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Contents

The Independent Self-Directed Language Learner and the Role of the Language Educator — Expanding Access and Opportunity

Kathleen Stein-Smith

Fairleigh Dickinson University, Metropolitan Campus, Teaneck, NJ, USA

Abstract—There is a foreign language deficit in the US – not only do Americans tend to speak only English, but US students do not always have the opportunity to learn additional languages, including heritage or family languages. On the other hand, most Americans have a heritage language in their background, and 70M in the US speak another language in the home. Independent learning is an important element in effectively addressing the foreign language deficit both in terms of Anglophone Americans learning additional languages and of heritage language speakers maintaining and re-acquiring their heritage language(s). This article examines how, in the classroom and beyond, language educators can play a valuable role in empowering and supporting independent self-directed learners to learn another language and in developing sustainable environments for language use in the home, community, and workplace. In addition, it is necessary to work to increase the accessibility and affordability of language learning so that those who are not in the educational system, especially adult learners, have access to learning new languages, including heritage languages. It is equally – and perhaps even more – important that parents and communities are supported in their efforts to maintain their family language and ensure that their children have an opportunity to learn and use their family language. Language educators can also work to develop materials for language learning freely accessible to all as well as opportunities for the use of different languages in their institutions and communities, as well as in the workplace.

Index Terms—independent learning, self-directed, heritage languages

I. INTRODUCTION

There is a foreign language deficit in the US – not only do Americans tend to speak only English, but US students do not always have the opportunity to learn additional languages, including heritage or family languages (Stein-Smith, 2016; McComb, 2001; AMACAD, 2017; Ryan, 2013). They may be potential language learners and supporters of language learning and language use, and language educators have a significant role in empowering all language learners – world language learners and heritage language learners both in the classroom and beyond.

It has been said that monolingualism is the illiteracy of the 21st century, and that the US lags behind much of the world in language learning – to the extent that a US foreign language deficit negatively impacts not only the ability of individuals to engage as global citizens, but also to effectively navigate an increasingly multilingual society (Roberts et al., 2018; Devlin, 2018). While more than half of the world population is bilingual, only one in four Americans is able to hold a conversation in a language other than English (Grosjean, 2010, 2020; McComb, 2001; Jones, 2001). The lack of foreign language skills also impacts organizations in business and industry with a gap between supply and demand. On the other hand, most Americans have a heritage language in their background, and 70M in the US speak another language in the home the US workplace (ACTFL, 2019; NAE, 2017). The often-unmet need for language skills extends also to government and to non-profit and humanitarian organizations as they work to bring aid in response to crises around the world (Translators without Borders, 2022).

Independent learning is an important element in effectively addressing the foreign language deficit both in terms of Anglophone Americans learning additional languages and of heritage language speakers maintaining and re-acquiring their heritage language(s). In the classroom and beyond, language educators can play a valuable role in empowering and supporting independent self-directed learners to learn another language and in developing sustainable environments for language use in the home, community, and workplace.

II. LANGUAGE LEARNING IN THE UNITED STATES – WORLD LANGUAGES AND HERITAGE LANGUAGES IN THE CLASSROOM AND BEYOND

Language learning in our schools is sorely needed, with only 15% of public elementary schools offering language programs, and fewer than 20% of US K-12 students studying an additional language (AMACAD, 2017; American Councils, 2017). At the postsecondary level, only 7.5% of college and university students are enrolled in a course in a language other than English, and in recent years, the number of foreign language programs has declined significantly

(MLA, 2019; Johnson, 2019). An additional consideration is that language learners include both Anglophone students learning other/new languages and heritage speakers learning, perfecting, or re-acquiring a heritage language.

The central question is how best to address this gap between the need for language skills and the supply, or language capacity, of the US. In addition to support for language educators and language programs at all levels, it is necessary to consider the challenges facing potentially interested learners, especially questions of access and affordability. It is equally important to consider all the language learners who may or may not be at the present time in the education system. A key issue is the number of those in the US who – although of a non-Anglophone ancestry – no longer speak their heritage language(s), but may actually be interested in learning more about their family language and culture. Many of this pool of potentially interested learners may no longer be in school, but could potentially be independent self-directed learners, using online and other resources as their learning materials, and online technologies as well as in-person settings as their learning environment. Key issues include access to the technologies and materials, as well as to advice and guidance from educators. The COVID pandemic has demonstrated both the advantages and disadvantages of online learning, but has also demonstrated the proliferation of free and low-cost learning possibilities, including OERs (open educational resources) (Villasenor, 2022).

It is interesting to note that fewer than 20% of Americans claim English or Irish ancestry (Americans, 2022; O'Connor et al., 2013). There are many millions of Americans whose family language or cultural identity is other than English or Anglophone, learners of all ages, with varying degrees of linguistic knowledge, with a wide range of goals and interests, and with different amounts of time and funding available. The disparity between the number of Americans with another language in their cultural heritage or family history and the number of Americans studying or learning that language is significant.

Using French as one of many possible examples, French demonstrates the disparity between those who have a cultural heritage language other than English and those who speak or study the language. While over 10M in the US are of French and Francophone ancestry, 2M speak French or French Creole in the home (Americans, 2022; Ryan, 2013). In addition, 1.3M K-12 students and 176K college and university students are enrolled in French courses, making French the second most widely studied foreign language in the US although in decline at the college and university level (American Councils, 2017; MLA, 2019).

Among the many possible responses, scholarships, grants, and financial aid come to mind, along with online and distance education, and increased availability of language learning opportunities both within educational institutions and beyond. Additional funding for language learning would be enhanced by the establishment of a language policy, as well as by support from language stakeholders, external partners, private philanthropy, and community groups. Online learning could make language learning accessible to those who cannot travel to an educational institution for a variety of reasons, including distance, disability, work schedule, and family responsibilities, and a recent study has found that online classes offer the same quality as traditional classes (Villasenor, 2022). Community-based programs can be of special interest to heritage language speakers and learners, as well as to those interested in a less formal and structured approach.

In order to increase accessibility of language learning and to effectively address the foreign language deficit, it is essential not only to support foreign language educators and programs, but also to look beyond the classroom. Online learning provides access to language learning to many who cannot travel to a distant school or campus, or afford in-person study abroad. However, online learning can also provide opportunities for working adult learners to access language learning despite work schedules and can empower heritage language communities to provide linguistic and cultural learning for all ages and interests.

Building on the idea of the increased access that online learning can provide, it is necessary to consider the broader question of language learning beyond the classroom and of the challenges and opportunities facing the independent language learner. Just as the opportunities for those with language skills include personal, professional, and cognitive benefits, so too the challenges include visible constraints such as time, money, and availability of learning opportunities. Perhaps even more importantly, sustainable motivation and the development of the habit of language learning and use pose significant challenges, but are less often discussed and addressed. The professional potential of foreign language skills is important to emphasize in both communities and educational institutions (Gagliano, 2019; Cultural Services, 2021).

The potential for independent language learning is significant, either for the majority of Americans who have one or more additional languages in their heritage, but may have little or no knowledge of them due to assimilation, language loss, etc., as well as for the 70M Americans who speak another language in the home and are concerned about the maintenance of the family language among present and future generations (Zeigler & Camarota, 2018).

The language professional can play a key role in making known the role of independent self-directed learning in acquiring new languages or in re-acquiring a heritage or previously learned language now partially lost or forgotten, along with the most effective strategies and methodologies in achieving a positive learning outcome to current and potential learners, parents and communities, and language stakeholders and advocates (Antony-Newman, 2022).

III. THE INDEPENDENT LANGUAGE LEARNER

In a discussion of the independent self-directed language learner, it is important to understand the identity of the learner, the nature of the process, the characteristics of a successful independent learner, the adult learner, and the link between independent and lifelong learning.

Independent learning has been defined as "a method or learning process where learners have ownership and control of the learning." In addition, "the independent learner is able to set goals, make choices, and decisions about how to meet his learning needs, take responsibility for constructing and carrying out his own learning, monitor his progress toward achieving his learning goals, and self-assess the learning outcomes" (Livingston, 2012, p, 1526). "Being able to make informed choices and taking responsibility for your own learning activities are two facets of learning independently," with motivation, confidence, and reflective learning important characteristics of the successful independent learner (U of Hull, n.d., para 2).

Independent language learning exists both in the classroom and beyond. While independence and autonomy are characteristics of independent language learning, the role of the teacher is of critical importance, as "teachers scaffold students towards independence using a variety of strategies in order to help students develop autonomy" (Masouleh & Jooneghani, 2012, p. 835).

In addition, as independent learning takes place both within the classroom - as when a student realizes that learning may not be progressing as well as hoped and expected, and then takes action to address the situation - and beyond, as in the case of the learner outside of a traditional educational setting or program, it is important to consider the role of the educator in both.

Beyond the traditional educational institution or program, guidance of the independent learner may take many forms, whether taught and learned as a specific study skill or given as informal advice by an educator, librarian, or other informed individual, or through the means of OERS (open educational resources), and lead to lifelong learning.

