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The Role of Phraseological Units in Developing Communicative Fluency among University Students

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Abstract:

This study examines the influence of phraseological units on the enhancement of communicative fluency in senior university students learning English as a foreign language. The research, conducted at Nakhchivan State University, featured 30 final-year students participating in a six-to-eight-week educational program centered on idioms, phrasal verbs, collocations, and fixed expressions. Data were gathered by pre- and post-assessments, oral interviews, written assignments, and observational checklists. The findings indicated a notable enhancement in phraseological competence and communicative fluency, as students exhibited increased lexical diversity, speaking fluency, and stylistic refinement in writing. The research suggests that focused phraseological education improves learners' capacity for natural and effective communication, providing practical implications for curriculum development and teaching methods.

Keywords

Phraseological Units, Communicative Fluency, English Language Teaching, University Students

I. Introduction

In the context of language education, communicative fluency remains one of the most sought-after competencies among university students, particularly those studying English as a foreign language (EFL). While vocabulary acquisition and grammatical accuracy are often prioritized, the acquisition of phraseological units—idioms, collocations, fixed expressions, and phrasal verbs—is equally vital for achieving fluency that mirrors authentic native speaker use. These units are not only lexical in nature but also deeply embedded in cultural and pragmatic contexts, contributing significantly to learners' ability to comprehend and produce nuanced, natural-sounding speech (Cherno et al., 2020; Minoo, 2019).

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Despite their importance, phraseological units are often underrepresented in standard curricula, especially at the tertiary level, where students are expected to refine their communicative skills for academic, social, and professional interactions. Research suggests that learners who master phraseological competence tend to exhibit higher levels of oral fluency, pragmatic awareness, and sociolinguistic appropriateness (Zhang, 2023; Dinevich et al., 2023). In particular, senior university students—those in their final years of study—must bridge the gap between academic proficiency and real-world language use. This gap can be addressed by strategically incorporating phraseological instruction into the language learning process.

The present study seeks to explore the impact of teaching phraseological units on the development of communicative fluency among senior university students. Building on previous findings related to idiom instruction (Mehdi, 2024) and learner-centered methods (Askarkyzy & Nurgalikyzy, 2024), this research further considers individual learning differences (Pashayeva, 2025) and the shift from traditional to communicative approaches (Naghiyeva, 2025). Furthermore, it acknowledges the role of critical thinking in facilitating effective language use (Bagirzada, 2025), proposing that phraseological awareness not only enhances fluency but also deepens cognitive engagement with language.

By investigating both the linguistic and pedagogical dimensions of phraseology in higher education, this article aims to provide empirical insights and practical recommendations for educators, curriculum designers, and language learners.

II. Theoretical Framework

Definition and Types of Phraseological Units

Phraseological units are fixed or semi-fixed expressions whose meanings often extend beyond the literal interpretation of their individual components. These include idioms (e.g., *kick the bucket*), phrasal verbs (e.g., *look up to*), collocations (e.g., *make a decision*), and fixed phrases (e.g., *as a matter of fact*). According to Minoo (2019), such units are integral to mastering the expressive depth of a language, allowing learners to go beyond structural correctness and achieve communicative authenticity.

Each type carries specific semantic, syntactic, and pragmatic properties. Idioms are typically non-transparent and culturally bound, requiring learners to infer meaning from context. Phrasal verbs, while more syntactically flexible, often pose difficulties due to their multiple meanings. Collocations, the habitual co-occurrence of words, support naturalness in speech, while fixed phrases serve important discourse functions, such as managing conversations and expressing agreement or disagreement (Aliyeva, 2024).

Communicative Fluency

Communicative fluency refers to the learner's ability to convey thoughts smoothly and appropriately within various contexts. It involves speed, coherence, lexical variety, and sociolinguistic appropriateness. As Chernov, Zyryano, and Vukolo (2020) argue, fluency is not solely a mechanical process but a cognitive-linguistic one shaped by a speaker's ability to access and use formulaic language rapidly and meaningfully. Fluency thus relies not only on vocabulary and grammar but also on phraseological knowledge that supports natural speech production.

Relationship between Phraseological Competence and Communicative Fluency

Phraseological competence is a crucial subcomponent of communicative competence. It encompasses both recognition and productive use of phraseological units in context. Research indicates a strong correlation between learners' familiarity with phraseological units and their oral fluency, listening comprehension, and pragmatic abilities (Zhang, 2023; Dinevich et al., 2023). Students equipped with phraseological competence are more capable of avoiding hesitation, expressing themselves idiomatically, and engaging in authentic discourse.

Askarkyzy and Nurgalikyzy (2024) note that effective instruction in phraseological units enhances not only vocabulary retention but also functional language use, especially when combined with edutainment and communicative techniques. In this regard, phraseological instruction serves as both a linguistic and pedagogical strategy for fluency development.

Review of Previous Studies

A growing body of research emphasizes the value of integrating phraseological instruction into EFL programs. Mehdi (2024) explores techniques such as contextualization, storytelling, and visual aids to teach idioms, reporting significant gains in students' fluency and confidence. Cherno et al. (2020) focus on pragmatic competence, highlighting the importance of phraseology in forming culturally sensitive communication. Similarly, Pashayeva (2025) underscores that students' individual learning profiles impact their phraseological acquisition, necessitating differentiated instruction.

Moreover, Naghiyeva (2025) critiques the limitations of the grammar-translation method in fostering communicative competence, suggesting that phraseology-based activities better prepare learners for real-life interaction. Bagirzada (2025) supports this view, arguing that phraseological instruction also fosters critical thinking and cognitive flexibility, both of which are essential for advanced language proficiency.

Taken together, these studies affirm that phraseological units are not mere decorative elements of language but essential tools for achieving fluency, coherence, and communicative success among university students.

III. Methodology

Participants

The study involved a cohort of final-year university students majoring in English Language Teaching at Nakhchivan State University. A total of 30 students participated, aged between 21 and 23, all of whom had attained at least an upper-intermediate (B2) level of English proficiency according to the CEFR. These students were selected based on their academic standing and willingness to participate in the study.

Setting

The research was conducted at Nakhchivan State University during the spring semester of the 2025 academic year. Classes were held twice a week as part of a specialized elective course focused on phraseological language use. The environment provided an authentic academic context for the integration of phraseological instruction into ongoing language development efforts.

Instruments

To gather both qualitative and quantitative data on the impact of phraseological instruction, the following tools were utilized:

- **Pre- and Post-Tests:** Designed to assess students' recognition and use of phraseological units. The tests included multiple-choice questions, gap-fill exercises, and short composition tasks.
- **Oral Interviews and Presentations:** Conducted to evaluate the spontaneous use of phraseological expressions in spoken language. Students were required to prepare short presentations and participate in peer interviews on familiar topics.
- **Written Tasks:** Students submitted essays, reflections, and reports incorporating assigned phraseological units to evaluate productive written usage.
- **Observation Checklist:** Used by the instructor to monitor real-time use of phraseological units during class discussions, group work, and informal interactions.

Procedures

The instructional period lasted for **six to eight weeks**, during which students were systematically exposed to various categories of phraseological units including idioms, collocations, phrasal verbs, and fixed phrases.

- **Phase 1 – Introduction and Contextualization:** Students were introduced to phraseological units through texts, videos, and real-life dialogues. Focus was placed on semantic interpretation and contextual meaning.
- **Phase 2 – Guided Practice:** Learners engaged in structured activities such as matching exercises, gap-fills, and guided dialogues aimed at reinforcing recognition and controlled production of target expressions.
- **Phase 3 – Communicative Tasks:** Phraseological units were integrated into tasks requiring spontaneous communication, such as debates, role-plays, storytelling, and problem-solving discussions. Emphasis was placed on fluency, coherence, and natural usage.
- **Phase 4 – Evaluation and Reflection:** Learners completed post-instruction assessments and participated in reflection sessions, providing feedback on their experience and perceived improvement.

Throughout the process, students' performance was monitored and documented, and their progress was measured by comparing results from the initial and final assessments.

III. Methodology

Participants

The participants of this study were final-year students enrolled in the English Language Teaching program at Nakhchivan State University. The group consisted of 30 students, aged between 21 and 23, all of whom had reached at least a B2 level of English proficiency, as confirmed by internal departmental assessments. These students had completed the required coursework in linguistics

and methodology and were considered linguistically prepared to engage with advanced phraseological instruction.

Setting

The research was carried out in a classroom setting at Nakhchivan State University during the spring term of the 2025 academic year. Classes were held in a dedicated language lab equipped with audio-visual resources, allowing the integration of multimedia materials for teaching phraseological units. The setting provided a real academic environment conducive to communicative practice and observation.

Instruments

A variety of instruments were employed to collect data on the learners' development in phraseological competence and communicative fluency:

- **Pre- and Post-Tests on Phraseological Competence:** These written tests included gap-fill tasks, multiple-choice items, and short contextual use exercises targeting idioms, collocations, and phrasal verbs. The aim was to measure both receptive and productive phraseological knowledge before and after instruction.
- **Oral Interviews and Presentations:** Students participated in structured interviews and gave short presentations on familiar topics. These sessions were recorded and later analyzed to assess the frequency, accuracy, and naturalness of phraseological unit usage in spontaneous speech.
- **Written Tasks:** Learners were assigned weekly essays, reflective journals, and opinion papers with the requirement of using a specified set of phraseological expressions. These texts were evaluated for accuracy, contextual appropriateness, and variety of expression.
- **Observation Checklist:** During class activities, the instructor employed a checklist to record spontaneous use of target phraseological units in discussions, group work, and informal exchanges. The checklist included indicators such as correct usage, fluency, and risk-taking in language use.

Procedures

The research was conducted over a period of six to eight weeks, structured into three instructional phases:

- **Phase 1 – Introduction and Explicit Teaching:** Phraseological units were introduced in thematic clusters. Lessons included explanation of meaning, etymology where relevant, contextual examples, and common usage patterns. Students practiced identifying units in texts and dialogues.
- **Phase 2 – Controlled Practice and Integration:** Learners engaged in controlled activities, including sentence completion, substitution drills, and matching tasks. Gradually, these were replaced by more open-ended tasks such as guided conversations, opinion sharing, and pair work that required active use of the taught expressions.
- **Phase 3 – Communicative Production and Monitoring:** Students took part in communicative tasks such as debates, storytelling sessions, problem-solving activities, and

simulated real-life scenarios (e.g., job interviews, travel situations). Phraseological usage was encouraged, observed, and reinforced. Improvement was monitored through ongoing assessment and feedback.

The triangulation of data collection methods enabled a comprehensive evaluation of the role phraseological units played in enhancing students' communicative fluency, with attention to both progress and persistent challenges.

IV. Results and Findings

The analysis of data collected through the pre- and post-tests, oral tasks, written assignments, and classroom observations revealed clear evidence of progress in the students' phraseological competence and communicative fluency over the six-to-eight-week instructional period.

1. Improvement in Phraseological Competence

The comparison between pre- and post-test results demonstrated a marked improvement in the students' ability to recognize and use phraseological units accurately. On average, students scored **48%** on the pre-test and **78%** on the post-test. The greatest improvement was observed in the accurate use of idiomatic expressions and collocations in context, especially in written production tasks.

2. Enhanced Communicative Fluency

Oral interviews and recorded presentations showed an increase in spontaneous use of phraseological expressions. Students were able to employ a wider range of idioms and phrasal verbs during storytelling, discussions, and debates. Their speech became more fluid and expressive, with fewer pauses and hesitation markers.

For example, during the final storytelling task, **83% of students** used at least three appropriate phraseological units naturally, compared to only **27%** in the initial tasks. This suggests that exposure and guided practice led to greater lexical access and confidence in expression.

3. Written Expression and Stylistic Variety

Analysis of written assignments revealed that students became more creative and expressive over time. Essays written in the latter half of the project contained more idiomatic phrases, cohesive devices, and formulaic language that reflected a natural command of English.

One student wrote in her final essay: "*When I finally made up my mind, I knew I had to face the music.*"—a clear indication of her ability to use metaphorical language appropriately.

4. Observation Notes: Classroom Behavior and Participation

Observational checklists highlighted greater participation in class discussions, increased peer-to-peer interaction, and willingness to experiment with language. Students were observed attempting to incorporate new phraseological units even when not prompted, indicating increased linguistic risk-taking and motivation.

The expressions most frequently used spontaneously in discussions included:

- **"Break the ice"**

- “Once in a blue moon”
- “Get to the point”
- “Keep an eye on”

5. Student Feedback

In end-of-course reflection forms, **90% of students** reported that phraseological units helped them sound more “natural,” “confident,” and “like a native speaker.” Many expressed a desire for more phraseology-based activities in their future courses.

V. Discussion

The findings of this study confirm the positive impact of phraseological instruction on the communicative fluency of senior university students. As evidenced by improved test scores, richer oral output, and more expressive writing, students who engaged with phraseological units over a sustained instructional period demonstrated a heightened ability to express themselves naturally, idiomatically, and with greater confidence.

Phraseological Competence as a Bridge to Fluency

The progression from literal to figurative language use marks a critical developmental stage in second language acquisition. Learners who become comfortable with idioms, phrasal verbs, and collocations tend to engage in conversations more fluidly, as their lexical choices mirror real-world language use. These findings align with Zhang (2023) and Chernov et al. (2020), who argue that phraseological competence enhances pragmatic appropriateness and reduces reliance on mechanical, textbook-like speech.

Moreover, the frequent use of specific idioms and phrasal expressions in student output suggests that such language, when contextualized and reinforced through communicative tasks, becomes internalized. Students’ confidence to “experiment” with language was especially significant; risk-taking, as noted in Pashayeva (2025), is often linked to higher fluency outcomes and long-term retention.

Pedagogical Reflections

The instructional sequence—beginning with explicit teaching and ending in free communication—proved effective in both awareness-raising and practical application. Activities like debates, storytelling, and interviews provided meaningful contexts in which students could activate the newly learned phraseological units. This echoes Mehdi (2024), who emphasized the effectiveness of contextual and task-based instruction in idiom acquisition.

Additionally, the use of an observation checklist during spontaneous activities proved useful in capturing authentic phraseological usage. While post-tests demonstrated gains in controlled understanding, it was the observational and oral data that revealed the depth of students’ internalization.

Challenges and Considerations

Despite overall progress, some challenges were noted. A few students overused or misapplied idiomatic expressions, suggesting the need for more nuanced instruction that includes stylistic

awareness and register sensitivity. Furthermore, culturally bound expressions, such as “*spill the beans*” or “*under the weather*,” were initially difficult for students to grasp without visual or situational context. This supports the argument made by Aliyeva (2024) that cultural grounding is essential when teaching figurative language.

Another concern lies in the varying pace at which students develop phraseological competence. As Pashayeva (2025) highlights, individual learner differences must be accounted for, and instruction should remain flexible and differentiated where possible.

VI. Conclusion

This study set out to examine the role of phraseological units in enhancing communicative fluency among final-year university students. The findings clearly indicate that systematic instruction in phraseological units—integrated with communicative classroom activities—significantly improves both spoken and written fluency. Students who engaged in regular exposure, guided practice, and real-life communicative tasks became more confident, expressive, and idiomatically accurate in their language use.

Phraseological competence proved to be more than just an aesthetic linguistic feature—it served as a catalyst for smoother, more natural communication. As learners became more comfortable using idioms, phrasal verbs, and collocations, their language shifted from structurally correct but flat output to dynamic, contextually rich expression. This transformation reflects the deep interconnection between lexical fluency and phraseology, as previously noted in the works of Chernov et al. (2020), Zhang (2023), and Minoo (2019).

Moreover, the students’ feedback suggests a strong appreciation for phraseological instruction and a desire for its inclusion in broader curricular planning. Despite minor challenges related to overuse and cultural unfamiliarity, students were willing to take risks, try new expressions, and incorporate learned items into both academic and informal discourse.

Recommendations

Based on the results of this research, the following pedagogical recommendations are proposed:

1. **Integrate Phraseological Units into Core Curriculum:** Rather than treating phraseology as an optional or supplementary topic, it should be embedded into regular language instruction at advanced levels.
2. **Use Communicative, Contextualized Tasks:** Activities such as role-plays, debates, interviews, and storytelling should be emphasized to encourage natural use of phraseological expressions.
3. **Highlight Cultural Context:** Since many phraseological units are culturally loaded, their instruction should include background stories, visuals, or real-life analogies to promote deeper understanding.
4. **Offer Differentiated Instruction:** Teachers should accommodate individual learner differences by providing varied input types and scaffolding where needed.
5. **Encourage Reflective Practice:** Students should be invited to reflect on their own use of phraseological expressions in speech and writing, enhancing their metalinguistic awareness.

In conclusion, this study affirms that phraseological units are not merely decorative but are vital components of communicative fluency. Their inclusion in university-level English teaching not only enriches linguistic ability but also fosters authentic interaction and greater learner confidence.

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A Structural and Semantic Classification of Phraseological Units in English

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Abstract:

This article presents a structural-semantic classification of phraseological units in English, exploring how syntactic patterns and degrees of idiomaticity intersect to form a comprehensive typology. Through detailed analysis of structures such as verb-object combinations, adjective-noun phrases, prepositional phrases, and sentential units, the study maps these forms against semantic transparency—from literal collocations to opaque idioms. Functional aspects such as register, discourse role, and pragmatic value are also discussed, with emphasis on pedagogical implications. The proposed classification aids in teaching, linguistic analysis, and understanding the cognitive and cultural layers of phraseological competence.

Keywords

phraseological units, idiomaticity, semantic transparency, syntactic patterns, language teaching

1. Introduction to Phraseology

Phraseology, as a subfield of linguistics, concerns itself with fixed or semi-fixed combinations of words that function as single semantic units. These combinations—commonly known as phraseological units—include idioms (*spill the beans*), phrasal verbs (*give up*), collocations (*make a decision*), and fixed expressions (*by and large*). In English, such expressions are deeply embedded in everyday communication and literary language alike, serving not only stylistic and expressive purposes but also fulfilling essential pragmatic and cultural functions.

The study of phraseological units in English has a rich intellectual history. Early explorations were primarily lexicographic, concerned with idiom dictionaries and their literal vs. figurative meanings. Over time, particularly in the 20th century, phraseology evolved into a distinct area of scholarly inquiry, informed by developments in structural linguistics, semantics, pragmatics, and cognitive linguistics (Masimova, 2018; Abdusamadov, 2021). More recent scholarship has turned its focus to structural-semantic relationships, cross-linguistic comparison, sociocultural

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symbolism, and the cognitive dimensions of fixed expressions (Savelyeva et al., 2019; Sadigova, 2024; Hasanova, 2025).

In contemporary linguistics, classification plays a central role in understanding the nature and functions of phraseological units. Without clear typological categories, these expressions can appear disorganized and opaque to learners and researchers alike. Structural classification enables the grouping of units according to syntactic form (e.g., noun phrases, verb phrases, complete clauses), while semantic classification considers the degree of idiomaticity, metaphorical meaning, and transparency (Alisoy, 2024; Tursunova, 2025). A well-established classification system also benefits applied domains, such as language teaching, where phraseological units can otherwise pose considerable challenges due to their non-literal meanings and cultural specificity (Mehdi, 2024).

In language pedagogy, especially within foreign language learning contexts, mastering phraseological units is often considered a marker of fluency and linguistic maturity. As Huseynova (2025) notes, even in digital and informal environments like social media, the appropriate use of idiomatic language reflects a speaker's communicative competence and cultural integration. Educators and curriculum designers increasingly recognize the importance of systematic phraseological instruction, not only for enriching vocabulary but also for improving stylistic variation and pragmatic awareness.

Therefore, this article seeks to contribute to ongoing research by providing a comprehensive structural and semantic classification of English phraseological units. Drawing upon both classical and modern sources, it aims to offer a taxonomy that can be applied in linguistic theory, language description, and classroom practice alike.

2. Definitional Framework

The study of phraseology necessitates a precise understanding of what constitutes a phraseological unit and how it differs from other multi-word expressions. While the term "phraseological unit" is widely used in both theoretical linguistics and applied language studies, its definition varies depending on the tradition—Slavic, Western European, or cognitive-linguistic approaches.

A **phraseological unit**, in its broadest sense, refers to any stable, recurrent word combination that exhibits a degree of **semantic unity** and is stored and retrieved from memory as a whole rather than generated freely. Tursunova (2025) describes phraseological units as “linguistic constructions characterized by structural stability and idiomatic meaning,” which resist literal interpretation and often convey culturally embedded concepts.

Within this general category, various subtypes can be identified, each with specific features:

- **Idioms** are expressions whose meanings are not deducible from the literal meanings of their components (e.g., *kick the bucket*, *spill the beans*). They are often metaphorical and culturally rooted, exhibiting a high degree of **opacity** and **idiomaticity** (Sadigova, 2024).
- **Fixed Expressions** (e.g., *at long last*, *to tell the truth*, *as a matter of fact*) are formulaic phrases used in predictable contexts. While they are usually semantically transparent, they are marked by **fixedness**—a rigid syntactic form that resists alteration.
- **Collocations** refer to words that co-occur more frequently than would be expected by chance, such as *commit a crime*, *strong tea*, or *make a decision*. Although collocations are

semantically more transparent, they are bound by **lexical selectional preferences** and habitual usage (Alisoy, 2024).

- **Phrasal Verbs** are verb-particle constructions where the particle alters or intensifies the verb's meaning (e.g., *give up*, *look after*, *run into*). These expressions often pose difficulties for learners because the meaning of the whole is not always predictable from its parts.

These categories, while analytically distinct, are interconnected in real usage and often overlap. The key parameters that help distinguish them include:

- **Fixedness**: the extent to which the expression resists grammatical or lexical variation (Tursunova, 2025). For example, *kick the bucket* cannot be changed to *kicked a bucket* without losing its idiomatic meaning.
- **Idiomaticity**: the degree to which the meaning of the phrase differs from the meanings of its components. High idiomaticity is typical of idioms; collocations usually display low idiomaticity.
- **Opacity**: the transparency or obscurity of meaning. Some idioms are partially transparent (e.g., *break the ice*), while others are fully opaque (e.g., *once in a blue moon*).

Masimova (2018) emphasizes that phraseological units cannot be understood purely through syntax or semantics in isolation; rather, their classification relies on a **multidimensional analysis** combining structural, functional, and semantic parameters.

Understanding these boundaries is essential not only for theoretical modeling but also for practical application in teaching, lexicography, and translation. As Mehdi (2024) and Abdusamadov (2021) argue, differentiating between types of phraseological units helps educators design targeted learning strategies, enabling learners to grasp both literal and figurative dimensions of English.

3. Structural Classification of Phraseological Units

Phraseological units in English exhibit considerable variety in their syntactic structure. Understanding this structure is central to their classification and analysis, particularly in distinguishing how different forms behave grammatically and contribute to communicative meaning. Structural classification offers a framework for grouping phraseological units based on the arrangement of their internal components and their syntactic behavior in context.

Syntactic Patterns in Phraseological Units

1. Verb + Object Structures

These are among the most common forms of phraseological units. The verb governs an object, but the meaning of the whole expression is often idiomatic.

- *Examples*:
 - *spill the beans* (to reveal a secret)
 - *catch someone red-handed* (to catch someone in the act of wrongdoing)These units tend to resist variation in word choice and order, although tense changes are sometimes acceptable (e.g., *spilled the beans*).

2. **Adjective + Noun Structures**

These are nominal expressions where the adjective is often metaphorical or symbolic.

- *Examples:*

- *blind alley* (a situation with no escape or solution)

- *cold war* (a conflict without direct military action)

These units are typically fixed and used as compound nouns or metaphorical references.

3. **Prepositional Phrases**

Phraseological units can also occur in the form of fixed prepositional constructions.

- *Examples:*

- *in a nutshell* (briefly or concisely)

- *under the weather* (feeling ill)

Such phrases often function as adverbials and are highly formulaic in use, with limited syntactic flexibility.

4. **Sentential Units / Proverbs**

These are full clauses or complete sentences that convey a general truth, moral lesson, or idiomatic observation.

- *Examples:*

- *The early bird catches the worm*

- *A stitch in time saves nine*

These expressions are syntactically complete and often exhibit strong cultural resonance. Their fixedness is nearly absolute, with minimal tolerance for modification.

Syntactic Flexibility vs. Rigidity

Phraseological units differ significantly in their degree of **syntactic flexibility**. While some collocations allow for inflection or modification (*make an important decision*), idioms like *spill the beans* tend to resist alteration. A phraseological unit's position on the flexibility-rigidity spectrum often correlates with its idiomaticity—the more idiomatic the meaning, the less grammatically flexible the expression tends to be (Tursunova, 2025).

Transformational Tests for Structural Identification

Linguists often apply **transformational tests** to evaluate the structural behavior of phraseological units:

- **Passivization Test:**

- *They spilled the beans* → *The beans were spilled* (grammatically correct, idiomatic meaning preserved).

- However, in some idioms (*kick the bucket*), passivization leads to nonsensical results: *The bucket was kicked* loses idiomatic meaning.
- **Substitution Test:**
 - Replacing parts of the unit with synonyms or similar words usually breaks the idiom:
 - *spill the beans* ≠ *pour the peas*.
- **Ellipsis or Deletion Test:**
 - Attempting to shorten or delete components disrupts meaning or grammaticality:
 - *in a nutshell* → *in a shell* (incorrect and unidiomatic).

These tests help determine whether an expression functions as a single lexical unit or a compositional phrase. Structural rigidity, coupled with semantic opacity, is often a marker of true idiomaticity.

By applying syntactic classification and transformational diagnostics, scholars and teachers can better identify and describe the structural nature of phraseological units—an essential step in both linguistic analysis and pedagogical practice (Masimova, 2018; Abdusamadov, 2021).

4. Semantic Classification of Phraseological Units

While structural classification highlights the syntactic form of phraseological units, **semantic classification** focuses on their degree of **meaning transparency**—how easily the meaning of the whole can be inferred from its parts. This classification is essential for understanding how learners interpret, acquire, and use these expressions in both native and foreign language contexts.

Based on Meaning Transparency

1. Transparent Phraseological Units

These are expressions whose meanings can be easily deduced from the individual words. They are often collocations or lightly fixed expressions that retain a **literal or near-literal meaning**.

- *Example: make a decision*
The meaning is clear: “make” functions in its usual sense, and “decision” retains its literal semantic value.

2. Semi-Transparent Phraseological Units

These expressions contain some metaphorical or symbolic element but are still partly interpretable. The overall meaning is not entirely literal, but context and world knowledge can help decode it.

- *Example: break the ice* (to initiate conversation or reduce tension)
Though not literal, the metaphor of “breaking” and “ice” to create warmth or openness is relatively accessible to learners.

3. **Opaque / Idiomatic Phraseological Units**

These are highly idiomatic and **semantically non-compositional**—the meaning of the whole cannot be deduced from the meanings of the parts.

- *Example: kick the bucket* (to die)
Here, neither “kick” nor “bucket” contribute to the idiomatic meaning. Learners must **memorize the expression as a unit**.

This tripartite classification is widely accepted in modern linguistics and proves particularly helpful in identifying the **cognitive load** each expression places on learners (Tursunova, 2025; Alisoy, 2024).

Literal vs. Figurative Meaning

Phraseological units often function **figuratively**, especially idioms and proverbs. Figurative meaning adds depth, subtlety, and style to language use, but it also introduces challenges in comprehension and translation. The literal-figurative divide helps explain why learners frequently misunderstand idioms—especially when they attempt to interpret them word-for-word (Masimova, 2018; Sadigova, 2024).

In many cases, expressions begin as literal collocations and evolve into figurative phraseologisms through usage and metaphorical shift. For example, *to see the light* might begin as a literal statement and gradually develop into a metaphor for understanding or realization.

The Role of Cultural Context in Semantic Interpretation

Semantic opacity is often **deepened by cultural specificity**. Idioms frequently reflect a society's values, history, and worldview. For instance, *the lion's share* or *Achilles' heel* have origins in classical mythology or literature. Learners unfamiliar with these references are less likely to infer meaning without explicit instruction (Hasanova, 2025; Savelyeva et al., 2019).

Moreover, phraseological units may differ semantically across languages despite surface similarity—a phenomenon known as **false equivalence**. For example, an Azerbaijani expression may appear structurally similar to an English idiom but diverge entirely in meaning or use. These cultural nuances must be addressed both in analysis and pedagogy.

Connotative and Emotive Meaning in Idioms

Phraseological units often carry **connotative meanings**—emotions, attitudes, or social signals beyond their core meaning.

- *Examples:*
 - *pulling someone's leg* (playfully teasing)
 - *a pain in the neck* (someone or something annoying)

Such expressions can signal irony, sarcasm, humor, or informality. Their mastery not only improves stylistic richness but also **social fluency**, helping learners navigate tone and interpersonal dynamics effectively.

Semantic classification thus reveals not only the **linguistic structure** of phraseological units but also their **cognitive, cultural, and emotional dimensions**. A deeper awareness of these features supports learners in moving from surface-level understanding to fluent, nuanced usage.

5. Structural-Semantic Typology

Phraseological units cannot be fully understood when examined solely through either structural or semantic lenses. Rather, a comprehensive typology emerges from the **intersection of syntactic form and degree of idiomaticity**, which together define the linguistic behavior, cognitive load, and pedagogical complexity of a given unit. This **structural-semantic cross-tabulation** helps categorize phraseological units more precisely and provides valuable insight for both linguistic analysis and language teaching.

Cross-Tabulation of Structure and Meaning

Phraseological units can be placed along two axes:

- **Structural Axis:** ranging from simple collocations to sentential forms
- **Semantic Axis:** ranging from transparent to fully opaque meaning

<i>Structure/ Semantics</i>	<i>Transparent</i>	<i>Semi-Transparent</i>	<i>Opaque/ Idiomatic</i>
Verb + Object	make a decision	break the ice	kick the bucket
Adjective + Noun	fast train	blind alley	red herring
Prepositional Phrase	on the table	under pressure	in a pickle
Sentential Unit / Proverb	Practice makes perfect	Don't cry over spilled milk	The cat is out of the bag

This matrix shows that **the same structural form may carry different degrees of semantic transparency**. For example, verb-object combinations may range from literal collocations (*make a list*) to deeply idiomatic expressions (*hit the sack*). Thus, structure alone is not a reliable indicator of idiomaticity—it must be analyzed alongside meaning.

Examples Illustrating Interaction Between Form and Meaning

- *Break the ice* (Verb + Object, Semi-transparent): The metaphor is accessible but still figurative, and the structure is relatively fixed.
- *Blind alley* (Adj + Noun, Semi-transparent): While interpretable in context, the metaphorical sense (dead-end situation) adds complexity.
- *The early bird catches the worm* (Sentential, Transparent to Semi-transparent): Though syntactically complete and literal, its proverb status adds a moralizing or instructive tone, often requiring cultural interpretation.

These examples illustrate how certain structural patterns—especially fixed or fossilized ones—are more likely to carry idiomatic meanings, while more flexible patterns tend toward literal interpretation.

Discussion of Fixedness and Idiomaticity as Overlapping Parameters

Two of the most salient features of phraseological units are **fixedness** (syntactic rigidity) and **idiomaticity** (semantic opacity). These are **interdependent but not identical**:

- A phrase can be **fixed but semantically transparent** (e.g., *by the way*).
- A phrase can be **idiomatic yet structurally flexible** to some degree (e.g., *spill the beans* can appear in passive: *the beans were spilled*).
- High fixedness often correlates with high idiomaticity, but exceptions exist, especially in transitional forms.

Tursunova (2025) and Alisoy (2024) note that idioms tend to show both high fixedness and high opacity, requiring whole-unit memorization. However, collocations may exhibit high fixedness with low idiomaticity (e.g., *make a mistake*), serving as functional language chunks without figurative meaning.

Understanding how structure and meaning interact helps refine phraseological classification, making it possible to design better teaching materials, corpus-based studies, and lexicographic resources that reflect real language use and learner needs.

6. Functional Aspects and Usage in Discourse

Beyond their structural and semantic features, phraseological units play crucial **functional roles** in real communication. They serve not only as lexical items but also as **discourse markers**, **pragmatic signals**, and **socio-cultural indicators**. Understanding how various structural-semantic types are used in different contexts helps reveal the practical significance of phraseological competence in spoken and written interaction.

Function in Real Communication

Phraseological units function at several communicative levels:

- **Lexical enrichment:** They provide lexical diversity and stylistic depth (*face the music*, *go the extra mile*).
- **Discourse organization:** Many fixed expressions help manage discourse (*on the other hand*, *as a matter of fact*, *to cut a long story short*).
- **Social interaction:** Idioms and informal collocations create a sense of belonging, humor, or solidarity in speech (*drop me a line*, *hit it off*).
- **Emotional tone:** Emotive idioms convey attitude and feelings (*a pain in the neck*, *over the moon*), strengthening interpersonal communication.

