standards. Its use frequently implies not only that an action or appearance is good, but that it exceeds expectations in a performative or socially visible way. This aligns with observations in digital discourse studies that online communication tends to favor exaggerated or intensified expressions of evaluation.

The underlying mechanism here is a clear case of semantic shift, accompanied by pragmatic strengthening. The transformation reflects broader patterns of linguistic change, where words associated with strong affective domains are repurposed to convey heightened positive meaning.

"It's giving…"

The construction *"it's giving…"* illustrates a more complex form of linguistic innovation, combining syntactic restructuring with pragmatic enrichment. Formally, it resembles a progressive verb phrase; however, its usage deviates from standard grammatical expectations.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Rather than indicating an ongoing action, *"it's giving…"* operates as an evaluative frame that introduces an implied comparison or interpretation (e.g., *"It's giving main character energy"*). The expression remains intentionally incomplete, requiring the listener to infer or complete the intended meaning based on shared cultural knowledge.

Semantically, the phrase does not possess a fixed meaning. Instead, its interpretation depends heavily on context, making it a highly flexible and adaptive communicative tool. Pragmatically, it functions as a stance marker, allowing speakers to subtly express judgment, irony, or aesthetic evaluation without making explicit statements.

This construction exemplifies pragmatic inferencing, as described in cyberpragmatic frameworks, where meaning emerges through interaction between linguistic form and contextual knowledge. Additionally, it reflects intertextuality, as many completions draw on cultural references, memes, or shared online experiences.

The mechanism at work here is not merely semantic change but pragmatic expansion, where meaning is co-constructed by speaker and audience. This makes the expression particularly effective within in-group communication while simultaneously rendering it opaque to outsiders.

"That part"

The expression *"that part"* demonstrates how minimal linguistic forms can carry significant pragmatic weight. Structurally, it is a noun phrase; however, in Gen Z usage, it functions as a discourse marker.

Semantically, the phrase appears vague or incomplete when taken in isolation. However, in context, it serves to highlight agreement or to emphasize a previously stated point (e.g., *"People need to set boundaries—that part."*).

Pragmatically, *"that part"* operates as an alignment device, signaling strong agreement while also reinforcing the importance of a specific statement. Unlike a simple *"yes"* or *"I agree,"* it adds emphasis and draws attention to a particular element of discourse.

The mechanism underlying this expression involves pragmatic condensation, where a longer evaluative statement is reduced to a compact, indexical form. It also reflects discourse-level innovation, as the phrase functions less as a lexical item and more as an interactional tool.

Such expressions illustrate how digital communication prioritizes efficiency and immediacy, allowing users to convey nuanced positions with minimal linguistic effort.

"Overstimmy"

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

The term *"overstimmy"* (meaning *overstimulated*) exemplifies morphological creativity in Gen Z slang. Formally, it is a truncated and modified version of a standard adjective, incorporating informal suffixation.

Semantically, the word retains its original meaning but adopts a softer, more playful tone. The diminutive-like form reduces the perceived severity of the condition, making it more suitable for casual or humorous contexts.

Pragmatically, *"overstimmy"* functions as a self-expressive label, often used to describe emotional or sensory states in a relatable and approachable way. Its usage reflects broader trends in digital communication, where speakers seek to normalize and share personal experiences.

The mechanism here involves clipping and suffixation, resulting in a form that is both economical and socially expressive. This type of morphological innovation contributes to the rapid expansion of slang vocabularies, particularly in online environments.

Synthesis of Findings

Taken together, these examples demonstrate that Gen Z digital slang is not random or chaotic but highly systematic. Across all cases, several recurring patterns emerge:

- Semantic innovation enables existing words to acquire new meanings.
- Pragmatic functions allow speakers to express stance, evaluation, and alignment efficiently.
- Morphological creativity produces novel forms that are both expressive and economical.
- Context-dependence ensures that meaning is co-constructed within specific communities.

Importantly, these features are deeply interconnected. Linguistic innovation both reflects and reinforces social identity, as users adopt and adapt expressions to signal belonging within digital communities. At the same time, the rapid circulation of these forms across platforms accelerates processes of language change.

Thus, Gen Z slang should be understood not as a deviation from linguistic norms but as an adaptive response to the communicative demands of digital environments—one that prioritizes speed, expressiveness, and social connection.