It is especially important to remember that independent learners may vary in terms of age, and that adult learners are often characterized by the need to know the details of the learning process, by a desire for independence and autonomy, by the ability to build on prior experience, and by motivation and readiness to learn – within the context of an adult learning theory known as andragogy (Knowles et al., 2020). Adult learners may also vary in terms of educational background and ability, and it is essential to ensure that independent learning opportunities are inclusive and available for all.

IV. LANGUAGE LEARNING AND THE INDEPENDENT SELF-DIRECTED LANGUAGE LEARNER – MOTIVATION AND SUCCESS

Considering the importance of language skills, it is especially important to ensure that the opportunity for language learning is available to all interested learners, that it is affordable, both economically and in terms of time, travel, materials, etc., and that it is successful – and motivation is consistently mentioned as the most significant factor in successful learning outcome. Taking into consideration the generally lengthy process of language learning, sustainable motivation is of the utmost importance, as are the strategies to develop long-term and even lifelong motivation for language learning.

In addition to providing a gateway to a new culture, language skills and cultural knowledge bring personal, professional, and societal benefits and advantages (ACTFL, n.d.). Not only is multilingualism a quintessential 21st century skill, learning a new language is even a popular New Year's resolution, viewed as self-improvement, a lifelong goal, and even as an enjoyable recreational pastime. It has also been determined that using more than one language is like fitness for the brain, staving off the onset of dementia (Shute, 2012). However, beyond the initial burst of enthusiasm of a New Year's resolution, for example, learning a new language is often relegated to the list of failed and/or forgotten resolutions by the first day of spring. For all of us who believe in the importance of languages, it is essential to make languages and language learning a lifelong habit rather than a short-term resolution. This is especially important for the independent language learner.

Language learning is a topic of both academic and general interest, with scholars and researchers examining the reasons for the variations in language learning success among individuals, language educators and language professionals searching for methodologies and best practices, and language learners and language learning stakeholders aware of – and seeking the reasons for – the visible differences among those who develop proficiency and even master other languages, and those who do not.

Language learning success varies greatly among individuals, and aptitude, motivation, and the development of effective learning strategies are among the factors that play a key role in language learning outcome (Dornyei, 2010). The importance of motivation, or "wanting it enough," is a key factor, essential in language learning successful outcome (Mackey, 2014, para 1). Motivation itself varies, with integrative motivation – interest in other languages and cultures -- playing a larger role in language learning success (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; U of Texas, n.d.).

While it may be tempting to consider in-class and independent language learning as separate, they are actually interconnected – all the more reason for the language educator to include independent learning in their overall approach. Language learning among college and university students increasingly involves independent self-directed learning online, especially via mobile technology, with special attention to cognitive, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies (Lai et al., 2022). Other widely-discussed issues include methodologies of language teaching and learning, including immersion, as well as the importance of an early start to continued language learning (Fortune, 2012; Pufahl

et al., 2001). Independent learning has been increasing in importance, with issues including the increased need for language skills and cultural knowledge in a globalized world and in increasingly multilingual societies around the world driving both language learning and language use.

Many students do not have the opportunity to learn additional languages in the classroom. In the US, for example, language programs exist in only a small percentage of public schools and a decreasing number of middle schools. Language study is also decreasing at the postsecondary level, with only 7.5% of college and university students enrolled in a course in a language other than English (AMACAD, 2017; MLA, 2019). On the other hand, online technologies have increased the opportunity for language learning both within educational institutions and for learners everywhere (Villasenor, 2022). The increasing interest in heritage languages, along with the increasing number of those in the US who speak a language other than English in the home are also contributing to the rise in independent language learning in communities (ACTFL, n.d.b).

The language educator can play an important role in encouraging and supporting sustainable language learning and use from the earliest stages of interest among potential learners to empowering successful language learning outcome through planning, methods, and materials.

V. Developing a Framework for the Independent Self-Directed Language Learner – Motivation, Time, Methods & Materials, Budget, and Strategies

Developing a framework for language learning – planning, methods, materials, as well as developing and supporting sustainable motivation -- is an area where the language educator can make a difference, not only to their students in the classroom, but also in their communities, making better known the benefits of language learning and language skills and the wide range of available pathways for current and prospective language learners. It is also an opportunity for language advocacy and to develop a community of language learners within both the educational institution and in the community leading to more widespread use of the language in homes, businesses, and other community settings, all of which supports sustainable multilingualism.

A. Sustainable Motivation – From Resolution to Habit

The primary challenge for any language learner is persistence. Language learning is a long-term, time-consuming, and labor-intensive process, and motivation to begin language study is sometimes lacking, especially among English language speakers. Even if sufficient motivation to begin language study is present, the process itself as well as external distractions may cause motivation to decrease. For these reasons, this connection, or bridge, between the initial decision to learn another language – however difficult that may have been – may be followed by the even more difficult decision, whether or not to continue language study beyond the beginning stages.

It is important to remember that, beyond language learning, the leap from resolution to habit can be challenging. The formation of a new, durable habit requires a change of behavior, and it is important to have a clear plan of action in order to be successful (O'Neill, 2020). As far as language learning specifically is concerned, first, we need to clearly demonstrate the importance of languages in all aspects of life and the importance of languages. Then we need to clearly establish pathways to success in language learning – in the classroom and beyond, on site and online, and in alignment with the learner's personal and professional needs and goals.

The initial step in the process is the determination or decision as to whether the student will have an educational advisor. If the student is completely independent, outside the framework of any educational institution or setting, school, college or university, library, etc., the learner will need to proactively envision and frame the process, find materials, and development assessment strategies. If on the other hand, the learner has an educational advisor, even if informally, the advisor will normally assist in sustaining motivation, setting goals, and planning for learning (Wilson & Conyers, 2018). Sustainable motivation, especially integrative motivation, is especially important in language learning (COERLL, n.d.).

In addition to sustainable motivation, important areas for planning for the independent self-directed language learner include curriculum, learning activities, budget, and schedule. Developing responses to these questions and keeping these responses front and center during the learning process are pillars of success for any language learner, but are especially important for the independent self-directed language learner. The following are just a few of the most frequently asked questions and just a few of the many possible answers.

(a). Developing Motivation

Language skills and cultural knowledge bring personal, professional, and societal benefits. On a personal – possibly the most important – level, we can make new friends, have interesting conversations across cultures, and develop new understanding of the world around us. We can also find professional advancement, and in addition, foreign language learning and use are actually good for us, as are many other New Year's resolutions, in terms of physical and mental fitness. Other reasons to learn a new language include the following. We live in a multilingual world, and our own communities are increasingly multilingual. Half of the world population is bilingual, and 70M in the US speak a language other than English in the home (Grosjean, 2010, 2020; Zeigler & Camarota, 2019). In the workplace, the demand for language skills exceeds supply in the US (ACTFL, 2019; NAE, 2017). In order to work with people from

other cultures to create a better world, knowledge of other languages is an asset that should be developed and refined over time (AMACAD, 2020). Many jobs require language skills – different types of jobs, and the need for skills in different languages is the rule rather than the exception (NAE, 2017; ACTFL, 2019).

B. Making Time for Your New Language

Language learning is a long – and lifelong – process. Not only does it take time to achieve proficiency, and even fluency, but the cultural knowledge and skills that accompany language learning are part of life, expanding and evolving over time. Language is inherently interdisciplinary, an integral part of every aspect of our lives. Unless we make our new language a part of our lives, we may encounter challenges in achieving proficiency (Leveen, 2021). We can do this by planning for language learning and use. It is important to build a time, place, setting for language in a busy daily schedule; to build a network of language partners, in person and online, for conversation practice; to follow and develop your personal and professional interests within the context of another language and culture; and to experience the culture of the target language in your community, through media and online, and through travel.

C. Methods and Materials

There are many ways to learn another language, but they all rely on authentic communication. These include classes both traditional and online/hybrid, immersion programs, as well as in-person and online meetup and conversation groups. They also include various language learning methods – video, audio, print, online conversation, etc. It is important to choose the language learning methods that work best for you – even learning language while you sleep

D. Budget

Learning a language does not necessarily cost a lot of money. There are many free language learning materials, free sources of authentic language, and even free online courses and OER (online educational resources) materials. There are also many community-based initiatives, including library language tables, etc. Learning a language does take time, but if we look at the way we actually live our lives and spend our time, it may be possible to re-allocate time for language learning! Language learning need not take all our time, but it is necessary to make time for languages and language learning in our lives.

E. Strategies

There is no time like the present. Begin foreign language learning now -- Why wait? Think about why, when, where, and how you want to learn. There are so many reasons – personal and professional, and beyond. You can begin at any time, online or onsite, or as an independent self-directed learner. Always remember the importance of rewards, large and small. Be sure to include conversations in another language with friends, experiential learning, and travel – local, global, and online, in your reward list.