These functions demonstrate that phraseological units are more than decorative elements—they are essential tools for effective expression, especially in nuanced or high-context communication.

Register, Frequency, and Genre Considerations

Phraseological usage is deeply influenced by **register** (level of formality), **frequency**, and **genre**. For instance:

- **Formal Register:**
 - Units like *in conclusion*, *as a result*, *to a certain extent* are typical of academic writing and public discourse.

- These tend to be semantically transparent and structurally fixed.
- **Informal Register:**
 - Idioms such as *blow off steam*, *hit the road*, or *under the weather* dominate in spoken and colloquial registers.
 - These are often semantically opaque, metaphorical, and context-dependent.
- **Genre Variation:**
 - **Journalistic writing** frequently uses idioms to attract attention or create rhythm (*back to square one*, *tighten the belt*).
 - **Literary texts** use phraseological units for characterization and narrative voice (*a chip on his shoulder*, *cold feet*).
 - **Academic genres** avoid heavy idiomaticity, favoring more neutral or transparent expressions.

Losieva et al. (2023) have demonstrated that English newspaper articles on cultural topics often rely on semi-transparent idioms and collocations to balance accessibility with expressiveness, reflecting genre-specific expectations and reader familiarity.

Phraseological Units in Formal vs. Informal Language

The distinction between **formal and informal phraseological usage** is central to pragmatic competence:

- In **formal contexts**, fixed expressions and low-opacity units are preferred due to their clarity and predictability (*on the basis of*, *it is widely believed that*).
- In **informal or interpersonal discourse**, idioms and phrasal verbs are more common, offering flexibility, tone, and personality (*call it a day*, *freak out*, *get the ball rolling*).

Learners often struggle to adjust their phraseological use according to context, leading to either underuse (resulting in mechanical speech) or overuse (leading to inappropriateness). Therefore, phraseological competence involves not just knowing the expressions but understanding when, where, and how to use them effectively.

As Huseynova (2025) notes in the context of social media, learners who master phraseological variety adapt better to different communicative situations, whether online, academic, or professional.

7. Implications for Language Teaching

The structural-semantic typology of phraseological units has clear pedagogical relevance, especially in the context of English as a foreign or second language instruction. Phraseological competence is closely tied to learners' fluency, pragmatic awareness, and ability to communicate with stylistic and cultural appropriateness. To help learners internalize and effectively use such units, language instruction must incorporate targeted strategies that reflect both the form and meaning of these expressions.

Teaching Strategies for Different Structural-Semantic Types

Given the diversity of phraseological units, teaching methods must vary depending on their structure and semantic transparency:

- **For Transparent Units (e.g., *make a decision, strong coffee*):**
 - Focus on **collocation awareness** through lexical patterning.
 - Use **corpus-based activities** and **lexical notebooks** to promote retention.
- **For Semi-Transparent Units (e.g., *break the ice, blind alley*):**
 - Employ **contextual guessing**, visual aids, and guided discussions.
 - Integrate these expressions into role-plays or situational dialogues.
- **For Opaque/Idiomatic Units (e.g., *kick the bucket, spill the beans*):**
 - Use **storytelling, dramatization, and idiom games** to engage learners.
 - Present idioms in **themes or metaphorical clusters** to support conceptual connections.

Additionally, teaching should highlight **fixedness** and **syntactic behavior**, helping students avoid incorrect transformations or literal misinterpretations.

Learner Difficulties and Pedagogical Recommendations

Students often face specific challenges when acquiring phraseological units:

1. **Semantic Opacity:** Learners may attempt to interpret idioms literally, leading to misunderstanding or misuse.
 - *Recommendation:* Provide **paraphrases, examples, and contextual cues**.
2. **Structural Rigidity:** Learners tend to overgeneralize syntactic rules, modifying idioms inappropriately.
 - *Recommendation:* Introduce **transformational tests** in class (e.g., “Can this idiom be passivized?”).
3. **Register Awareness:** Learners may use informal idioms in academic writing or formal contexts.
 - *Recommendation:* Include **register-based practice**, such as comparing formal and informal phrases in dialogues.
4. **Cultural Context:** Students unfamiliar with English-speaking cultures may not understand the imagery or reference within idioms.
 - *Recommendation:* Incorporate **cross-cultural comparison activities** and teach etymology where helpful (Sadigova, 2024; Hasanova, 2025).

As Tursunova (2025) and Mehdi (2024) highlight, repeated exposure in meaningful contexts and active usage are key to long-term retention.

Relevance for Syllabus Design and Vocabulary Acquisition

The inclusion of phraseological units in curriculum design enriches **vocabulary instruction**, shifting it from individual word focus to multi-word expressions and **lexical chunks**. Syllabi should:

- Allocate space for **graded phraseological input**, progressing from transparent to opaque forms.
- Use **frequency lists** and **corpus-based tools** to prioritize commonly used expressions (Alisoy, 2024).
- Incorporate phraseology into **productive skills tasks**, encouraging students to use these expressions in writing and speaking.

Integrating phraseological units into vocabulary learning also fosters **noticing**, an essential process in second language acquisition. When students learn not only what words mean but how they occur together in meaningful ways, their fluency, coherence, and confidence increase significantly.

In sum, structural-semantic awareness of phraseological units is not merely academic—it offers practical solutions to teaching challenges and enhances learners' ability to use English naturally, accurately, and expressively.

8. Conclusion

This article has examined phraseological units in English through a **structural-semantic lens**, offering a detailed classification based on syntactic form and degree of meaning transparency. By organizing these expressions into structural categories—such as *verb + object*, *adjective + noun*, *prepositional phrases*, and *sentential units*—and mapping them onto a semantic continuum from transparent to idiomatic, a more nuanced and functional typology emerges. This dual-layered approach captures the complexity of phraseological language and reveals how form and meaning interact to shape communicative functions.

The classification demonstrates that phraseological units are not uniform; they differ in syntactic flexibility, semantic opacity, and usage across registers and genres. Recognizing these differences is essential not only for linguistic description but also for effective language pedagogy. Transparent collocations require different instructional strategies than culturally loaded idioms, and learners benefit from being made aware of the pragmatic, stylistic, and cultural dimensions of these expressions.

Viewing phraseological units through a structural-semantic framework also underscores their importance in language fluency, stylistic variation, and discourse management. As discourse elements, they contribute to expressiveness and coherence; as cognitive units, they are stored and retrieved holistically, influencing processing speed and naturalness in language use.

Suggestions for Further Research

While this study has focused on the English language, phraseological systems in other languages exhibit similar yet distinct patterns. Future research might explore:

- **Cross-linguistic comparisons** of phraseological structures and meanings, especially between English and typologically or culturally distant languages (e.g., Azerbaijani, Chinese, or Arabic).

- **Diachronic studies** tracing the evolution of certain phraseological patterns and the shifts in their figurative meaning.
- **Corpus-based computational classification**, using machine learning to automatically identify and categorize phraseological units in large datasets.
- **Learner corpus analysis** to understand how phraseological competence develops over time and across proficiency levels.

Ultimately, phraseology remains a rich field of inquiry—interdisciplinary, culturally embedded, and highly relevant to both theoretical linguistics and applied language studies. By advancing structural-semantic typology, we contribute to a clearer understanding of how language is stored, structured, and used in real-life communication.

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Major Characteristics of Language Learning Techniques

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Abstract:

The article delineates the primary aspects of language learning strategies. These tactics encompass several strategies, activities, and resources employed by students to enhance their language skills, including vocabulary development, grammatical understanding, speaking fluency, listening comprehension, and writing ability. The study categorizes the techniques into several theoretical groups, including communicative techniques, interactive techniques, task-based techniques, multimedia and technology-based techniques, cultural and content-based techniques, scaffolding techniques, differentiated instruction techniques, and feedback and assessment techniques, as well as content creation techniques. The study also examined cooperative language learning strategies, which are essential in secondary school language instruction since they promote active involvement, collaboration, and meaningful interaction among students.

Keywords

multimedia, task-based techniques, collaboration, comprehension, content-based techniques

Introduction

The major characteristics of language learning techniques at secondary school involve structured curriculum, differentiated instruction, communicative approach, active learning, technology integration, assessment and feedback, collaboration, and cultivation of autonomy. Language learning techniques at the secondary school level also focus on fostering a positive and supportive learning environment where students feel encouraged to take risks, make mistakes, and learn from their experiences. Teachers often employ a variety of instructional strategies, such as cooperative learning, peer teaching, and task-based activities, to cater to the diverse needs and preferences of learners. Cultural competency and global awareness are integrated into language learning experiences, allowing students to appreciate the richness and diversity of language and culture around the world.

In the context of language learning at secondary school, a “technique” refers to a specific method, approach, or strategy employed by educators to facilitate language acquisition and proficiency

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among students. These techniques are designed to engage students actively in the learning process, promote effective communication in the target language, and reinforce language skills such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing (Babayev, 2023). Each technique may involve various activities, materials, and instructional approaches tailored to the needs and preferences of students, with the ultimate goal of enhancing their language proficiency and cultural competence.

Technique is the implementation process of a method. This carries an implementation character, meaning that a technique is a thing that happens in language teaching in the classroom. The term “language learning technique” refers to a specific method or approach used to acquire or improve proficiency in a language (Alisoy, 2025). These techniques encompass various strategies, activities, and resources employed by learners to enhance their language skills, including vocabulary acquisition, grammar comprehension, speaking fluency, listening comprehension, and writing proficiency. Language learning techniques can range from formal classroom instruction to informal self-study methods, and they often reflect individual learning styles, preferences, and goals.

Literature review

Assignment usually requires a set of techniques combined with communicative curriculum or related discussion programs, and thus techniques should have at least relevant objectives (Hasanova, 2024). This emphasizes the authentic use of language for external purposes beyond the language classroom.

Now it becomes important to emphasize the necessity of the word “activity”. This concept of “activity” is essentially related to techniques. Activity can refer to anything students engage during the lesson. We typically describe it as a reasonably independent student action set, predetermined by the teacher before instruction, with a specific objective over a certain period. Activity is an integral part of implementing a technique because techniques cannot be effective without activity. Sometimes, we can also refer to activities as techniques. They essentially carry the same meaning and sometimes serve the same purpose, albeit with different solutions. The game can be regarded as an activity. However, if students find out and study, then a new method of learning, “technique”, emerges (Babayev et al. 2024). While games occupy leisure time, in activities a more necessary goal is sought. The technique is intentionally implemented by the teacher. Thus, activities include role playing games, exercises, editing peers’ work, practicing information gaps in small groups, and so on.

As it appears from the definition, techniques are included in procedures. Therefore, it appears as an attractive term for Richards and Rodgers, as it encompasses many small elements or various items and serves as something for a group or description that does not highlight what is involved or not (Richards, 2014, p.21).

When discussing technical terms, generally, as an excellent reference, one refers to various activities implemented by technical educators or students during language instruction. They are mainly balanced and intentional, not accidental, and are carried out in a purposeful manner. They are the manifestation of the teacher’s chosen approach. In this way, they can effectively appeal to pedagogical sections or components of the classroom session for your language learning goals.

According to Diego Santos, education related to teaching methodologies has also been rapidly advancing in recent years, like other disciplines. Traditional techniques that involves both teacher

explanations and students' notes can still be imposed in both middle schools and universities, but currently, education is more focused on fostering interest and enthusiasm for reading among students. Thanks to these changes in education, a variety of different learning techniques have emerged. The use of modern technology in the classroom during learning has not only revitalized education but also provided the opportunity to analyze old ideas with new methods for both teachers and learners.

Cooperative language learning techniques in secondary schools involve activities where students work together to improve their language skills. This learning technique encourages peer teaching and provides opportunities for students to learn from each other's strengths and perspectives. It fosters a supportive learning environment where students feel more comfortable taking risks and experimenting with the language. Additionally, it can enhance students' social and interpersonal skills while also promoting critical-thinking and problem-solving abilities. Overall, integrating cooperative language learning techniques can greatly enrich the language learning experience in secondary schools (Matthew, 2026, p.293).

Methodology

Participating in some language classes is not sufficient to speak fluently. Because learning a new language and mastering it requires patience and perseverance. However, by articulating our thoughts intelligently and making some adjustments, we can use our classroom time to progress in the language for our own benefit. There are some proven techniques to enhance language learning in the classroom. Firstly, utilize creativity in your vocabulary. You may think you can remember all the new words you learn in class. Unfortunately, you may not be able to do this due to the amount of information and words you learn. You should use writing to integrate everything you've learned, and keeping a list of new words is a great way to consolidate them in your mind. Better yet, utilize the words from the list. Try categorizing your word list to make it more useful and use new words by associating them with their meanings. This technique will allow you to work with all the words effectively.

Second, beware of speaking with friends in your native language. You can join a language learning program with one of your friends, or you may meet a new friend from the same country there. In this case, you should resist the need to sit together in class and during lessons. Why? Because when you mix people who speak your native language, the difficulty will decrease, and in challenging situations, you'll resort to speaking in your native language. On the contrary, get to know new and different people because with them, you can't rely on your native language, which will motivate you to work harder to be understood in the language you are learning by those around you. To effectively learn a language, it's crucial to engage in as much conversation as possible. There's no need to fear speaking or making mistakes, especially since grammatical errors are expected when it is not our native language. The crucial aspect is recognizing errors and gaining knowledge from them (Lightbrown et al.,2016, p.47-48)

Below are some examples of techniques for correcting errors like the following:

1. The teacher should neither praise nor criticize students during specialized lessons so that students believe in individualized learning. This is related to the Silent Way method.
2. The teacher always praises students during instruction, mainly relying on the Audio-Lingual method (Hasanova, 2023).

3. If a student makes a mistake in expression, the teacher simply repeats the correct one, which is related to Total Physical Response.

4. The teacher overlooks students' mistakes if they don't hinder communication, reflecting the Natural method.

In language learning at the secondary school level, various techniques are commonly used to simplify students' staffing and mastery of the target language (Ismayilli et al. 2025). These techniques can be categorized into different types based on their focus and application. Here are some common techniques and their kinds:

1. Communicative Techniques:

- Role-play: Students act out scenarios or dialogues in realistic situations to practice language functions and communication skills.
- Information gap activities: Students work in pairs or groups to exchange information and solve tasks that require communication in the target language.
- Debate or discussion: *Engages students in structured debates or discussions on various topics, promoting critical thinking and language use* (Hadi, 2017, p.141).

2. Interactive Techniques:

- Pair work: Students work together in pairs to practice language skills, share ideas, and provide peer feedback.
- Group work: Students collaborate in small groups to complete tasks, solve problems, or create projects, fostering teamwork and communication.
- Games: Incorporates language learning into fun and interactive games such as vocabulary games, board games, or online quizzes.

3. Task-based Techniques:

- Task-based learning (TBL): Focuses on completing meaningful tasks or projects that require the use of language skills in authentic contexts.
- Project-based learning (PBL): Students work on long-term projects that involve research, collaboration, and presentation of findings in the target language.

4. Multimedia and technology-based techniques:

- Language learning apps: Utilizes mobile apps or online platforms for interactive language practice, vocabulary drills, and language games.
- Digital storytelling: Integrates digital tools and media to create and share stories, presentations or multimedia projects in the target language.

5. Cultural and content-based techniques:

- Content-based instruction (CBI): Integrates language learning with content from other subjects, such as history, science, or literature.
- Cultural Immersion activities: Exposes students to authentic cultural materials, traditions, and practices related to the target language.

6. Scaffolding techniques:

- Modeling: Teachers demonstrate language use and provide examples to guide students in understanding and producing language structures.
- Guided practice: Teachers provide structured exercises and activities with increasing levels of support to help students develop language skills independently.
- Gradual release of responsibility: *Teachers gradually shift the responsibility for learning from themselves to the students, empowering students to take ownership of their language learning process* (Sticher, 2010 p.4-7).

7. Differentiated instruction techniques:

- Tiered assignments: Teachers provide different levels of tasks or assignments to accommodate students' varying language proficiency levels.
- Flexible grouping: Students are grouped based on their language proficiency, interests, or learning styles to receive targeted instruction and support.

8. Feedback and assessment techniques:

- Formative assessment: Teachers use ongoing assessments, such quizzes, exit tickets, and observations, to monitor student progress and adjust instruction accordingly.
- Peer feedback: Students provide feedback to their peers on language production, writing, or presentations, promoting peer learning and collaboration.
- Self-assessment: Students reflect on their language learning progress, set goals, and evaluate their own strengths and areas for improvement.

9. Content creation techniques:

- Writing journals: Students maintain personal journals or blogs in the target language to practice writing skills, reflect on their learning experiences, and express their thoughts and ideas.
- Podcasting or vlogging: Students create audio or video recordings in the target language to share stories, opinions, or interviews, developing speaking and presentation skills (Babayev, 2023).

Discussion

Each technique can be adapted and combined with others to create a dynamic and student-centered language learning environment (Gouda, 2022, p.63, 64).

Language learning techniques in language classrooms often emphasize the development of critical language awareness, encouraging students to analyze language structures, functions, and usage patterns (Babayev, 2023). This focus on metalinguistic awareness enhances students' ability to comprehend and produce language accurately and effectively. Language learning techniques may incorporate opportunities for students to explore contemporary issues, global challenges, and cultural phenomena through the lens of language, fostering critical thinking skills and promoting cross-cultural understanding (Babayev, 2023). Additionally, the integration of project-based learning and inquiry-based approaches encourages students to take ownership of their learning and pursue topics of personal interest, further enhancing their motivation and engagement in language study. Ongoing reflection and self-assessment are encouraged, empowering students to monitor their progress, set goals for improvement, and take responsibility for their language learning journey. Through these comprehensive and student-centered approaches, language learning at the secondary school level aims to equip students with the linguistic, cognitive, and socio-cultural competencies necessary for success in an increasingly interconnected and diverse world.

Secondary schools may incorporate project-based learning (PBL) techniques into language learning, where students work collaboratively on extended projects that require them to use language skills in authentic contexts. Examples include inquiry projects, and collaborative research projects, and multimedia presentations on cultural topics. Moreover, technology-enhanced learning tools such as language learning apps, online resources, and interactive multimedia materials are integrated into instruction to enhance student engagement and provide additional practice opportunities. Schools may organize cultural immersion experiences, such as study abroad programs or virtual exchanges, to provide students with firsthand exposure to the language and culture they are studying. *These diverse techniques cater to the varied needs and interests of secondary school students, fostering their language proficiency, cultural competence, and enthusiasm for language learning* (Ajbilan, 2013, p.3).

Cooperative language learning techniques play a pivotal role in secondary school language education by fostering active engagement, collaboration, and meaningful interaction among students. These techniques promote a learner-centered approach where students take ownership of their process. They also encourage the development of communication skills, cultural understanding, and empathy, which are essential for effective language acquisition. Cooperative learning enhances students' motivation and confidence, as they receive support and feedback from their peers. By creating a dynamic and interactive learning techniques help secondary school students build a solid foundation in the target language while also developing important 21st-century skills.

As a consequence of technology integration, various recognized teaching techniques have arisen as follows:

a) Inverted Classroom

In the inverted classroom model, the emphasis is primarily placed on motivating students to prepare for class activities beforehand. So the classroom transforms into a dynamic environment where students debate the details of what they have already studied. Students prepare topics so that the next day they can focus on answering questions based on the topic they organized the lesson around. This encourages students to delve into the topic and express their natural interests.

Considering this standpoint, online learning methodologies have the potential to be seamlessly integrated with the Inverted or Flipped Classroom instructional technique (Babayev, 2022). By utilizing CoCongr, we have the capability to easily share resources among members of our group. In addition, the online experience aids students in learning from home and preparing for the next lesson.

b) Case Method:

This technique aims to solve real-life conditions through brainstorming, novelty, and creative thoughts. While creative problem-solving is a systematic approach, its application can be quite complex because some situation may not have straightforward solutions. Even though, the Case Method effectively equips students for the real world while cultivating their curiosity, analytical aptitude, and creativity. This technique was frequently applied in master classes to examine real-world scenarios experienced by companies in earlier periods.

c) Self-study:

Curiosity is the primary driving force behind learning. As a fundamental principle of learning, it is meaningless to store large volumes of text in memory that students will either retain or forget in an instant. Providing students with the opportunity to explore and discover on their own is the solution to engaging their interest in learning.

A prime instance of an exemplary teaching technique that incorporates self-study learning was highlighted by Sugata Mitra during his TED talk. The researcher Sugata Mitra conducted a series of experiments in New Delhi, South Africa, and Italy, allowing students to have self-directed access to the internet. The results obtained revolutionized our thoughts about this technique. *Many students, who until then had little to no knowledge about the internet, unexpectedly managed to learn a variety of subjects with ease* (Mitra, 2006, p.8).

For investigating self-study learning, employing a basic technique such as Mind Maps is typical. Trainers can devise models using Mind Maps and grant students autonomy to enlarge and evolve ideas further. For example, if there are home materials in the attention center, some students can create Mind Maps on the items at home. Mind Maps can also be utilized to learn about foods, frequently used household items, and everyday agricultural terms.

d) Social media:

Using social media in the classroom is another way of learning. At present, students enjoy social media, and engaging them with social media in class requires minimal motivation. The ways of using teaching techniques are quite diverse because there are numerous social networks and resources available.

An example worth mentioning is the “Red Balloon” attempt introduced by the Brazilian Language Academy, which motivated students to rectify grammar mistakes found in messages from their beloved proficiency in the English language.

e) Free Online Learning Tools:

Free online learning tools are available for teachers to use to promote participation and enjoyment in class. Tutors have the opportunity to create a responsive and energetic classroom atmosphere

by incorporating online quizzes to assess students' comprehension. *There are various approaches to enhancing students' speaking ability* (Son, 2012, p.18).

Speaking stands out as one of the crucial skills students need to attain for both social and academic accomplishments. Students apply this skill throughout the day by following and delivering instructions, giving and receiving feedback, asking questions, acquiring new information, and communicating with peers. This method of teaching can offer support to students facing language challenges, such as dyslexia, allowing them to aid in the improvement of language abilities among their fellow classmates. Let's find out which one is most effective for students:

1. Promote conversation

Social interaction provides students with a new opportunity for language practice. Some students may require a little guidance from the teacher to engage in conversation, that is why feel free to initiate communication whenever you want. To achieve this, instructors should encourage students to ask questions, rephrase their responses, and provide prompts that foster further conversation.

2. Model syntax structure

The students can not utilize total syntactical structures in informal speech, therefore the teacher should encourage them to do so during the lesson. When students use partitioned syntax, the model of full syntactic structures returns to them. This skill enhances language proficiency and provides students with the experience necessary to master written language.

3. Make eye contact

Encourage students to establish eye contact with each other during class and promote mutual engagement. *Maintaining eye contact will help gauge students' thoroughness in the classroom and assist in regulating their language skills or articulation. This will help them to better estimate, establish clearer mutual connections, and successfully comment on topics* (Volmink, 2015, p.12).

4. Mention students to speak aloud and articulate their thoughts clearly.

Encourage students to be aware of muscle tension while speaking and to exactly evaluate their volume and articulation during speech. Remind them that speaking with a different and loud voice is important for capturing the peers' notice and efficiently communicating their ideas and information.

5. Emphasize the weakness in tone.

Students' voices become indistinct when they speak loudly in open air, creating misunderstandings. Teach your students about the concept of tone of voice, encompassing frequency, sound level, rate, and rhythm. The meaning of a speaker's words can be altered by their intonation and tone. What they said is insignificant. The crucial aspect is how it was conveyed, as it could lead to misinterpretations of intentions and attitudes. Motivate your students to pay attention to their tone when conveying a message and to adjust their sound level and tone accordingly.

6. Give questions to develop understanding.

Providing questions before a reading assignment not only aids in reaching the pinnacle but also helps students think about what they are reading and comprehending.

Modern teaching techniques comprise an amalgamation of methods and tools employed in education to enhance the achievement of learning goals through increased effectiveness and interactive engagement. These techniques are chosen to facilitate various innovative learning experiences that encourage active participation during instruction and promote the development of learners' creativity. Utilizing modern learning techniques offers numerous advantages:

- They encourage student participation in collaborative activities and captivates students' interest in learning.
- They go beyond traditional passive instruction methods by promoting active learning.
- They not only enrich students' educational experiences but also equip them with the skills and mindset necessary for lifelong learning and success in an ever- evolving global society.
- *They develop students' essential interpersonal skills such as teamwork, communication, and empathy, which are valuable not only in academic settings but also in their future careers and personal lives* (Nagaraj, 1996, p.98-101).
- These techniques prepare them for success in an increasingly digital and interconnected world by familiarizing students with digital tools and resources.
- Modern learning techniques facilitate a student-centered approach to education, where learners have greater autonomy and control over their learning journey.

Conclusion

Language acquisition at the secondary school level seeks to furnish students with the linguistic competencies, cultural awareness, and self-assurance necessary to operate in an increasingly interconnected and multilingual environment. Language learning techniques in secondary education include many pedagogical strategies designed to facilitate significant language acquisition and enhance student engagement and achievement in language studies.

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The Gothic Legacy: How 19th-Century English Writers Shaped the Modern Horror Genre

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Abstract:

This article explores the evolution of 19th-century English horror fiction, tracing its transformation from Gothic supernaturalism to psychological terror. It examines how key writers, including Mary Shelley, Edgar Allan Poe, Bram Stoker, and Robert Louis Stevenson, established foundational horror tropes that continue to influence modern literature and film. The study highlights the shift from external supernatural fears to internal psychological horror, demonstrating the genre's lasting impact on contemporary storytelling. By analyzing thematic and narrative developments, this paper argues that 19th-century horror not only defined the genre but also shaped its future adaptations and cultural relevance.

Keywords

Gothic horror, psychological horror, 19th-century literature, Mary Shelley, Edgar Allan Poe, Bram Stoker, Robert Louis Stevenson, modern horror, literary evolution, supernatural fiction.

Introduction

As a genre, horror literature has long been associated with exploring fear, the unknown, and the supernatural. Originating from folklore and myth, horror fiction evolved significantly in the 19th century, particularly through the rise of Gothic literature, which introduced key themes such as haunted spaces, supernatural beings, and psychological terror. The Gothic novel, which first emerged in the late 18th century, provided the foundation for the horror genre by blending the mysterious, the grotesque, and the sublime to evoke a sense of unease in readers (Botting, 2005). This period also saw an increasing fascination with the macabre, the uncanny, and the blurred boundaries between reality and imagination, which shaped the literary conventions of horror fiction.

The 19th century marked a critical transition in the horror genre, as writers began to move beyond traditional supernatural themes and embrace more psychological and existential concerns. Early Gothic horror stories often depicted external threats, such as ghosts, monsters, and demonic forces, but by the mid-to-late 19th century, horror literature increasingly explored internal fears, such as

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madness, repressed desires, and the duality of human nature. This shift reflected broader cultural anxieties in Victorian society, including fears related to scientific progress, urbanization, and the fragility of human reason (Punter & Byron, 2004).

This article argues that the evolution of 19th-century English horror fiction—from Gothic supernaturalism to psychological terror—laid the foundation for modern horror literature. The discussion will explore three key aspects of this transformation. First, it will examine the role of Gothic fiction in establishing fundamental horror tropes, such as haunted mansions, mysterious villains, and supernatural occurrences. Second, it will analyze the shift from external supernatural horror movies to internal psychological fears, particularly in the works of authors like Edgar Allan Poe and Robert Louis Stevenson. Finally, it will consider the lasting impact of 19th-century horror literature on modern horror fiction, demonstrating how its themes, narrative techniques, and psychological depth continue to shape the genre today.

2. Methods

This study adopts a comparative literary analysis approach to examine the development of the horror genre in 19th-century English fiction. By analyzing key texts from major horror writers of the period, the article explores how common themes, character archetypes, and narrative techniques contributed to the transformation of Gothic horror into psychological terror. The methodology focuses on three primary areas: comparative analysis of major horror works, thematic examination, and evaluation of literary influence on modern horror fiction.

First, a comparative analysis is conducted between early 19th-century Gothic horror and later psychological horror to trace the genre's evolution. This involves identifying key differences between supernatural horror—exemplified by Mary Shelley's *Frankenstein* (1818) and Bram Stoker's *Dracula* (1897)—and more psychologically driven horror narratives, such as Edgar Allan Poe's tales of madness and Robert Louis Stevenson's exploration of duality in *Strange Case of Dr Jekyll and Mr Hyde* (1886). These works are examined concerning their respective historical and cultural contexts to understand how horror fiction responded to shifting societal anxieties (Hogle, 2002).

Second, the study investigates common literary themes, character archetypes, and narrative techniques that define 19th-century horror fiction. The theme of the uncanny—the eerie sense of familiarity in the unfamiliar—is explored in texts where the supernatural intersects with psychological horror. Similarly, character archetypes, such as the tragic monster (Frankenstein's creature), the unreliable narrator (Poe's protagonists), and the divided self (Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde), are analyzed to understand their role in constructing fear. Narrative techniques, including first-person unreliable narration, fragmented storytelling, and atmospheric descriptions, are examined to assess how they enhance the horror experience (Smith & Hughes, 2003).

Finally, this study evaluates how these 19th-century literary elements shaped later horror fiction, particularly in modern psychological horror and contemporary Gothic narratives. The article considers the legacy of these works in modern horror literature and cinema, demonstrating how their thematic and structural innovations continue to influence contemporary storytelling. Through

this approach, the study aims to provide a comprehensive understanding of the 19th-century horror genre's evolution and its lasting impact on literary history.

3. Results & Discussion

3.1. Gothic Tradition as the Foundation of Horror Fiction

The Gothic tradition played a foundational role in shaping horror fiction, establishing many of the genre's defining motifs and narrative structures. Central to Gothic horror were supernatural elements, such as ghosts, curses, and haunted mansions, which served to evoke fear and uncertainty in readers. These tropes, often set in dark, mysterious landscapes, reinforced the themes of isolation and existential dread, which later evolved into the psychological horror of the late 19th and 20th centuries. Haunted castles and eerie abbeys, such as those depicted in Ann Radcliffe's *The Mysteries of Udolpho* (1794), became symbolic spaces of fear, where the boundaries between reality and the supernatural were blurred (Miles, 2002).

Another crucial component of early Gothic horror was its aesthetic of terror and the sublime. Inspired by Edmund Burke's philosophical exploration of the sublime as an overwhelming, almost paralyzing form of beauty, Gothic literature sought to provoke both awe and fear in its audience. This aesthetic is particularly evident in Mary Shelley's *Frankenstein* (1818), which merges the grandeur of Romanticism with the existential horror of scientific overreach. Shelley's use of dramatic landscapes, from the icy Arctic to stormy mountaintops, serves to amplify the emotional intensity of the narrative while reinforcing the isolation of both Victor Frankenstein and his creature (Botting, 1996).

Early Gothic writers played a pivotal role in defining horror tropes that remain relevant today. Mary Shelley, for instance, pioneered the concept of the tragic monster, a figure both feared and pitied, which later influenced modern horror characters such as Dracula and Dr. Jekyll/Mr. Hyde. Similarly, Radcliffe's use of psychological terror rather than overt supernatural horror laid the groundwork for later developments in the genre. These foundational elements not only shaped 19th-century horror fiction but also provided a framework that continues to influence contemporary horror literature and film.

3.2. The Shift from External Fear to Psychological Horror

By the late 19th century, horror fiction experienced a significant transformation, shifting its focus from external supernatural threats to internal psychological fears. While early Gothic horror relied on ghosts, haunted mansions, and supernatural curses to evoke fear, later horror narratives increasingly explored the complexities of the human mind, introducing themes of madness, duality, and repressed desires. This transition reflected broader Victorian anxieties about science, morality, and the fragility of human reason, marking a shift from traditional Gothic horror to a more introspective and psychological form of terror (Luckhurst, 2005).

One of the most prominent themes in late 19th-century horror fiction was mental instability and the fear of the divided self. Robert Louis Stevenson's *Strange Case of Dr Jekyll and Mr Hyde* (1886) exemplifies this transformation by externalizing the struggle between good and evil within a single individual. Unlike traditional Gothic monsters that are distinctly otherworldly, Mr. Hyde

represents the dark, primal instincts lurking within human nature, suggesting that the true horror lies within the self. Similarly, Edgar Allan Poe's *The Tell-Tale Heart* (1843) explores the paranoia and guilt-induced madness of its unreliable narrator, illustrating how psychological horror stems from internalized terror rather than external supernatural forces (Smith, 2016).

This psychological shift in horror fiction coincided with the rise of urbanization and modern social fears, replacing the isolated medieval landscapes of Gothic fiction with the uncertainties of urban life. The anonymity and moral ambiguity of rapidly growing cities became fertile ground for horror narratives that explored crime, repression, and the loss of individual identity. In *Dr Jekyll and Mr Hyde*, the fog-covered streets of Victorian London serve as an unsettling backdrop to the protagonist's inner moral decay, reflecting the city's dual nature—civilized on the surface but hiding corruption within. This replacement of supernatural horror with psychological and social anxieties laid the groundwork for modern horror fiction, influencing later psychological thrillers and existential horror narratives.