Discussion

The findings of this study demonstrate that Gen Z digital slang constitutes a systematic and meaningful form of linguistic innovation rather than a collection of arbitrary or ephemeral expressions. By integrating semantic shift, pragmatic enrichment, and morphological creativity, these linguistic forms reflect broader transformations in how language operates within digitally mediated environments.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

One of the most significant implications of this analysis is the increasing role of pragmatics over lexicon in contemporary communication. Expressions such as *"it's giving…"* or *"that part"* do not rely on stable, dictionary-defined meanings; instead, their interpretation depends heavily on shared contextual knowledge and inferential processes. This shift suggests that meaning-making in digital discourse is becoming more interactional and co-constructed, aligning with cyberpragmatic perspectives that emphasize the role of context and cognitive processing in online communication (Yus, 2011).

At the same time, the data illustrate how semantic boundaries are becoming more fluid. Words like *"slay"* demonstrate how lexical items can undergo rapid and radical semantic reconfiguration, shifting from negative to strongly positive meanings. Such changes are not entirely new in the history of language; however, the speed and scale at which they occur in digital environments appear unprecedented. The circulation of slang across platforms accelerates linguistic diffusion, allowing innovations to gain widespread recognition within relatively short periods (Keidar et al., 2022).

Another key dimension concerns the relationship between language and social identity. Gen Z slang functions not only as a communicative tool but also as a marker of belonging. The use of expressions like *"overstimmy"* or *"that part"* signals familiarity with specific discourse norms and cultural references, thereby distinguishing in-group members from outsiders. This aligns with sociolinguistic theories that view language as a resource for identity construction and social positioning (Bucholtz, 1999; Pujolar, 2001). In this sense, the apparent opacity of such expressions to older generations is not a limitation but a feature, reinforcing group boundaries through shared linguistic practices.

Importantly, these developments also challenge traditional assumptions about linguistic "correctness" and stability. From a prescriptive perspective, many Gen Z expressions may appear incomplete, ambiguous, or grammatically unconventional. For instance, *"it's giving…"* lacks a clear syntactic completion, and *"that part"* functions without explicit referential clarity. However, from a functional perspective, these forms are highly efficient, enabling users to convey complex meanings, attitudes, and alignments with minimal linguistic effort. What may initially seem imprecise is, in practice, strategically economical.

This raises broader questions about the future trajectory of English and other global languages. If digital communication continues to prioritize brevity, immediacy, and shared contextual understanding, it is possible that language will increasingly favor indexical and inferential forms over explicit, elaborated structures. In such a scenario, communicative competence may depend less on grammatical accuracy and more on the ability to navigate context, recognize references, and interpret implicit meanings.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Furthermore, the findings have implications for language education and intergenerational communication. The gap between digital and traditional language practices may lead to misunderstandings, particularly when speakers from different generations interpret expressions according to different pragmatic norms. Rather than dismissing Gen Z slang as informal or incorrect, educators and researchers may benefit from recognizing it as a legitimate and evolving linguistic system. Understanding these forms can enhance communicative competence and foster more effective cross-generational interaction.

Finally, it is worth noting that while Gen Z slang is often associated with informality and entertainment, it also reflects deeper cognitive and social processes. The ability to compress meaning, manipulate form, and rely on shared knowledge demonstrates a high degree of linguistic creativity and adaptability. In this sense, expressions like *"slay"* or *"it's giving…"* are not merely playful innovations; they are evidence of language responding dynamically to new communicative environments.

In conclusion, Gen Z digital slang should be understood as a significant site of linguistic change, shaped by the affordances of digital media and the social practices of its users. Far from signaling the decline of language, these developments highlight its continued evolution—one that is, perhaps, giving new directions to how meaning is created, shared, and understood.

Conclusion

This study has examined the linguistic characteristics of Gen Z digital slang through a sociolinguistic and pragmatic lens, demonstrating that such expressions represent a structured and meaningful form of language innovation rather than random or superficial variation. By analyzing items such as *"slay," "it's giving," "that part,"* and *"overstimmy,"* the study has shown that these forms are shaped by processes including semantic shift, pragmatic enrichment, and morphological creativity, all of which contribute to their communicative efficiency and social significance.

A key finding of this research is that meaning in Gen Z digital discourse is increasingly context-dependent and collaboratively constructed. Unlike traditional lexical items with relatively stable definitions, many contemporary slang expressions function as flexible communicative tools whose interpretation relies on shared cultural knowledge and interactional cues. This highlights the growing importance of pragmatics in understanding modern language use, particularly within computer-mediated environments.