F. Closing the Loop -- From Resolution to Habit

It is important to understand why we want to learn another language as these underlying reasons are likely to influence the likelihood of success (Dornyei, 2003). If we are learning a language because we want to – rather than merely fulfilling a course requirement or for purely professional reasons – we are more likely to succeed. In terms of language learning, even if we may need to study another language because it is a requirement in school or in our job, we are more likely to succeed if we can make it enjoyable in ways ranging from studying with friends or making friends who speak the language we are learning, to planning a fun vacation trip to a place where our new language is spoken. This is often referred to as intrinsic motivation.

It is important to start small, creating "tiny habits" (Fogg, 2021, p. 3). In terms of language learning, it is important to keep in mind that while envisioning ourselves speaking fluently and having good times in the language is helpful in creating and maintaining a positive mindset, it is just as important to take a multitude of small steps and small decisions to integrate our new language into our lives.

It is also important to realize that making an important change in ourselves and in our lives is not necessarily always a quick and easy process, that is requires many steps and "small changes" over time, and that we need to be prepared to overcome challenges including distractions, procrastination, discouragement, etc. (Milkman & Duckworth, 2021, p. 12; Milkman, 2022).

It is important to understand that the process of change begins with "a sense of urgency" (Kotter, 2008, p.1). For the language learner, this is the moment of our decision or resolution to learn another language. While it is indeed urgent for people to increase their language skills and, this is indeed an important first step, it may be tempting to assume that this is enough. However, we need to realize that change is a process, and that understanding the process will improve our chance of success.

For many language learners, cultural understanding and appreciation are goals of language learning, and the 4-step process, including interest, knowledge, strategy, and action, in developing cultural intelligence (CQ) are especially appropriate for the language learner (Livermore, 2011).

G. Conclusions

As the educational background, language skills, interests, and age vary among individual self-directed learners just as they vary among classroom learners, it is important to develop a framework for language learning, and this is even more important for those who are working outside a traditional classroom environment. While developing this awareness of one's own learning may be a process in itself, the skills set of the independent learner is one that can be applied to other disciplines and to workplace and lifelong learning.

While independent language learning takes place in the classroom and beyond, for the purposes this discussion, the focus is on the independent self-directed learner outside a traditional classroom environment. Independent learning is centered on the goals of the individual learner and of the purpose(s) of each learner based on the CQ framework of language and cultural learning drive, knowledge, strategy, and action (Livermore, 2011).

It is essential to keep these individual goals – personal, professional, academic, etc. – along with the process of language and cultural learning -- present throughout the learning process. It is that sense of purpose in the language learning process, that drives the individual language learning program, along with the development of time management, organizational, and motivational strategies.

In addition, in order to create a learning environment for sustainable multilingualism, it is essential that the individual self-directed language learning program, based on the language learning purpose and goals of the individual, include a wide variety of learning materials highlighting authentic language resources.

While independent self-directed learning highlights the role of the learner as a proactive leader in the learning process, an advisor or mentor can play a significant part in planning and implementing the independent learning experience, from developing a learning plan and sourcing materials to supporting sustainable motivation, and beyond.

Initially, it is essential to realistically determine if the prospective independent learner is ready and prepared for self-directed independent learning. Deciding on a whim, or making a New Year's resolution, may – or may not be enough to ensure an effective and success independent learning experience. While a decision to learn another language can be made in an instant, the process itself is time-consuming and labor-intensive, and purpose is key to maintaining the sustainable motivation essential to a positive experience and successful outcome. Staying in touch with the purpose that is driving the independent learner – even when tedium and external factors make this a challenge – is key to success. In this area, an advisor – an educator, mentor, or family member or friend – can make all the difference – helping the learner to persevere and to carve out a place for the new language among all the demands of daily life (Leveen, 2021). It is interesting to note that, while the independent learning experience begins with and revolves around the independent self-directed learner, the role of the educator advisor is significant, even in the case of an adult learner.

Purpose established, and motivation in place, it is important to address the action steps needed to implement an effective learning program likely to lead to a successful learning outcome. The time to be allotted to learning is the central question, requiring realism and self-discipline on the part of the learner. Goals are also important, with the goal of being able to hold a conversation and to talk about oneself general learner goals, and specific goals such as being to talk to a family member or friend, or the educator advisor, or to be able to engage with local native speakers in the new language during travel among possible individual learner goals.

In the independent learning process, it is essential to consider the responsibilities of the learner as well as the role of the educator advisor. In this new learning framework, both are different that they would be in a traditional learning environment. It is especially important for the individual independent self-directed learner to understand their motivation in order to maximize its positive impact on their learning. Motivation has often been considered in terms of integrative motivation – an interest in another culture or in people from another culture, or instrumental motivation – learning another language in order to achieve a goal.

VI. Current Trends and Future Directions

Language skills are needed in a globalized world and an increasingly multilingual society. Independent self-directed language learning not only empowers the learner, but also expands access to language learning and of an additional or heritage language. While independent learning has been examined here specifically within the context of learning additional languages, independent learning skills -- once mastered – can be applied in other settings with other goals. Setting goals, developing a plan, and assessing progress are key. Online resources and community-based programs are dramatically increasing the possibilities available to the language learner, even to those with the most limited budget or ability to travel.

Learning additional languages is a worthwhile endeavor in every aspect, empowering us to grow as individuals, to better understand the world around us, and to interact directly with other cultures. Language skills may also bring opportunities in the workplace and in our research.

We can successfully learn a language at any time, at any age, and through many different methods. The important factors are motivation – wanting to learn; making the decision to learn and a plan for learning; making time; and understanding the process of making change and how to deal with the inevitable ups and downs of any important long-term undertaking.

In our language learning and in working with language learners, it is always important to keep in mind our reasons for language learnings, and all the benefits and enjoyment that knowledge of other languages bring to our lives. Keeping these goals in sight at all times, while maintaining motivation through awareness of the process of change and

frequent positive reinforcement and rewards, can help. In addition, planning for language learning and use is important for all learners, especially for students during school breaks and for independent learners.

For language learners, it is especially important to take ownership of the process of learning and for language educators encourage each learner to do so, again especially for students during school breaks and for independent self-directed learners.

Beginning with the initial encounter and decision to learn another language, to the integration of another language and culture into one's life, learning another language is a unique and rewarding journey. It is essential to read and study, to watch and listen to media, to experience other cultures in a variety of settings, to interact with others, to travel globally and locally, and to enjoy the process at every step along the way.

VII. CONCLUSIONS – EXPANDING ACCESS AND OPPORTUNITY THROUGH INDEPENDENT LANGUAGE LEARNING

Beyond the classroom, language educators have the opportunity to expand access to language learning through the encouragement and support of independent language learning – by learners of all ages, and of differing ability and educational background. As language educators, scholars, and researchers, it is natural to focus on students in the classroom.

However, it is necessary to work to increase the accessibility and affordability of language learning so that those who are not in the educational system, especially adult learners, have access to learning new languages, including heritage languages. It is equally – and perhaps even more – important that parents and communities are supported in their efforts to maintain their family language and ensure that their children have an opportunity to learn and use their family language.

Language educators can also work to develop materials for language learning freely accessible to all as well as opportunities for the use of different languages in their institutions and communities, in-person and online, as well as in the workplace, effectively demonstrating to learners the benefits of their language skills.

These are areas where educators can make a real difference, working with parents and developing language use in the home and community, as well as creating freely available online materials for all languages and grade levels, and by developing opportunities and materials for adult learners and for all learning styles. Beyond the benefits to the individual, the family, community, and society, sustainable multilingualism supports the development of an international mindset and the values of global citizenship. The independent language learner and the language educator can play a significant role in this process.

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Kathleen Stein-Smith, PhD, *Chevalier dans l'Ordre des Palmes académiques*, is a dedicated foreign language educator and advocate. She serves as Chair of the AATF (American Association of Teachers of French) Commission on Advocacy an America's Languages Fellow, and as a member of the ATA Education and Pedagogy Committee and the MLA Delegate Assembly. She is also active in foreign language education associations, including the NECTFL Advisory Council, CSCTFL Advisory Council, and as a SCOLT sponsor. She has presented at numerous professional conferences at the state, regional, and national level, is the author of eight books and numerous articles about the foreign language deficit and the importance of multilingualism, has given a TEDx talk on the U.S. foreign language deficit, has been interviewed by press and radio, and maintains a blog, "Language Matters." She earned a Baccalauréat spécialisé and Maîtrise in Québec, where her master's thesis on the comparative stylistics of French and English was written under the direction of Jean-Louis Darbelnet.