3.3. Key Writers and Their Lasting Influence on Modern Horror

The 19th century produced some of the most influential horror writers, each of whom contributed unique thematic and structural elements that continue to shape modern horror fiction. From scientific horror to psychological terror and supernatural dread, these authors established fundamental literary conventions that remain central to the genre today.

One of the most pivotal figures in the development of horror fiction is Mary Shelley, whose novel *Frankenstein* (1818) is considered the birth of science fiction horror. Shelley's narrative goes beyond traditional Gothic themes by integrating scientific ambition and ethical dilemmas, making the novel a precursor to modern horror's exploration of science as a source of terror. The novel's central figure, Victor Frankenstein, embodies the dangers of unchecked scientific progress, while the creature represents society's fear of the unknown and the consequences of playing God. This theme persists in modern horror films and literature, from H.P. Lovecraft's cosmic horror to science fiction thrillers such as *Alien* (1979) and *Jurassic Park* (1990) (Mellor, 1988).

Another major contributor to the evolution of horror fiction was Edgar Allan Poe, whose works emphasized psychological horror and unreliable narrators. Unlike Shelley, who externalized horror through monstrous creations, Poe focused on inner terror, guilt, and the descent into madness. Stories like *The Tell-Tale Heart* (1843) and *The Black Cat* (1843) explore the fragility of the human mind, often through first-person narrators who are themselves the source of horror. Poe's influence on modern horror is evident in the rise of psychological thrillers, particularly in the works of Stephen King, Shirley Jackson, and psychological horror films such as *The Shining* (1980) (Hayes, 2002).

The fear of the 'Other' found its most famous representation in Bram Stoker's *Dracula* (1897), a novel that popularized vampiric horror and introduced many of the conventions still associated with the vampire mythos. Stoker's *Dracula* was not merely a supernatural monster; he was also a reflection of Victorian fears about foreign invasion, sexuality, and disease. The novel's underlying anxieties—such as the threat of the unknown foreigner corrupting English society—resonate in

modern horror narratives, from vampire fiction like *Interview with the Vampire* (1976) to contemporary zombie apocalypse films (Byron, 2013).

Finally, Robert Louis Stevenson's *Strange Case of Dr Jekyll and Mr Hyde* (1886) provided one of the most enduring explorations of duality and morality in horror fiction. The novel's portrayal of a seemingly respectable man who transforms into a monstrous version of himself encapsulates the fear of repressed desires and the dual nature of humanity. The themes of split identity and moral corruption have influenced countless works, from modern psychological horror films like *Fight Club* (1999) to contemporary explorations of multiple personality disorder in *Split* (2016) (Arata, 2005).

Each of these 19th-century horror writers not only defined the genre in their time but also left a lasting impact that continues to shape modern horror fiction, cinema, and psychological thrillers.

3.4. The Impact of 19th-Century Horror on Modern Literature

The influence of 19th-century horror fiction extends far beyond its original context, shaping the narrative techniques, themes, and psychological depth of modern horror literature and cinema. The enduring themes of Gothic horror—including isolation, repressed fears, and the monstrous 'Other'—continue to serve as the backbone of contemporary horror fiction. Elements such as haunted houses, supernatural beings, and the psychological descent into madness can be found in modern horror works, demonstrating how Gothic horror laid the groundwork for contemporary storytelling (Punter & Byron, 2004).

One of the most significant aspects of 19th-century horror's legacy is its adaptation into modern literature and film. Classic horror stories such as *Frankenstein* and *Dracula* have been reinterpreted in countless ways, from faithful retellings to radical reimagining's that reflect contemporary anxieties. For instance, Mary Shelley's *Frankenstein* has inspired adaptations ranging from James Whale's 1931 film to the 2015 modern reworking *Victor Frankenstein*. Similarly, Bram Stoker's *Dracula* has been continuously adapted, from the early silent film *Nosferatu* (1922) to contemporary horror series like *The Strain* (2014-2017). These adaptations not only preserve the core Gothic themes of horror and monstrosity but also update them to fit modern audiences, demonstrating the timeless appeal of 19th-century horror narratives (Hughes, 2012).

Beyond supernatural horror, the relevance of psychological horror in modern storytelling owes much to Edgar Allan Poe and Robert Louis Stevenson's psychological explorations. The emphasis on mental instability, unreliable narration, and internalized terror pioneered in works like *The Tell-Tale Heart* and *Dr Jekyll and Mr Hyde* continues to influence modern horror authors. Writers like Stephen King have adapted these psychological horror elements into novels such as *The Shining* (1977) and *Misery* (1987), where the real horror emerges from the protagonist's psychological unraveling rather than an external supernatural force. Similarly, modern horror films like *Black Swan* (2010) and *The Babadook* (2014) draw upon themes of duality, madness, and repressed trauma, echoing the psychological fears explored in 19th-century literature (Freeland, 2020).

Ultimately, 19th-century horror literature provided the foundation for modern horror storytelling, introducing themes and techniques that remain integral to the genre today. Whether through direct adaptations, thematic inspiration, or psychological horror elements, the legacy of Gothic and psychological horror continues to shape contemporary fiction, ensuring that the fears of the past remain eerily relevant in the present.

Conclusion

The 19th century was a transformative period for horror fiction, shaping the genre's evolution from Gothic supernaturalism to psychological terror. Early Gothic literature established the foundation of horror through haunted settings, supernatural beings, and themes of fear and the unknown. As the century progressed, horror fiction shifted towards psychological exploration, emphasizing mental instability, duality, and repressed fears. This transformation not only reflected broader Victorian anxieties but also laid the groundwork for modern horror narratives. The works of Mary Shelley, Edgar Allan Poe, Bram Stoker, and Robert Louis Stevenson introduced fundamental horror tropes and storytelling techniques that remain central to the genre today.

Beyond its literary contributions, 19th-century horror has had a lasting cultural impact, influencing modern literature, film, and popular culture. The continuous adaptation of *Frankenstein*, *Dracula*, and *Jekyll & Hyde* demonstrates the timeless appeal of these narratives, as each generation reinterprets them to reflect contemporary fears. Additionally, the rise of psychological horror in modern fiction owes much to Poe and Stevenson's explorations of the human psyche, influencing authors like Stephen King and filmmakers such as Alfred Hitchcock and Jordan Peele. The genre's cultural and psychological depth ensures that it remains relevant, engaging audiences by tapping into primal fears and existential anxieties (Hogle, 2002).

Future research could further explore the global impact of 19th-century horror literature, particularly its influence on non-Western horror traditions. Investigating how Gothic and psychological horror themes have been adapted into different literary and cinematic traditions, such as Japanese horror, Latin American Gothic, and Eastern European folklore-based horror, could provide a broader understanding of the genre's cross-cultural significance. Additionally, examining contemporary reinterpretations of classic 19th-century horror stories in modern literature, video games, and digital media could offer insights into how new technologies shape the evolution of horror storytelling.

Ultimately, the horror genre continues to thrive because of the foundational contributions of 19th-century literature, proving that the fears of the past still haunt the imagination of the present.

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Backtranslation as a Quality Control Tool in Translation Studies: Challenges and Practical Insights

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Abstract:

Backtranslation, once considered a supplementary procedure in translation evaluation, has evolved into a significant tool for ensuring semantic accuracy and cultural equivalence. Rather than merely re-translating texts, it allows researchers and practitioners to uncover subtle shifts in meaning, tone, or idiomatic intent that may otherwise go unnoticed. This paper explores backtranslation as a quality control mechanism within translation studies, combining theoretical perspectives with real-world case studies. Examples are drawn from Azerbaijani, French, Russian, and Turkish to highlight common challenges such as semantic drift, idiomatic loss, and pragmatic failure. By analyzing authentic data, the study emphasizes how backtranslation can serve as a mirror—reflecting not only linguistic discrepancies but also the deeper cultural mismatches that surface through language. Beyond its methodological relevance, the article adopts a human-centered approach, recognizing that behind every translation lies a human effort to preserve voice, emotion, and intention. The findings of this paper offer practical insights for translator training, multilingual content development, and AI-supported translation tools, reaffirming the value of backtranslation in today's global communication landscape.

Keywords

backtranslation, translation accuracy, semantic shift, idiomatic loss, pragmatic failure, quality assessment, Azerbaijani English translation

1. Introduction

In an increasingly multilingual world, translation is more than a technical act—it is a negotiation between meanings, cultures, and intentions. Yet, even the most carefully crafted translations can contain subtle shifts that alter the tone, distort idiomatic meaning, or reduce cultural nuance. This is where *backtranslation* enters the conversation—not as a mechanical retranslation of text, but as

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a reflective method to assess what may have been lost, added, or unintentionally reshaped during the translation process.

Backtranslation has gained recognition in both academic research and professional translation practice as a quality control technique. Originally used in psychological and sociolinguistic studies to verify the reliability of translated survey instruments, it has now expanded into broader translation contexts, including legal, medical, and literary fields. Despite debates around its limitations, backtranslation continues to provide valuable insight into how meaning travels—or fails to travel—between languages.

This paper explores backtranslation as a tool for evaluating translation quality. By analyzing authentic examples from Azerbaijani, French, Russian, and Turkish, the study illustrates how semantic drift, idiomatic loss, and pragmatic failure can emerge across languages. While the analysis remains rooted in linguistic observation, it also acknowledges the deeply human element behind translation: a translator's attempt to carry not just words, but intentions, emotions, and cultural depth.

2. Theoretical Background

The concept of backtranslation has long occupied a place in the broader conversation on translation theory, particularly in discussions surrounding equivalence, fidelity, and meaning transfer. While often associated with empirical disciplines such as psycholinguistics and public health—where it is used to ensure the reliability of translated questionnaires, its theoretical underpinnings are firmly rooted in translation studies.

One of the earliest advocates for meaning-based translation, Eugene Nida (1964), emphasized the importance of *dynamic equivalence*, where the impact on the target audience should mirror that of the original. Backtranslation, in this light, becomes a practical tool to evaluate whether such equivalence has been maintained. If the back translated version diverges notably from the original, it often signals a problem—not just with word choice, but with cultural or contextual mismatch.

Peter Newmark (1988) also addressed the tension between *semantic* and *communicative* translation, two approaches that often come into play during backtranslation analysis. While semantic translation focuses on the literal meaning, communicative translation prioritizes the effect on the reader. Backtranslation offers a window into whether these two aims have been balanced—or whether one has overshadowed the other.

Juliane House (1997) further contributed to the field by promoting *translation quality assessment* frameworks, many of which rely on identifying mismatches in meaning, register, and cultural appropriateness. Backtranslation, when applied critically, serves as a diagnostic tool within such frameworks.

Although some scholars like Gile (2009) have warned against over-reliance on backtranslation, subjectivity and variability in re-translation remains valuable when used alongside other evaluative strategies.

In sum, the theoretical foundation of backtranslation is neither narrow nor static. It connects deeply with the core principles of translation: faithfulness, functionality, and intercultural understanding. It is this theoretical richness that makes backtranslation more than a test—it is a lens through which we re-experience the translated message.

3. Methodology

This study adopts a qualitative, comparative approach to explore how backtranslation can reveal potential distortions in meaning, particularly in idiomatic and culturally embedded expressions. Rather than relying on experimental data, the methodology centers around real-world examples collected from professional and academic translations between English and four other languages: Azerbaijani, Turkish, Russian, and French.

The selection of languages was purposeful. Azerbaijani was chosen as the author's native language and provides rich, culturally nuanced expressions often prone to semantic shift when translated. Turkish, due to its close typological relation to Azerbaijani and its broad use in regional media, offers contrastive insights. Russian, historically influential in post-Soviet translation practice, presents challenges in tone and pragmatic clarity. French, widely referenced in translation studies, allows for comparison with a language that is rich in idiomatic density and metaphorical usage.

A total of 12 idiomatic expressions were selected from existing corpora, published literary translations, and online resources such as multilingual dictionaries and language learning platforms. Each expression was translated into English, then independently back translated into the source language by a bilingual translator who had not seen the original. This allowed for a more objective evaluation of any semantic shift or idiomatic loss.

The main analysis focused on three key indicators:

1. **Semantic drift** – whether the core meaning had shifted.
2. **Idiomatic loss** – whether figurative or cultural meaning had been diluted or lost;
3. **Pragmatic failure** – whether the tone, politeness, or intended effect had been altered.

All examples were categorized based on the type of deviation observed. Additional commentary was provided on the cultural significance of the original expressions and the limitations of backtranslation in capturing non-literal meaning. Each case is documented with its source and, where applicable, with references to academic or professional usage.

This methodology aims not to measure translation “errors” in a prescriptive way, but to offer an exploratory framework through which backtranslation becomes a tool for reflection and deeper cross-linguistic understanding.

4. Data Analysis and Findings

Back-Translation and Idiomatic Challenges in Multilingual Contexts

Back-translation, a method widely used in translation quality control, involves translating a text back into its original language by a separate translator to detect potential errors or shifts in

meaning. While effective in identifying literal mistranslations, this technique often fails when handling idiomatic or culturally bound expressions. The issue becomes more critical when the target text contains idioms, metaphors, or nuanced cultural references. Mirzayev (2024) similarly highlights the significance of phonological awareness in preventing misinterpretation during translation, especially when subtle pronunciation differences can cause a drift in meaning.

Multilingual Idioms in Backtranslation

<i>Language</i>	<i>Idiom (Original Language)</i>	<i>Literal Translation</i>	<i>Actual Meaning</i>	<i>Backtranslation Result</i>	<i>Problem Identified</i>
Azerbaijani	Ağzından bal damır	Honey is dripping from his mouth	Speaks sweetly or flatteringly	Honey dripping from the mouth	Idiomatic loss
Azerbaijani	Qarnı ac, könlü tox	Stomach is empty, soul is full	Principled despite hunger	The stomach is empty, but the soul is full	Cultural abstraction
Azerbaijani	Gözünün üstündə qaş var	You have an eyebrow over your eye	Being unfairly criticized	You have an eyebrow over your eye	Pragmatic failure
Turkish	Pabucu dama atılmak	His shoe was thrown on the roof	Losing value or status	His shoe was thrown to the roof	Semantic drift
Turkish	Kulağı delik olmak	To have a pierced ear	Being well-informed	He has an ear piercing	Idiomatic misreading
Turkish	Burnunun dikine gitmek	To go in the direction of one's nose	Acting stubbornly	Goes where his nose leads	Pragmatic failure
Russian	Вешать лапшу на уши	To hang noodles on one's ears	To deceive or lie	Hanging noodles on ears	Figurative misunderstanding
Russian	Без царя в голове	Without a tsar in the head	Foolish or lacks judgment	No tsar in the head	Cultural mismatch
Russian	Держать язык за зубами	Keep your tongue behind your teeth	Keep a secret / stay silent	Keep the tongue behind the teeth	Pragmatic shift
French	Appeler un chat un chat	To call a cat a cat	To speak frankly	Calling a cat a cat	Minor idiomatic shift
French	Avoir le cafard	To have the cockroach	To feel depressed	Having a cockroach	Semantic confusion
French	Donner sa langue au chat	Give one's tongue to the cat	To give up on guessing	Give the tongue to the cat	Idiomatic distortion
German	Ich verstehe nur Bahnhof	I only understand train station	I don't understand anything	I only understand train station	Literal confusion
German	Da steppt der Bär	The bear dances there	It's a lively place/event	The bear is dancing there	Contextual misunderstanding
German	Tomaten auf den Augen haben	To have tomatoes on one's eyes	To ignore something obvious	Has tomatoes on the eyes	Visual metaphor loss

1. Azerbaijani Idioms in Back-Translation

Let's consider the Azerbaijani idiom "Ağzından bal damır", which literally translates as "*Honey is dripping from his mouth*". In Azerbaijani, it means someone speaks sweetly or flatteringly. A back-translator unfamiliar with the idiom might render it literally back into English or another language, misrepresenting the actual meaning. The original metaphor may even be misread as sarcasm.

Another idiom, "Qarnı ac, könlü tox", meaning "*The stomach is empty, but the soul is full*", can confuse back-translators who are unaware of its deeper meaning—referring to someone who values dignity or principles over material needs.

2. Turkish Idioms and Back-Translation Issues

In Turkish, the idiom "Pabucu dama atılmak" (literally "his shoe was thrown on the roof") means someone has lost their value or is no longer important. A literal back-translation creates a surreal image, losing the intended connotation of social rejection.

Similarly, "Kulağı delik olmak" (to have a pierced ear) is used for people who are well-informed or insiders. A back-translation might focus on the physical detail, missing the metaphorical implication altogether.

3. Russian Idioms and Semantic Shifts

The Russian idiom "Вешать лапшу на уши" (veshat' lapshu na ushi), literally "to hang noodles on one's ears", means to deceive or fool someone. Back-translation may cause humorous confusion unless cultural context is considered.

Another example is "Без царя в голове" (bez tsarya v golove) – "without a tsar in the head", meaning someone is foolish or lacks judgment. The political metaphor, once back-translated, can seem absurd or offensive without the cultural background.

4. French Idioms in Translation and Back-Translation

The French expression "Appeler un chat un chat" (to call a cat a cat) means to speak frankly. When back-translated, it may lose its metaphorical straightforwardness and sound unnecessarily literal.

Another idiom, "Avoir le cafard" (to have the cockroach), means feeling blue or depressed. A literal back-translation might be puzzling and even comical in English, diverging from its emotional nuance.

5. German Idioms in Translation

A famous German idiom is "Ich verstehe nur Bahnhof", which means "I don't understand anything" but literally translates as "*I only understand train station*." Back-translators unfamiliar with the idiom might misinterpret it as a context-specific or travel-related statement.

Similarly, "Da steppt der Bär" (literally "The bear dances there") is used to describe a lively party. A literal translation misses the cultural vibrancy of the phrase.

AI-Based Backtranslation vs. Human Interpretation

In addition to human-translated idioms, this study includes selected expressions tested through AI-based backtranslation using Google Translate. The goal was to observe how well current translation algorithms handle figurative language.

One example is the Azerbaijani idiom "Gözünün üstündə qaş var", which culturally implies unjustified criticism or confrontation. Google Translate renders it into English as "*You have an eyebrow over your eye*". When translated back into Azerbaijani, the literal expression returns, but the cultural nuance is entirely lost.

Another case involves the Turkish idiom "Burnunun dikine gitmek" (*to go in the direction of one's nose*) meaning someone who insists on their way. Google Translate fails to capture the defiant or stubborn connotation, instead translating it literally and back without reflecting attitude or intent.

These AI backtranslation results highlight a critical gap in machine understanding of idiomatic and pragmatic meaning. While translation engines are improving, they remain limited in handling figurative language, especially when expressions are culturally loaded or context-dependent.

Such findings reinforce the ongoing necessity of human translators—not just for linguistic fidelity, but for preserving emotional tone, intent, and cultural identity.

5. Discussion

The findings from multilingual idiom analysis reveal a consistent pattern: backtranslation struggles most when confronted with figurative, idiomatic, or culturally specific expressions. While the technique performs adequately with literal or neutral text, it often fails to detect pragmatic and emotional shifts that idioms inherently carry.

For instance, expressions like "Da steppt der Bär" (German) or "Pabucu dama atılmak" (Turkish) lose their vibrant connotations when backtranslated literally. The phrase "The bear is dancing there" might seem whimsical but fails to convey the idea of a lively gathering. Similarly, "Qarnı ac, könlü tox" (Azerbaijani) retains surface meaning in backtranslation, yet its deeper sense of moral dignity is not fully captured.

One of the most striking observations was how AI-based tools like Google Translate handled idioms. While they excel at surface-level equivalence, they largely fail to recognize idiomatic or emotional nuance. Mirzayev (2024) confirms this in his comparative analysis, showing that while machine translation can replicate literal meaning, it often misrepresents emotional tone, pragmatic intent, and culturally bound expressions. For example, translating "Gözünün üstündə qaş var" into English and back returns a structurally correct sentence that carries none of the implied social critique present in the original. Similar concerns about how pronunciation-related nuances can distort meaning in translation have been addressed by Mirzayev (2025), who highlights the challenges caused by phonetic interference during cross-linguistic transfer.

These cases demonstrate that backtranslation, though useful, must not be treated as a foolproof method for translation validation. It is best employed as a complementary technique, especially when evaluating culturally rich or metaphorically loaded content. Mirzayev (2024) similarly

emphasizes that without targeted training on pronunciation and phonetic awareness, translators may fail to recognize shifts that alter meaning even when the words appear accurate.

Moreover, the discrepancies observed across languages underscore the importance of translator intuition and cultural competence. This aligns with Mirzayev's (2024) findings that first language interference can cause syntactic and semantic shifts in second language production, which in turn affects the accuracy of translated content. No algorithm or double translation method can yet replace the human ability to grasp tone, intent, or context-dependent meaning. The act of translation is, at its core, an act of interpretation—and backtranslation is only a mirror. Sometimes, what it reflects is not what was intended, but what was possible to perceive from the surface. Mirzayev (2024) links this interpretative dimension to Bloom's Taxonomy, suggesting that higher-order thinking can enhance students' ability to evaluate meaning shifts in translation exercises.

Therefore, translator training should include not only linguistic theory and vocabulary work but also a deep dive into figurative language, culture-specific references, and context-aware evaluation. Backtranslation exercises can serve as a powerful pedagogical tool, not just for error detection, but for sparking critical reflection on how language functions across cultural boundaries. As emphasized by Mirzayev (2023), applying an eclectic approach to phonetic and phonological variation in translation pedagogy enhances learners' ability to detect subtle differences that may otherwise lead to semantic distortion. Mirzayev (2024) further supports this view by demonstrating how Total Physical Response (TPR) methods, when integrated with eclectic strategies, contribute to developing students' phonetic awareness, a key factor in preventing meaning distortion during translation.

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

This study sets out to explore the role of backtranslation as a tool for evaluating the quality of translation, particularly when it comes to idiomatic and culturally embedded language. Through an analysis of multiple idioms across five languages—Azerbaijani, Turkish, Russian, French, and German—it became clear that while backtranslation can help detect shifts in literal meaning, it often falls short in capturing the deeper cultural, emotional, and pragmatic layers of language.

The comparison between human and AI-based backtranslations further reinforced this insight. While AI tools like Google Translate can replicate the surface structure of an idiom, they often overlook its social context, implied tone, or metaphorical richness. For example, Mirzayev (2024) points out how subtle vowel variations such as the schwa can influence semantic perception, which is often overlooked in backtranslation or automated tools. This reinforces the importance of human translators, whose cultural awareness and interpretive skills remain irreplaceable.

Backtranslation remains a valuable resource, especially in translation training, comparative analysis, and initial quality checks. However, it should never be used in isolation. Its effectiveness increases significantly when combined with critical thinking, cultural knowledge, and context-aware analysis.

Recommendations:

1. Use backtranslation in tandem with cultural commentary. A simple return to the source language is not enough—context must be considered.
2. Include backtranslation in translator training programs as a reflective tool, not just an assessment method.
3. When working with idiomatic or metaphorical content, prioritize human revision over automated validation.
4. Further research should explore how AI tools can be trained to better understand cultural markers in language, potentially using hybrid human-machine collaboration models.

In a world where communication increasingly crosses linguistic and cultural boundaries, understanding what gets lost—and what can be recovered—through backtranslation is more relevant than ever. And while technology continues to evolve, translation, at its heart, remains a deep human endeavor.

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Studying the Impact of Globalization on Urban Space Management: Case Study: Kabul Province Urban Management System

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Abstract:

The aim of this article is to study the impact of the requirements of competition between cities in the era of globalization on attracting private sector capital in urban spaces. In the era of globalization, cities are the center of attention of investors and urban managers to provide various attractions in attracting capital and competing with other cities.

However, the lack of coherent theoretical foundations from the process of competition between cities on a macro scale to the actions of city planners and urban managers on a local scale has reduced the competitive power of cities. In this study, using an inferential method, the factors affecting the competition between cities on the actions of city planners and urban managers have been discussed.

The results of this study show that in order to attract capital for the realization of urban space projects, the expectations and incentives of urban managers should be taken into account in the design and planning of urban space based on a market-oriented approach.

Keywords

Competitiveness, Urban Governance, Partnership, Urban Space Management.

Introduction

In the era of globalization and capital mobility, a new division of labor has become possible in the world, as economic activities are searching for places with lower costs and greater production capabilities. This trend is ongoing in both cities in developed countries and cities in developing countries.

One of the most important effects of this process is the significant measures that have taken place in various dimensions to create urban attractiveness in different cities around the world. This has made the phenomenon of cities competing with each other an attractive topic for experts in various sciences.

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In this process, managers' attention has been directed from the beginning towards discovering existing and latent economic development opportunities in cities, and in order to create attractiveness and increase their competitive power, they have taken steps to attract domestic and foreign investments, which has resulted in the marketing of cities and urban spaces.

However, by examining previous research in explaining this process, it is clear that most of the research has attempted to express generalities regarding the challenges and roles of urban design in the era of globalization or to express urban space management models in general. (Schmidta, 2010; Carmona, 2008; Magalhaes, 2006; Madanipour, 2006)

Or they have pointed out the general requirements for changes in urban management to attract capital. (Knox, 2005; Ericksona, 2004; Hall, 1998). Research conducted in the conditions of Afghanistan has also focused on the general requirements for using urban governance in the urban management system, mostly in social dimensions. The ambiguous and unknown point in this is the lack of connection between the macro requirements for attracting capital in the competitive field of cities and the desired implementation model in the partnership of urban management with investors, considering local conditions.

In other words, for most urban planners, the reasons for paying attention to investors as new stakeholders in urban space management are not clear, and the manner in which this interaction, which should be carried out in the form of providing incentives to investors by urban managers, is unclear.

Therefore, the main question of this research, which is tested in the case study of Kabul city, is: Considering the set of requirements for attracting capital in the urban space, what incentives can urban managers provide to investors and what are their expectations regarding these incentives?

In this study, a descriptive approach is used, and by studying documents and reviewing scientific and research sources, the effects of economic globalization on urban management and the new perspectives of urban managers on the issue of attracting capital in the city are discussed. In a case study (Kabul City), managers' motivations and expectations for attracting capital in the urban space are examined using a survey method and a questionnaire.

In the process of this study, the principles of investment orientation and city marketing during the economic competition of cities for attracting capital are first examined from a macro scale, and then, along with it and on a micro scale, the impact of this trend on the mutual expectations of managers and investors is discussed. This study is an attempt to analyze the roots and causes through which managers' incentives and expectations from investors should be considered in the process of designing urban space.

Globalization and the Competition of Cities

The development of technologies and the fluidity of capital have made possible a new division of labor in the world, as economic activities seek places with lower costs and greater production capacity. This has led to the globalization of the economy, in which increased flexibility in the movement of capital and dramatic advances in communication technology have played a major role, enabling fast and location-independent communications on a global scale.

This process, along with the reduction of government assistance to cities, has forced politicians and city managers to take an active role in attracting capital for the economic growth of cities.

Many urban planning organizations now operate as economic development institutions with the aim of attracting reputable commercial companies to invest in the city.

These fundamental changes in the political and economic situation of cities have had profound effects on the process of production and management of urban space (Nemeth, 2010 & Schmidt). This trend is not only present in cities in rich countries, but also in cities in developing countries. In other words, the process of globalization often occurs in city centers and not in virtual spaces or among ambiguous intercontinental connections. Therefore, this impermanent nature of material conditions makes cities part of the globalization process (Madanipour, 2006).

The result of these changes in the distribution of economic power in the past two decades has been the emergence of the phenomenon of competition between cities, which has become an interesting topic for many scholars. (Kotler et al. 1993). In such a situation where there is no guarantee that today's success will continue tomorrow, the consensus is that urban planners and designers can use the positive benefits of competition in the form of an approach to attracting investment for economic development.

Therefore, the landscape of many cities has now changed and adapted to the new approach of capital attraction activities (Hubard, & Hall, 1998, 19). Hence, cities that implement active strategies designed to attract capital can be more successful in achieving competitive advantages in unpredictable economic conditions than their competitors (OECD, 2007: 18).

The extent to which cities are able to compete on the global stage depends on important factors such as city size, local economies and urbanization economics (Petrakos, 2000). Of course, this also depends on the type of government policy in relation to the above factors that can create and strengthen these types of competitive activities. In summary, the most important factors affecting the competition of cities with each other can be listed as follows:

- (1) A diverse economic base and qualified human capital.
- (2) High-tech services and strong connections with knowledge-based institutions.
- (3) Modern and developed infrastructure, especially in the field of transportation and communications.
- (4) High quality of urban space and civic life.
- (5) Institutional and organizational capacity to develop and implement future-oriented development strategies.

In this process, the task of urban management is increasingly to create sufficient conditions for marketing the city to attract capital, which includes new urban policies in various dimensions. (Knox, 2005).

From City Government to Urban Governance

New urban policies in the era of globalization and competition between cities have been accompanied by new forms of urban governance in which the private sector plays a guiding role in urban programs. This type of cooperation between different sectors that makes it possible to implement the capital attraction approach is in fact a coalition for urban development. (Tewdwr, 1996:194).

In the new approach, institutions for physical development have been created that no longer use the traditional forces of local governments because state institutions, especially municipalities, are unable to move more to seize the benefits of the globalized economy and are now seen as obstacles to private investment in the city. Privatization, decentralization and multi-actor politics are key components of the new policy, a policy that reflects a new balance between government and society; a move away from the public sector and more towards the private sector. In this regard, new types of partnerships between government institutions, economic enterprises and urban society have been formed, such that urban planning policy is now shaped by a wide range of organizations and their partnerships, rather than being determined solely by government institutions, as was common in the old way of urban planning. This fundamental change in the form of the organizational framework for urban planning is interpreted as the shift from city government to city governance. (OECD, 2007: 24) In fact, this approach is about the privatization of public goods, the most important reason for which is related to the efficiency of the private sector.

Of course, another reason that is raised in this context is that the government is less competitive in its financial and control systems and is under external pressure, therefore it acts inflexibly and contradictory in the management of goods and services. (Officer, 1999:1) Instead of focusing on a hierarchical model of different levels of government, the new urban governance is defined by order in diversity, in which actors from different levels of government, along with a wide range of private and semi-private figures, are involved.

In fact, urban governance is a diffuse and multifaceted form of government to regulate and standardize things. (Healey, 2006:97) In urban governance, urban public institutions are expected to avoid extensive intervention in the economy and limit their activities to regulation and support.

This issue has created a plurality of power, whereby more actors are involved in shaping the political economy of the city. This shift in overall governance from a powerful state to a group of partners has had a profound impact on the management of urban areas, and of course this new mechanism needs to ensure effective cooperation between the various partners (Madanipour, 2006).

Since urban governance emphasizes building a platform for cooperation with the private sector to increase the city's competitiveness, a shift has occurred in the urban management structure, whereby instead of being fully involved in urban issues, urban management seeks opportunities for the private sector to solve problems and attract capital. This shift is called the shift from managerialism to capitalism.

The impact of this shift has been accompanied by an increased understanding among urban planners that cities can compete in an unpredictable global economy is to pursue active strategies to gain and maintain competitive advantages over other competitors.

Traditionally, physical development plans were prepared by technical groups in interaction with politicians, and hierarchical relationships between levels of government were the only way to manage those plans. This is reflected in the comprehensive plans prepared by urban planners and the allocation of public funds for their implementation.

However, these methods, which have been accompanied by the public sector's emphasis on regulating and controlling the private sector and providing a fixed pattern in land use, are now

incompatible with the fluid nature of capital (OECD, 2007: 108). In this process, the task of urban management has increasingly become to create sufficient conditions for city marketing to attract capital, which includes new urban policies in various dimensions (Knox, 2005).

In other words, to realize the investment-oriented approach and attract private sector capital, it is necessary that the city's capabilities be presented to investors in the form of marketing. In city marketing, with market pressures on city managers, it can be expected that market logic will increasingly enter city management. (Roberts & Erickson, 1997.)

This point in urban development means that the city's government and public institutions are expected to provide the necessary frameworks that can support the private sector in providing essential spaces and services. Therefore, the role of public institutions has changed from those who produce the city to those who regulate and promote the various features of the city as a commodity (Madanipour, 2006).

Urban marketing is concerned with the links that exist in the cooperation between city authorities and the public sector with the private sector, the cooperation that is carried out to implement development strategies in the city or urban space (Polidano, 2000).

There is a strong link between the philosophy of city marketing and the methods of urban management and local development. City and urban space marketing can create a new level of quality in terms of competitiveness, creativity and flexibility in the form of local development policy. In the city marketing method, a strategic approach can be created and expanded for the cooperation of urban planners and urban designers with the private sector.

Therefore, a new relationship must be defined between the way urban space management and city marketing in order to present the desired image of urban space to citizens and investors. In other words, when there is a need for flexibility If urban programs are to be marketed, then management practices are also needed that can facilitate effective market implementation in urban programs and ensure a higher quality of life (Sellers, 2002).