In addition, the study has emphasized the role of slang as a resource for identity construction and social alignment. The use of specific expressions signals membership within particular communities and reflects familiarity with evolving discourse norms. In this sense, Gen Z slang not only facilitates communication but also actively shapes social relationships and group boundaries.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

At the same time, these linguistic developments challenge conventional views of language as fixed, standardized, and rule-governed. The apparent ambiguity or unconventional structure of many expressions should not be interpreted as a deficiency, but rather as an adaptation to the demands of fast-paced, digitally mediated communication. The ability to convey complex meanings in concise and context-rich forms demonstrates the adaptability and creativity of language users in contemporary contexts.

While this study has focused on a limited set of widely recognizable expressions, it points to broader patterns that merit further investigation. Future research may explore cross-linguistic variations in digital slang, the role of multimodal elements such as emojis and visual cues, or the longitudinal development of specific expressions over time. Such studies would contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of how digital environments continue to reshape linguistic practices.

In conclusion, Gen Z digital slang should be recognized as a legitimate and evolving component of modern language. Far from undermining linguistic clarity or quality, these innovations illustrate the ongoing vitality of language as it adapts to new communicative contexts. Indeed, if language has always reflected the needs and creativity of its users, then current developments suggest not a decline, but a transformation—one that is, in its own way, giving new meaning to communication itself.

References

Agha, A. (2015). Tropes of slang. *Signs and society*, *3*(2), 306-330.

Androutsopoulos, J. (2006). Introduction: Sociolinguistics and computer-mediated communication. *Journal of sociolinguistics*, *10*(4), 419-438.

Bucholtz, M. (1999). “Why be normal?”: Language and identity practices in a community of nerd girls. *Language in society*, *28*(2), 203-223.

Crystal, D. (2011). *Internet linguistics: A student guide*. Routledge.

Herring, S. C. (1996). Computer-mediated communication.

Herring, S. C. (2002). Computer-mediated. *Annual review of information science and technology*, *109*.

Keidar, D., Opedal, A., Jin, Z., & Sachan, M. (2022, May). Slangvolution: A causal analysis of semantic change and frequency dynamics in slang. In *Proceedings of the 60th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)* (pp. 1422-1442).

Mattiello, E. (2005). The pervasiveness of slang in standard and non-standard English. *Mots Palabras Words*, *6*(7), 7.

Moore, R. L. (2004). We're cool, mom and dad are swell: Basic slang and generational shifts in values. *American speech*, *79*(1), 59-86.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Page, R., Barton, D., Lee, C., Unger, J. W., & Zappavigna, M. (2022). *Researching language and social media: A student guide*. Routledge.

Pujolar, J. (2001). *Gender, heteroglossia and power: A sociolinguistic study of youth culture* (Vol. 84). Walter de Gruyter.

Tarihoran, N., Fachriyah, E., Tressyalina, S. I., & Sumirat, I. R. (2022). The impact of social media on the use of code mixing by generation Z. *Int. J. Interact. Mob. Technol.*, *16*(7), 54-69.

Thurlow, C., & Mroczek, K. (Eds.). (2011). *Digital discourse: Language in the new media*. Oxford University Press.

Walther, J. B. (2007). Selective self-presentation in computer-mediated communication: Hyperpersonal dimensions of technology, language, and cognition. *Computers in human behavior*, *23*(5), 2538-2557.

Yus, F. (2011). *Cyberpragmatics: Internet-mediated communication in context*. John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Received: 02.09.2026
Revised: 02.10.2026
Accepted: 03.20.2026
Published: 03.30.2026

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

EuroGlobal Journal of Linguistics and Language Education
Editor-in-Chief: Hasan Alisoy
E-mail: editor@egarp.lt

Vol. 3 No. 1 (2026): Pavasaris

The *Euro-Global Journal of Linguistics and Language Education (**3030-1394**)* is an international, peer-reviewed journal dedicated to advancing knowledge and understanding in the fields of linguistics and language education. We aim to provide a platform for researchers, educators, and practitioners to share their work and contribute to the global discourse on language teaching, learning, and linguistic research.

Aims and Scope
Our journal focuses on a wide range of topics within linguistics and language education, including but not limited to:
- Theoretical and applied linguistics
- Language acquisition and learning
- Bilingualism and multilingualism
- Language teaching methodologies
- Educational technology in language learning
- Sociolinguistics and language policy
- Translation studies

We welcome submissions that explore innovative approaches, present empirical research findings, or offer critical reviews of current trends in the field.