Distance Learning in Teaching the Russian Language (the Experience of Tashkent State University)

Elena Panova*
Moscow Polytechnic University, Moscow, Russian Federation

Elena Tiumentseva
Volgograd State Technical University, Volgograd, Russian Federation

Zulkhumar Jumanova
Tashkent State University of Uzbek Language and Literature named after Alisher Navoi, Tashkent, Uzbekistan

Nilufar Dustmamatova
Tashkent State University of Uzbek Language and Literature named after Alisher Navoi, Tashkent, Uzbekistan

Anna Gorokhova
V. A. Trapeznikov Institute of Control Sciences of Russian Academy of Sciences, Moscow, Russian Federation

Vladimir Sekerin
V. A. Trapeznikov Institute of Control Sciences of Russian Academy of Sciences, Moscow, Russian Federation

Abstract—**The article presents the experience of teaching Russian using distance learning technologies at Tashkent State University of the Uzbek Language and Literature named after Alisher Navoi. The basis of the research is a comparative analysis of the organizational and methodological work of teachers of the Russian language and the opinions of students studying the Russian language about the method (form) of the organization of training, the methods used by the teacher and their success/ failure, effectiveness/inefficiency. The authors set a goal – to determine the effectiveness of the combination of methods and techniques used in the distance learning format and traditional face-to-face training. The results of the study allowed the authors to come to the conclusion that when organizing distance learning, it is necessary to take into account the specifics of the subject and the success of mastering the discipline by students depends on the professionalism of the teacher, who skillfully combines methods and techniques that work most effectively in a particular audience and material.**

Index Terms—**educational tendencies of higher education, the technologies of digital learning, education efficiency, forms of distance education**

I. INTRODUCTION

A lot has been written about distance education in the last three years, because the circumstances in which humanity found itself due to the COVID-19 pandemic were very difficult and, in many ways, tragic (Ableev & Kuzminskaya, 2021; Otts et al., 2021; Saenko et al., 2021; Tyumentseva et al., 2021; Tuzcuoğlu et al., 2022). The education system around the world was forced to undergo a kind of experiment called "distance learning". The results of this experiment have been reported by teachers and researchers in the scientific literature for the past three years. But, in our opinion, the main conclusion that the scientific and research community has come to is that distance learning should not be an end in itself, it should supplement traditional learning; the opportunities of distance learning should be used only as an additional way of learning; thus, distance learning should be used dosed as one of the possible additional ways of sharing knowledge (Abramova & Korotaeva, 2019; Semikina & Semikin, 2019). Digital learning should be used carefully and should be applied only in those learning situations in which it will be useful and necessary, where it will serve to form students' useful skills and abilities, develop cognitive and creative abilities, teach them to work independently and where it will contribute to the development of self-organization and independence of pupils and students (Chernigovskaya et al., 2020; Godenko et al., 2021; Kivi et al., 2021; Panova et al., 2021; Rustan, 2021; Winoto, 2022). In this regard, Tashkent State University of the Uzbek Language and Literature named after Navoi has

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* Corresponding Author. Email: panova_ep@mail.ru

quite an interesting experience in combining methods and opportunities of distance learning and full-time education. The experience of the teaching staff of this university is interesting because it is used in the post-pandemic period of time and is used not under the pressure of forced external circumstances, but as a methodological technique that helps to improve students' knowledge and improve the level of teaching.

Students of Tashkent State University of the Uzbek Language and Literature named after Alisher Navoi, studying Russian, are in a non-linguistic environment. To solve this problem, the university management has found a very interesting and effective way of teaching: the university invites teachers from Russia, native speakers, to teach Russian remotely, using the capabilities of the Internet telecommunications network (Skype technologies, telegram technologies, etc.). To add more, the classroom work is not excluded, on the contrary, in the classroom the work of distance learning is included quite organically. Working with students in the classroom remains a priority, and online lessons in the amount of 12-15 hours per month are an addition to the main course. At the same time, during the online class, the leading teacher is present in the audience in a real format and helps the teacher – a native speaker of the Russian language – conduct the lesson: monitors students, directs their work, helps to orient the students in new material and establish contact with the teacher who works remotely, to orient the students in the situation, to establish contact with the other students, tracks the development of the lesson in the right direction, etc. Such a system of work has been used for several years; teachers are invited from different universities in Russia. Classes on the same subject are conducted both in the classroom in person (leading teacher) and remotely (guest teacher). However, it should be added that distance learning is conducted within the classroom, as if included in the educational process, limited by the boundaries of traditional learning.

Students have the opportunity to listen to Russian in the original, and of course, to work in the classroom with a teacher who is a native speaker, which has a very beneficial effect on the quality of students' knowledge, significantly increases the level of competence and professionalism of future teachers (Alhrahsheh & Ivanova, 2022; Tsvetkova et al., 2021).

II. METHOD

An online survey of foreign students from Uzbekistan was used as the main empirical method. Students of Tashkent State University of the Uzbek Language and Literature named after A. Navoi participated in the survey. Respondents were offered questions with the possibility of choosing an answer (multiple or limited), questions with an open answer form.

The purpose of this article is to determine the effectiveness of the combination of methods and techniques used in distance learning and traditional face-to-face training; to determine the level of knowledge of students in groups in which the teaching of Russian as a foreign language full-time was supplemented by classes in a remote format with a native Russian teacher; to determine the list of tools, methods and techniques of distance learning that are most effective in teaching a foreign language, in particular, Russian as a foreign language.

III. POPULATION AND SAMPLES

38 first-year respondents took part in this study (Table 1). They were the students of two groups who study at Tashkent State University of the Uzbek Language and Literature named after A. Navoi and have a class named "Practice of oral and written speech". 100% of students studying this subject took part in the survey, which is a sufficient number to ensure the reliability of the results. The students of these groups had experience working not only in the classroom with the dominant role of a leading teacher, but also in a remote format with a teacher of Russian as a Foreign Language from Moscow Polytechnic University (MPU).

TABLE 1
SAMPLES DISTRIBUTION

Respondents	Number of respondents	Percentage ratio
Students	38	100%
Academic groups distribution		
Groups 1	22	50%
Groups 2	16	50%

IV. DATA COLLECTION TOOLS

The authors of this article conducted an educational and pedagogical study using the questionnaire method. The questionnaire was anonymous, written in Russian and included 41 questions: the questions are of a closed and open nature. The influence of the leading teacher in the survey of students was excluded.

The questionnaire questions are grouped into three blocks. The first set of questions is aimed at clarifying the information of the socio-cultural profile: country, university, group, age, interests. The task of the questions of the second block is to identify the level of satisfaction of students with the quality of teaching this subject in a distance format. The third set of questions includes questions that reveal the level of motivation of students; this information is

interesting to the teacher from the point of view of identifying the quality of the development of the course content. In addition, the questionnaire included questions in which students were asked to evaluate the effectiveness of the methods and techniques used by the guest teacher in online classes.

When compiling the questionnaire questions, the authors determined the following parameters (criteria) of the analysis: the method of organizing training sessions; the methods used by the teacher; the technical means and software used in the training session; the respondent's subjective attitude to the organization of the lesson; expectations from training sessions, the convenience of the time of the lesson.

V. DATA COLLECTION

An anonymous correspondence survey of students was conducted through the Google forms platform using a standardized questionnaire form. After posting the questionnaire in Google forms, students were sent a link by which each student passed an individual anonymous survey.

VI. DATA ANALYSIS

Quantitative data processing was carried out by standard mathematical and statistic methods of analysis. The primary information was processed using the Microsoft Excel program.

VII. FINDINGS

The analysis of the results of the survey of students of Tashkent State University of the Uzbek Language and Literature named after A. Navoi allows us to state that students highly appreciate this method of organizing training. All the respondents noted that, thanks to this form of training, they had a unique experience of working with a native speaker, which significantly increased their level of knowledge. The first section consists of questions aimed at identifying the social status of students: education, age, gender, group, university, course, etc. The second section is more informative, it consists of 12 closed-ended questions. Students should evaluate each lesson conducted in a distance format on a 5-point scale. Thus, the second block is aimed at the respondents' assessment of the quality of teaching the discipline "Practice of Oral and written speech" in the digital format. Table 2 illustrates the distribution of the respondents' responses with an assessment of each topic of the class.