Based on studies conducted in the field of urban governance and its relevance to the conditions of Afghan cities, criteria such as citizen participation, effectiveness, responsiveness, openness, transparency, legality, consensus orientation, justice, strategic vision, and decentralization have been mentioned as criteria for urban governance in Afghanistan (Barakpour, 2006: 501).

Among the above criteria, the discussion of capital attraction in urban space can be interpreted in terms of effectiveness and consensus orientation criteria. The effectiveness criterion is based on the use of available resources to meet the needs of citizens, provide urban services, and satisfy the people, and the consensus orientation criterion is the adjustment and creation of agreement between different interests through communication and joint efforts between government organizations, citizens, and non-governmental organizations (Taqvaei and Tajdar, 2009: 54). To examine the attraction of capital in the urban space in the Iranian context and in a case study, considering the above criteria, the relationship between urban governance and urban management models is first discussed.

Urban Governance and Urban Space Management

In addition to the effects of urban governance on the creation of a capitalist approach to urban management, significant effects of capitalist approach on urban space management have also been

created. Urban spaces are places that belong to all citizens, are not limited to the physical aspect and are present in cities in various forms (Kashanijo, 2009: 96).

Historically, urban spaces, like other public goods, have been created and managed by popular institutions or public institutions, and now by the government through taxation. (Carmona et al.2008:66). But now, in the arena of globalization and the creation of economic competition between cities, urban spaces have also undergone many pressures and changes, and today we are faced with completely new forms of urban spaces and their management. (Hardy, 2004: 17) In order to examine this effect on urban space management, a definition must first be provided.

By examining the historical background of urban space, various definitions of urban space management can be obtained, but the most comprehensive definition that has been provided for urban space management is: a set of processes and actions that strive to ensure that urban space can perform all the expected roles and at the same time manage the interactions and effects between various functions and activities in urban space in a way that is acceptable to users.

Urban Space Management Can Be Identified in Four Interconnected Processes:

- Regulation or ordering of activities and control of the relationships between them.
- Methods of maintenance or Compatibility between the physical components of urban space so that urban space is usable.
- New investments in urban space: The regulation of activities and maintenance of urban space requires investment, and their effectiveness depends on the amount of financial resources available. Capital can be obtained from various sources with their own possibilities and limitations, so it is very important to recognize the available financial resources; and
- Coordination of interventions in urban space (Carmona et al.2008:71).

Urban Space Management Models

Based on a review of urban space management records in different countries, three management models for urban space can be identified. The use of each of these models depends on the priorities and power of the institutions involved in urban space management.

- State-based model: In this model, the main task of urban space management is with the government or municipality and is the dominant method in most countries. This model relies on public organizations in planning and providing services with minimal use of private sector facilities.

- Market-based model: This model is based on transferring responsibilities for urban spaces to the private sector. This model is involved in transferring rights and obligations for management and, in some cases, the authority to define management objectives. The logic in this model is based on public-private partnerships. Key features of this model include:

Increasing public budget by stimulating private resources, using skills and expertise that do not exist in the public sector, providing more services than the public sector is usually able to provide, creating more responsible and customer-oriented management strategies for urban space activities.

- People-centered model: This model has had the least growth and application, and its main difference from the market-centered model is that the organizations involved are not necessarily

selected based on market principles for profit and competition. Their main concern is the quality of urban space and its basic services. These organizations belong neither to the government structure nor to market interests. They pursue their goals through formal and informal links with other similar organizations and with the private and public sectors. (Carmona et al., 2008: 71-77)

Given the context in which the transition from urban government to urban governance has occurred, it must be said that urban space management has not been resistant to the impact of the extensive changes in urban governance.

Changes in the cultural and political contexts of urban governance, changes in the relationship between local and central government, society and government, economy and government; have challenged the way governments control and exercise power in cities.

Therefore, recent trends in urban space management are part of a process in which city government is being replaced by city governance (Kooiman, 2003:4), as no single actor has a complete solution to urban space problems (Wagenaar, & Hajer, 2003:7). Therefore, the change in urban space management is a reflection of the broader changes between government, especially local government, and society, which have been clearly manifested in the management of many public services (Goss, 2001:24).

In the conditions of Afghanistan, there is no basis for implementing the principles of good governance, either by the government or by the people, so that interaction between the government, the people and the private sectors takes place. In Afghanistan, since until recently the huge burden of urban management has been completely on the shoulders of the government, the transfer of powers to the private sector has created the fear that local management will become arbitrary institutions, which has caused some problems in our country (Ismailzada and Sarafi, 2006: 9). Therefore, the common model in the cities of the country is still the state-oriented model, but considering the goal of capitalism and marketing in urban management, the market-oriented model is the most desirable model for attracting private sector capital to the urban space, which should be done in the form of cooperation between the private sector or the market and the municipality.

Public-Private Partnerships

As the literature review suggests, capital investment is the process of creating value for citizens by bringing together public and private sector resources to explore social opportunities (Jones, & Morris, 1999:71). Therefore, the management of city capital is engaged in a fundamental shift from traditional management to a relationship with the private sector economy, and in doing so, it must demonstrate a strong commitment to working with the private sector. In this regard, public-private partnerships have now become a dominant organizational framework for planning and implementing urban strategies.

This shift is based on the recognition that, in the face of intense global competition among cities for economic growth, partnerships between the public and private sectors provide a strategic basis for competitiveness. (OECD, 2007:22)

Public-private partnerships generally refer to collaboration between the public and private sectors in the provision of public services. Its main goal is to provide that part of public services that cannot be achieved without cooperation with the private sector. In the form of public-private

partnerships, the private sector is more involved in the planning process, and this is often a factor in the private sector being the pioneer and implementer of programs.

Four groups of actors are involved in the process of public-private partnerships, which are: the government, non-governmental organizations, local organizations and the private sector. The classification of types of partnerships depends on the type of service, the nature of the partnership and its objectives. In the form of these partnerships, the public sector will be able to maintain partial ownership and management of services and leave the provision of services to the private sector without reducing its responsibility and accountability to the people and at the same time be able to meet the needs of different segments of the people in a balanced way.

The private sector pays more attention to the market mechanism in terms of supply and demand and also has better mobility in the market, but it does not enter into partnerships in the provision of services and goods that do not have financial benefits. The desired option in facing this challenge is to promote the role of both the public and private sectors in the ownership, production and distribution of public goods and services (Ngowi, 2005: 4). In other words, partnership in cases where there is no desired interest and profit requires specific prerequisites in the form of various incentives. Successful partnerships require a strong intermediary role from the government or municipality to regulate the details of cooperation between partners and protect the interests of low-interest partners (Miraftab, 2004). Therefore, public-private partnerships are the most important tools for realizing the capitalistic approach in the city and attracting capital. Among these cases, the city of Seoul can be mentioned, where decentralization reforms and the move towards urban governance led to extensive programs for urban development, resulting in the implementation of 114 projects with public-private partnerships (OECD, 2007: 108). Urban space Public-private partnerships can be considered as a hybrid between public functions and private capital, in which the cost of creating and managing urban space is divided between the public and private sectors, of course, this division of labor is done based on the competence and ability of each sector, such as filling the capital gap in the public sector by the private sector (Pancewicz& Rembeza 2010: 1208). This method has not been used much in Afghanistan. Experts have cited the lack of clear laws and regulations, the complexity of administrative, executive and supervisory matters, and the lack of fully defined projects as the reason for their lack of proper use (Samen Construction and Housing Company, 2005). However, among the experiences of such partnerships within the country, the participation of the government and the private sector in the construction of freeways can be mentioned, in which the investor, as the project financier, shares in its risk (Qasemi, 2008).

Capital Attracting and Managing Urban Space

When cities are competing for capital, they are forced to offer incentive packages to attract capital (Jones, 2006: 4). These incentives are necessary to encourage investors to pay more attention to the quality of urban space at the beginning of the partnership. (Rowley, 1998) It should be noted that in public sector partnerships with the market and attracting capital to improve the quality of urban space, the private sector seeks to do things that are profitable, but the public sector should encourage the private sector to participate in less profitable matters by creating incentives (Lang, 2005: 19).

Therefore, incentives should be developed that direct development in a specific direction and provide facilities that are desired by the public but not profitable for the investor. (Ibid, 53). With regard to the capitalist approach, the creation and management of urban space is rapidly being

privatized, so municipalities are Engaging with investors in the form of providing incentives to the private sector, usually in the form of incentive density and changes in land use regulations, leaves the creation and management of public space to the private sector.

Another example of these incentives, common in the United States, is the designation of areas of the city that are more easily accessible to the private sector through urban development regulations, and in return, the management of urban space is carried out by the private sector. Proponents of this approach argue that the efficiency of the private sector in providing and distributing public goods is more important than any potential negative effects on society from delegating urban space management to the private sector (Németh, & Schmidt, 2010).

Therefore, many local authorities have attempted to solve urban space problems by providing incentives and transferring some responsibilities to the private sector, although the extent of this transfer varies. For example, in some major commercial developments where the owners have a long-term interest in the quality of urban spaces remain privately owned and managed, often with municipal support.

Private sector support in urban furniture, landscaping, street patrols, and public space security are other ways of involving the private sector in urban space management (Magalhães & Carmona, 2006). In general, providing incentives emphasizes the private sector's ability to solve problems and uses public money to Stimulating weak markets is used to free up more private sector capital.

Other incentives include effective direct or indirect subsidies to the private sector, which if not supported, will not move forward. This approach also includes tax reduction, infrastructure development and land preparation by the public sector to reduce acquisition costs for private sector developments (OECD, 2007: 20).

On the other hand, city officials also have expectations from investors in terms of providing incentives. These expectations vary according to the needs and goals of each area of the city, but in general, the expectations of managers are to improve the quality of the urban space and satisfy the public.

The items in question in terms of officials' expectations from investors in terms of receiving incentives include improving environmental quality, supporting public sector services, creating jobs, urban renovation, attracting private resources and creating vitality in terms of society. (Woolley, 2003: 161-162; Carmona et al. 2008: 52)

Case study (Kabul Province Urban Management System)

Kabul is the first metropolis in Afghanistan, which is also the capital of Afghanistan, and is internationally famous due to its mountain and tourist attractions. The large number of tourists and people in Kabul has attracted special attention from domestic and foreign investors to this city, and huge amounts of money are spent annually in the city's tourism and commercial sectors. Therefore, recently, the city's management institutions, in competition with other cities, have begun an effort to attract this capital in the way of providing public services in urban spaces. This part of the research was conducted using a survey method and by completing a questionnaire from city managers.

The community of city managers includes those managers who have a direct connection with the issue of capital attraction, including the mayors of the 21 districts of Mashhad, managers of the

Mashhad Municipality's macro-economic partnerships, managers of the Kabul Comprehensive Planning Institution, and managers of the Deputy Urban planning and urban architecture.

According to the findings of the theoretical foundations, a questionnaire was developed that includes the desired incentives from the perspective of investors and the actions expected from managers that investors should take in return for receiving incentives in urban space. These questions were developed based on the theoretical foundations as well as pre-test interviews conducted with investors and managers.

Given the large number of investors in large commercial complexes in Kabul and their interest in improving the quality of urban space, managers were asked about how to cooperate with investors in commercial complexes in improving the quality of urban space in a five-point spectrum from completely disagree to completely agree with the above. (Tables 1 and 2)

Table 1. Average rating of managers' expectations of investors

Managers' expectations from investors		Average scores
1	Providing public parking	3.67
2	Providing amenities in urban space	2.89
3	Improving green space, lighting and flooring in urban spaces	3.65
4	Cleaning of urban space	3.34
5	Getting advice from the municipality on designing a commercial complex	1.78
6	Providing suitable urban furniture	2.78
7	Investing in better urban design of urban space	3
8	Paying more fees	1
9	Participation in the ceremony	2.12
10	Donating part of your land to urban space	0.88

Table 2. Average rating of incentives available to investors

Incentives that can be given by managers to investors		Average scores
1	Granting loans or other financial facilities	2.56
2	Determining a suitable urban space in the city for investment with easier criteria	2.67
3	Removing or modifying uses incompatible with the commercial complex in the urban space	3.45

4	Establishing greater communication and coordination with other government organizations to facilitate the creation of a commercial complex	2.56
5	Giving advice or receiving and acting on investor opinions	2.34
6	Giving a better view and perspective to the commercial complex by changing the building regulations	2.78
7	Reducing licensing fees and costs	3.67
8	Creating the possibility of investor advertising in urban space	3.56
9	Shortening the legal process for approving commercial complex plans	3.78
10	Granting more density	3

The findings of this study show that the best incentives for managers to provide to investors include shortening the process of approving complex commercial plans, reducing the costs and hassles of issuing permits, and establishing communication and coordination with other government agencies. The most important actions that managers expect from investors include providing public parking, improving green spaces, lighting, flooring, and cleaning urban spaces.

Conclusion

At whatever social and economic level cities are, competition to attract capital on a national and transnational scale is inevitable for them. The competition of cities to attract capital on a large scale and its series of effects on urban governance and capitalization in urban management have made the partnership of urban managers with the private sector on the scale of the city and urban space an important weapon in the global competition arena (Table 3). However, the private sector does not enter into partnerships that do not have financial benefits, including the quality of urban space.

Therefore, partnership requires specific prerequisites in the form of various incentives, and urban management must create a suitable platform for attracting private capital by providing targeted incentives in the overall urban design activities.

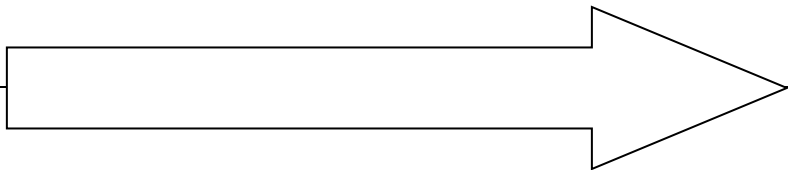
Of course, there is a risk that providing incentives and economic justifications in urban space management will take priority and end up benefiting the interests of investors. On the other hand, there is a risk that plans and programs will become idealistic and far from economic justifications.

Therefore, in order to be present in the urban competition arena and Capital attraction should be based on a market-oriented approach, taking into account the mutual expectations of investors and urban managers in the design and planning of urban space.

However, in examining the local conditions of Iran and specifically in the Kabul metropolis, it is observed that possible incentives in the field of managers are limited to administrative measures and there is no news of financial and technical incentives that can be effective in attracting small investors. The interesting point here is that in the expectations of managers, despite the lack of financial resources, more development and technical measures are required from investors than receiving more fees.

Therefore, it is clear that most of the cooperation of urban designers in attracting capital and improving the quality of urban space should be on the side of investors to meet the expectations of urban managers, instead of being present in connection with the incentives of managers.

Table 3. Series of effects of city competition on capital attraction in urban space

Globalization and the competition of cities	⇒	Urban governance	⇒	Capitalism	⇒	City Marketing	⇒	Public Private partnership	⇒	Setting expectations and actions
Capital liquidity and the competitiveness of cities in attracting capital		Greater cooperation with non-governmental sectors in providing public services		Laying the groundwork for attracting private sector capital – a market-based approach to urban space management		Declaring the economic advantages and capabilities of the city and urban spaces to investors		Developing a mechanism for cooperation with investors in the provision of public services		Determining managers' expectations and incentives for attracting capital in urban space
Global										Local
The macro-scale of the overall goals of mental criteria										Micro-scale implementation strategies of objective measures

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Ethnic Identity and Linguistic Practice: Exploring the Language–Ethnicity Nexus

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Abstract:

This article explores the complex relationship between language and ethnicity, emphasizing how linguistic practices serve as both reflections and constructions of ethnic identity. Drawing on foundational sociolinguistic theories—such as Ethnolinguistic Vitality, identity performance models, and Bourdieu’s notion of symbolic power—the study examines how language functions as a cultural symbol, a tool for boundary negotiation, and a means of resistance or alignment. Through examples from minority communities including the Basques, Navajo, Uighurs, and Kurds, as well as a case vignette involving Azerbaijani youth in Baku, the article highlights how language choices can express solidarity, identity, or cultural tension. It further analyzes the effects of language shift, marginalization, and global migration on the continuity of ethnic identities. Special attention is given to the role of educational language policy in either reinforcing or suppressing ethnic diversity. The study advocates for inclusive pedagogical models that honor linguistic plurality and support identity formation in multicultural contexts. By demonstrating the centrality of language in ethnic identity negotiation, the article underscores the importance of recognizing language not only as a communicative tool but as a critical element in the maintenance of cultural and social cohesion.

Keywords

language and identity, ethnic identity, code-switching, language shift, sociolinguistics, multilingualism

1. Introduction

The concepts of *language* and *ethnicity* are profoundly interconnected in sociolinguistic inquiry. Language is more than a communicative tool—it is a social symbol, a cultural repository, and, crucially, a marker of group belonging. Ethnicity, on the other hand, refers to shared cultural traits, historical experiences, and symbolic boundaries that distinguish one group from another. From a sociolinguistic perspective, ethnicity is not solely inherited but is continuously enacted and negotiated through linguistic practices (Lytra, 2016; Souza, 2016).

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This article examines a fundamental question: How can language serve as both a marker and a constructor of ethnic identity? This inquiry prompts an examination of the symbolic significance of language in group identity and how individuals strategically utilize language to assert, alter, or contest ethnic borders. Numerous studies have demonstrated that even a minor alteration in language selection or accent can signify inclusion, exclusion, solidarity, or divergence within and within communities (Guo & Gu, 2018; Cho & Wang, 2020).

In multilingual cultures and post-colonial environments, where identity is frequently mixed or disputed, the significance of language becomes increasingly pronounced. Languages are infused with power dynamics—some are favored while others are marginalized. In these contexts, linguistic selections may signify wider ideological conflicts related to legacy, assimilation, and national identity (Hemat & Heng, 2012; Al Hakim, 2021; Ryu & Kang, 2025).

This study aims to examine how language reflects, supports, and negotiates ethnicity within diverse sociocultural contexts. Utilizing ethnographic case studies, theoretical frameworks, and modern literature, the discussion seeks to elucidate how language influences the construction, validation, and challenge of ethnic identity.

2. Theoretical Foundations

The connection between language and ethnicity has been examined through various core theories in sociolinguistics, which collectively emphasize language as both a reflection and a creation of ethnic identity.

The Ethnolinguistic Vitality framework, introduced by Giles, Bourhis, and Taylor in 1977, is one of the earliest and most impactful models. This theory asserts that the resilience and endurance of an ethnic group are contingent upon the robustness of its language, which is influenced by three key factors: status, demography, and institutional support. A language with significant vitality is more likely to be passed down through generations and utilized as a daily marker of identity. Conversely, groups with less vitality frequently undergo language shift, wherein the use of their ethnic language is supplanted by that of a dominant group, resulting in the gradual degradation of ethnic distinctiveness.

A fundamental aspect in this domain is the language and identity hypothesis proposed by Le Page and Tabouret-Keller (1985), which perceives linguistic activity as a manifestation of identity projection. Individuals actively select linguistic types and speech patterns to affiliate with particular social groupings rather than passively inheriting language. This theory contests rigid concepts of ethnicity, highlighting the dynamic and performative aspects of identity, wherein language serves as a medium of negotiation rather than a permanent inheritance.

Bourdieu's (1991) concept of symbolic power positions language as a domain of social conflict. He contends that the legality of specific languages or dialects is not impartial but rather enforced by historical and institutional influences. Code-switching, frequently regarded as linguistic impurity, is redefined as a deliberate positioning act. Speakers may alternate languages or registers to assert authority, convey solidarity, or undermine power structures. These selections frequently signify ethnic demarcations and the socio-political context in which they are situated.

Collectively, these views indicate that ethnicity is both innate and produced through discourse. Although language may signify a shared history or common lineage, it is through quotidian discourse that individuals actively enact and redefine their ethnic identities. The symbolic

meanings of language are co-constructed within communities and shaped by overarching societal ideas and power dynamics.

3. Language as a Symbol of Ethnic Identity

Language serves as one of the most potent symbols of ethnic identity. It acts not merely as a tool of communication but as a **cultural emblem**, encapsulating shared values, histories, and worldviews. Across diverse sociolinguistic settings, ethnic groups have preserved and expressed their identities through deliberate language practices.

One illustrative case is the **Basque community** in Spain and France. Despite centuries of political pressure and marginalization, efforts to revive **Euskara**, the Basque language, have intensified through education, media, and grassroots activism. Euskara is viewed not only as a linguistic asset but as a **symbol of resistance and ethnic pride**, especially among younger generations seeking to reestablish cultural continuity.

Similarly, **Navajo** speakers in the United States have engaged in language revitalization programs aimed at reversing intergenerational loss. Navajo language immersion schools and community initiatives emphasize the connection between language and sacred heritage, reinforcing that speaking Navajo is central to maintaining **spiritual and ethnic belonging**.

The **Sorani Kurdish** case offers another striking example. While Kurdish dialects face varying degrees of recognition across national borders, in regions like Iraqi Kurdistan, language has become a key symbol of **autonomy, unity, and modern nationhood**. The promotion of Sorani Kurdish in education and literature has helped consolidate ethnic consciousness in a fragmented political landscape.

Beyond language revival movements, **linguistic micro-practices** also reveal how ethnicity is performed. The use of **ethnic names**, specific **greetings**, **proverbs**, and **dialectical pronunciation** choices function as daily affirmations of group membership. For example, an ethnic Armenian might insist on the original Armenian pronunciation of their surname even within an English-speaking context, subtly asserting identity through phonological fidelity.

The experiences of **heritage language learners**—individuals raised in a dominant-language society but connected to an ancestral language—highlight the symbolic weight of language in personal and collective identity. For many, reclaiming a heritage language such as Arabic, Russian, or Azerbaijani is not solely about linguistic proficiency but about **reconnecting with roots**, honoring familial legacy, and resisting assimilation. Their journey often involves navigating conflicting cultural expectations while constructing a **hybrid ethnic self**.

In all these cases, language is not merely descriptive but **deeply emblematic**. It marks boundaries, signals belonging, and carries emotional and ideological meaning that transcends the act of speech itself.

4. Negotiation and Performance of Ethnicity

Ethnic identity is not static—it is fluid, negotiated, and often **performed through language** in dynamic social contexts. Linguistic practices such as **code-switching**, **code-mixing**, and **stylization** offer speakers the flexibility to navigate, construct, or even contest ethnic boundaries.

Code-switching, the alternating use of two or more languages or dialects within a single conversation, is not merely a sign of linguistic convenience. It is often a **conscious or subconscious act of identity positioning**. Speakers may switch codes to align with a particular ethnic group, signal solidarity, or distance themselves from certain cultural expectations. Likewise, **code-mixing**, where elements of multiple languages are blended within a sentence or phrase, reflects the hybrid linguistic realities of many ethnic minorities and diaspora communities.

Stylization, the strategic adoption of a particular speech style or accent, allows individuals to enact identities that may not directly reflect their upbringing but resonate with their desired group affiliation. These performances are especially visible in popular culture, where ethnic dialects or slang are employed to index authenticity or cultural capital.

Youth communities, in particular, use language innovatively to **assert agency over their ethnic affiliations**. In increasingly globalized and digitized societies, ethnic identity is no longer inherited passively but is actively curated through discourse. Young people may adopt or reject ethnic labels based on context, often using language as a tool to **reclaim heritage or resist imposed identities**.

A telling example can be observed among **Azerbaijani youth in Baku**, where bilingualism in Russian and Azerbaijani is common. In private settings or peer groups, Azerbaijani is often preferred as a marker of intimacy and shared national culture. Yet, in formal or academic settings, Russian is still associated with prestige and intellectual authority. This **strategic language choice** reflects a broader negotiation of ethnic identity—balancing post-Soviet legacy with renewed national consciousness.

Moreover, youth may switch to Azerbaijani in social media posts, rap lyrics, or memes to signal cultural rootedness, while simultaneously using Russian in academic essays or professional settings. These shifts are not accidental but part of a **discursive performance**, where language becomes a resource for constructing a layered ethnic self in response to audience, setting, and social expectations.

Thus, language is not only a reflection of ethnicity but a **stage on which ethnicity is enacted, negotiated, and sometimes reinvented**.

5. Language Shift and Ethnolinguistic Marginalization

While language can be a powerful tool of ethnic affirmation, it is equally vulnerable to processes of erosion and marginalization. **Language shift**, the gradual replacement of a community's native tongue with another, often dominant, language, poses a serious risk to the **continuity of ethnic identity**. When a language is lost, so too are the cultural expressions, historical narratives, and worldview encoded within it.

This loss is rarely neutral. It is frequently the result of **systematic assimilation policies**, educational structures that privilege dominant languages, and sociopolitical pressures that stigmatize minority tongues. In such contexts, ethnic languages are rendered invisible, and speakers may feel compelled to abandon their linguistic heritage for socioeconomic advancement or acceptance.

The plight of the **Uighur community in China** offers a striking example. Mandarin Chinese has been imposed through educational mandates and media restrictions, while Uighur language use in

schools and public spaces has diminished dramatically. Language loss here is not incidental—it is **tied to broader state policies aiming at cultural homogenization**.

A similar pattern can be observed among the **Rohingya people in Myanmar**, where language deprivation is compounded by statelessness. Denied recognition and educational access, many Rohingya children grow up with limited literacy in their heritage language, weakening intergenerational transmission and dislocating them from their ethnic identity.

In **Turkey and Iran**, the **Kurdish population** has long faced prohibitions or restrictions on using Kurdish in public life, education, and media. Although some reforms have occurred in recent years, the historical suppression has left deep scars, and language shift toward Turkish or Persian is prevalent among urban Kurdish youth.

These examples underline the fact that **language is a site of both cultural survival and political contestation**. When minority languages are erased or replaced, entire ways of being ethnic in the world may vanish along with them.

6. Cross-Cultural and Global Considerations

In an age of rapid **global migration**, ethnic identity is increasingly experienced as **fluid, negotiated, and transnational**. Migrants often find themselves navigating multiple linguistic landscapes, where **language blending** and shift are common. This creates what scholars call **hybrid identities**, where individuals may simultaneously inhabit more than one cultural or ethnic framework.

In diaspora communities, language plays a crucial role in **preserving ethnic identity across generations**. Parents may strive to maintain their native language within the home, while children often adopt the dominant language of their host society. The tension between linguistic retention and adaptation reflects a deeper struggle over **ethnic continuity in exile**.

Language also becomes a **marker of authenticity or belonging** within the diaspora. Fluency in the heritage language is sometimes used to judge whether someone is “truly” part of the ethnic group. Yet, even partial speakers or those reclaiming a lost language may assert strong ethnic ties, proving that identity is not always dependent on linguistic mastery.

In popular culture, **language performs ethnicity in highly visible ways**. For instance, **African-American Vernacular English (AAVE)**, once stigmatized, has gained cultural capital through hip-hop, digital platforms, and film. AAVE functions both as a linguistic variety and a symbol of Black cultural identity—an **act of resistance and self-expression** in the face of racial marginalization.

This phenomenon, sometimes referred to as **ethnic branding**, shows how language styles associated with particular groups can be commodified, celebrated, or even appropriated. It raises complex questions about authenticity, ownership, and the visibility of marginalized voices.

In all, the global movement of people and ideas reshapes how language and ethnicity interact. Whether in exile, in online spaces, or in popular media, language remains central to how individuals and communities define who they are, where they belong, and how they wish to be seen.

7. Pedagogical and Policy Implications

Education is one of the most powerful instruments through which language either **preserves or dissolves ethnic identity**. The language policies adopted in educational institutions—whether explicit or implicit—can shape how students perceive themselves, their heritage, and their place in society.

Monolingual education models, particularly those that enforce a dominant national language, often marginalize minority languages and discourage their use in formal learning environments. In such systems, students from ethnolinguistic minority backgrounds may experience alienation, as their native language is excluded from the classroom and rendered invisible in the curriculum. This **erasure of linguistic diversity** can lead to lowered academic engagement and gradual assimilation, weakening students' ethnic self-perception over time.

By contrast, **multicultural and multilingual education models** seek to embrace diversity, recognizing minority languages as assets rather than obstacles. These approaches incorporate multiple languages into instruction, celebrate cultural plurality, and aim to foster inclusive identities. Bilingual programs, heritage language courses, and culturally responsive teaching are examples of educational strategies that affirm students' ethnic backgrounds while promoting academic success.

Schools play a pivotal role in either **reinforcing or suppressing ethnic identity**. Curricula that privilege dominant cultural narratives, overlook minority contributions, or standardize linguistic expression risk sending the message that only certain forms of identity are legitimate. Conversely, incorporating ethnic literature, oral traditions, and linguistic variation into lessons affirms students' lived experiences and encourages a sense of pride and belonging.

To support **ethnic diversity through education**, it is essential to adopt **inclusive pedagogical frameworks**. This includes:

- Offering instruction in both dominant and minority languages where feasible.
- Training educators in sociolinguistic awareness and cultural sensitivity.
- Involving local communities in curriculum development.
- Encouraging students to explore and share their linguistic heritage as part of classroom activities.

Such frameworks do not only enhance linguistic competence but contribute to **identity formation, social cohesion, and intercultural understanding**. Education, when thoughtfully designed, can become a space where language diversity is not only tolerated but celebrated as a fundamental part of human richness.

Conclusion

The relationship between language and ethnicity is intricate, dynamic, and deeply rooted in both individual experience and collective memory. As this article has shown, language is far more than a medium of communication—it is a symbol of ethnic belonging, a performance of identity, and, at times, a site of political resistance. Whether in the revival efforts of Basque and Navajo communities, the strategic code-switching of Azerbaijani youth, or the diasporic preservation of heritage languages, linguistic practices shape and reflect how individuals perceive and assert their

ethnicity. Theoretical models such as Ethnolinguistic Vitality, language and identity theory, and Bourdieu's concept of symbolic power reveal the layers through which language functions as both a mirror and a maker of ethnic identity. However, these identities are constantly being negotiated, especially in contexts of language shift, assimilation, and globalization. As migration, media, and hybrid cultures redefine how ethnicity is expressed, education and language policy become crucial spaces for inclusion or exclusion. It is therefore imperative that educational systems adopt inclusive, multicultural models that protect and promote linguistic diversity, ensuring that ethnic identities are not erased in the pursuit of linguistic homogeneity. Ultimately, safeguarding the link between language and ethnicity is not only a matter of cultural preservation but also of social justice and human dignity.

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Mədəniyyət və dilin müasir dövrdəki inkişafı və qarşılıqlı təsiri

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Abstract:

This article explores the dynamic relationship between language and culture in the modern era. Language is not only a medium of communication but also a key carrier of cultural values, traditions, and identity. It plays a vital role in preserving and transmitting both tangible and intangible aspects of heritage across generations. The paper examines how language reflects cultural norms and how cultural changes influence linguistic development. Through historical and theoretical perspectives, the study highlights the interdependence of language and culture, emphasizing their collective role in shaping human society.

Keywords

language, culture, communication, tradition, identity

Xülasə

Dil və mədəniyyətin insan həyatında rolu böyükdür. Dil insanların mədəni həyatda istifadə etdikləri ən unikal vasitədir. Cəmiyyətin bir-biri ilə əlaqə saxlaması, ünsiyyət yaratması dil vasitəsi ilə həyata keçirilir. Dil ünsiyyət vasitəsi olmaqla yanaşı, həm də mədəniyyətin daşıyıcısıdır. Dilə ictimai bir hadisə olaraq əlaqə saxlamaq üçün nəzərdə tutulan bir proses kimi baxılmamalıdır. Dilin xalqın adət-ənənələrinin gələcək nəsillərə ötürülməsində, maddi və mənəvi dəyərlərin öyrənilməsindəki rolu danılmazdır. Dilin mədəniyyətlə əlaqəsi, tarix boyu geniş şəkildə tədqiq edilmiş və müxtəlif tədqiqatçıların diqqətini cəlb etmiş bir mövzudur. Bu münasibət, bir çox nəzəriyyə və fəlsəfi ideyaların meydana çıxmasına səbəb olmuşdur. Dil və mədəniyyət arasındakı qarşılıqlı əlaqənin öyrənilməsi, həm dilçilik, həm də antropologiya sahələrində müzakirələrə yol açmışdır. Bu kontekstdə, “dil mədəniyyətdir yoxsa mədəniyyət dildir” sualı, dil və mədəniyyətin bir-birini necə formalaşdırdığı və ya birinin digərinə necə təsir etdiyi məsələsini ortaya qoyur. Bu baxımdan, dil və mədəniyyət arasındakı qarşılıqlı əlaqə cəmiyyətin sosial strukturu və inkişafı üçün əsas təməl daşıdır. Məqalədə dil və mədəniyyətin qarşılıqlı olaraq bir-birinə təsiri ətraflı olaraq araşdırılmış, bu mövzuya yenidən müraciət edilməsinə ehtiyac olduğu göstərilmişdir.