Open Access Policy
Euro-Global Journal of Linguistics and Language Education is committed to the open-access movement, providing unrestricted online access to all published articles. This ensures that research is freely available to the academic community and the general public, facilitating wider dissemination and engagement.

Peer Review Process
All submissions undergo a rigorous double-blind peer review process. This ensures that each manuscript is evaluated based on its academic merit, contribution to the field, and adherence to the journal's standards.

Ethical Standards
We adhere to the highest ethical standards in publishing. Authors are expected to follow ethical guidelines in conducting and reporting research, including avoiding plagiarism, conflicts of interest, and ensuring proper attribution of sources.

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Archiving
Our journal is included in the LOCKSS and CLOCKSS archiving systems, ensuring that our content is securely preserved and accessible for the future.

Contact Information
For any inquiries regarding submissions, the peer review process, or other journal-related matters, please contact us at **urbaite0013@gmail.com**

Acta Globalis Humanitatis et Linguarum
Editor-in-Chief: Hasan Alisoy
Executive Secretary: Gerda Urbaite
Salomėjos Nėries g. 57, Vilnius, Lithuania
E-mail: editor@egarp.lt

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

Editorial Team

Editor-in-Chief:

- Hasan Alisoy, Lecturer and Senior Teacher at Nakhchivan State University

Deputy Editors-in-Chief:

- Ilhama Mammadova, Head of the Department of English Language and Translation, PhD in Philology, Associate Professor, Nakhchivan State University
- Leyla Safarova, PhD in Philology, Azerbaijan State Pedagogical University, Foreign Languages Center, Deputy Director

Executive Secretary:

- Gerda Urbaite, EuroGlobal Journal of Linguistics and Language Education

Editors:

- Dianala M. Bernard, Doctor of Education - Educational Leadership and Curriculum & Instruction, Faculty at University of the People, Pasadena, United States
- Ulfat Zakir oglu Ibrahim, PhD in Philology, Associate Professor, Head of the Department of Phonetics and Grammar of the French Language at ADU
- Nuray Aliyeva Yadigar qizi, Head of the Linguistics Department of the Institute of Art, Language, and Literature at the Nakhchivan Branch of the Azerbaijan National Academy of Sciences (AMEA), Doctor of Philological Sciences, Associate Professor
- Amir Karimi, PhD in History Education, Research Lecturer in History Education with a focus on gamification, VR, AR, and Metaverse in education, Farhangian University, Alborz campus, Iran
- Ceyran Quliyeva Manaf qizi, PhD in Philology, Associate Professor, Nakhchivan State University
- Shirmammad Qulubayli Qudrat oglu, PhD in Philology, Associate Professor, Nakhchivan State University
- Elnaz Aliyeva Ali qizi, PhD in Philology, Associate Professor, Nakhchivan State University
- Rashad Seyidov, Assistant Professor, Erzurum Atatürk University Faculty of Theology, Arabic Language
- Cavid Babayev Sabir oglu, PhD in Philology, Senior Lecturer, Nakhchivan State University
- Yasin Babazade Israfil oglu, PhD in Philology, Nakhchivan State University
- Leyla Zeynalova Kazim qizi, PhD in Philology, Senior Lecturer, Nakhchivan State University
- Mahsati Asgarova Qasim qizi, PhD in Philology, Associate Professor, Nakhchivan State University
- Turkan Ismayilli Mehrac qizi, PhD in Philology, Head of Department, Nakhchivan State University
- Tehrana Khudaverdiyeva, PhD in Philology, Nakhchivan State University
- Aydin Aliyev Arif oghlu, PhD in Pedagogy
- Elchin Mirzayev Elshad oghlu, Nakhchivan State University Faculty of Foreign Languages
- Zarifa Sadig, Nakhchivan State University Faculty of Foreign Languages
- Kovser Abbasova, Nakhchivan State University Faculty of Foreign Languages
- Ilaha Ashrafova, Nakhchivan State University Faculty of Foreign Languages
- Alaviyya Nuri, Nakhchivan State University Faculty of Foreign Languages
- Daniel Effiong Umoh, Department of Foreign Languages, University of Uyo, Nigeria

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**

- Olatunji Saheed: Federal College of Education (Special), PMB 1089, Oyo, Oyo State, Nigeria.

Acta Globalis Humanitatis et Linguarum
Editor-in-Chief: Hasan Alisoy
Executive Secretary: Gerda Urbaite
Salomėjos Nėries g. 57, Vilnius, Lithuania
E-mail: editor@egarp.lt, urbaite0013@gmail.com

This is an open access article under the **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**