TABLE 2
DISTRIBUTION OF ANSWERS TO THE FIRST SECTION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

No.	The topic of the class	5 points	4 points	3 points
1	Punctuation. A.S. Pushkin – the sun of the Russian poetry.	81 %	19%	0
2	A simple sentence. Expressive reading of the works of A.S. Pushkin.	67 %	33 %	0
3	Punctuation marks at the end of the sentence. The film adaptation of the works of A.S. Pushkin.	81 %	19 %	0
4	A dash in a simple sentence. The image of the mother in literature.	66 %	34 %	0
5	Dash between subject and predicate. A.S. Pushkin's prose "The Captain's Daughter"	62 %	38 %	0
6	Intonation dash. A.P. Chekhov is Pushkin in prose.	76 %	20%	0
7	Connecting dash. The story of A.P. Chekhov "Thick and thin".	62 %	38 %	0
8	Dash in an incomplete sentence. There is no future without history.	52 %	33 %	15 %
9	Separation of definitions. About the Nobel Prize.	71 %	19 %	9,5%
10	Comparative turn. Astrology: science or quackery?	81 %	9 %	9,5 %
11	Addressing. Punctuation marks with addressing. Heraldry is also a science!	57 %	33 %	10 %
12	Introductory constructions. Punctuation marks in introductory constructions.	81 %	9,5 %	9,5 %

This table shows that the first 7 classes received the highest scores: 62-81% of students rated "excellent", there is no "satisfactory" grade. The absolute majority gives a high assessment of the quality of teaching the discipline "Practice of oral and written speech" to the first 7 classes. Theoretical and practical knowledge, skills acquired in these classes, the level of interest in the subject, and, consequently, the level of motivation have significantly increased. Classes from No.8-12 in the assessment of students (8-14.5%) were rated "satisfactory", 57-81% of the respondents – "excellent", and about 33% – "good". The three points by which the students rated the next few classes, indicate that the effectiveness of teaching in these classes has decreased: motivation has decreased, the indicators of students' assimilation of new knowledge, skills and abilities have also decreased. To find out the reason, let us examine the fourth block of questions (5 items) that are included in the questionnaire of work in the classroom in the distant format are shown in Figure 1.
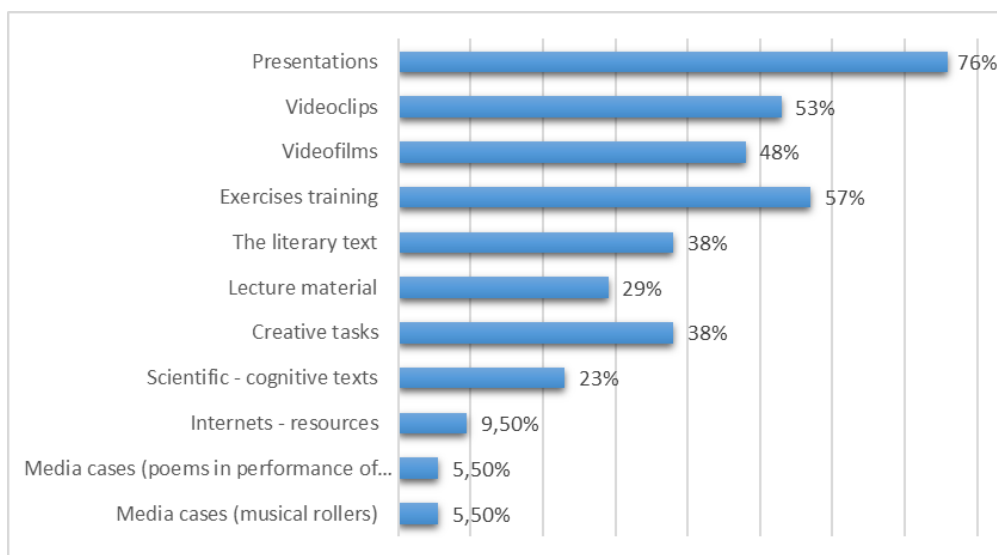
Figure 1. Types of Work in the Classroom in the Distant Format

Thus, the highest scores were given to the classes where a variety of forms, methods and techniques was used and that turned out to be the most effective in the distance format. The teacher relied on such types of work as presentation, training exercises, lectures, working with texts. Such types of work, typical for classroom work, turned out to be somewhat tiring and monotonous for digital classes. This is probably due to the fact that live communication is destroyed in the digital format. A teacher who conducts classes online does not have the opportunity, having received feedback from students, to change the activities quickly, he or she does not have information about the potential and basic knowledge of students. The interaction between the teacher and the student, the quality of mutual understanding, personal approach – all these important components of the educational process are significantly transformed in the remote mode. Types of work and exercises, which are of the most interest to the students working in the distant format are shown in Figure 2.
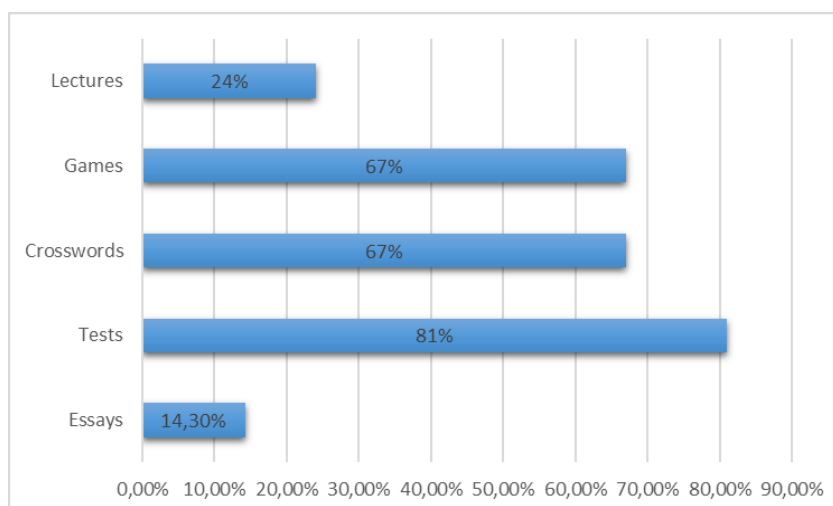
Figure 2. Types of Work and Exercises, Which Are of the Most Interest to the Students Working in the Distant Format

The third set of questions in the questionnaire includes 9 questions that allow students to express a personal opinion based on a personal analysis of the main types of speech activity (listening, speaking, writing, reading). This section allows a research to identify how much the level of knowledge of students has increased thanks to the classes with a native Russian teacher. The respondents were asked to choose only one option corresponding to their opinion (Table 3).

TABLE 3
DISTRIBUTION OF ANSWERS TO THE THIRD SECTION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

No.	Speech activity	No	Rather no than yes	Partly	Rather yes than no	Yes
1	Listening	1 %	0	9,5 %	14,3	71, 4 %
2	Grammar	0	1 %	0	19%	76,2%
3	Writing	14,3%	0	9,5 %	19%	57,15
4	Reading	0	9,5%	1 %	19%	66 %

It should be added that this section also included open types of questions to which students gave detailed answers. This type of inquiring allowed the authors to get a more complete picture of how much the level of knowledge of students has improved. To the question "Why did your knowledge of grammar/reading/writing/listening improve?", the respondents answered: "The explanations were very detailed, the presence of presentations helped to learn the material better", "I began to make fewer mistakes in dictation", "A good explanation and performing a large number of grammar exercises helped to raise my level", "Performing a large number of exercises and a detailed explanation of the material, which included the peculiarities of grammar, significantly increased the level of knowledge," "The teacher explained well, and I remembered a lot of new grammar rules".

Listening: "Communication with the teacher in Russian during the lesson significantly improved my listening skills, as I listened attentively to the Russian speech", "My listening skills improved because we talked a lot with the teacher", "I listened attentively to the lectures, so my listening skills improved", "We watched a lot of episodes from feature films what helped me to understand Russian speech better", "We listened to romantic songs based on the poems of A.S. Pushkin in the videos of famous opera singers – it improved my listening skills", "We listened to the poems of A.S. Pushkin performed by famous actors: A. Raikin, V. Smekhov, I. Smoktunovsky, A. Demidova and others – it helped me better understand the Russian language".

Writing: "My writing skills have improved, there are fewer mistakes in essays and dictation", "My knowledge in the field of punctuation has increased, there are fewer mistakes in the usage of commas", " The writing skills have improved because we did a lot of written tasks", "Many new words were remembered in the process of writing".

Speaking: "Discussions improved the speaking skill", "Working with fiction and discussing these texts helped to speak better in Russian", "The answers to the questions on the topics "The creative path of A.S. Pushkin", "The Life and work of A.P. Chekhov", "Nobel Prize Laureates", "Heraldry is also a science" significantly improved speaking skills, expanded knowledge in the field of vocabulary", "Working with texts and performing after-reading communication tasks significantly improved my speaking skills".

The students noted that the lexical stock of words has significantly expanded: "My lexis has been boosted because we read a lot of fiction, stories and novellas", "I learned a lot of words because we read a lot of poems, listened to romances performed by famous opera singers, we also learned a lot of poems by A.S. Pushkin by heart", "My lexis has been broadened because there were a lot of discussions on the given topics", "There were a lot of new words", "There were a lot of exercises with complex vocabulary, so I learned a lot of new words".

VIII. DISCUSSION

In general, the survey showed that students, studying in the distant format with a teacher (a native speaker of Russian), noted a significant increase in their language level. In this case, distant learning was part of the classroom work and was very organic, it was interwoven into the educational process, not violating the principles of traditional education, but rather complementing it, deepening it. In the absence of a language environment in the process of learning Russian, this approach turned out to be an interesting and effective solution. The survey showed that the motivation of students to the learning process has significantly increased (Figure 3).
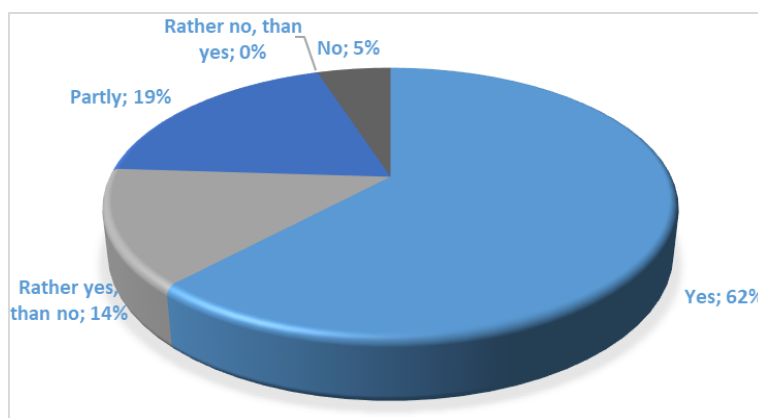
Figure 3. Do the Students Like to Study in the Distant Format?