Açar sözlər:

Dil, mədəniyyət, mədəni əlaqələr, ünsiyyət, cəmiyyət

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Dil insan düşüncəsinin ortaya çıxmasında, təfəkkürün formalaşmasında mühüm rol oynayır. Dil insanın düşüncələrini ifadə etməsi, ünsiyyət yaratmasına və dünya görüşünün hamı tərəfindən anlaşılmasına əhəmiyyətli dərəcədə təsir edir. İnsanın daxili aləminin eləcə də şüuraltı düşüncəsinin ortaya çıxaran dil həmçinin onun mədəni əlaqələrinə də təsir göstərmiş olur. İctimai hadisə olaraq insanların hər hansı vasitə ilə ünsiyyət yaratması, onda yeni təcrübələrin yaranmasına şərait yaradır. Bu vasitələr istər yazılı istərsə də şifahi olaraq ortaya çıxa bilər. Qəzet, jurnal, kitab oxumaq, danışmaq, məktublaşmaq, elektron internet vasitəsilə yazışmaqla ola bilər. Cəmiyyətdə bu təcrübələr artdıqca insan düşüncələrini, fikirlərini, hər hansı bir vasitə ilə hamıya çatdırmaq istəyir ki, bu da dil vasitəsilə həyata keçirilir. Dil və mədəniyyətin barəsində mövzunu daha dəqiq başa düşmək üçün hər iki məsələyə ayrılıqda baxmaq lazımdır.

Mədəniyyət çoxsahəli geniş bir anlayışdır. Mədəniyyət insanların təbiətə, cəmiyyətə qarşı münasibətində yaranmışdır. İnsanlar yaşadığıca əmək münasibətləri inkişaf etmiş və yeni mədəni formaların əmələ gəlməsinə şərait yaranmışdır. Tarixən mədəni abidələrin yaranması, mədəni varlıqların gələcək nəsillərə ötürülməsi və bu ənənənin yaşaması üçün insanlar daima fəaliyyət göstərmişlər. Mədəniyyətin inkişafı tarix boyu dəyişkən olmuş və bu inkişaf, mədəniyyətin şaxələnməsinə və yeni nailiyyətlərin yaranmasına səbəb olmuşdur. Mədəniyyətə verilən təriflər, cəmiyyətin həyatını, düşüncə tərzini, dəyərlərini və adət-ənənələrini əhatə etmişdir. Max Weber, Clifford Geertz, Franz Boas, Karl Marx, Antonio Gramsci, və Raymond Williams kimi alimlər mədəniyyətlə bağlı fərqli yanaşmalar irəli sürmüşlər.

Edvard B. Teylor mədəniyyəti "insanın əldə etdiyi bütün bilik, inam, incəsənət, qanun, ənənə və cəmiyyət üzvlərinin bacarıqları və vərdisləri" kimi tərif etmişdir. Teylorun bu təyini mədəniyyətin sosial, zehni, mənəvi və praktiki sahələrini əhatə etdiyini vurğulamış və antropologiyada mədəniyyət anlayışının əsasını təşkil etmişdir. Bu yanaşma, mədəniyyəti yalnız yüksək incəsənət və ya sənət kimi deyil, cəmiyyətin gündəlik həyatına və dəyərlərinə daxil olan geniş bir fenomen kimi görməyə imkan verir.

A.Qurbanov mədəniyyət haqqında danışarkən onun iki formada ortaya çıxdığını qeyd edir: maddi və mənəvi mədəniyyət (1, 223). Maddi mədəniyyət dedikdə inşaların fiziki əməklərinin nəticəsində meydana gələn mədəniyyət nümunələri nəzərdə tutulur. İnsan düşüncəsinin məhsulu olaraq ortaya çıxan elm, ədəbiyyat və incəsənət nümunələrini mənəvi mədəniyyətə aiddir.

Müasir dövrdə dil və mədəniyyətə dair aparılan araşdırmalar, antropoloji və sosiolinqvistik yanaşmalar, mədəniyyətlərarası ünsiyyət, tərcümə və dil öyrətmək sahələrindəki tədqiqatlar bu iki sahə arasındakı əlaqəni daha da inkişaf etdirmişdir. Bu sahələr arasındakı qarşılıqlı təsir, dilin mədəniyyətin ifadəsi və formalaşması ilə necə bağlı olduğunu daha dərinlən anlamağa imkan yaratmışdır. Eyni zamanda, mədəniyyətlərin dil vasitəsilə necə paylaşılmaq və tərcümə edilə biləcəyini araşdıran tədqiqatlar, dilin və mədəniyyətin qlobal və yerli kontekstdə qarşılıqlı əlaqələrini daha geniş bir perspektivdə öyrənməyə şərait yaratmışdır. Dilin yalnız ictimai hadisə olaraq deyil, eyni zamanda mədəni bir hadisə olaraq araşdırılması, dilin cəmiyyətdəki rolunun daha geniş və dərin bir şəkildə anlaşılmasına səbəb olmuşdur. Dilin mədəni mənalərini və

kontekstini nəzərə almaq, yeni təcrübələrin yaranması üçün vacib bir zəmin yaratmışdır. Dilə sadəcə ictimai kontekstdə yanaşmaqla kifayətlənməyib, onu mədəni mənə daşıyan kontekstlə əlaqələndirmək, dilin müxtəlif sosial və mədəni fenomenlərlə necə əlaqələndiyini anlamağa imkan verir. Bu yanaşma, dilin cəmiyyətin düşüncə tərzini, dəyərlərini və dünyagörüşünü əks etdirmə qabiliyyətini daha yaxşı başa düşməyə şərait yaradır və bu sahədə ümidverici nəticələrə gətirib çıxarır. Lakin bu inkişafın bir çox problemli cəhətləri də üzə çıxmış olur. Deyilənlərə razılaşsaq “dili mədəniyyəti yaradır”, “dil mədəniyyətdir, mədəniyyət isə dildir”, “dil və mədəniyyət ayrılmazdır”, “dil və mədəniyyət bir-biri ilə sıx bağlıdır” sözləri ilə birmənalı olaraq bu məsələyə yanaşmış olarıq.

Bu gün dil və mədəniyyət mövzusu yalnız dilçilərin deyil, həm də mədəniyyət, incəsənət, ədəbiyyat, fəlsəfə, psixologiya və bir çox digər sahələrin tədqiqatçılarının maraq dairəsinə daxil olmuşdur. Hər bir sahə öz baxış bucağından dil və mədəniyyət arasındakı əlaqəni araşdırır və bu sahələrdə aparılan tədqiqatlar yeni elmi əsərlərin və nəzəriyyələrin yaranmasına səbəb olur. Mədəniyyətin dil ilə əlaqəsini araşdırarkən, bu iki sahənin bir-biri ilə qarşılıqlı əlaqəsi onların daha mükəmməl şəkildə inkişafına təkan verir. Dil, xalqın adət-ənənələrini, dünya görüşünü və milli düşüncəsini əks etdirən bir vasitə olaraq mədəniyyətin ifadəsi və daşıyıcısı rolunu oynayır. Bu baxımdan, dilin sosial və mədəni həyatın müxtəlif aspektlərini nümayiş etdirməkdəki rolu, həmçinin cəmiyyətin kollektiv yaddaşını və mədəni irsini qorumaqda əhəmiyyətli yer tutur.

Sosiolinqvist J.A.Fishman dil və mədəniyyətin qarşılıqlı əlaqəsini dərinlən öyrənmiş və bu münasibəti daha yaxşı anlamaq üçün dilin mədəniyyətdəki rolunu üç fərqli istiqamətdə təhlil etmişdir. Onun bu üç əsas yanaşması, dilin mədəniyyətdə necə bir yer tutduğunu və mədəniyyətin özünün dil vasitəsilə necə formalaşdığını anlamağa kömək edir.

1. Mədəniyyətin bir hissəsi kimi dil
2. Mədəniyyətin göstəricisi kimi dil
3. Mədəniyyətin simvolu kimi dil

Fishmanın bu yanaşmaları, dilin yalnız sadə bir kommunikasiya vasitəsi olmadığını, həm də mədəniyyətin formalaşmasında və qorunmasında necə vacib bir rol oynadığını göstərir. Hər bir cəmiyyətin dili, onun mədəniyyətini daşıyan və inkişaf etdirən bir amil kimi fəaliyyət göstərir. Bu münasibəti başa düşmək, dilin sosial, tarixi və mədəni kontekstini daha dərinlən anlamağa imkan verir.

Dil və mədəniyyətin öyrənilməsi sahəsində C.Kramşın özünəməxsus yanaşması olmuşdur. C.Kramşın, dil və mədəniyyət arasındakı əlaqəni öyrənərkən, dilin mədəniyyətin necə ifadə olunduğunu və onunla necə əlaqəyə girdiyini üç əsas istiqamətdə analiz etmişdir. Kramşının bu yanaşmaları, dilin mədəniyyətlə necə əlaqələndiyini və hər iki anlayışın necə qarşılıqlı təsir etdiyini anlamağa kömək edir. C.Kramş dil və mədəniyyəti 3 istiqamətə yönəlmişdir: *Dil və Mədəniyyət* (1998a: 3)

- dil mədəni reallığı ifadə edir;
- dil mədəni reallığı təcəssüm etdirir;
- dil mədəni reallığı simvollaşdırır.

C.Kramşın bu üç yanaşması, dilin mədəniyyətlə əlaqəsini müxtəlif aspektlərdən göstərir və onun mədəniyyətin yalnız bir təmsilçisi və ifadəçisi deyil, həm də onun formalaşmasında və saxlanmasında mühüm bir amil olduğunu vurğulayır. Dil, cəmiyyətin necə düşüncəyini və necə davranacağını müəyyən edən mədəni reallığı sadəcə göstərmir, eyni zamanda onu inkişaf etdirir və simvollaşdırır. Bu yanaşmalar dilin mədəniyyətlə sıx əlaqəsini və hər iki anlayışın bir-birini necə təsir etdiyini daha dərinlən anlamağa imkan verir.

Ümumi mədəniyyət anlayışı insan üçün ümumi olan, insanlığı təbiətdən və bütün canlı varlıqlardan fərqləndirən şeylə əlaqədardır. Demək olar ki, mədəniyyətlərin müxtəlifliyi və onların bir-birinə uyğunsuzluğu nə qədər çox vurğulanırsa, hər şeyə rəğmən, bütün bəşəriyyətə aid olan bir konsepsiyaya ehtiyac bir o qədər çox olur. Ümumi mədəniyyət anlayışı belə bir fikrə səbəb ola bilər ki, hər yerdə və hər zaman yalnız bir mədəniyyət var, yəni insan mədəniyyəti. Bauman, insanın ümumi mədəniyyətinə xas olan şeyləri müzakirə edir və aşağıdakı nəticəyə gəlir:

Karen Risager, dil və mədəniyyətin qarşılıqlı əlaqələrini təhlil edərkən, mədəniyyətin fərdi, kollektiv və estetik konsepsiyalarına dair çox mühüm fikirlər irəli sürmüşdür. Risagerin bu sahədəki yanaşmaları, dilin və mədəniyyətin sosial, fərdi və estetik yönlərini daha dərinlən başa düşməyə kömək edir. O, mədəniyyətin bu üç fərqli konsepsiyasını bir-biri ilə əlaqəli şəkildə təqdim edərək, dilin mədəniyyətlə necə qarşılıqlı əlaqədə olduğunu və mədəniyyətin müxtəlif səviyyələrini izah etmişdir.

1. Fərdi mədəniyyət anlayışı:
2. Mədəniyyətin kollektiv konsepsiyası:
3. Mədəniyyətin estetik konsepsiyası:

Risagerin yanaşması bu üç konsepsiyanın bir arada işlədiyini göstərir. Fərdi mədəniyyət, kollektiv mədəniyyətin və estetik mədəniyyətin müəyyənləşdirdiyi təcrübələrdən təsirlənir, eyni zamanda onları formalaşdırır. Risagerin bu konsepsiyalar üzrə fikirləri, mədəniyyətin çoxqatlı və kompleks bir fenomen olduğunu və dilin bu fenomeni anlamaqda necə mühüm rol oynadığını vurğulayır. D.Everettin Braziliyada Piraha qəbiləsinə etdiyi səyahət onun dünyagörüşündə və düşüncələrində əsaslı dəyişikliklərə səbəb olmuşdur. Piraha xalqının dil və mədəniyyəti, onda dilə və mədəniyyətə yanaşmada tamamilə fərqli bir baxış bucağının formalaşmasına gətirib çıxarmışdır. D.Everett müşahidə etmişdir ki, Piraha dilində klassik anlamda qrammatik qaydalar, rəqəmlər, rəng adları və zaman formaları mövcud deyil. O, bu dilin dünya dilləri arasında istisna təşkil etdiyini və Noam Çomskinin məşhur “universal qrammatika” nəzəriyyəsi ilə ziddiyyət təşkil etdiyini irəli sürmüşdür. Everettin bu fikirləri dilçilik sahəsində böyük rezonans doğurmuş, bəzi alimlər tərəfindən dəstəklənsə də, bir çoxları tərəfindən tənqid edilmişdir. Pirahā dili və onun arxasında

dayanan mədəniyyət yalnız elmi mübahisələrə deyil, həm də Everettin şəxsi düşüncə və dini inanclar sistemində köklü dəyişikliklərə səbəb olmuşdur. D.Everett insan təcrübəsinə və mədəniyyətə bağlı olaraq dilin necə formalaşa biləcəyini, bioloji əsaslardan olmadan inkişaf edəcəyini və sosial ehtiyaclardan yarandığını vurğulayır.

Nəticə

Dil və mədəniyyətin qarşılıqlı təsiri barədə belə bir nəticəyə gəlmək olar ki, mədəniyyət inkişaf etdikcə, onunla əlaqəli olan sahələrin hər biri özlüyündə irəliləyəcəkdir. Bu qarşılıqlı təsir, cəmiyyətin sosial, iqtisadi və texnoloji inkişafı ilə birbaşa əlaqəlidir və hər bir sahənin dinamika bu dəyişikliklərdən təsirlənəcəkdir. Ümumiyyətlə, cəmiyyətin və insanın varlığı, mədəniyyətin və dilin qarşılıqlı təsiri ilə birgə inkişaf edəcək, bu da onların hər birinin genişlənməsinə və daha da təkmilləşməsinə səbəb olacaqdır. Çünki cəmiyyətin inkişafı bu sahələrin dəyişməsinə daim təsir etmiş və etməyə davam edəcəkdir. Bu dəyişikliklər, yeni tədqiqatların aparılmasına və hər bir sahədə daim yeni kəşflərin meydana gəlməsinə təkan verəcəkdir. Bu proses, həm mədəniyyətin, həm də dilin daha dərinədən başa düşülməsi və onların qarşılıqlı əlaqələrinin daha ətraflı araşdırılması üçün mühüm bir zəmin yaradacaqdır.

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The Economic Power of Culture: How Arts and Heritage Drive Employment

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Abstract:

This article explores the economic potential of cultural fields—particularly arts and heritage—as engines of employment in both developed and developing economies. It begins by conceptualizing the cultural economy through internationally recognized definitions and then analyzes the mechanisms of job creation across direct, indirect, and induced categories. Drawing on global examples from the United Kingdom, South Korea, and France, alongside an optional case on Azerbaijan, the study illustrates how various countries harness their cultural sectors for employment and development. The article identifies significant challenges, including the precarious nature of cultural work, lack of formal labor protections, digital disruption, and data limitations. It argues that effective cultural employment policy requires robust governmental support, integration into broader economic strategies, education-based entrepreneurship, and comprehensive statistical tracking. Through a multidisciplinary approach, the paper concludes that cultural industries are not peripheral to the economy but central to achieving inclusive and sustainable growth.

Keywords

cultural economy, creative industries, employment, cultural policy, heritage sector

1. Introduction

In the 21st century, culture is no longer viewed solely through the lens of heritage preservation or artistic expression—it has evolved into a dynamic economic sector capable of generating substantial employment and contributing meaningfully to national development. The cultural and creative industries (CCIs), which encompass fields such as performing arts, visual arts, heritage conservation, publishing, media, crafts, design, and music, represent one of the fastest-growing sectors globally. These industries not only enrich societies by nurturing identity and cohesion but

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also stimulate economies by offering diverse job opportunities, especially for youth and urban populations (Leriche & Daviet, 2010; Borrup, 2006).

Despite this promising trajectory, the economic potential of arts and heritage continues to be underestimated or insufficiently integrated into economic policy frameworks (Sadikhova, 2023). In many countries, culture is perceived as a non-essential domain or a luxury investment, sidelined in national development strategies. This perception has resulted in underfunding, a lack of sustainable cultural employment policies, and inconsistent data collection practices that obscure the real impact of cultural labor markets (Ellmeier, 2003; Stewart, 2005).

This article aims to explore how cultural fields—particularly arts and heritage—serve as engines of job creation in both direct and indirect ways (Sadigova & Bayramov, 2022). It seeks to highlight the mechanisms by which culture contributes to employment, from traditional roles such as artisans and museum workers to modern digital creators and cultural entrepreneurs. The article also sheds light on emerging challenges and evolving dynamics within these sectors, particularly in the context of digitalization, precarity, and shifting labor values.

Two central research questions guide this inquiry:

1. **How do the arts and heritage sectors contribute to job creation within the broader economy?**
2. **What are the main mechanisms and conditions that influence employment generation in cultural industries?**

To address these questions, the article proceeds in the following structure: Section 2 provides definitions and conceptual clarifications regarding the cultural economy. Section 3 explores the core mechanisms of employment generation in cultural fields. Section 4 presents international and regional case studies to illustrate the real-world impact of cultural employment. Section 5 addresses current challenges faced by workers and policymakers in the cultural sector. Section 6 offers policy recommendations and strategic reflections. Finally, Section 7 concludes with a synthesis of findings and directions for future research.

2. Defining the Cultural Economy

The terms *cultural industries* and *creative economy* have gained prominence in policy, academic, and development circles over the past two decades, particularly due to their growing impact on employment and economic diversification. While often used interchangeably, these terms carry nuanced meanings depending on institutional and regional interpretations.

According to **UNESCO** (2005), cultural industries are those that “combine the creation, production, and commercialization of contents which are intangible and cultural in nature.” These include activities such as publishing, music production, performing arts, heritage management, and crafts. Similarly, the **UK Department for Digital, Culture, Media and Sport (DCMS)** defines creative industries as “those industries which have their origin in individual creativity, skill and talent and which have a potential for wealth and job creation through the generation and exploitation of intellectual property.” The **European Union** echoes this framing, highlighting the

dual value of cultural industries in fostering identity and economic development (Leriche & Daviet, 2010; Figueira & Fullman, 2025).

The cultural economy includes a wide spectrum of sectors, typically classified as:

- **Visual arts** (painting, photography, sculpture)
- **Performing arts** (theatre, dance, opera, live music)
- **Publishing** (books, magazines, digital content)
- **Film and audiovisual media**
- **Museums and heritage institutions**
- **Crafts and design** (fashion, graphic design, industrial design)
- **Music production and distribution**
- **Digital and new media arts**
- **Cultural tourism**

These sectors often intersect with other areas such as education, tourism, and digital innovation, creating complex networks of creative value chains. The **creative economy** thus refers to a broader framework that not only includes cultural industries but also encompasses digital content creation, architecture, advertising, gaming, and software development.

To better understand how these industries function economically, scholars and policymakers distinguish between **core** and **peripheral** cultural activities. Core cultural activities involve the direct creation of cultural goods and services—such as artists, musicians, curators, or writers—whose output is primarily cultural in nature. Peripheral or ancillary activities, on the other hand, include jobs that support, promote, or distribute cultural content—such as technicians, marketers, logistics workers, and hospitality providers in cultural tourism (Bowitz & Ibenholt, 2009; León-Pozo et al., 2025).

This layered structure reflects the ecosystem-like nature of the cultural economy, where even non-artistic roles are integral to the sustainability of the sector. As later sections will explore, understanding this framework is essential for identifying and quantifying the employment impact of cultural fields.

3. Mechanisms of Job Creation in Cultural Fields

Cultural industries generate employment through a variety of channels that extend beyond the obvious roles of artists and performers. Job creation in these sectors can be broadly categorized into **direct**, **indirect**, and **induced** employment. In addition, the structure of work within cultural fields—particularly the rise of freelance and gig-based models—presents unique patterns of labor engagement. The following subsections explore these mechanisms in detail.

3.1. Direct Employment

Direct employment includes roles involved in the creation, performance, preservation, and presentation of cultural products and experiences. These positions are typically found in:

- **Performing and visual arts:** actors, musicians, painters, dancers, choreographers
- **Cultural heritage and museums:** curators, conservators, museum educators, archivists
- **Media and publishing:** editors, journalists, illustrators, content creators
- **Education:** art teachers, music instructors, cultural trainers, workshop facilitators
- **Technical production:** sound and lighting technicians, costume designers, set builders

These jobs are often highly specialized and require formal education, apprenticeships, or practice-based training. Although many of these roles are well-recognized, the irregularity of employment contracts and limited job security remains a critical concern in this sector (Ellmeier, 2003; Alacovska et al., 2025).

3.2. Indirect Employment

Cultural activities also generate significant **indirect employment** through sectors that support or are supported by cultural outputs. These include:

- **Tourism and hospitality:** hotel workers, tour guides, transport services
- **Event management:** logistics coordinators, marketing agents, security personnel
- **Crafts and creative retail:** traditional artisans, shop owners, cultural product designers
- **Media and communications:** public relations, broadcasters, translators, digital marketers

For example, a music festival may directly employ performers and technicians, while also creating demand for event staff, local transport services, restaurants, and nearby accommodation providers (Mazlan et al., 2025). These ripple effects demonstrate how cultural activities integrate with broader economic systems.

3.3. Induced Employment

Induced employment refers to the broader economic activity stimulated by the spending of income earned in the cultural sector. When cultural workers and audiences spend money on housing, food, transportation, or leisure, they support jobs in entirely different sectors. These downstream effects are often harder to quantify but are essential to understanding the full economic contribution of cultural fields (Bowitz & Ibenholt, 2009).

For instance, a growing cultural district may lead to increased demand for restaurants, cafes, cleaning services, and local retail—benefiting the wider community beyond the cultural core.

3.4. Gig and Freelance Culture in the Arts Economy

One of the defining features of cultural employment is its strong reliance on **freelance and gig-based work**. Many creative professionals work on short-term contracts, commissions, or project-

based collaborations. While this model offers flexibility and creative autonomy, it also leads to income instability, lack of benefits, and vulnerability to market fluctuations.

The rise of digital platforms (e.g., for selling art, music, or design) has expanded opportunities for cultural freelancers, yet it has also intensified competition and blurred the boundaries between professional and amateur work (Sadikhova, 2022). This speculative, entrepreneurial form of labor is sometimes described as “assetized creativity” (Alacovska et al., 2025), reflecting the increasing financialization of cultural outputs.

3.5. Skills and Education Relevance

Employment in the cultural sector often demands a combination of artistic skill, technical competence, and business acumen (Sadikhova, 2024). Workers must frequently adapt to new technologies, media platforms, and audience behaviors. Formal education institutions—art schools, conservatories, cultural studies departments—play a vital role, but informal and self-directed learning are equally significant.

In recent years, **cultural entrepreneurship** has gained attention as a strategy to empower creative workers with business and innovation skills. As cultural labor markets evolve, interdisciplinary and hybrid skills will become even more essential (Arnold & O’Brien, 2025; Brandellero & Naclerio, 2025).

4. Case Studies and Global Examples

To contextualize the employment potential of cultural fields, this section presents four illustrative examples from diverse geographic and cultural settings (Gulkhara & Farzaliyeva, 2025). These case studies demonstrate how different nations have harnessed their cultural resources—whether in the form of creative industries, export-oriented media, or heritage preservation—to stimulate job creation and economic resilience.

4.1. The United Kingdom: Institutional Recognition and Job Growth in Creative Industries

The United Kingdom stands out for its long-term investment in defining and developing its creative industries. The Department for Digital, Culture, Media and Sport (DCMS) has played a central role in identifying, measuring, and supporting sectors such as advertising, architecture, crafts, film, IT, publishing, and the performing arts.

According to recent DCMS reports, **creative industries employed over 2.3 million people in the UK** in 2023, representing more than 7% of the total workforce. The sector has consistently outpaced national economic growth, especially in urban centers like London, Manchester, and Bristol (Leriche & Daviet, 2010). In addition to direct employment, a vast network of freelancers, micro-businesses, and cultural entrepreneurs contribute to the vibrancy of the British creative economy.

Government-backed initiatives such as *Creative England*, *Arts Council England*, and *Innovate UK* have fostered both regional diversity and global competitiveness, underscoring how cultural policy can serve as a vehicle for economic innovation and inclusion.

4.2. South Korea: Cultural Exports as a National Economic Strategy

South Korea provides a compelling example of how cultural production can be strategically developed into a major export economy. The government's long-term investment in what is now called the *Hallyu* or "Korean Wave" has resulted in worldwide demand for K-pop, Korean cinema, fashion, animation, and beauty products.

In 2022 alone, cultural content exports exceeded **\$12.4 billion**, with more than **700,000 jobs** directly or indirectly related to the cultural sector, according to the Korean Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism. K-pop agencies, film studios, subtitling services, and merchandise production have formed an expansive cultural supply chain.

Significantly, South Korea integrates cultural policy into its trade and diplomacy strategies. Programs supporting cultural education, international media distribution, and digital innovation have transformed Seoul into a global cultural hub. The case of Korea illustrates how modern media and digital platforms can amplify a country's cultural labor force globally.

4.3. France: Cultural Heritage and Tourism as Job Drivers

France's deep-rooted tradition of cultural preservation has enabled it to become a world leader in **heritage-based employment**. With over 44 UNESCO World Heritage Sites, thousands of museums, and a vast array of festivals and artistic institutions, France leverages its cultural assets to attract more than 80 million international tourists annually (pre-pandemic levels).

Jobs in this sector include heritage site maintenance, tourism services, local crafts, curation, historical research, event planning, and educational programs. Cultural tourism alone accounted for **over 500,000 jobs** before the pandemic, according to the French Ministry of Culture and INSEE.

Moreover, France has implemented strong labor protections for cultural workers, such as the *intermittent du spectacle* system, which offers unemployment benefits to freelance artists and technicians. This model is often cited as a best practice in protecting precarious cultural labor while maintaining vibrant public engagement with the arts.

4.4. Azerbaijan: Traditional Culture and Emerging Opportunities

In the Azerbaijani context, cultural employment has historically centered on traditional arts such as **carpet weaving**, **ashiq music**, **mugham performance**, and **folk dance**. These forms not only preserve national identity but also sustain regional employment, especially among women and older artisans. Heritage sites such as **Icherisheher**, **Gobustan**, and **Sheki Khan's Palace** also generate jobs in conservation, guiding, and tourism services.

Recent developments—such as the *Baku International Jazz Festival*, *Imagine Euro Tolerance Festival*, and state-supported cultural diplomacy programs—signal growing investment in the creative industries. While comprehensive labor data remains limited, local government programs and NGO initiatives increasingly recognize the **employment potential of cultural revitalization**, particularly in the post-conflict reconstruction and regional tourism sectors.

A targeted national strategy, informed by examples from France and the UK, could further expand Azerbaijan's cultural labor market, especially through education, digitalization, and international collaboration (Sadigova, 2021).

5. Challenges and Limitations

While the cultural and creative industries (CCIs) hold considerable potential for job creation and economic growth, they are also marked by a range of structural, financial, and social challenges that hinder their full development. Understanding these limitations is essential for policymakers, educators, and cultural practitioners aiming to build a more inclusive and resilient cultural economy.

5.1. Precarity and Informality of Cultural Employment

One of the most pressing challenges within cultural labor markets is **precarity**. A large proportion of workers in the arts, media, and heritage sectors are employed on short-term, freelance, or part-time contracts, often without access to social protections, health insurance, or retirement benefits (Ellmeier, 2003). This issue is particularly acute in the gig economy, where payment is inconsistent and opportunities are irregular.

In developing contexts, such as parts of Sub-Saharan Africa and Central Asia, **informal employment** dominates cultural production. This limits workers' legal protections and reduces the sector's visibility in national labor statistics (Mensah, 2025).

5.2. Lack of Institutional Support and Sustainable Funding

Despite cultural industries' contributions to national economies, public funding and institutional support often fall short. Many governments prioritize traditional economic sectors such as energy, agriculture, or manufacturing, neglecting the economic potential of the creative fields. As a result, cultural projects are frequently underfunded, and organizations operate with minimal budgets and high volunteer reliance (Stewart, 2005).

Cultural institutions—especially museums, galleries, and theaters—are vulnerable to economic downturns and budget cuts, as seen during the COVID-19 pandemic, which led to widespread closures and job losses globally.

5.3. Inequality and Accessibility Issues

Access to cultural employment opportunities is not evenly distributed. Gender disparities, urban-rural divides, and socio-economic inequalities limit participation in many cultural professions. Urban centers concentrate most of the funding, infrastructure, and job availability, leaving rural artists and artisans with limited access to markets, training, or recognition (Arnold & O'Brien, 2025).

Moreover, underrepresented communities may face additional barriers in cultural expression and recognition, limiting diversity and innovation within the sector.

5.4. Technological Disruption and the Digital Divide

Digitalization has revolutionized cultural production and dissemination, but it has also introduced new challenges. While online platforms offer global exposure for creatives, they also **intensify competition, devalue artistic labor, and blur the boundaries between professional and amateur work** (Alacovska et al., 2025). Algorithms and monetization models often reward virality over quality, pushing creators to adapt their content in commercially driven ways.

Furthermore, in many parts of the world, **digital infrastructure gaps** prevent cultural workers from accessing online platforms, software tools, or international markets—deepening existing inequalities (Babayev, 2022).

5.5. Impact of Global Crises on Cultural Employment

Cultural employment is highly sensitive to political, economic, and health-related crises. The COVID-19 pandemic, for instance, exposed the fragility of the cultural economy. Performers, museum staff, and event organizers faced prolonged periods of unemployment, with many forced to leave the sector entirely.

Natural disasters, armed conflicts, and economic recessions also disproportionately affect cultural workers, whose roles are often seen as non-essential in emergency response or recovery plans. This vulnerability highlights the urgent need for **resilience planning and emergency funds** tailored to the cultural sector.

6. Policy and Strategic Implications

Maximizing the economic potential of cultural fields requires a comprehensive policy framework that supports job creation, improves working conditions, and integrates the cultural sector into broader development strategies. This section outlines key policy directions and strategic recommendations for fostering a more robust, inclusive, and sustainable cultural economy.

6.1. Government Support Models

Governments play a critical role in shaping the cultural labor market through **targeted funding mechanisms** and **institutional infrastructure**. Effective models include:

- **Public grants and subsidies** for artists, cultural institutions, and creative start-ups
- **Tax incentives** for cultural entrepreneurs and donors
- **National endowments** and **public arts councils** to support heritage conservation and new artistic production
- **Emergency relief funds** for cultural workers during crises (e.g., pandemic recovery plans)

Countries such as the UK, France, and Canada have established well-funded cultural ministries and autonomous arts bodies that distribute support transparently. For emerging economies, micro-grant schemes and partnerships with NGOs can provide a cost-effective starting point for stimulating cultural employment (Borup, 2006; Stewart, 2005).

6.2. Integration of Culture into National Economic Strategies

To unlock the full economic contribution of culture, it must be recognized as a strategic sector in national development plans. This includes:

- Embedding cultural job creation targets within **economic diversification policies**
- Promoting cultural tourism through national branding
- Linking creative industries to **innovation, digital development, and youth employment agendas** (Javid, 2023)

South Korea’s Hallyu initiative and the European Union’s *Creative Europe* program illustrate how aligning cultural goals with trade, technology, and education strategies can yield significant economic returns.

In the case of Azerbaijan, incorporating **traditional crafts, music, and heritage tourism** into regional development projects—especially in post-conflict or rural areas—could boost employment and community resilience.

6.3. Education and Cultural Entrepreneurship

A forward-looking policy must address the **skills gap** in cultural sectors. This involves:

- Reforming curricula in art schools and universities to include **business, digital, and entrepreneurial training**
- Offering **vocational programs** for crafts, performance, and heritage conservation
- Supporting **lifelong learning** for cultural professionals, especially in fast-evolving fields like digital art or cultural technology

Cultural entrepreneurship education helps creative workers navigate self-employment, diversify income streams, and build sustainable careers (Babayev, 2022). As Arnold & O’Brien (2025) note, younger generations are increasingly motivated by well-being and self-expression rather than traditional job structures—policies must adapt to these shifts.

6.4. Statistical Tracking of Cultural Employment

One major obstacle in policy design is the **lack of reliable data** on cultural employment. Many countries do not disaggregate creative labor in national labor force surveys, making it difficult to assess job quality, income levels, or sectoral trends.

To address this, governments should:

- Collaborate with **UNESCO, Eurostat, and ILO** to adopt standard frameworks for cultural employment measurement (e.g., UNESCO’s *Framework for Cultural Statistics*)
- Develop **national cultural satellite accounts (CSA)** to track the cultural sector’s economic contributions
- Encourage local governments and NGOs to conduct **sectoral mapping and baseline studies**

Improved data enables better resource allocation, impact measurement, and evidence-based planning.

7. Conclusion

The growing recognition of culture as an economic driver has redefined the boundaries of employment, innovation, and development in the 21st century. As this article has demonstrated, the cultural and creative industries contribute to job creation in direct, indirect, and induced ways—supporting artists, technicians, educators, tourism operators, and entrepreneurs alike. From the structured institutional models in the United Kingdom and France to the export-driven cultural economy of South Korea, and the heritage-rich yet under-leveraged context of Azerbaijan, global examples show that investment in culture yields substantial socio-economic benefits.

However, challenges remain. Cultural labor markets are characterized by precarity, inequality, and a lack of formal recognition in many national systems. Digitalization presents both opportunity and disruption, while inadequate data hampers effective policy responses.

To address these issues, governments must adopt inclusive and future-oriented strategies. These include providing sustainable public support, integrating culture into national economic plans, promoting cultural entrepreneurship through education, and implementing statistical systems that accurately track employment trends in the sector.

In sum, culture is not merely a reflection of society—it is a powerful force that shapes livelihoods, urban regeneration, and national identity. Recognizing and supporting the economic power of culture is not just a matter of artistic preservation, but a strategic investment in employment, innovation, and inclusive development.

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Ramiz Rövşənin “Bu Dünyanın Hər Sifəti” Adlı Kitabında Yer Alan Bəzi Şeirlərində Fəlsəfi Məsələlərin Şərhi

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Xülasə:

Bu məqalədə Azərbaycan ədəbiyyatının müasir dövrünün önəmli simalarından biri olan Ramiz Rövşənin ədəbi irsindəki bir sıra şeirlərdə yer alan fəlsəfi fikirlərin şərhinə və onların geniş mənzərəsinin açılmasına diqqət yetirilmişdir. Məqalədə əks olunan şeirlərin təhlili zamanı fəlsəfənin şeirdəki dərin mənalərini görmək mümkündür. Şeirləri fəlsəfi aspektən təhlil etməkdə məqsədimiz R.Rövşən yaradıcılığında əks olunan fərqli düşüncələri anlamaq və şairin bir sıra məqamlarda sətraltı mənalara bizlərə nə demək istədiyini izah etməkdir. Bundan əlavə şairin bu əsərləri daxilində bir sıra mənəvi dəyərləri əks etdirir. Azərbaycan mentalitetində yer alan simvolik fiqurlardan istifadə edən şair həmin vasitə ilə bizlərə “öz mədəniyyətimizi qorumağı bacarmalıyıq” fikrini demək istəyir.

R.Rövşənin bədii yaradıcılığı yalnız şeirlə məhdudlaşmır, onun əsərlərində hekayə, povest, poema, esse və digər janrlar da mövcuddur. Lakin hər bir əsərində fəlsəfi düşüncələrə geniş yer verməsi, onu ədəbi irsimizdəki əhəmiyyətli fəlsəfi şairlərdən birinə çevirir. R.Rövşən sadə və gündəlik dil vasitəsilə dərin fəlsəfi mənalara ortaya qoyma bacarığı ilə xüsusilə seçilir. O, sadə sözlərə böyük dərinlik və anlamlar yükləyərək bu sözləri həm də bir növ düşüncə xəzinəsinə çevirir.

Açar sözlər:

Ramiz Rövşən, poeziya, şeir, fəlsəfi yanaşma

Azərbaycan ədəbiyyatının XXI əsrin əvvəllərindəki təmsilçilərindən olan R.Rövşən bədii yaradıcılığı ilə daim diqqət mərkəzindədir. “Bu dünyanın hər sifəti” kitabında yer alan bir sıra şeirlər Azərbaycanın müxtəlif filmlərində istifadə olunan obraz və musiqi motivləri ilə birbaşa əlaqəlidir. Kitabda şairin sözləri ilə birləşən film musiqiləri və obrazlar onun ədəbi yaradıcılığında yaratdığı fəlsəfi dünyanı daha da zənginləşdirir.

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Məqalə çərçivəsində təhlil olunan şeirlər Rövşənin fəlsəfi düşüncə dünyasına işarə edir. Bu şeirlər həm də insan həyatının və varlığının məna və məqsədi haqqında düşünməyə bizi vadar edir. Ramiz Rövşənin ədəbi irsi Azərbaycan xalqının və milli mədəniyyətinin qürur mənbəyidir. Onun yaradıcılığında yer alan əsərlər, heç şübhəsiz, müasir ədəbiyyatın düşüncəsinin güzgüsü olaraq xalqımızın mədəniyyət həyatında mühüm yer tutur.

“Şeir haqqında yazmaq, şeir yazmaqdan çətindir” (2). Bu fikir ədəbi tənqid məktəbinin banilərindən biri olan dahi Xətib Təbriziyə məxsusdur. Bu ifadə şeirin nə qədər çətin və mürəkkəb bir sahə olduğunu açıq şəkildə ortaya qoyur. Məhz bu səbəbdən də bir çox qaynaqlarda göstərilir ki, şeir ilahiləşdirilir və hətta şairlərin Allaha ən yaxın insanlar olduğunu qeyd edir. Bu fikir, şeirin yalnız bədii forma deyil, eyni zamanda mənəvi və ruhani dəyər daşıdığını vurğulayır. Elə bu səbəbdən də poeziya, bütöv şəkildə bir elm sahəsi kimi də dəyərləndirilə bilər.

Xalq şairi Ramiz Rövşənin poetik irsi Azərbaycan ədəbiyyatının kulminasiya nöqtələrindən biri hesab olunur və bu irs, nəzmin yeni fəlsəfi mərhələsini təmsil edir. Ramiz Rövşənin yaradıcılığı məzmun və forma baxımından zəngin olmaqla yanaşı, fəlsəfi dərinliyi, insan və həyat haqqında düşüncələri ilə seçilir. Onun şeirlərində ölüm və həyat, ruh və cisim, sevgi və nifrət, xalq və ədalət, insanlıq və vicdan kimi ziddiyyətli fəlsəfi məsələlər bədii şəkildə öz əksini tapır.

R.Rövşən poeziyasını fərqləndirən əsas cəhətlərdən biri də onun xalqla bağının güclü olmasıdır. Onun şeirləri geniş oxucu kütləsi tərəfindən maraqla qarşılanır, çünki bu poeziya xalqın gündəlik həyatına, düşüncə tərzinə və duyğularına yaxındır. Eyni zamanda, R.Rövşən öz poetik irsi ilə Azərbaycan ədəbiyyatının estetik sərhədlərini genişləndirmiş, xalq təfəkkürünü zənginləşdirmiş və ədəbi-bədii düşüncə sisteminin inkişafına əhəmiyyətli töhfə vermişdir.

R.Rövşənin “Bu dünyanın hər sifəti” adlı kitabında yer alan şeirlərdə dərin fəlsəfi məsələlərə toxunulur. Bu əsərlərdə ən çox diqqət çəkən motivlərdən biri ömür və zaman anlayışıdır. Xüsusilə, şairin rejissor və teatr xadimi Vaqif İbrahimogluna ithaf etdiyi “Hər ömür bir tamaşadır” mısrası ilə başlanan şeir bu baxımdan xüsusi əhəmiyyət kəsb edir.

Həmin şeirdə R.Rövşən ömrün keçiciliyi, vəfasızlığı və teatr tamaşasına bənzərliyi üzərində dayanır. Şair ömrü tamaşa kimi təsvir etdikdə, onun başlanğıc mərhələsinin gözəlliyini, həyatın cazibədarlığını, lakin sonun qaçılmaz olaraq faciə və ya boşluqla nəticələndiyini vurğulayır. Bu baxımdan ömrün estetikası ilə fəlsəfi mahiyyəti arasında incə bir münasibət qurulur. Tamaşanın sonunda pərdənin düşməsi kimi, insan ömrünün də sonunda bir növ “son pərdə”nin enməsi ilə həyat başa çatır.

R.Rövşən şeirdə ömür və insan münasibətini müxtəlif metaforalarla təqdim edir. Bəzən insan ömrə münasibətdə bir “ov” rolunda görünür – ömür bizi yaxalayır. Bəzənsə insan özü “ovçu” olur və həyatın özünü yaxalamağa çalışır. Bu metaforik yanaşma, insanın həyat qarşısındakı qeyri-müəyyən mövqeyini, həm qurban, həm də subyekt olaraq mövcudluğunu açıq şəkildə ortaya qoyur. Şair “Bugün tordan qaçan balıq, sabah tora bir də düşür” mısrası ilə həyatın dövrü təbiətini,

insanların eyni səhvləri təkrar etməyə meyilli olduğunu və təcrübədən dərs çıxarmaqdan çəkinməsinə tənqidi bir mövqedən təqdim edir.

Bu poetik təsvirlər insan həyatının müxtəlif mərhələlərinə – gənclik, yetkinlik və qocalıq dövrlərinə işarə edir. Xüsusilə, orta yaş dövrü həyatın ən kritik mərhələsi kimi təqdim olunur; burada insan artıq həyatın məna və məqsədini anlamağa çalışır, lakin çox vaxt artıq gec olur. Şairin fikrincə, insan həyatın mahiyyətini dərk etdiyi anda ömrünün sonuna çatır və tamaşa, pərdə endikdə, artıq bitmiş olur.

Nəticə etibarilə, R.Rövşənin bu şeiri ömür anlayışını teatr metaforası ilə dərin fəlsəfi bir düşüncəyə çevirir. Şair həyatın keçiciliyini və insanın bu keçicilik qarşısındakı acizliyini poetik dildə təsvir etməklə oxucunu öz varlığı üzərində düşünməyə vadar edir. Bu baxımdan “Hər ömür bir tamaşadır” (4, s. 8) misrası, yalnız poetik bir ifadə deyil, həm də varoluş fəlsəfəsinin mərkəzi ideyalarından birinə çevrilir.

R.Rövşənin yaradıcılığının ən dərin fəlsəfi təzahürlərindən biri olaraq “Mənim balam, bu dünyayla oynama” şeiri xüsusi əhəmiyyət kəsb edir. Bu şeir, yalnız ədəbi müstəvidə deyil, həm də tərbiyəvi və fəlsəfi cəhətdən qiymətləndirilə bilər. Şeirın məzmununa nəzər saldıqda, müəllifin həyat və cəmiyyətə dair dərin düşüncələrini və insanın həyat yolunda qarşılaşdığı vacib dəyərləri vurğuladığını müşahidə etmək mümkündür.

Şeirdə diqqət çəkən tərbiyəvi düşüncələrdən biri, xüsusilə “Düşmən nədi, dost evini dost yıxar, bilən bilir dünya necə dünyadı” misrasıdır. Bu misra, cəmiyyətdə dostluğun, qarşılıqlı münasibətlərin və insanların bir-birinə olan təsirinin əhəmiyyətini vurğulayır. Şair burada dostluğun yalnız qarşılıqlı etibar və anlayışa əsaslanmadığını, eyni zamanda bir insanın öz daxili təbiətini və həyat yolunu müəyyən edən əsas amillərdən biri olduğunu da ifadə edir.

Dostluq, ümumiyyətlə, çox mürəkkəb və fəlsəfi bir anlayışdır. Təkcə cəmiyyətin gözləntiləri və sosial münasibətlər çərçivəsində deyil, eyni zamanda insanın daxili dünyasında da müəyyənləşir. R.Rövşən bu anlamı fəlsəfi və poetik dillə izah edərək, oxucusuna dostluğun timsalında insanların etibarsızlığını, güvənsizliyini və nə qədər mənfi fikirli olduqlarını xatırladır. Bu şeir, həm də insanın həyat yolunda başqaları ilə münasibətlərinin nə qədər mürəkkəb olduğunu, lakin doğru dostluq və əlaqələrin insanın daxili harmoniyasını tapmasında necə əhəmiyyətli olduğunu göstərir.

Ömrə, günə etibar yox əzəldən,
Bir də dönüb yarpaq olmaz xəzəldən,
Beşiyindən bizə tabut düzəldən,
Bələyindən kəfən tikən dünyadı (4. səh. 11).

Şeirın bu bəndində bir çox mühüm məsələlər haqqında dərin düşüncələr və nəticələr çıxarmaq mümkündür. İlk misralarda, şair həyatın qısa olduğunu və bu həyatın bir daha bizə verilməyəcəyini poetik bir şəkildə vurğulayır. Bu düşüncə, həm də R.Rövşənin digər bədii nümunələrində də yer alan dünyanın vəfasızlığı mövzusunun təkrarıdır. Şeir, fəlsəfi fikrin poetik dillə mükəmməl şəkildə

şərh edilməsidir. Bu misralarda həyatın keçici və əhəmiyyətli olması, həmçinin hər anın qiymətinin dərk edilməsi vacibliyi vurğulanır.

Şeir in sonunda verilən hər iki misrada isə həyat və ölümün bir-biri ilə vəhdəti görünür. Burada şair, həyatın sona çatmasının necə qısa və sürətlə baş verdiyini, bu hadisənin gözlənilmədən və göz qırpımında reallaşdığını poetik bir şəkildə ifadə edir. Şairin bu yanaşması, insan həyatının təbiətinin müvəqqəti olmasını və həyatın qiymətinin vaxtında anlaşılmasının vacibliyini önə çəkir.

Son misralarda (“Möhkəm yapış papağından, başından, başdan papaq alıb qaçan dünyadı”) verilən fikir isə Azərbaycanın sosial və mədəni mentalitetinə dərin bir işarədir. Ramiz Rövşən burada qeyrətin qorunmasının bu dünyada nə qədər çətin olduğunu qeyd edir. Azərbaycan mədəniyyətində papaq, qeyrət və ailə dəyərlərinin simvolu kimi qəbul edilir. Papağın itirilməsi, cəmiyyətimizdə mənfi bir anlayış olaraq qəbul edilir və bu, qəbuledilməz bir davranış kimi səciyyələndirilir. Bu simvolik element, şairin cəmiyyətdəki dəyərlərə və sosial münasibətlərə dair fəlsəfi yanaşmasını əks etdirir.

Şairin əsərlərində dərin fəlsəfi mövzulara toxunulmaqla yanaşı, həyatın müxtəlif aspektləri, insanın daxili dünyası və cəmiyyətin mövcud problemləri barədə də fikirlər irəli sürülür. Məsələn, “Dünyada tək bir cə söz var” şeirində şair, sözün əhəmiyyətini və gücünü, həmçinin sözün müxtəlif mənalarını müzakirə edir. Bu şeir, şairin sözə olan dərin hörmətini və sözün cəmiyyətdəki rolunun nə qədər vacib olduğunu göstərir.

Şeir in ilk bəndində deyilir:

Deyirlər, söz sözü çəkər,
Çəkmək olmur nadan sözü.
Mən neynirəm üstü şəkər,
Altı zəhər dadan sözü (3. səh. 14).

Bu bənddə əks olunan fəlsəfi fikirlər, sözün mənə dərinliyini və onun leksik-semantik xüsusiyyətlərini müxtəlif aspektlərdən izah edir. Şeirdən verilən parçada “nadanın sözünün üstü şəkər” ifadəsi, sözün zahiri görünüşünün cazibədar olduğunu və ilk baxışda təəssürat yaradıcı olduğunu vurğulayır. Lakin “altı zəhər” misrası, bu zahiri gözəlliyin və ya cazibənin içindəki qorxulu və zərərli təbiəti ortaya qoyur. Burada şair, insanların yalnız xarici görkəmlərinə əsaslanaraq qiymətləndirilməməli olduğunu, hər kəsin içində gizlənmiş qaranlıq bir dünyanın olduğunu bildirir.

Bu fəlsəfi yanaşma, həmçinin insan təbiətinin mürəkkəbliyini və onun daxili aləminin zahiri görkəmdən çox fərqli olduğunu ifadə edir. Şair, “nadin” sözünü bu mənada simvolik olaraq istifadə edərək, insanın yalnız göründüyü kimi deyil, həm də daxili dünyasında gizlənən həqiqətləri nəzərə alaraq qiymətləndirilməsinin vacibliyini vurğulayır.

Bu baxımdan, R.Rövşənin bu əsəri, yalnız bədii bir nümunə olmaqla yanaşı, eyni zamanda insan ruhunun çoxşaxəli və mürəkkəb təbiətini əks etdirən qiymətli bir sənət əsəridir. Şairin bu fəlsəfi yanaşması, oxucuya həyatın səthinə deyil, daha dərinə, insanın iç dünyasına baxmağı öyrədir.

Yarı doğru, yarı yalan,
Yarı yağlı, yarı yavan,
Oda atsan, odda yanan,
Suya atsan, batan sözü (3, s. 14).

Şair bu bənddə etibarsız sözün mənasını şərh edərkən onu “yavan,” “odda yanan” və “suda batan” kimi mənasız və təsirsiz element olaraq təsvir edir. Bu təsvirlər, sözün əhəmiyyətini və onun dəyərini dərinlən anlamağa çalışan oxucuya müxtəlif poetik mesajlar çatdırır. “Yarı doğru, yarı yalan” deyər sözləri dəyərləndirən şair həmin misra ilə insanın vicdanının olmaması, bir dediyi ilə digər sözünün həmahənglik təşkil etmədiyini qeyd edir və bu da insanların daxili aləmlərinin açılmasında, həqiqi üzlərini anlamağımıza nə qədər kömək etməsinin mühüm əhəmiyyətini qeyd edir. “Odda yanan və suda batan” ifadələri isə bəzi sözlərin heç bir dəyərinin olmadığını vurğulayır. Şair bu şəkildə, etibarsız sözün cəmiyyət və fərd üçün ciddi təsir yaratmadığını, dəyərdən düşdüyünü qeyd edir. Nəticə etibarilə belə demək olur ki, şair şeirdə insanın dəyərinin onun danışdığı söz qədər olduğunu qeyd edir. Bunu dahi Məhəmməd Füzuli də “Söz” qəzəlində belə izah edir:

Artıran söz qədrini siddilə qədrin artırar,
Kim nə miqdar olsa, əhlin eylər ol miqdar söz (3. səh. 151).

Azərbaycan ədəbiyyatında sözün dəyəri haqqında bir çox ədəbiyyatçı və filosof müxtəlif fikirlər irəli sürmüşdür. R.Rövşən isə bu mövzuya yeni bir perspektivdən yanaşmış və sözün gücü haqqında ədəbi mülahizələrə yeni bir üslub gətirmişdir. Şeirin son bəndində şair dünyada yalnız bircə sözün - “Kişi sözü, adam sözü”nün həqiqətən əhəmiyyətli olduğunu bildirir. Azərbaycan mentalitetində kişi sözü qədim zamanlardan etibarını qorumuş və cəmiyyətdə möhkəm formalaşmış bir anlayışdır. Bu, həm də bir çox hallarda “kişi sözü verirəm” ifadəsinin işlənməsilə özünü göstərir. Beləliklə, müəllif, sözün və onun mənalının çox böyük əhəmiyyət daşıdığını vurğulayır və poeziyada bədii dillə qiymətli ədəbi nümunələr yaradır.

R.Rövşənin fəlsəfi cəhətdən diqqət çəkən digər bir əsəri isə “Qalır” adlı şeiridir. Bu şeirdə şair, həyatımızda özümüzdən sonra qoyduğumuz izdən bəhs edir. “Bu dünyada zaman-zaman əlimizin işi qalır, əkdiyimiz ağaclardan biri solur, beşi qalır” misralarında şair, həyatın keçiciliyini və hər bir insanın özündən sonra bir iz buraxacağını ifadə edir. Şair, həyatın özündən sonra, kiminsə bizi unutsa belə, başqa bir neçə nəfərin bizi xatırlayacağını qeyd edir. Bu, həm də insanın yalnız yaşadığı dövr ərzində deyil, həm də ölümündən sonra özündən sonra qoyduğu izlərlə dünyada qalacağını göstərir.

Şairin fəlsəfi yanaşmasına, əsasən, insanın ömrü sona çatsa da, onun tərəfindən qoyulan izlər əbədi olaraq qalır. “Ömrün bitdiyini və bizdən sonra dünyada minlərlə uşağın yaşayacağını” vurğulayan şair insanın həyatda yaratdığı izlərin bu dünyada və dünyadan sonra necə xatırlanacağını ifadə edir. Şairin təfəkkürünə görə, insanın geridə buraxdığı yadigar yalnız onun “yandırdığı çırağın qalığıdır” (4. səh. 28). Bu eyni zamanda insanın həyat fəaliyyətində necə bir iz qoymasını, kim və hansı tərzdə xatırlanmasını, özündən nişanə qoyduğu işlərin mənfi və ya müsbət təsirlərinin əhəmiyyətini göstərir.

Sonda isə şair qeyd edir ki, həyat tamamilə əzab-əziyyətlə sona çatır, amma bizdən bu dünyaya yadigar olaraq yalnız öz izimiz, yolumuz qalır. Bu düşüncə, insanın həyatın əsl mənasını tapmağı və öz yerini müəyyən etməyi məqsədilə qarşıya qoyduğu mühüm bir mesajdır.

“Xeyri nədi?” adlı şeiri R. Rövşənin dünya ilə barışmaz münasibətinin ifadəsi kimi dəyərləndirilə bilər. Şeirin ümumi ruhunu narazılıq, təəssüf və sualla dolu bir baxış müşayiət edir. Əsərin əvvəlində dünyanın “zatının qırıq” olması vurğulanır ki, bu da kainatın mahiyyət etibarilə nizamsız və etibarsız olduğunu göstərir. Bu ifadə vasitəsilə müəllif insanın düzgün və səhv anlayışları arasında sərhəd çəkməsinin nə qədər çətin olduğunu diqqətə çatdırır. Belə bir dünyada “doğru”nun həqiqətən də doğru olub-olmadığını anlamaq qeyri-mümkün görünür. Şair burada insanlara etibar etməyin çətinliyini və həyatın bəzən nə qədər absurd və ziddiyyətli olduğunu ifadə edir.

R.Rövşən şeirdə bir kasıb obrazı vasitəsilə bu fikirləri konkretləşdirir. Kasıbın dili ilə deyilən fikirlər həyatın yalnız maddi yoxsulluqla deyil, mənəvi boşluqla da dolu olduğunu nümayiş etdirir. O, bədii suallar vasitəsilə həyatın mənasını sorğulayır: “Əkdinin ağac bar vermirsə, onun kölgəsi nəyə yarar?” və ya “Günəşdə uzanıb qızınmağın xeyri nədi?” (3. səh. 51) kimi suallar həm insanın əməyinin nəticəsiz qalmasından doğan ümitsizliyi, həm də bu nəticəsizliyin doğurduğu mənəvi yorğunluğu təcəssüm etdirir.

Bu şeir həmçinin R.Rövşənin poeziyasına xas olan “bədi tənhalıq” anlayışının da daşıyıcısıdır. Şair fərdin cəmiyyətlə, dünya ilə əlaqəsinin zəif olduğunu, insanın bu sistem qarşısında aciz və tənha qaldığını ustalılıqla göstərir. “Xeyri nədi?” sualı bir növ fəlsəfi ritorika kimi çıxış edərək, oxucunu da bu mənasızlıq üzərində düşünməyə vadar edir.

Nəticə etibarilə, R.Rövşənin “Xeyri nədi?” şeiri həm bədii, həm də fəlsəfi baxımdan dərin məna daşıyır. Bu şeir vasitəsilə müəllif insanın həyatdakı axtarışlarını, inamsızlığını və varoluşla bağlı suallarını qısa, lakin təsirli poetik dillə təqdim edir. Şeirin ümumi ruhu isə onu göstərir ki, R.Rövşənin poeziyasında dünya, insan və həyat münasibətləri daim sual altında saxlanılır və bu suallar bəzən cavabdan daha çox anlam daşıyır.

R.Rövşənin şeirlərini oxuduqda onun müəllifinin keçirdiyi mifik əzabı duymamaq olmur və yeri gəlmişkən, ötəri də olsa, qeyd edək ki, bu mifik əzabın mənşəyi klassik Azərbaycan poeziyası, Füzuli kədəri, ümümbəşəri kədərlə bağlı olduğu dərəcədə müasir dünya ədəbiyyatı, bu ədəbiyyatda gedən proseslər, haqq-ədalət axtarışlarında əldən düşüb ümitsizləşmiş, dünyanın sərvətlə idarə olunan şərq qüvvələri tərəfindən tapdanıb əzilmiş, təhqir edilmiş və alçaldılmış sadə, səmimi adamları mücərrəd şəkildə əks etdirən Kafka, Kamyu, Markes və bunlardan da öncə Dostoyevski yaradıcılığı ilə bağlıdır (2).

Şairin “Mən bura özümü görməyə gəldim” adlı şeiri onun yaradıcılığında xüsusilə diqqət çəkən əsərlərdən biridir. Bu şeirdə dünyanın natamamlığı, həyatın paradoksallığı və insanın yaşadığı mühitə yadlaşması kimi motivlər ön plana çıxır. Lakin burada R.Rövşən bu ideyaları daha da dərinləşdirərək, insanın həyatla və ölümə münasibətini fəlsəfi müstəviyə keçirir.

Şeirin ilk misralarında şair bu dünyanı “ağlamalı” və “gülməli” adlandırır. Bu ifadə insan həyatının ziddiyyətli təbiətini simvolizə edir. Həyatın həm sevindirici, həm də kədərverici anlarla dolu olduğunu vurğulayan şair, bu dünyaya “ağlayıb-gülməyə” gəldiyini bildirir. Bu, həm insanın emosional təbiətinə, həm də həyatın dualist strukturuna işarədir. R.Rövşən burada insanın yaşadığı həyatın bir növ teatr olduğunu, burada həm gülmənin, həm də ağlamanın rolu olduğunu göstərir. Şeir davamında daha da dərin və fəlsəfi bir yanaşma sezilir. Şair bu dünyanı “ölmək üçün yaxşı yer” adlandırır və dünyaya “tamahlanıb ölməyə gəldiyini” qeyd edir. Bu misralar, əslində, insanın həyatla bağlı olan bütün çətinliklərinin, ümitsizliklərinin və cavabsız suallarının sonunda ölümə yönələn bir arayışa çevrildiyini ifadə edir. Ramiz Rövşən üçün ölüm, sadəcə fiziki sonluq deyil, eyni zamanda mənəvi rahatlıq, bəlkə də xilasdır. Bu səbəbdən şairin ölümə “həvəs” göstərməsi, onun yaşadığı dünyadan və bu dünyanın təqdim etdiyi mənasızlıqlardan bezmiş bir insanın fəlsəfi qəbulu kimi yozula bilər.

“Mən bu ağlamalı, mən bu gülməli” ifadəsi isə həyatı təşkil edən ikili təbiətin — xeyir və şər, varlıq və yoxluğun, sevinc və kədər, dualizmin dialektikasını ehtiva edir. Burada şair bir tərəfdən həyatın rəngarəngliyini qəbul etsə də, digər tərəfdən bu rəngarəngliyin gətirdiyi mənəvi yorğunluğu, daxili boşluğu və tənhalığı da vurğulayır. Ramiz Rövşenin bu şeirindəki əsas ideya budur ki, insan özünü dərk etmək, varlığının mahiyyətini anlamaq üçün bu dünyaya gəlmişdir. Lakin bu dərk prosesi hər zaman sadə və aydın olmur. Bəzən insan həyatın mənasını anlamağa çalışarkən onun çətinliklərindən bezir, bəzən isə həmin çətinliklərin içində öz varlığının dərinliyini kəşf edir. Şairin “özümü görməyə gəldim” deməsi də məhz bu axtarışa, bu daxili səfərə işarədir.

R.Rövşenin “Mən bura özümü görməyə gəldim” şeiri onun fəlsəfi və bədii dünyagörüşünün parlaq nümunəsidir. Şeirdə həyat və ölüm, varlıq və yoxluq, sevinc və kədər kimi əbədi mövzular şairin özünəməxsus lirizmi və dərin düşüncə tərzini ilə təqdim olunur. Oxucu bu şeiri oxuyarkən yalnız poetik zövq almır, eyni zamanda öz həyatı və mövcudluğu haqqında düşünməyə sövq olunur. Bu baxımdan, Ramiz Rövşenin yaradıcılığı yalnız ədəbi deyil, həm də fəlsəfi təhlil üçün zəngin material təqdim edir.

Şeir son bəndində deyilir:

Mənə də yer çatır, dünya dar deyil,
Biz balıq deyilik, dünya tor deyil,
“Allah göydən baxır, Allah kor deyil!..” –
sizə bunu xəbər verməyə gəldim (4. səh.78).

Təhlil olunan bənddə müəllif insanların həyatda qarşılaşdıqları çətinlikləri və çıxılmaz vəziyyətləri balıq və tor metaforası ilə təsvir edir. İnsan balıq kimidir — nə qədər üzsə, qaçsa da, sonda yenə də dənizin dərinliyində gizlənmiş tora düşür. Bu təsvir həyatın qaçılmazlığını, taleyin insan üzərindəki hökmünü göstərir. Buradakı “tor” sadəcə fiziki təhlükə deyil, eyni zamanda mənəvi və psixoloji tələlər, cəmiyyətin basqıları və həyatın ziddiyyətli strukturu kimi yozula bilər. Şairin bu bədii təsvir vasitəsilə çatdırmaq istədiyi əsas fikir odur ki, insan bu böyük və sirli dünyada özünü nə qədər azad hiss etsə də, əslində müəyyən bir çərçivənin içində yaşayır və bu çərçivə onun hərəkətlərinə, seçimlərinə təsir edir. İnsan sonda həyatın “yemi”nə çevrilir — yaşamaq uğrunda

mübarizə aparsa belə, bu mübarizənin sonunda əksər hallarda əzilən, aldadılan və ya məğlub olan odur. Bu, R. Rövşənin həyatla bağlı tragik və reallıqdan doğan baxışdır.

Əsərdə daha bir mühüm məqam Allahın bu prosesi izləməsi və insanların həyatındakı yanlışlıqların ondan gizli qalmamasıdır. Şair burada sadəcə müşahidəçi mövqe tutmur, əksinə özünü bir növ ilahi həqiqətləri car çəkən, insanları xəbərdar edən bir sima — peyğəmbər mövqeyində təqdim edir. Bu isə R. Rövşənin poeziyasında dini-mənəvi qatın, mistik təfəkkürün güclü yer tutduğunu göstərir. Şair açıq şəkildə bəyan edir ki, ilahi varlıq bu dünyada baş verənlərdən kənarda deyil və insanın hər bir əməli Tanrının diqqətindədir.

Burada ədəbiyyat və din, poetik təxəyyül və mənəvi dəyərlər birləşərək dərin bir fikri ortaya çıxarır: dünya fanidir, insan bu fani dünyanın müvəqqəti bir yolçusudur və onun atdığı hər bir addım əslində ilahi planın bir hissəsi ola bilər. Şair bu həqiqəti həm fəlsəfi, həm də dini baxımdan təqdim edir və insanı öz davranışları barədə düşünməyə, məsuliyyət hissini dərk etməyə səsləyir.

R.Rövşən şeirlərinin fəlsəfi-estetik istiqaməti, özünün mürəkkəb insan aləmi, bu insan aləminin müxtəlifliyi ilə xarakterizə edilən cəhətlərinin dərinə yönəlmişdir. İnsan R.Rövşən poeziyasında tarixi prosesin, Yer üzündə maddi və mənəvi mədəniyyətin inkişafının subyekt, həyatın digər formaları ilə genetik bağlı olan bu formalardan əmək alətləri istehsal etmək qabiliyyətinə görə seçilən, aydın nitqə, təfəkkür və şüura malik olan biososila varlıq kimi bəşəri məhəbbəti özündə daha çox ehtiva edir. Gələcəyin insanı zakalı və humanist hər şeyi bilməyə çalışan fəal, eyni zamanda gözəllikdən həzz almağı bacaran insandır. Bu insan mənəvi və fiziki kimliyin həqiqi vəhdəti idealını təcəssüm etdirən bütöv, hərtərəfli inkişaf etmiş şəxsiyyətdir. Təkrarolunmaz özünəməxsusluğa, nadir mənlik fərdiliyinə malik insan, özünü ictimai varlıq kimi bərqərar edir (1).