91% of the respondents noted that lessons with a native speaker in a distant format "had a good impact" or "positively influenced, improved the level of knowledge". Nevertheless, it should be added that 5% noted that they do not like to study in the distant format, 9% - their knowledge in the field of studying the discipline of "Practice of oral and written speech" has not improved, they have not found any changes for the better (Figure 4).
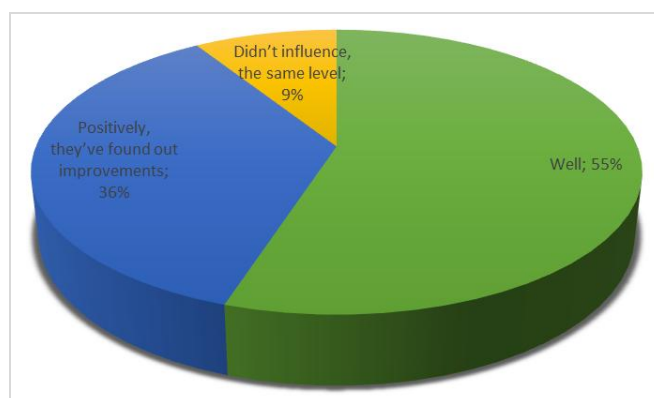
Figure 4. How did Distant Learning Influence the Students' Level?

In our opinion, the reasons that served as the basis of negative reviews were, on the one hand, the teacher's use of methods and techniques of distant learning not fully in the lessons of Russian, on the other hand, the shortcomings of distant learning itself, which usually always manifest themselves in the learning process: the absence of a teacher in the audience and his presence only in the digital format still destroys live communication. Communication in the off-line mode cannot be replaced by any digital tool. The process of understanding between students and the teacher is disrupted, and the process of monitoring also leaves much to be desired. In addition, technical failures, instability of the Internet connection also affect the quality of classes and the quality of knowledge.

Despite the presence of a teacher-curator in the audience, who helps to smooth out these problems: monitors students during the lesson, explains difficult moments in their native language, helps to establish the process of understanding between a teacher working remotely and students in the audience, smooths difficult moments, helps students navigate complex material, and the teacher needs to establish contact with the audience – the percentage of students dissatisfied with digital education, although it is below 10%, nevertheless, still exists. Of course, it should be noted that the percentage of dissatisfied people has significantly decreased from 78% (figures of the pandemic period, when everyone was forced to work online in the self-isolation mode) to 9%, which is primarily due to the fact that distant learning in this case is used reasonably, taking into account the shortcomings that were originally included. At Tashkent State University of the Uzbek Language and Literature named after A. Navoi, an attempt was made to apply the best that digital technologies provide, overcoming space and creating a semblance of a language environment thanks to the ability to communicate with a native speaker. Thus, the competent use of such a unique phenomenon as distance learning has helped to solve many issues in the process of teaching students who study a foreign language in a non-linguistic environment.

IX. CONCLUSION

Analyzing the experience of organizing the learning process in the universities presented in this study in the period from 2020 to 2021 and summarizing the data obtained during the study, allows the authors to draw the following conclusions about the prospects of the development of the educational system: the organization of training in a mixed format, taking into account the peculiarities of individual academic disciplines, was approved by all the respondents and proved to be positive.

Of course, the process of introducing digital technologies into the educational process will improve the quality of education, making it more competitive, mobile and flexible, but the complete rejection of interpersonal interaction during face-to-face classes has a detrimental effect on the academic performance of the students, and, in general, on the quality of education.

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Elena Panova was born in Volgograd, Russia, in 1972. She received her degree of a Candidate of Philological Sciences (Philology) from Volgograd State Social Pedagogical University, Russia, in 2000.

She is currently an Associate Professor at the Department "Humanitarian Disciplines", Faculty of Basic Competences, Moscow Polytechnic University, Russian Federation.

Her current scientific interests include philology, linguistics, pedagogy, literature and a method of the teaching of Russian as foreign.

Elena Tiumentseva was born in Volgograd region, Russia, in 1973. She received her degree of a Candidate of Philological Sciences (Philology) from Volgograd State Technical University, Russia, in 2002.

She is currently an Associate Professor at the Department of Russian Language in Volgograd State Technical University, Volgograd, Russia.

Her current scientific interests include philology, linguistics, pedagogy, literature and a method of the teaching of Russian as foreign.

Zulkhumar Jumanova was born in Osh region, Kyrgyzstan, in 1969.

She is currently a Senior Lecturer at the Department of Foreign Languages in Tashkent State University of Uzbek Language and Literature named after Alisher Navoi, Tashkent, Uzbekistan.

Her current scientific interests include methodology of teaching Russian as a foreign language.

Nilufar Dustmamatova was born in Gulistan, Uzbekistan, in 1972. She received her Specialist in Russian language from Tashkent State University of Uzbek Language and Literature named after Alisher Navoi, Uzbekistan, in 2023.

She is currently Educator in Russian language, Faculty of Theory and Practice of Translation, Tashkent State University of Uzbek Language and Literature named after Alisher Navoi, Tashkent, Uzbekistan.

Her current scientific interests include Comparative Literature, Comparative Linguistics and Translation Studies.

Anna Gorokhova was born in Moscow region, Russia, in 1980. She received her Doctor in Economics from Higher Attestation Commission of the Ministry of Education and Science of the Russian Federation, in 2016.

She is currently a Lead Researcher at the Laboratory No. 67 in V. A. Trapeznikov Institute of Control Sciences of Russian Academy of Sciences, Moscow, Russia.

Her current scientific interests include economics and management of industrial enterprises, economics of innovation.

Vladimir Sekerin was born in Orenburg, Russia, in 1951. He received his Doctor in Economics from Higher Attestation Commission of the Ministry of Education and Science of the Russian Federation, in 2007.

He is currently a Chief Researcher at the Laboratory No. 67 in V. A. Trapeznikov Institute of Control Sciences of Russian Academy of Sciences, Moscow, Russia.

His current scientific interests include diffusion and commercialization of innovations, marketing and management, foreign economic management, logistics.

Kosovan Parents' and Teachers' Perceptions Regarding the English Language Teaching and Learning in the First Grade

Agnesa Çanta
Faculty of Education, University of Prishtina "Hasan Prishtina", Prishtina, Kosovo

Valentina Nimonaj-Hoti[*]
Faculty of Education, University of Prishtina "Hasan Prishtina", Prishtina, Kosovo

Ardita Haziri-Aliu
Faculty of Education, University "Kadri Zeka", Gjilan, Kosovo

Abstract—The importance attributed to English as the lingua franca of our days has influenced the decisions of the education authorities in many countries to change their language learning policies and introduce English in very early stages of formal education. The present study aimed at unfolding the Kosovan parents' and teachers' perceptions regarding the English language teaching and learning in the first grade. This quantitative research included 400 participants, 200 parents and 200 class teachers randomly selected from 56 elementary schools of the country. The research instruments were two structured questionnaires, one for the parents and the other for the teachers, each containing 15 questions related to the topic, whereas the research data were analyzed via the SPSS program. The research results indicate that a considerable percentage of Kosovan parents and teachers do not support the inclusion of English as an obligatory subject in the first grade, mainly because they fear it may interfere negatively with the learning of their mother tongue.

Index Terms— parents, teachers, perceptions, English, first grade

I. INTRODUCTION

The age of globalization with its tremendous developments in all fields of life has greatly contributed to the people's ineluctable necessity to learn English because of the many advantages that the knowledge of this language provides. Spoken by 1.5 billion speakers worldwide, English has already achieved the status of a global language (Crystal, 2003), and according to Graddol (1997), it "is unlikely to be displaced as the world's most important language" (p. 2). Furthermore, he suggests that by 2040, the number of English speakers will have increased to 3 billion (Graddol, 1997). Nevertheless, the majority of English speakers are people who have learned English as a foreign or second language, whereas the number of native English speakers, already a minority, is constantly decreasing (Harmer, 2007).

There are several factors that have contributed to the widespread use of the English language. Crystal (2003) emphasizes the political and military power, but in today's circumstances its impact is not as prominent as it was before. Harmer (2007), on the other hand, suggests a list of five factors, namely the colonial history, economics, information exchange, travel, and popular culture. However, in the age of globalization, the information exchange exercises a strong influence on other factors as they are closely intertwined, and the Internet, as a dominant information channel, has certainly had a crucial impact on English, as it is de facto its universal language.