R. Rövşən müasir Azərbaycan ədəbiyyatında aydın sözlərə böyük mənalar yükləyən az sayda şairlərdəndir. Onun yaradıcılığının parlaqlığını dəyərləndirən Şəlalə Göytürk “Ramiz Rövşən poeziyası: İrfan, mistika və moderizm sintezi” adlı məqaləsində neosufizmi R. Rövşən cərəyanı adlandırır və “neosufizm: “Ramiz Rövşən” cərəyanı başlığı altında yazır: “Ramiz Rövşən poeziyası ədəbi-fəlsəfi düşüncə istiqamətinə görə şoxspektrli və mürəkkəbdir. Bu səbəbdən onun yaradıcılığını konkret prinsipləri olqan bir ədəbi cərəyana, yaxud hansısa “izm”ə aid etmək çətindir. XX əsrin dinamik ədəbi axınları işərisində Ramiz Rövşənin poeziyasına, ümumilikdə, Şərq klassikasının (Füzuli ənənəsi – ruhani metafizika), Azərbaycan-türk folklor sənətinin (dastançılıq, qoşma, gəraylı) və müasir Qərb cərəyanları olan neosimvolizm, ekzistensializm, eləcə də magik realizmin sintezi kimi baxa bilərik” (4).

Nəticə

Bütün bu danışdıqlarımızı ümumiləşdirib, fikirləri dəqiqləşdirsək R.Rövşənin yaradıcılığında əksini tapan fəlsəfi məsələlər barədə aşağıdakı nəticələrə gəlmək mümkündür:

1. Lirik subyekt vasitəsilə təqdim olunan mövzular ümumbəşəri səciyyə daşıyır. Şair təkcə fərdi təcrübələri deyil, həm də cəmiyyətin və zamanın ruhunu ifadə edir. Şeirlərində fəlsəfi təhlil

və poetik obrazlar bir-birinin tamamlayır, mətnlər həm düşüncə, həm də hiss baxımından oxucunu fəallaşdırır. Bu da şeirin insana daha çox təsir etməsinə səbəb olur.

2. Ramiz Rövşənin poetik dünyası yalnız ədəbi təhlil deyil, həm də fəlsəfi və sosial yanaşma tələb edir. Bu şeirlərdə insan və cəmiyyət, varlıq və yoxluq, azadlıq və qapanmışlıq kimi əsas mövzular aktuallaşır.

3. Şairin lirikasında vətən, torpaq, ölüm və həyat kimi motivlər yalnız emosional yox, fəlsəfi aspektdən də işlənmişdir. Bu, onun şeirlərini bədii dəyərindən əlavə intellektual dəyərlə də zənginləşdirir. Yaradıcılığında bir çox mövzuların yer alması şairin dünyagörüşünün əksidir və əsərləri oxucuya R. Rövşənin baxış bucağında həyata baxmağa imkan yaradır.

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How Language Contact Shaped the Vocabulary of Modern English

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Abstract:

This study explores the profound impact of language contact on the evolution of modern English vocabulary. Through a chronological and sociolinguistic analysis, it traces how successive interactions with Celtic, Latin, Old Norse, Norman French, and Renaissance Latin and Greek have shaped English's lexical landscape. The research highlights key mechanisms of change, including code-switching, borrowing, relexification, and the role of bilingualism in lexical diffusion. By examining semantic fields most affected by borrowing — such as law, governance, cuisine, and science — and providing case studies of integrated terms, the article underscores English's unique adaptability. The discussion contrasts English with more lexically conservative languages and addresses debates surrounding linguistic purity and hybridity. Ultimately, the findings illustrate that language contact has been a source of enrichment rather than erosion, positioning English as a dynamic and globally responsive language. Future research directions suggest a closer examination of the influence of non-European languages on English in contemporary global settings.

Keywords

language contact, lexical borrowing, English vocabulary, linguistic hybridity, sociolinguistics

1. Introduction

The English language, known for its expansive and flexible vocabulary, has evolved through centuries of profound external influence. Unlike many languages that have developed largely through internal innovation, English has experienced extensive borrowing, integration, and adaptation of lexical items from a wide variety of other languages. This development is neither random nor incidental; rather, it is a direct consequence of numerous historical contact situations ranging from invasions and colonization to trade, migration, and globalization (MacKenzie, 2017; Levänen, 2022).

Language contact, defined as the interaction between speakers of different languages or dialects, has played a decisive role in shaping the lexicon of modern English. It has resulted not only in the

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adoption of thousands of loanwords but also in semantic shifts, calques, hybrid formations, and syntactic influences that have contributed to English's dynamism and global adaptability (Davydova, 2024; Johnson & Babel, 2024). Moreover, contemporary phenomena, such as the informal language networks of international students and learners' engagement with new technologies like large language models, continue to demonstrate that vocabulary development through contact remains an ongoing and active process (Wang & Reynolds, 2024; Zhou & Rose, 2024).

The central research problem addressed in this study concerns the mechanisms by which language contact has historically influenced — and continues to influence — the vocabulary of modern English. While the borrowing of words is a well-documented phenomenon, less attention has been paid to the nuanced sociolinguistic contexts that facilitate such borrowings, the long-term effects on language structure, and the informal or subconscious dimensions of lexical transfer (Alonso & Fernández-Dobao, 2025; von der Fecht-Fernández, 2025).

Thus, the aims of this research are twofold: firstly, to trace the historical pathways of lexical borrowing in English from early contact periods to the present day; and secondly, to analyze the social, psychological, and educational factors that sustain and accelerate vocabulary change in modern contexts. The study will examine specific domains of borrowing — such as nautical terms, scientific vocabulary, and everyday colloquialisms — alongside broader sociocultural shifts affecting lexical choices among learners and native speakers alike (Alharbi; Flusberg et al., 2024; Hossain, 2024).

The scope of the study encompasses both diachronic and synchronic perspectives, aiming to offer a comprehensive account of how contact-induced change operates over time and in different social environments. Drawing on methodologies from historical linguistics, sociolinguistics, and applied linguistics, this study will employ a mixed-methods approach. Historical texts (e.g., Hakluyt's navigational writings) will be analyzed to trace early borrowing patterns, while contemporary data from educational and social settings will be explored to understand ongoing vocabulary expansion (Sato et al., 2025; da Costa & Rose, 2024; Smith IV et al., 2024).

In doing so, this article contributes to a deeper understanding of English not merely as a Germanic language with heavy Romance influence but as a globalized linguistic system continually shaped by its speakers' interactions across time and space.

2. Historical Background of Language Contact in English

The history of the English language is marked by successive waves of language contact that have dramatically shaped its vocabulary. From the earliest periods of recorded English to the present day, interaction with other linguistic communities has consistently enriched English, introducing new words, altering semantic structures, and influencing stylistic conventions. This section provides a chronological and sociopolitical overview of the primary phases of external influence on English vocabulary development.

2.1 Chronological Overview

Celtic and Latin Influences (Pre-Old English Period)

The earliest known instances of language contact affecting the English lexicon occurred during the Roman occupation of Britain. Although the Celtic languages spoken by the indigenous population left only a modest imprint on English vocabulary — limited to place names (e.g., *Avon*, *Thames*) and topographical terms — the Latin spoken by Roman officials and settlers contributed a small set of administrative and trade-related words (MacKenzie, 2017). These early borrowings set a precedent for Latin's future role as a prestige language in English history.

Old Norse (Viking Age, 8th–11th centuries)

A more profound lexical influence emerged during the Viking invasions and the subsequent settlement of Norse-speaking Scandinavians in northern and eastern England. Old Norse contributed an estimated 900 words to English, many of which are part of the core vocabulary today — including *sky*, *egg*, *knife*, *window*, *they*, and *are* (Levänen, 2022). The depth of Norse influence is notable not only in vocabulary but also in grammatical structures and pronouns, suggesting intense and prolonged contact, especially in the Danelaw region.

Norman French (Post-1066 Conquest)

The Norman Conquest of England in 1066 marked one of the most significant episodes of lexical borrowing in English history. Over the next several centuries, Anglo-Norman French became the language of the elite, law, administration, and literature. As a result, English absorbed thousands of French words, particularly in the domains of governance (*parliament*, *council*), law (*justice*, *verdict*), fashion (*robe*, *gown*), and cuisine (*beef*, *poultry*, *venison*) (MacKenzie, 2017). This infusion resulted in the development of synonym pairs, often distinguishing between Anglo-Saxon everyday terms and French-derived formal equivalents (e.g., *ask* vs. *inquire*).

Latin and Greek (Renaissance and Scientific Revolution)

The Renaissance period, from the 15th to the 17th century, brought a renewed interest in classical learning and scientific inquiry, triggering a surge in Latin and Greek borrowings. Latin became the primary source for academic, legal, religious, and scientific terminology, while Greek served as a foundational language for neologisms in medicine, philosophy, and the sciences (von der Fecht-Fernández, 2025). Words such as *data*, *formula*, *species*, *theory*, and *phenomenon* entered the English lexicon, often through scholarly texts and translations. This period also fostered deliberate coinages using classical roots, demonstrating a more conscious and controlled form of language contact.

2.2 Sociopolitical Contexts of Contact

Each phase of lexical borrowing was deeply embedded in its sociopolitical context. During Roman Britain, Latin held prestige as the language of civilization and imperial order. However, the limited

integration between Roman settlers and native Britons explains the relatively minor Latin impact during this period. In contrast, the Norse influence reflects a context of settlement and intermarriage, particularly in the Danelaw, where language mixing was a daily reality (Levänen, 2022).

The Norman period introduced a stark linguistic hierarchy: French was the language of the ruling class, and English was demoted to a spoken vernacular for the common people. This diglossic situation lasted for several centuries, leaving a dual register legacy that remains evident in English vocabulary today (MacKenzie, 2017).

The Renaissance period saw increased scholarly and religious movements across Europe, encouraging the import of Latin and Greek terms. The role of Latin as the *lingua franca* of educated elites ensured a steady flow of academic terminology into English, even as English gradually asserted itself as a language of learning. Notably, this phase of borrowing often occurred through translation of Latin texts or through conscious neologism rather than through everyday contact (Davydova, 2024).

In sum, the expansion of English vocabulary through language contact has never been a passive or accidental process. Each borrowing phase corresponds to a moment in which political, cultural, or economic shifts led to deeper interaction between linguistic communities. The result is a modern English lexicon that reflects centuries of cultural convergence and ideological interplay.

3. Types of Borrowings and Lexical Integration

The incorporation of foreign elements into English has occurred through a variety of borrowing types, each with distinct linguistic mechanisms and sociocultural implications. These borrowings are not random insertions but are often systematized and adapted according to phonological, morphological, and semantic norms of the recipient language. This section explores the principal categories of lexical borrowing in English, distinguishes between core and peripheral vocabulary integration, and examines the most affected semantic fields.

3.1 *Loanwords, Calques, and Loan Translations*

Borrowing in English has taken three primary forms: **direct loanwords**, **calques**, and **loan translations**.

- **Loanwords** are the most common and involve the adoption of a foreign word with little to no modification. Examples include *ballet* (French), *piano* (Italian), *algebra* (Arabic), and *sushi* (Japanese). Such words are often assimilated phonologically and morphologically over time, becoming indistinguishable from native terms in usage (MacKenzie, 2017).
- **Calques** are literal translations of foreign expressions. For instance, the phrase *skyscraper* is a calque of the French *gratte-ciel*, and *superman* is a calque of the German *Übermensch*. These terms showcase English's ability to absorb conceptual rather than phonological content through translation.

- **Loan translations** or semantic loans involve taking an existing English word and extending or modifying its meaning based on a foreign counterpart. For example, the English *pioneer* was influenced in meaning by its French equivalent, shifting from a military engineer to a broader sense of "trailblazer" or "innovator" (Davydova, 2024).

These three processes illustrate how English does not merely borrow words but actively reconfigures them to fit its linguistic ecosystem.

3.2 Core vs. Peripheral Vocabulary

Another dimension of borrowing involves the depth of integration within the lexicon. **Core vocabulary** refers to everyday words that are fundamental to communication — pronouns, basic verbs, and numbers — and are typically resistant to borrowing. However, some borrowed items have entered the core, especially during intense contact periods. For instance, Old Norse contributed *they*, *them*, and *are*, which replaced earlier Anglo-Saxon forms, a rare phenomenon in lexical history (Levänen, 2022).

Peripheral vocabulary, in contrast, includes terms related to specialized fields or cultural domains. These words are more susceptible to borrowing and include scientific terms (*oxygen*, *photosynthesis*), culinary items (*croissant*, *lasagna*), and fashion vocabulary (*boutique*, *haute couture*). Their adoption often correlates with prestige or innovation, reflecting a desire to associate English with foreign sophistication or authority (von der Fecht-Fernández, 2025; Zhou & Rose, 2024).

3.3 Semantic Fields Affected

Borrowing is often domain-specific, reflecting the societal or technological needs of the time. The four most influenced domains are:

- **Government and Law:** Following the Norman Conquest, terms like *court*, *justice*, *parliament*, and *attorney* entered English, aligning the language with the administrative system imposed by the Normans.
- **Cuisine:** French, Italian, and more recently Asian languages have contributed an extensive set of culinary terms, such as *menu*, *entrée*, *pizza*, *tofu*, and *sashimi*, mirroring cultural openness to foreign foodways.
- **Science and Academia:** Latin and Greek dominate in this area. Words such as *biology*, *quantum*, *radius*, and *hypothesis* emerged from scholarly circles and remain highly productive sources of neologisms.
- **Fashion and Art:** Borrowings like *ballet*, *collage*, *couture*, and *bohemian* entered primarily through French and Italian, reinforcing the association between these languages and aesthetic refinement (Flusberg et al., 2024; Hossain, 2024).

3.4 Frequency and Stability of Borrowed Lexemes

The frequency with which borrowed terms appear in contemporary English is tied to their semantic usefulness and integration level. High-frequency items, such as *government*, *people*, or *very* (from French *gouvernement*, *peuple*, *vérai*), have become foundational. In contrast, lower-frequency borrowings (e.g., *angst*, *fiancée*, *déjà vu*) often retain cultural or phonological markers of their origins.

Stability is also variable. Some borrowings fade or are replaced, while others become entrenched. Stability increases when borrowed terms fill lexical gaps or correspond to concepts previously unnamed in English, as seen in the scientific and technological fields (Wang & Reynolds, 2024).

4. Mechanisms of Lexical Change

The dynamic nature of English vocabulary results not merely from the quantity of borrowings but from the linguistic mechanisms through which these borrowings are processed, adapted, and integrated. Several key mechanisms have underpinned the lexical evolution of English during and after contact situations.

4.1 Code-switching and Borrowing

Code-switching, the practice of alternating between two or more languages within a conversation, often precedes stable borrowing. Initially, speakers may insert foreign terms into English discourse for prestige, necessity, or expressive nuance (Zhou & Rose, 2024). Over time, frequent switches normalize certain foreign words, leading to borrowing, where terms are permanently adopted into English.

For instance, Norman French legal terminology became embedded into English through the sustained code-switching practices of bilingual elites after 1066. Modern examples include global English varieties incorporating local borrowings — for example, *sari* (Hindi) or *sushi* (Japanese).

4.2 Relexification

Relexification involves replacing native lexical items with foreign ones while maintaining native syntactic structures. This process is particularly evident in English Creoles and some dialectal varieties (Davydova, 2024). In the historical context of English, relexification was a subtler phenomenon, such as Old Norse terms supplanting Anglo-Saxon vocabulary (*sky* replacing *heofon*).

Relexification shows that borrowing is not always additive; it may involve lexical replacement and restructuring, reshaping the expressive capacity of the language.

4.3 Lexical Enrichment vs. Lexical Erosion

Language contact can result in either lexical enrichment — the expansion of expressive possibilities — or lexical erosion, the loss of indigenous vocabulary.

- Lexical enrichment is most notable in scientific, legal, and artistic fields, where English gained precision and breadth from Latin, French, and Greek sources (*biology, jury, drama*).
- Lexical erosion occurs when borrowed terms gradually displace native words. For example, the Old English *stow* (meaning "place") survives mainly in toponyms today, replaced in general usage by French-derived terms like *location* and *place* (MacKenzie, 2017).

Thus, while borrowing generally enhanced English vocabulary, it sometimes came at the cost of linguistic heritage.

4.4 Role of Bilingualism and Multilingualism in Lexical Diffusion

Bilingual and multilingual individuals serve as primary agents in spreading borrowed terms across speech communities. In medieval England, bilingualism among the nobility facilitated the infiltration of French into legal and cultural vocabulary. In contemporary contexts, migration and globalization continue this trend: communities exposed to English often blend their native lexicons with English, contributing to English's ongoing evolution (Alonso & Fernández-Dobao, 2025; Wang & Reynolds, 2024).

Multilingual environments not only introduce new lexical items but also influence pronunciation, usage patterns, and semantic shifts, ensuring that language contact remains a living and creative force in the development of English.

5. Case Studies

To understand the impact of language contact on modern English vocabulary more concretely, this section examines specific examples of borrowed terms, their integration, and the enduring influence of French, Latin, and Old Norse on contemporary English.

5.1 Examples of Borrowed Terms and Their Integration

Many everyday English words owe their existence to historical borrowing:

- French: *government, court, menu, mansion*.
- Latin: *data, radius, species*.
- Old Norse: *sky, anger, window, knife*.

These words demonstrate the extensive and often invisible integration of foreign elements into the foundational lexicon of English.

Moreover, the degree of phonological adaptation varies: *menu* retains much of its French pronunciation, while *court* has been fully anglicized, reflecting different integration pathways (MacKenzie, 2017).

5.2 Etymological Analysis of Selected Modern English Words

An etymological examination highlights the layered nature of English vocabulary:

- "Sky" (Old Norse *sky*, meaning “cloud”) replaced the native Old English *heofon*.
- "Government" (from Old French *gouverner*, ultimately Latin *gubernare*) illustrates semantic expansion: from steering ships to ruling states.
- "Theatre" (Greek *theatron*, via Latin and French) demonstrates scholarly borrowing during the Renaissance, directly tied to cultural shifts in art and performance (von der Fecht-Fernández, 2025).

Such examples reveal that English is not merely a borrowing language but a reinterpreting one, adapting foreign terms to suit evolving cultural and communicative needs.

5.3 Impact of French, Latin, and Norse Borrowings in Everyday Vocabulary

The persistent presence of borrowings in high-frequency words underscores the permanent transformation induced by language contact. In fact, it is difficult to write a paragraph of English prose without using terms derived from French or Latin. Norse borrowings, while fewer, have had an outsized syntactic and semantic influence, contributing basic verbs and pronouns (*they, are, get*).

This linguistic layering — Germanic roots, Norse pragmatism, French sophistication, and Latin/Greek intellectualism — gives English its remarkable lexical richness and flexibility, characteristics that support its status as a global lingua franca today (Davydova, 2024; Sato et al., 2025).

6. Discussion

The evolution of English vocabulary through contact-driven processes stands in contrast to languages that have experienced more isolated development. Languages such as Icelandic, for instance, have maintained remarkable lexical conservatism by deliberately coining native equivalents for foreign concepts rather than borrowing directly (MacKenzie, 2017). In contrast, English has historically embraced lexical imports with relatively little resistance, leading to an expansive and flexible vocabulary.

This openness to foreign influence has had overwhelmingly positive effects on English's expressive capacity. Contact-induced vocabulary expansion has allowed English to accommodate new scientific discoveries (*oxygen, gravity*), new political realities (*parliament, constitution*), and new cultural phenomena (*ballet, sushi*) with ease. Far from threatening the integrity of the language, borrowing has enhanced English's ability to adapt to global shifts and to function as a medium of international communication (Davydova, 2024; Wang & Reynolds, 2024).

Nonetheless, debates persist regarding **linguistic purity versus hybrid identity**. Some linguistic purists argue that the extensive borrowing undermines the authenticity of a language, leading to "lexical pollution" and cultural dilution. Such sentiments were evident during periods of

heightened nationalism, notably in the 16th and 19th centuries (MacKenzie, 2017). However, proponents of the hybrid identity model assert that the very strength of English lies in its composite nature — a language not confined by rigid boundaries but enriched by centuries of cultural and linguistic convergence.

Modern sociolinguistic theory supports the latter view: hybridity is seen not as a flaw but as a reflection of complex human histories and relationships. In an increasingly globalized world, linguistic contact is inevitable, and English exemplifies how a language can thrive and grow richer through such interactions (Flusberg et al., 2024; Sato et al., 2025).

7. Conclusion

The history of English vocabulary demonstrates that language contact has been a continuous, dynamic force, shaping the language from its earliest stages to the modern era. From early Celtic and Latin interactions to the profound influence of Old Norse, Norman French, Latin, and Greek, English has been molded by a multitude of external forces, each leaving an indelible mark on its lexicon.

The mechanisms of lexical change — including code-switching, borrowing, relexification, and the influence of bilingualism — have not only expanded the vocabulary but have fundamentally enriched the expressive potential of English. Case studies of common borrowed words reveal the deep integration of foreign terms into everyday communication, highlighting English's adaptive and hybrid character.

For linguistic studies, the case of English underscores the need to view language as a living, evolving system that reflects historical, social, and cultural realities. The implications extend beyond English itself, offering insights into how other languages may evolve under the pressures of globalization and contact (Johnson & Babel, 2024; da Costa & Rose, 2024).

Future research might profitably explore how ongoing global English contact with Asian and African languages is reshaping English at the lexical level. Early indications suggest that non-European influences — once peripheral — may become increasingly significant in shaping English's future vocabulary, further emphasizing the dynamic, contact-driven nature of language change in the 21st century.

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Hydrographic Features of the Nakhchivan Autonomous Republic: Structure, Distribution, and Agricultural Significance

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Abstract:

This article provides a comprehensive hydrographic analysis of the Nakhchivan Autonomous Republic (NAR), a landlocked exclave of Azerbaijan. Nakhchivan's hydrographic network comprises about 400 rivers (total length $\approx 1,800$ km), most of which drain into the Aras (Araz) River on its southern border. The major rivers – the border Araz (Aras), the transboundary Arpachay (Arpa), and the intra-regional Nakhchivanchay – originate in the Lesser Caucasus mountains and are fed by snowmelt and rainfall. The region's climate is dry continental, with mean annual precipitation only ~ 200 – 350 mm on the Araz plain and 500 – 800 mm in uplands. Rivers are typically calcium–bicarbonate type, with moderate mineralization (total dissolved solids ~ 300 – 500 mg/L) and episodic high turbidity (up to ~ 1000 g/m³ during floods). Recent studies find that heavy metal concentrations in Aras and Arpachay waters generally meet WHO standards. Nakhchivan's agriculture (dominated by wheat, barley, fruits) is heavily reliant on irrigation from these rivers and ancient qanat (kahriz) systems. For example, rehabilitation of 125 kahriz tunnels has provided irrigation to ~ 700 ha of arable land. Educationally, the Nakhchivan river system offers rich case studies in dryland hydrology, transboundary water management, and traditional irrigation. This article reviews physical geography and hydrology, profiles the Araz, Arpachay, and Nakhchivanchay rivers, examines tributary networks and water chemistry, and discusses agricultural uses and teaching applications of these water resources. Citations from recent government and scientific sources are provided throughout.

Keywords

Nakhchivan Autonomous Republic; hydrographic network; Aras (Araz) River; Arpachay; Nakhchivanchay; irrigation; arid climate; qanat

Introduction

The Nakhchivan Autonomous Republic (NAR) is a $5,500$ km² mountainous exclave of Azerbaijan, bordering Armenia, Iran, and Turkey. Its terrain is dominated by the Lesser Caucasus mountains (Zangezur and Daralayaz ranges) with an average elevation $\sim 1,450$ m. The region has historically

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been arid and semiarid; one-third of Nakhchivan lies in lowlands along the Araz (Aras) River, but more than half is rugged highlands. In this context, water resources are scarce and strategically vital. The Araz River – a major Transcaucasian river rising in Turkey – forms Nakhchivan’s southern border, collecting the flow of all local rivers. The NAR’s climate is strongly continental and dry, with short cool winters and hot, dry summers. Annual precipitation on the plains is only about 200–300 mm, reaching 500–800 mm in the higher mountains. Such low rainfall creates an urgent need for irrigation and efficient water management.

Geographers and environmental educators must understand Nakhchivan’s hydrography because its scarce water resources underpin local agriculture, ecology, and development planning. This article analyzes the structure and distribution of Nakhchivan’s rivers and streams, their hydrological characteristics, and their importance for farming. We combine data from Azerbaijani government sources and recent studies (2010s–2020s) on river flow, water quality, and land use. In addition, we highlight pedagogical applications: Nakhchivan’s water systems illustrate key geographical concepts (e.g. basin hydrology in arid zones, human adaptation to water scarcity) and can be used for classroom case studies or lessons. Following this introduction, we outline Nakhchivan’s geography and climate, describe the general hydrographic network, profile the major rivers (Araz, Arpachay, Nakhchivanchay), examine tributaries and watershed behavior, review water chemistry and sediment issues, and discuss agricultural uses alongside educational insights.

Geographical and Climatic Background

Nakhchivan lies in the southeast Caucasus plateaus, with the Lesser Caucasus mountains encircling the exclave. The highest peak is Mount Qapichig (3,904 m) in the Zangezur range. The terrain slopes southward toward the Araz River valley. The main administrative districts reflect this topography: Sharur, Kangarli, Babek (which includes the city of Nakhchivan), and Julfa occupy the lower Araz plains, while Shahbuz, Ordubad, and parts of Babek extend into upland and alpine zones.

Climatically, Nakhchivan is strongly continental. Average annual precipitation is very low – roughly 200–300 mm on the Araz plains and up to 500–800 mm in the high mountains. For example, the Aras (Araz) plain areas receive only about 200–300 mm per year, making them one of the driest parts of Azerbaijan. Temperatures are hot in summer (often $>30^{\circ}\text{C}$) and cold in winter (occasionally below -10°C). Seasonal snow and rainfall are critical for river flow: most rivers swell in spring from snowmelt and autumn rains, then shrink in summer’s heat. Compared with the wetter North Caucasus, southwestern Nakhchivan faces frequent droughts and even dust storms. The semi-desert vegetation in lowlands and subalpine meadows in the high zones reflect this aridity.

Taken together, the steep relief and dry climate mean that Nakhchivan’s rivers are relatively short but potentially torrential. Many are fed by snow-melt and spring showers, yielding short-lived high flows (flood peaks) in late spring or early summer, and very low flows in summer and early autumn. Historical records note episodic floods on the Araz (and its tributaries) in years with

unusually heavy summer rains. Reservoirs built since the mid-20th century (see below) have partly moderated flooding, but flash floods remain a hazard in mountain streams. Understanding these geographical and climatic factors is essential before examining Nakhchivan's water networks.

General Hydrographic Characteristics

Nakhchivan's hydrographic network is relatively dense given its area. Official sources report "*about 400 big and small rivers*" totaling roughly 1,800 km in length. Most of these streams are short (typically under 50–100 km) and originate in the nearby mountains. The terrain and geology produce mostly mountain streams that descend rapidly from high altitudes (often above 2,000–3,000 m) into the valleys. There are also several small lakes and reservoirs in Nakhchivan. Natural alpine lakes include Ganligol, Batabatgol, Səlavərti (Salvar əti) and Göygöl, mainly in the Nakhchivanchay and Gilanchay valleys. In addition, an Araz (Heydar Aliyev) reservoir and multiple dam reservoirs have been constructed on local rivers for water storage and hydroelectricity (e.g. on the Araz, Arpachay, Bananiyar, Nehram, Uzunoba).

Aside from surface waters, Nakhchivan is famous for its mineral and groundwater springs. Over 250 mineral-water sources (e.g. Badamlı, Sirab, Vayxır) are recorded in the AR. These springs provide both bottled water and local spa uses, but we focus here on surface streams and irrigation sources. The climate regime means that many rivers are seasonal: in dry summers some may run low or dry up, whereas during snowmelt and rain events they carry substantial flow. For example, documented floods along the southern Caucasus slopes (including Nakhchivan) occurred multiple times in the 20th century, though dams now reduce extreme peaks.

Hydrologically, all rivers of Nakhchivan ultimately drain into the Araz/Aras River, which then joins the Kura River and flows to the Caspian Sea. A helpful classification divides Azerbaijan's rivers by basin: the Nakhchivan rivers (Arpachay, Nakhchivanchay, etc.) belong to the Araz basin. (By contrast, only the Samur, Gudyal, Velvele etc. drain directly to the Caspian elsewhere in Azerbaijan.) Thus, in Nakhchivan the Araz (forming the border with Iran/Turkey) can be seen as the trunk river, with Arpachay and Nakhchivanchay as its two largest tributaries.

Profiles of Major Rivers

Araz (Aras) River

The Araz (Aras) River is the largest and most important river for Nakhchivan. It rises in the Turkish Bingöl Mountains and flows roughly 1,072 km through the Caucasus. In Nakhchivan, the Araz defines much of the southern border (with Iran and Turkey). It is a deep, broad river that collects water from dozens of tributaries. In downstream Azerbaijan (beyond Nakhchivan) the Araz joins the Kura at Sabirabad and supplies water to the Caspian basin.

The Araz River's discharge is heavily variable. Near Nakhchivan the mean flow is moderate, but in spring during peak snowmelt it can reach over 1,000 m³/s, whereas in late summer it may drop to only tens of m³/s. This variability reflects the short summer drought and reliance on mountain

snow. The water quality of the Araz is generally fresh: its total dissolved solids average ~40–60 mg/L (as CaCO₃) in the lowlands, making it suitable for irrigation and drinking after treatment. Recent analyses report that most heavy metals in the Araz are below WHO limits, though arsenic (likely from natural sources) may pose a chronic risk. Overall, the Araz provides potable and irrigation water to numerous communities and thousands of hectares of cropland along its course.

A major infrastructure on the Araz is the Heydar Aliyev Hydroelectric Power Plant (Aras HPP), built in 1970. The Aras Reservoir behind the dam has a capacity of about 1.2 billion m³ (usable). This reservoir regulates river flow, generates ~22 MW of electricity, and supplies irrigation water during the dry season. The reconstruction of the Araz HPP is part of recent development plans for Nakhchivan. In agricultural terms, the Araz's irrigation provides water to the Aras Plains and beyond. The plains of Sharur, Kangarli, Babek and Julfa counties are largely irrigated by canals drawing from the Araz. (Sharur's Sadarak, boyukduz areas, and Julfa's Babak pipeline are examples.) In summary, the Araz River is the ultimate sink and source for Nakhchivan's hydrology – it defines the region's drainage and anchors its irrigation network.

Arpachay (Arpa) River

The Arpachay (also known as Arpa) is Nakhchivan's second-largest river and the largest *internal* river. It originates in Armenia's Vayots Dzor mountains (near Jermuk) and flows southeastward into Nakhchivan, joining the Araz near the village of Shibrat. Its total length is about 126–128 km, with a drainage basin of ~2,630 km². The river descends from roughly 3,100 m elevation (the summit of Mt. Kechaldag) to ~400 m at the Aras confluence.

Within Nakhchivan, the Arpachay gains many small tributaries (some 23 reported: 13 right-side, 10 left-side). Its flow is also snow-fed; spring melt from the Zangezur range yields peak flows, and summer often sees lower flow. An important feature on the eastern Arpachay is a reservoir (completed in the Soviet era) with a total storage of ~150 million m³ (140 million m³ usable). This reservoir serves irrigation needs for several kilometers of downstream farmland. A 25-MW hydroelectric plant was built on the Arpachay reservoir, though its power output is modest compared to the Araz HPP.

Chemically, the Arpachay waters are predominantly calcium–bicarbonate type. Dissolved bicarbonate and calcium dominate, with sulfates constituting ~7–16% of the anionic equivalents and chlorides 1–8%. Total mineralization is similar to the Nakhchivanchay (~40–80 mg/L hardness). The river is considered quite clean biologically: one study found 68 benthic macroinvertebrate species, indicating good oxygenation and habitat diversity (likely due to mountain origin and forest cover upstream). Overall, the Arpachay is widely used for irrigation and drinking water within Nakhchivan.

Notably, as an international river, the Arpachay involves cooperation between Armenia and Azerbaijan. During the 2020 ceasefire discussions, the joint management of the Arpachay/Akhurian River for irrigation was an important issue (indeed, its name is the same in

Armenian: Akhuryan). Water releases from the reservoir and summer flows are regulated by treaties to ensure downstream Nakhchivan's needs are met. Thus, like the Araz, the Arpachay underscores Nakhchivan's dependency on transboundary water flows.

Nakhchivanchay River

The Nakhchivanchay is the principal river entirely within the Nakhchivan exclave. It arises on the southern slopes of the Dereleyez ridge of the Lesser Caucasus (at Mount Kechaldag, 3,114 m) and flows south through the Shahbuz and Babek districts to the Araz. Its length is about 91 km, and the basin area $\approx 1,630 \text{ km}^2$. Like the other rivers, it is a left-bank tributary of the Aras.