The mastery of English has become imperative because people are insightful regarding the advantages that the knowledge of English provides, therefore, recent decades have seen extraordinary efforts by all the stakeholders especially in the field of education to encourage the learning of the language. Parents, especially younger and more educated ones, encourage their children to learn the language from an early age and speak it fluently, and they do it for various reasons, primarily because they think that a decent knowledge of the language can offer them the opportunity for a better education, and, consequently, a better life perspective, but also because it can simply help them become successful global citizens, people capable of interacting with others regardless of their national, religious, cultural, language, and other backgrounds in different social and cultural circumstances. Thus, they tend to encourage bilingualism as they see it as a valuable asset with all the benefits that the knowledge of English implies.

It is not uncommon nowadays to hear cases of young Kosovan parents who raise their children with English as a first language because they want their children to speak the language as fluently as native speakers, thus completely disregarding their mother tongue, what subsequently becomes quite problematic once these children start the school, and their teachers have problems communicating with them in Albanian. According to Crystal (2003), there are many

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[*] Corresponding Author.

such cases in the world, but he claims that despite their contribution to the language, these children's intuition about the language will surely differ from that of, as he calls them, "traditional native speakers". The said parents, however, are not discouraged, they are not bothered by their children's inability to speak their native language properly as long as they are "fluent" in English. They insist on their children's language fluency because it is used, among others, as an important score in assessing their oral skills in examinations (Kormos, 2006). Kosovan teachers, on the other hand, have misgivings with regard to this issue because they are being challenged in their own classrooms by these parents and their children.

Before 2000, English was taught as a foreign language in all elementary schools in Kosovo from the fifth grade, later, in the 2000s, it was taught from the third grade. However, English became a compulsory subject in the first grade in 2016, following a decision of the then Minister of Education, and it was even included in the preparatory grade, although the preparatory grade itself is still not mandatory, and not all Kosovan children attend it. Moreover, prior to this decision, English had already been introduced to Kosovan first graders in 40 elementary schools of the country that were selected for piloting the curriculum framework of pre-university education of the Republic of Kosovo and core curriculum 2014/2015 (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology [MEST], 2016), and, at the time, it had encountered various, mostly negative, reactions among teachers and parents. Therefore, this study is the result of extensive meetings and discussions with Kosovan parents and teachers regarding the English language teaching and learning in the first grade, and the implications that it might have in the long run because it has been observed that there is a range of mixed perceptions and attitudes among the above-mentioned stakeholders whether children should start learning the language at school so early.

The main aim of this study was to analyze the Kosovan parents' and teachers' perceptions regarding the English language teaching and learning in the first grade as well as analyze and discuss all relevant aspects of the problem, thus providing a quite thorough picture of the current situation related to this topic in our country. The key research questions were as follows:

1. What are the Kosovan parents' perceptions regarding the English language teaching and learning in the first grade?
2. What are the Kosovan teachers' perceptions regarding the English language teaching and learning in the first grade?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Recent decades have been marked by a range of discussions concerning the ideal age children should be exposed to a foreign or second language, and this has been a matter of an everlasting dispute among the policy-makers, educational experts, teachers, and parents.

When should children start learning a foreign or second language? This is a question whose final answer researchers have not been able to provide yet since the current research evidence indicates that certain attitudes and beliefs do not have a sound foundation. Even though the majority support the belief "the earlier, the better", there are others who disagree with this assertion. However, it is precisely the widespread belief that an early exposure to language would give children a good start to becoming successful language learners that has encouraged the policy-makers in education to insist on introducing a foreign or second language as a compulsory subject from the very first grade, and even earlier.

The view "the earlier, the better" relies on the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH), a theory in neurolinguistics that states that the brain loses its plasticity as people experience natural maturation and brain functions related to language learning are prone to a gradual decline, therefore an early exposure to language is crucial in attaining a native-like proficiency (VanPatten & Williams, 2015). The question is how early? The said plasticity is said to be at its peak only in the first few years of a person's life, and its subsequent decline affects our language processing skills (Saxton, 2017). According to the CPH, this explains why people who have started to learn a second language after the so-called "critical period" can never achieve the native speakers' language proficiency (VanPatten & Williams, 2015). This applies particularly to the second language learners' accent (Cameron, 2001). Researchers claim that the critical period affects different aspects of language, especially phonology and grammar, but accent is the one they usually emphasize. Furthermore, Tabors (2008), argues that accent is the only feature in the language learning process that is affected by the age factor, and consequently, older learners are less likely to attain the native speakers' accent than young children. According to Bavin (2009), if children start learning a second language early, their second language skills will not differ from those of the native speakers, and the term he uses to refer to children who learn two languages before the age of nine is "childhood bilingual". However, Ortega (2013), argues that it is premature to accept the view that the critical period affects the second language learning because despite the evidence that indicates that late and adult second language learners achieve lower levels of language attainment than the early ones, and that the age effect is undeniable, nevertheless, there are also cases of exceptional learners whose introduction to a second language took place rather late, after their twenties, and they still managed to attain an almost native-like proficiency, and we can barely distinguish them from native speakers.

Until the end of the 20th century, it was thought that the first language acquisition was complete by the age of five, but now we know that this is no longer true (Cameron, 2001). Clark (2009) suggests that children under the age of six are still in the process of learning their first language. Cameron (2001) goes a step further and argues that at the age of seven children are still in the process of improving their discourse skills, which process extends throughout their early school years. It is only by the age of eight to ten that children attain competence of their native language with all its

basic elements, and a language awareness which they may use in their second language acquisition (Scott & Ytreberg, 1995). That is why Moon (2000) asserts that children as second language learners bring with them to the second language classroom the experience of language gained while they were learning their first language.

The hypothesis that children are better second language learners than adults has often been used to support the early introduction of foreign language education (Cameron, 2001). However, what the relevant stakeholders have failed to consider is the fact that an early exposure to the second language may have a negative impact on the child's first language development (Lightbown & Spada, 2013). De Boot (2014), on the other hand, claims that more exposure to English as a foreign language does not affect the development of the mother tongue. According to Atkinson (2011), "children's early appropriation of language is implicit" (p. 25), and in regard to this statement, it can be said that, in fact, children can be better second language learners than adults, but only if the process of second language acquisition at an early age is implicit rather than explicit, and they are not forced to learn it in a formal educational environment. Cameron (2011) also asserts that children who start learning a second language earlier do have certain advantages that regard the listening comprehension and pronunciation over those who start it later, but this is applicable only if the learning process takes place in natural contexts. Research results indicate that if the language teaching and learning process takes place in a classroom and instruction is explicit, older learners can surpass the younger ones because of their higher cognitive skills (Krashen et al., 1979; Munõz, 2006, as cited in Jaekel et al., 2017). Moreover, Jaekel et al. (2017) claim that the common belief that younger learners are better than the older ones is just a myth. There is research evidence that supports the claim that greater cognitive maturity is the reason why older children outperform the younger ones in the language learning process (Barac et al., 2014, as cited in Canto, 2019). Johnstone (2002) also argues that age is not the only factor that influences the second language learning, it is rather only one in a cluster of factors, "few of which can be scientifically controlled" (p. 9). Furthermore, according to Butler (2012), the current major second and foreign language acquisition theories disregard the socio-economic dimensions as a very important factor that accounts for the gaps in the learners' achievement of English.

Lightbown and Spada (2013), argue that introduction to second language education should depend on the goals to be achieved; consequently, if the goal of the second language learner is to achieve the native-like mastery of the second language, then it is better to start the second language learning process as early as possible, but if the goal is to acquire the communicative skills with the intention that the native language remains the first language in the educational system, a later start is recommended. An early introduction to second language learning should not be determined neither by necessity nor by desirability (Lightbown & Spada, 2013) because the scope of the second language learning in the 21st century is experiencing a consistent expansion (Long, 2015).

According to Garton and Copland (2019), one of the most important reforms undertaken globally in the field of second language education, namely English instruction, in the recent years, is the lowering of the learners' age. Thus, we have seen many countries of the world undertaking the necessary reforms to implement the policy of including English in the lower grades of elementary education. The age varies from country to country, but there is a common tendency to introduce English at the very start of elementary education. According to Shin and Crandall (2014), more than 50 % of the teachers from 55 countries of the world, who participated in their survey, reported the introduction of English as a compulsory subject in the third grade.