The Nakhchivanchay has many minor feeder streams – about 16 named tributaries (9 entering from the east, 7 from the west). Its hydrology is similar to the Arpachay but with a slightly smaller catchment. Average discharge is roughly $3.7 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ (but can rise in flood), and turbidity in winter/spring may reach $\sim 700 \text{ g/m}^3$ (up to $\sim 1,000 \text{ g/m}^3$ during floods). These high turbidity values reflect strong seasonal silt transport from steep slopes. A major infrastructure on the Nakhchivanchay is the Vayxır Reservoir (built on a tributary, supplying water to city of Nakhchivan). Water chemistry measurements in the Nakhchivanchay show moderate mineralization ($300\text{--}500 \text{ mg/L}$, mainly HCO_3^- and Ca^{2+}), and a slightly alkaline pH ($\sim 7.1\text{--}7.2$).

The Nakhchivanchay valley is important for local communities: the city of Nakhchivan and several villages lie along it. Thus it provides much of the region's domestic water and feeds irrigation canals in the central plain. Farmers downstream rely on its summer flow for crops, supplementing with reservoir release if needed. In summary, while the Nakhchivanchay is shorter than Arpachay, it is significant for central Nakhchivan's population and agriculture.

Tributaries and River Basin Analysis

All Nakhchivan rivers feed the Aras River. The two largest sub-basins are the Arpachay basin ($\approx 2,630 \text{ km}^2$) and the Nakhchivanchay basin ($\approx 1,630 \text{ km}^2$). Smaller basins include those of the Alinjachay and Gilanchay rivers (which both feed into the Arpachay system) and numerous very minor streams in the mountains. The Arpachay's 23 tributaries (13 from the right, 10 left) mean that much of Sharur and Kangarli districts drain into it. The Nakhchivanchay's 16 tributaries (mostly from the Babek highlands) serve central districts. West of the Nakhchivanchay, smaller rivers such as Alinjachay and Gilanchay irrigate portions of Babek and Shahbuz, but these are minor by comparison.

From a basin perspective, Nakhchivan's rivers are steep-gradient and relatively short. The entire Araz basin (including these tributaries) has a watershed area of $\sim 100,000\text{--}102,000 \text{ km}^2$. Within Nakhchivan's $5,503 \text{ km}^2$, roughly three-quarters of land area is drained by one of these rivers to the south. The westernmost district, Sadarak, is somewhat anomalous: its rivers (e.g. Soyuqbulag) end in saline Sadarak plains and do not flow to the Araz (they disappear into groundwater or small sink basins).

Seasonality in these basins is pronounced. Spring snowmelt and rains produce high flows and frequent floods. For example, hydrological monitoring on the Araz near the dam shows peak discharges $\sim 1,100 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$, whereas in mid-summer dry periods flows can fall to $30\text{--}40 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$. Likewise, peak flows on Arpachay or Nakhchivanchay are orders of magnitude above baseflow. This seasonality causes strongly seasonal availability of irrigation water: fields must rely on stored river water (via reservoirs or kahriz wells) through the dry season. Land use data reflect this: district-level irrigation area expanded greatly in recent decades, but water resources limit yields. (For instance, although Nakhchivan increased its cultivated area by 58% from 2000–2022, grain yield rose only $\sim 7\%$, indicating water constraints.)

In summary, Nakhchivan's river basins are compact and snow-fed. Sub-basin analyses emphasize that all flows from Sharur, Kangarli, Babek, Julfa and parts of Shahbuz and Ordubad ultimately route to the Araz. Engineering works (dams, canals, kahriz) in these basins govern water distribution, but fundamentally the hydrology is controlled by the region's steep relief and limited precipitation.

Hydrochemistry and Sediment Transport

The water chemistry of Nakhchivan's rivers reflects the geology of the Lesser Caucasus (limestone, volcanic rocks) and the arid climate. Generally, the rivers are “hard” (high in calcium) and alkaline. Analyses show that dissolved bicarbonate (HCO_3^-) and calcium dominate. For example, Nakhchivanchay samples had total dissolved solids $\sim 300\text{--}500 \text{ mg/L}$ (mostly Ca-HCO_3). Arpachay water is similarly Ca-HCO_3 type; chloride levels are low (1–8% of anions) and sulfate modest (7–16%). These values place the water chemistry in the moderately mineralized category. Groundwater-fed springs (kahriz) have comparable chemistry. Importantly, pollution levels have been studied: a 2019 survey found that heavy metals in both Aras and Arpachay are below WHO drinking-water limits. However, some trace arsenic was noted (requiring long-term vigilance). Nutrient concentrations (nitrate, phosphate) are generally low, since Nakhchivan has little heavy industry; main water quality issues arise from agricultural runoff (salinization and fertilizers).

Sediment transport is a significant factor during floods. The steep mountain slopes lead to high erosion rates when vegetation cover is sparse (especially in dry seasons). Turbidity measurements in Nakhchivan rivers are very high relative to more humid regions. For instance, the Nakhchivanchay had an average turbidity of $\sim 700 \text{ g/m}^3$, rising to $\sim 1,000 \text{ g/m}^3$ at flood peak. Similar values occur on Arpachay after summer storms. These sediments consist of silts and clays carried in suspension. During flood events, a substantial portion of valley alluvium can be mobilized. Reservoirs (like the Arpachay and Araz dams) trap much of this load; but downstream, notable sedimentation has occurred in channels and farm intake structures.

Farmers are aware of soil salinization issues, which are partly related to irrigation return flows and evaporation of these mineral-rich waters. Over time, continuous irrigation can concentrate salts in the soil. The government promotes improved drainage and salt-tolerant crops to mitigate this. From

an educational standpoint, measuring turbidity or mineral content in local streams can be an instructive lab exercise on weathering and sediment yield in arid regions.

In summary, Nakhchivan's rivers carry mineral-rich, alkaline water under natural conditions. Floods deliver heavy sediment loads, reflecting the high-energy mountain environment. Water quality is generally good for most uses, but requires management of salinity and monitoring of pollutants.

Agricultural and Pedagogical Relevance

Agricultural significance. Agriculture is the main livelihood in Nakhchivan, and it depends critically on water. The hot, dry climate makes rainfed farming marginal; irrigation is essential. As one analysis notes, "*with annual precipitation 110–350 mm ... this region is one of the driest areas in Azerbaijan,*" so water from the Araz and internal rivers underpins all crop production. The major crops are cereals (wheat, barley), fruits, vegetables, and some tobacco. For example, in 2022 over 33,000 ha were planted to grain (mostly winter wheat and barley), yielding 107,418 tons. Potatoes and vegetables are also widely irrigated. Despite expanding irrigated area, yields have been relatively stagnant: an analytical brief reported that farmland grew ~58% (2000–2022) but yields rose only ~7%, underscoring water and soil quality limits.

Nakhchivan has invested heavily in irrigation infrastructure. From Soviet-era canals to recent state programs, the focus is on maximizing efficient use of Araz and tributary flows. An innovative traditional system is the *kahriz* (qanat) – an underground gravity-flow channel tapping mountain aquifers. Between 2002–2011 Switzerland funded rehabilitation of 125 kahriz tunnels, bringing water to ~40,000 people and irrigating some 700 ha. These kahriz now provide a reliable supplemental source for local villages (especially in Shahbuz and Kangarli). Modern reservoirs and wells also supply water to collective farms. Agricultural managers monitor river levels and reservoir storage closely; the new State Program for 2023–2027 emphasizes modernizing irrigation systems (e.g. lined canals, drip irrigation) to address climate stress.

Pedagogical insights. Nakhchivan's hydrography offers rich educational opportunities. For geography and environmental science curricula, the region is a real-world case of water management in an arid, transboundary context. Possible teaching applications include:

- **River basin mapping:** Students can map Nakhchivan's watersheds (Arpachay vs. Nakhchivanchay, tributaries) and analyze flow patterns. Using GIS or simple contour maps, one could illustrate how all water drains to the Aras and discuss implications of being an exclave dependent on neighbors' water.
- **Water balance exercises:** Given rainfall (~300 mm) and crop evapotranspiration (450–650 mm for wheat), students can calculate irrigation requirements and assess sustainability. A lesson might involve planning an irrigation schedule for a hypothetical farm, using local climate and river flow data.

- **Kahriz and cultural history:** The ancient kahriz system can be studied in history or technology classes. Educators could demonstrate a small-scale qanat model, linking geology (aquifers) with engineering. Discussion can touch on how societies innovate to obtain water in deserts.
- **Water quality lab:** A field or lab activity could involve testing local stream water for pH, hardness, and turbidity. Comparing values from Nakhchivanchay vs. Arpachay could reveal geological differences. Students learn about mineral content, and can discuss salinization issues raised in policy briefs.
- **Transboundary water policy:** In social studies or civics, the Nakhchivan case illustrates international water rights. Students can role-play negotiations between countries on Araz water shares, using the 2016 agreement between Azerbaijan and Iran as a reference (cooperative management of new dams).

In sum, integrating Nakhchivan's river data into lesson plans makes geography and environmental science more concrete and locally relevant for Azerbaijani students. It also aligns with Sustainable Development Goals (SDG6: Clean Water) and climate adaptation themes.

Conclusion

Nakhchivan's hydrographic network, though modest in scale, is central to the region's livelihood and education. The exclave's rivers – dominated by the Araz, Arpachay, and Nakhchivanchay – reflect a semi-arid, mountainous environment with strong seasonal flows. The Araz River (Aras) forms Nakhchivan's lifeline, with large reservoirs and canals drawing from it for irrigation and power. Arpachay and Nakhchivanchay supply the interior plain, and their waters are generally of good quality (calcium–bicarbonate type). However, water quantity is limited: annual rainfall is low (often <300 mm) and irrigation demands are high. As a result, water management (including kahriz, dams, and efficient irrigation) is critical for agriculture, which focuses on cereals and fruits.

From an educational viewpoint, Nakhchivan's rivers provide concrete examples of key concepts: the role of climate in hydrographs, traditional water technologies, and resource planning under constraints. Geography and environmental science courses can draw on real local data (streamflow, precipitation, irrigation rates) to teach water budgeting, watershed mapping, and sustainable practices. For instance, students might investigate how a village's wells (kahriz) supplement river irrigation, or model the impact of a 50% reduction in Araz flow on crop yields – integrating cross-curricular skills.

In conclusion, understanding Nakhchivan's hydrographic features – their structure, distribution, chemistry, and human uses – is essential for regional planning and education. Recent government programs and scientific assessments (cited above) offer up-to-date data on flows, water quality, and agricultural outputs, forming a basis for continued study. Educators and policymakers alike should leverage this knowledge: as one source notes, *“the critical need for effective irrigation*

systems” in Nakhchivan underscores both a development challenge and a rich teaching opportunity.

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The Importance of Writing in Language Acquisition: A Cognitive, Communicative, and Pedagogical Perspective

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Abstract:

Writing is a fundamental component of second language acquisition (SLA), enhancing learners' ability to internalize grammatical structures, expand vocabulary and engage in deeper language processing. Despite the emphasis on speaking and listening in communicative approaches, writing supports metalinguistic awareness and long-term retention. This article explores the cognitive and pedagogical functions of writing in language learning through a review of key theories and classroom-based evidence. A mixed-methods study involving literature analysis, classroom observations and learner surveys supports the conclusion that writing significantly contributes to comprehensive language development. This article seeks to explore and affirm the centrality of writing in the process of language acquisition. It draws on theoretical models, empirical studies and classroom observations to argue that writing is not only an outcome of language learning but also a driver of it. By highlighting the cognitive, pedagogical and social dimensions of writing, this article aims to contribute to a more balanced and integrated understanding of language acquisition and offer practical insights for educators, curriculum designers and language learners alike. This article investigates the significance of writing in SLA and presents evidence supporting its integration into language pedagogy.

Keywords

language acquisition, writing, second language learning, ESL, metalinguistic awareness, SLA, literacy, communicative competence

Introduction

Language acquisition is a multidimensional process that encompasses the development of receptive skills (listening and reading) and productive skills (speaking and writing). Among these, writing often receives less emphasis in language learning curricula, particularly in communicative approaches that prioritize oral fluency. However, recent research and pedagogical trends suggest that writing plays a crucial, multifaceted role in both first and second language acquisition (SLA). Writing is not merely a means of expressing ideas; it is a cognitive and linguistic tool that facilitates deeper engagement with the language and supports the internalization of its structures.

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Historically, the development of writing skills has been perceived as secondary to speaking in SLA classrooms, often introduced at more advanced stages of proficiency. This view is rooted in the assumption that oral language is more fundamental and natural, while writing is an artificial construct. Yet, writing offers learners unique opportunities to reflect, organize and restructure their linguistic knowledge. Unlike speaking, which is often spontaneous and ephemeral, writing allows for deliberate planning, editing and revising, processes that are deeply conducive to metalinguistic awareness—an essential factor in mastering a new language (Hyland, 2003; Ferris, 2002).

In cognitive terms, writing is a generative activity that forces learners to process language at multiple levels. As they write, learners engage in lexical selection, syntactic structuring and semantic encoding, all while keeping audience, purpose and coherence in mind. This complex interplay of processes enhances not only grammatical competence but also pragmatic and discourse competence. Furthermore, studies show that writing reinforces vocabulary acquisition and improves retention by requiring learners to use new lexical items contextually and meaningfully (Nation, 2001; Webb, 2005). The act of producing written text solidifies knowledge in ways that passive exposure cannot.

From a sociocultural perspective, writing functions as a tool for interaction, negotiation of meaning and identity construction. According to Vygotsky theory, writing is a mediated activity that connects learners with social and cultural tools of language (Vygotsky, 1978). In classroom settings, writing tasks such as collaborative compositions, peer reviews and digital blogging foster authentic communication and allow learners to co-construct meaning with others. These practices not only develop linguistic skills but also promote learner autonomy and motivation.

Moreover, the rise of digital technology has transformed the nature of writing in language learning. Learners now have access to blogs, wikis, forums and other platforms that make writing more dynamic, interactive and immediate. These environments facilitate feedback, collaboration and engagement with global audiences, thus expanding the functional and communicative value of writing (Hyland, 2003). Writing is no longer confined to static, academic forms but has become a vibrant and socially meaningful act in the digital age.

Despite its documented benefits, writing is still underutilized in many SLA classrooms, often relegated to a peripheral role or treated as an assessment tool rather than a learning process. There is a pressing need to reevaluate the role of writing in language pedagogy, especially given the increasing demand for learners to demonstrate written proficiency in academic, professional and intercultural contexts.

Language acquisition involves mastering various modalities—listening, speaking, reading and writing. Among these, writing is often underutilized in language instruction, despite its essential role in reinforcing linguistic elements and supporting cognitive processing (Hyland, 2003). Writing not only promotes active language production but also offers learners the chance to review and revise their output, thereby enhancing accuracy and awareness of language structure.

1. Theoretical Foundations

Writing's role in SLA is supported by several foundational theories. Krashen's (1982) "Input Hypothesis" emphasizes the necessity of comprehensible input for language learning, yet Swain (1985) argues that output, particularly written output, pushes learners to process language more deeply, notice gaps in their competence and test linguistic hypotheses. Writing, therefore, serves as an essential complement to input-based learning.

Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory highlights writing as a mediated activity through which learners construct meaning, particularly when supported by scaffolding and social interaction. Writing helps bridge the gap between external input and internalization.

The importance of writing in language acquisition is underpinned by several influential theories from the fields of linguistics, cognitive psychology and sociocultural education. These theoretical foundations provide a comprehensive framework for understanding how writing contributes not only to the development of linguistic competence but also to cognitive processing, social interaction and learner autonomy. Central among these theories are the Output Hypothesis, Sociocultural Theory and Noticing Hypothesis, all of which highlight the unique role writing plays in facilitating language development.

One of the most widely cited theories in support of writing is Swain's Output Hypothesis (1985), which argues that language production—particularly in the form of written output—is essential for second language acquisition. While input (listening and reading) is critical, output forces learners to process language more deeply by constructing meaningful sentences, selecting appropriate vocabulary and applying grammatical rules. Writing, as a form of "pushed output," compels learners to go beyond their current level of competence, identify linguistic gaps and seek out new forms to express intended meanings. This process not only consolidates prior knowledge but also facilitates inter-language development by pushing learners to restructure their linguistic systems.

In parallel, Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis (1990) suggests that learners must consciously notice language features in order for acquisition to occur. Writing supports this process by offering learners the time and space to attend to linguistic form—something that often eludes them during the rapid pace of spoken communication. When engaged in writing, learners are more likely to reflect on sentence structure, verb tense, article usage and vocabulary choice. This metalinguistic reflection fosters awareness of both correct and incorrect forms, allowing learners to internalize new structures more effectively (Swain, 1995; Schmidt, 2001).

Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory (1978) also provides a powerful foundation for understanding the role of writing in language development. From this perspective, language learning is a socially mediated process that occurs through interaction, scaffolding and the use of cultural tools. Writing is one such tool, enabling learners to externalize their thoughts and engage with others in meaning-making activities. Collaborative writing tasks, peer feedback and teacher-guided revisions all

represent opportunities for learners to operate within their Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), where they can achieve more with guidance than alone. In this way, writing serves both a cognitive and social function, facilitating language development through interaction and reflection.

Additionally, Cognitive Process Theory of Writing (Flower & Hayes, 1981) highlights writing as a recursive process involving planning, translating and revising. This model is particularly relevant to SLA, as each phase activates specific linguistic and cognitive demands. Planning requires idea generation and vocabulary access, translating involves syntactic construction and discourse organization and revising allows for the evaluation of linguistic accuracy and coherence. These stages align closely with the needs of language learners, who benefit from opportunities to process language deeply and iteratively.

Finally, constructivist learning theories emphasize the role of learners as active participants in their own learning. Writing, especially when integrated with personal expression and creative tasks, allows learners to take ownership of their language development. It transforms them from passive recipients of input into active constructors of meaning, aligning with learner-centered approaches in modern language pedagogy.

Taken together, these theoretical frameworks underscore the multifaceted value of writing in language acquisition. They demonstrate that writing is not merely a skill to be developed in isolation but a powerful mechanism for learning, reflection, communication and cognitive growth. As such, writing deserves a central place in any comprehensive model of language instruction.

2. Metalinguistic Awareness and Cognitive Processing

Writing supports the development of metalinguistic awareness by compelling learners to think about language form and usage. As learners write, they consciously apply grammatical structures and syntax, which fosters deeper understanding (Ferris, 2002). One student noted during the study: "When I write, I think about the rules I learned. I check myself more than when I speak." This reflective process makes writing particularly effective for consolidating knowledge.

One of the most significant contributions of writing to language acquisition lies in its ability to enhance metalinguistic awareness—the capacity to reflect on and manipulate the structural features of a language. Unlike speaking, which often occurs spontaneously and under time pressure, writing is a slower and more deliberate process. This additional cognitive space allows learners to consciously attend to grammatical rules, vocabulary choice, syntax and overall text organization. Through writing, learners develop a heightened sensitivity to how language functions, both formally and functionally, which in turn facilitates more accurate and sophisticated language use.

Metalinguistic awareness is especially critical in second language acquisition, where learners must internalize a new set of linguistic norms that may differ significantly from those of their first language. Writing provides a platform where these differences can be observed, tested and ultimately mastered. According to Ferris (2002), learners often become more aware of recurring

grammatical errors during writing than during speaking, simply because writing allows them to review and revise their output. For instance, learners are more likely to notice subject-verb agreement issues, article usage, or verb tense consistency when engaged in writing tasks. This conscious attention to form is a key mechanism in language development. Cognitively, writing engages several layers of mental processing. Flower and Hayes (1981) proposed a model of writing as a recursive process involving planning, translating and revising. In the context of language learning, each of these stages requires linguistic decision-making. Planning involves selecting appropriate vocabulary and structuring ideas logically; translating requires transforming thoughts into grammatically correct sentences; revising demands the evaluation of language choices for clarity and accuracy. This process compels learners to engage deeply with the target language, often leading to what Swain (1985) termed “pushed output”—language that goes beyond the learner’s current comfort zone, thus promoting growth.

Furthermore, writing encourages the internalization of complex linguistic structures. Nation (2001) argues that productive tasks, including writing, are essential for reinforcing newly acquired vocabulary and grammar. When learners are asked to use new words in their own writing, they must retrieve, adapt and integrate them meaningfully, thereby strengthening retention. This process also contributes to inter-language development, as learners continuously refine their linguistic systems based on feedback, self-monitoring and exposure to written models.

Learner feedback collected during classroom observations in this study supports these theoretical insights. Many students reported that writing helped them “see their mistakes,” “think about grammar more,” and “try to use new vocabulary correctly.” These comments reflect the cognitive engagement and self-awareness that writing fosters—both of which are vital for long-term language acquisition. Writing is not simply a skill to be acquired but a mental activity that strengthens the language learning process through reflection, hypothesis testing and structured output. It cultivates metalinguistic awareness and activates cognitive processes that are less accessible during oral communication. By making language visible and open to manipulation, writing becomes a powerful engine of linguistic development in both academic and communicative contexts.

One of the most empirically supported benefits of writing in language acquisition is its powerful impact on vocabulary retention and development. Vocabulary is a core component of communicative competence and learners’ ability to use words accurately and flexibly is essential for both fluency and precision. While listening and reading offer valuable exposure to lexical input, writing requires active production and contextualized use of vocabulary, which deepens memory and fosters long-term retention (Nation, 2001).

Research has consistently shown that productive use of vocabulary—such as through writing tasks—results in better learning outcomes than passive exposure alone. In a landmark study, Webb (2005) demonstrated that learners who wrote sentences using new words retained significantly more vocabulary than those who only encountered the words through reading. Writing forces

learners to engage in lexical retrieval, semantic mapping and syntactic integration, all of which contribute to deeper cognitive processing. This increased mental effort helps encode vocabulary into long-term memory.

Furthermore, writing allows learners to personalize vocabulary use, which has been shown to enhance retention. When learners create sentences, paragraphs, or essays using new lexical items, they anchor those items to their own ideas and experiences. This personalization strengthens associative links and promotes greater accessibility of the words in future communicative contexts (Schmitt, 2010). For example, writing about one's hobbies, family, or studies using recently learned vocabulary reinforces not just the meaning of words but their pragmatic function.

Classroom-based observations and learner surveys conducted in this study further reinforce these findings. Over 80% of participants reported that writing helped them remember and use new words more confidently. One learner stated: "When I write something with new words, I feel like I own them. I can use them later when I speak or write again." This learner testimony aligns with the concept of output-enhanced learning, where language production tasks like writing push learners to use language that has been recently acquired, thus consolidating their lexical knowledge (Swain, 1985).

Additionally, writing offers learners repeated and varied opportunities to use vocabulary in different contexts. Unlike single-exposure activities such as reading a text or listening to a recording, writing can involve drafting, revising and editing—each of which demands reconsideration and reapplication of vocabulary choices. This cyclical process of refinement contributes to a deeper understanding of word usage, collocation and register (Hyland, 2003).

In structured pedagogical settings, writing activities such as thematic journals, vocabulary logs and guided essays can be deliberately designed to target specific vocabulary sets. These tasks not only reinforce recent lessons but also train learners to become more autonomous in their vocabulary learning strategies. When writing is integrated systematically into language instruction, it serves as a dynamic tool for lexical development that complements and extends receptive learning.

As a result, writing plays a central role in vocabulary retention and development by converting passive lexical knowledge into active, usable language. It provides learners with opportunities for meaningful production, personalization and repeated exposure, all of which are key factors in successful vocabulary acquisition. As such, writing should be treated not only as a skill to be assessed but as a learning process that strengthens the lexical foundations of language competence.

Research has shown that writing enhances vocabulary acquisition more than receptive tasks alone. Webb (2005) found that learners who actively use new vocabulary in writing tasks are more likely to retain those words over time. Nation (2001) similarly emphasizes that productive use, including writing, leads to greater vocabulary depth. In our survey, 84% of participants indicated that writing helped them remember new words better than reading or listening.

3. Writing in Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

Although CLT traditionally prioritizes oral fluency, writing tasks such as journal entries, email exchanges and collaborative storytelling can be effectively used to support communicative goals. Hyland (2003) asserts that writing offers opportunities for learners to produce meaningful discourse within authentic contexts. Our classroom observations confirmed that learners engaged more deeply with functional language when writing emails, blog posts, or narrative texts that reflected real-life purposes.

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) emphasizes interaction and real-life communication as central to language learning, traditionally prioritizing speaking and listening skills over writing (Savignon, 2002). However, writing remains a critical, though sometimes overlooked, component within the CLT framework. When integrated thoughtfully, writing tasks can significantly enhance learners' communicative competence by providing authentic contexts in which to produce meaningful language.

CLT advocates for language use that mirrors genuine communicative situations and writing activities such as emails, letters, blogs and collaborative stories serve this purpose effectively. Hyland (2003) notes that writing in CLT is not merely about practicing grammatical correctness but about using language functionally to achieve communicative goals. Writing tasks that reflect real-world purposes foster learner motivation and engagement, which are essential for language acquisition.

Moreover, writing complements speaking by allowing learners more time to formulate and refine their messages. While oral interaction requires rapid processing and immediate response, writing affords learners the opportunity to plan, draft and revise their language output (Ferris, 2002). This reflective process enhances not only accuracy but also pragmatic and discourse skills, which are central to communicative competence.

In practical terms, the incorporation of writing into CLT encourages learner-centered and task-based approaches. Writing tasks often require collaboration, negotiation of meaning and exchange of feedback, thus fostering interaction beyond spoken conversation (Storch, 2005). For example, paired or group writing assignments, such as jointly composing an email or story, create authentic opportunities for communication and language development within a supportive social context.

Additionally, writing can support the development of language functions that are harder to practice orally in classroom settings, such as formal requests, apologies, or explanations. Through writing, learners become familiar with genre conventions and register variations, which are critical for effective communication across diverse contexts (Hyland, 2003).

The advent of digital technologies further enhances the role of writing in CLT. Online platforms enable real-time collaboration and authentic communication with peers, teachers and native speakers worldwide, expanding the communicative potential of writing beyond the classroom

(Warschauer, 1996). Digital writing tools also provide immediate feedback, enabling iterative revisions and fostering learner autonomy.

Classroom observations conducted in this study confirm that when writing tasks are designed with communicative purposes in mind, learners display increased motivation and produce more meaningful language. Learners reported that writing authentic texts—such as emails to classmates or blog posts—felt relevant and useful, thereby strengthening their overall language competence. So, writing plays a vital role in CLT by providing learners with opportunities to engage in meaningful communication beyond oral interaction. It supports the development of linguistic, pragmatic and discourse skills in authentic contexts, promotes collaboration and reflection and leverages digital tools to expand communicative possibilities. Therefore, writing should be embraced as an integral component of communicative language teaching rather than a peripheral or purely academic skill.

4. The Role of Digital Tools

Technological platforms—such as Google Docs, blogs and language apps—have revolutionized how writing is integrated into language instruction. These tools allow for immediate feedback, collaborative writing and revision, thus promoting active learning (Hyland, 2003).

Teachers observed in this study frequently used Google Docs to facilitate peer reviews and collaborative writing, which encouraged interaction and reflection. The integration of digital technologies into language education has significantly reshaped the landscape of second language acquisition (SLA), especially in the domain of writing. Digital tools—ranging from word processors and collaborative platforms to mobile applications and online forums—have transformed writing from a solitary, static activity into a dynamic, interactive and socially situated process. These technologies not only enhance the practicality and accessibility of writing but also offer powerful pedagogical advantages for language learners (Warschauer, 2010).

One of the most notable benefits of digital tools is their ability to support collaborative writing and peer interaction, key components of communicative language teaching (CLT) and sociocultural learning theories. Platforms such as Google Docs, Padlet and wikis allow multiple users to work on the same text in real time, providing immediate feedback, suggestions and corrections. This collaborative environment aligns with Vygotsky's (1978) concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), where learners develop language competence through interaction with more knowledgeable peers or instructors.

Furthermore, digital tools enable asynchronous writing—such as discussion forums, blogs and e-Portfolios—which give learners more time to reflect, plan and revise their texts. This extended processing time supports the development of metalinguistic awareness, as learners can consciously apply grammatical rules and lexical knowledge in their writing (Hyland, 2016). Research indicates that writing in digital environments increases learner engagement, particularly among those who may be hesitant to participate in spoken communication (Sun, 2010).

Another significant contribution of digital tools is the availability of automated feedback systems and writing enhancement technologies. Applications like Grammarly, Write & Improve and various AI-powered writing assistants provide instant feedback on grammar, vocabulary, coherence and style. While not a replacement for human instruction, these tools help learners identify and correct errors independently, promoting autonomy and reinforcing learning through repeated practice (Li, Link, & Hegelheimer, 2015).

Moreover, digital writing platforms often support multimodal composition, where learners can integrate text with images, audio and video. This form of expression enhances communicative competence by allowing learners to convey meaning through various modes, reflecting the diversity of real-world communication. It also caters to different learning styles and encourages creativity and personal expression, which are crucial for motivation and sustained engagement (Kessler, 2013).

In this study's classroom observations, digital writing tasks were associated with increased learner motivation, more frequent use of target vocabulary and higher levels of revision. For example, students writing blog posts or social media updates in English demonstrated greater attention to audience, tone and structure—elements often neglected in traditional academic writing. Survey participants also reported that the interactive nature of digital writing tools made them feel more confident and autonomous in their language use.

However, the effective use of digital tools requires careful pedagogical integration. Teachers must scaffold activities, ensure access and provide guidance on digital literacy and responsible use. When applied strategically, digital tools can bridge the gap between formal writing instruction and the informal, socially driven writing that characterizes much of modern communication. So, digital tools have significantly expanded the scope and effectiveness of writing in language acquisition. They facilitate collaboration, feedback, autonomy and authentic communication—key factors in language development. As technology continues to evolve, its thoughtful incorporation into language pedagogy will be essential for preparing learners to write effectively in diverse academic, professional and digital contexts.

Conclusion

Writing is not only a productive skill but also a cognitive and metalinguistic tool in language acquisition. Theoretical models, empirical research and classroom practices all point to its importance in developing grammatical accuracy, vocabulary retention and communicative competence. Despite its underrepresentation in some curricula, writing should be central to any comprehensive language learning program. Educators are encouraged to incorporate varied writing tasks—academic, creative and functional—to promote well-rounded language development.

Writing is far more than a mechanical skill or academic requirement—it is a dynamic and cognitively demanding process that plays an indispensable role in language acquisition. As demonstrated throughout this article, writing supports the internalization of linguistic structures,

fosters metalinguistic awareness, promotes vocabulary retention and strengthens both accuracy and fluency. Unlike speaking, which often demands spontaneous and surface-level production, writing offers learners the opportunity to plan, reflect, revise and refine their language output. This process nurtures deeper cognitive engagement with the target language, leading to more meaningful and lasting acquisition.

Theoretical models, such as Swain's (1985) Output Hypothesis and Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory, clearly support writing as a vital mode of language production. Writing compels learners to engage with language analytically, identify gaps in their knowledge and actively construct meaning. These processes contribute significantly to the development of grammatical competence, lexical control and discourse awareness—skills that are essential for effective communication in both academic and real-world contexts.

Moreover, writing in language learning is not an isolated skill but one that reinforces and is reinforced by other domains. It enhances reading comprehension, supports speaking by building vocabulary and structural fluency and contributes to listening by training learners to anticipate syntactic and semantic patterns. Writing also provides a concrete record of language development over time, allowing for reflection, assessment and targeted feedback. This makes it an invaluable tool not only for learners but also for educators aiming to track progress and tailor instruction.

The integration of writing into Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and task-based learning models further illustrates its communicative potential. Far from being a rigid or purely academic exercise, writing can and should serve authentic, functional purposes—such as writing emails, blogs, stories and reports—that mirror real-life communication. These tasks enhance learner engagement, motivation and autonomy, especially when paired with peer collaboration and feedback.

The digital age has further expanded the role of writing in language learning. Online tools and platforms support real-time collaboration, provide automated feedback and offer diverse formats for multimodal expression. Learners today are not confined to pen-and-paper essays; they engage in digital storytelling, blogging, discussion forums and social media writing—all of which offer rich opportunities for language use in meaningful contexts. These developments underscore the importance of updating pedagogical approaches to embrace digital literacy alongside traditional writing instruction.

Despite its many benefits, writing often remains underutilized in language classrooms, especially in early stages of learning or in contexts where speaking is prioritized. To fully leverage the potential of writing, educators must move beyond viewing it as a passive skill or assessment tool and instead treat it as an active, ongoing process of language construction. This requires deliberate curricular design, scaffolding and meaningful integration with other skills.

In conclusion, writing is not merely a support to language acquisition—it is a central pillar of it. Its cognitive, communicative and metalinguistic benefits make it an essential component of

effective language instruction. Whether through narrative essays, collaborative projects, or digital compositions, writing enables learners to take control of their language development, articulate their thoughts with precision and engage more deeply with the language they are learning. For educators, embracing writing as a core element of instruction is not only beneficial—it is indispensable to cultivating truly competent and confident language users.

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