The East Asia region has shown an exceptional readiness to implement the necessary reforms. Thus, in China, as the largest country in the world, children start learning English in the third grade, and in some cities, even in the first grade, at the age of six (Garton & Copland, 2019). However, in public elementary schools of China, children are not allowed to start learning English earlier than the third grade because of the many teachers and parents' concern that an early exposure to English might affect their children's learning of Chinese (Chen et al., 2020). In Taiwan, English is also introduced in the third grade, but research findings indicate that 86.7 % of the second-grade students learn English earlier than the government's mandate because of their parents' expectations (Chang, 2008). Taiwanese parents consider early English education very important as it can offer their children better career opportunities (Ching-Ying, 2016). Furthermore, results of the research carried out by Lee and Chou (2014) indicate that the parents' education level and the region they come from, also has a significant impact on their attitudes towards an early exposure to English. In South Korea, the starting age is 9, the third grade (Garton & Copland, 2019). In Japan, on the other hand, until 2011, English was taught from the seventh grade, but now, in all Japanese public schools, children start learning English in the fifth grade (Chen et al., 2020), and in this regard Japan is lagging behind compared to other Asian countries. In Hong Kong, because of its colonial history, children start learning English at the age of three (Garton & Copland, 2019). In India, English is generally taught from the third grade, even though in some regions, it is introduced in the fifth grade. In the United Arab Emirates, since 2012, English is introduced in all public schools in the fourth grade, at the age of 9 (Alshahrani, 2016) since Arab teachers consider that an early introduction to a foreign language could negatively impact the students' writing skills of their native language (Al-Yaseen, 2021).

Research evidence indicates that in African countries that were once British colonies, such as Uganda, Tanzania and Kenya, English is introduced simultaneously with their mother tongues (Garton & Copland, 2019); in African Arabic-speaking countries such as Egypt, Libya, Sudan as well as Somalia, English is introduced in the second grade, whereas in former French colonies, such as Algeria, Morocco, Tunisia, Mauritania, Chad, French is favored to English, therefore English is introduced much later, mainly in the secondary education.

Latin American countries have also seen significant reforms regarding the instruction of English thus Argentina and Brazil are the countries that introduce English in the first grade along with another optional language (Garton & Copland, 2019).

Among the larger North American countries, Mexico, as the largest country in which English is not a native language, introduces English in the first grade, at the age of six, in Canada, as a bilingual country, a second language is mandatory in the fifth grade, at the age of ten, whereas in the USA, a second language is introduced in the secondary education, and not in all the states (Moore, 2021).

In European countries, there is a great diversity regarding the age to which children are exposed to English in formal educational institutions. Thus, in Belgium, in Germanophone and Flemish state schools, English is introduced at the age of three, whereas in Francophone schools at the age of four (Lourenço & Mourão, 2017). Italy, Spain, Norway, Denmark, Albania and Kosovo are among the few countries in which English is mandatory in the first grade, at the age of six (Hopping, 2014; Ferati et al., 2019; DZHAP, 2016). From 2020, Finnish children start learning a foreign language, mainly English, in the second semester of the first grade, at the age of seven (Järvinen-Taubert, 2020). In Croatia, Latvia, Macedonia, Sweden and Serbia, English is taught from the first grade, at the age of seven (Brumen et al., 2009; Ferati et al., 2019). Turkey has adopted a regulation change that makes English a compulsory subject in the second grade, at the age of seven (Çakici, 2016). Austrian children also start learning English at the age of seven, in the second grade (Expatica, 2022). In Bulgaria, English is introduced as a compulsory subject in the second grade, at the age of eight (Ferati et al., 2019), whereas in Portugal, children are exposed to English in the third grade, at the age of eight (Lourenço & Mourão, 2017). In the Check Republic and Greece, children also start learning English at the age of 8, in the third grade (Ferati et al., 2019). In Germany, English is mandatory in the secondary education level (Hopping, 2014), however, depending on the type of school, children can be exposed to English in the third grade or the fifth grade. In France, children elect a foreign language, that is mainly English, at the age of 8-10 (Ferati et al., 2019), even though in eastern regions of the country, English is taught in the second grade, at the age of seven. In Hungary, English is mandatory from the fourth grade, at the age of 10. In Netherlands, English is also introduced as an obligatory subject at the age of 10, in the fifth grade. Children in Poland start learning a foreign language at the age of six, in the first grade, but that is not necessarily English, however, English becomes mandatory at the age of 12/13 (Ferati et al., 2019). Being the country with the largest English-speaking population in Europe, England exposes children to a foreign language at Key Stage 2 (age 7-11), one hour per week (Myles, 2017).

The statistics indicate that many countries have already lowered the starting age for compulsory language learning, however, according to EF EPI (English Proficiency Index) of 2021, the world's largest ranking of countries and regions by English skills, out of 112 countries of the world, Netherlands is ranked the first, followed by Austria, Denmark, Singapore, Norway, Belgium, Portugal, Sweden, Finland and Croatia as top ten countries of the list, and most of these countries introduce English as a compulsory subject after the age of six, furthermore, in the country that is ranked the first - Netherlands, English is introduced later than in most countries of the world, what obviously challenges the belief "the earlier, the better", and supports the claims that the evidence concerning the age effect on second language learning is "far from being settled" (Ortega, 2013, p. 23).

III. METHODOLOGY

This quantitative research was conducted with 400 participants, 200 parents and 200 elementary school teachers (class teachers) of the first graders, randomly selected from 56 elementary schools of the country. The class teachers were deliberately chosen over the English teachers because working closely with their pupils for several hours per day gives them the opportunity to better evaluate the impact that a new subject, English in this case, and a new teacher have on their learning process, but also because they are more objective in this regard.

The research instruments were two questionnaires, one for the teachers and the other for the parents, each containing 15 questions related to the research topic, 10 of which being 5-point Likert scale questions with answers from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Both questionnaires were divided into two sections, the first one containing questions whose answers obtained demographic information on the research participants, whereas the second section contained the key question that obtained answers regarding the most appropriate grade to start learning English at school, i.e., whether the participants favored the first grade or not, and other questions regarding the parents' and teachers' perceptions on the English language teaching and learning in the first grade.

The research data were analyzed via the SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) program, version 25.

IV. RESULTS

The frequency analysis of the data obtained from the questionnaires regarding the parents' and teachers' perceptions on the most appropriate grade to start learning English at school are presented in the following tables, Table 1 and Table 2, respectively. The results indicate that a considerable percentage of Kosovan parents and teachers do not favor the introduction of English as an obligatory subject in the first grade.

TABLE 1
PARENTS' PERCEPTIONS REGARDING THE MOST APPROPRIATE GRADE TO START LEARNING ENGLISH AT SCHOOL.

Grade	Frequency	Percent
The prep grade	24	12.0%
The 1st grade	67	33.5%
The 2nd grade	32	16.0%
The 3rd grade	62	31.0%
The 5th grade	15	7.5%
Total	200	100%

Table 1 indicates that 12% of the parents think that children should start learning English in the preparatory grade, followed by 33.5% who favor the first grade, and this shows that 45.5% of the parents advocate an early start in learning English at school. Nevertheless, as seen from Table 1, a lot of parents support the introduction of English after the first grade, hence 16% of the parents favor the second grade, 31% the third grade, and 7.5 % of them the fifth grade, thus providing a rather high percentage - 54.5%, even though comparing all the percentages obtained, it can be seen that the highest percentage belongs to the parents who support the introduction of English in the first grade - 33.5%, albeit it is only slightly higher than the percentage of those who favor the third grade - 31%.

TABLE 2
TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS REGARDING THE MOST APPROPRIATE GRADE TO START LEARNING ENGLISH AT SCHOOL.

Grade	Frequency	Percent
The prep grade	28	14.0%
The 1st grade	47	23.5%
The 2nd grade	37	18.5%
The 3rd grade	80	40.0%
The 5th grade	8	4.0%
Total	200	100%

Table 2 indicates that out of 200 teachers, 14% think that children should start learning English in the preparatory grade, whereas 23.5% of them favor the first grade, and this shows that 37.5% of the teachers believe that an early introduction to English at school would benefit the children. However, 18.5% of the class teachers claim that the most appropriate grade to start learning English at school is the second grade, followed by 40% of the teachers who favor the third grade, and 8% who favor the fifth grade, thus providing a rather high percentage - 62%, that testifies to the teachers' disapproval of introducing English in the first grade.

TABLE 3
GENDER DIFFERENCES REGARDING THE PARENTS' PERCEPTIONS ON THE MOST APPROPRIATE GRADE TO START LEARNING ENGLISH AT SCHOOL

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Parents' perceptions regarding the most appropriate grade to start learning English at school	Female	144	2.72	1.18	.099
	Male	56	3.30	1.11	.148

Table 3 shows that there are gender differences regarding the parents' perceptions on the most appropriate grade to start learning English. The mean and the standard deviation for the female parents are M = 2.72 and SD = 1.18, whereas the mean and the standard deviation for the male parents are M = 3.30 and SD = 1.11, and this indicates that male parents show a greater level of support than female parents regarding the introduction of English in the first grade. However, the Levene's test was used to determine whether these differences are statistically significant.

TABLE 4
LEVENE'S TEST FOR EQUALITY OF VARIANCES

Independent Samples Test / Gender		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-test for Equality of Means						95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Parents' perceptions regarding the most appropriate grade to start learning English at school	Equal variances assumed	.303	.583	-2.818	198	.005	-.478	.170	-.813	-.144
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.962	111.567	.004	-.478	.161	-798	-.158

The results presented in Table 4 show that the gender differences are statistically significant because the probability in 95% of the cases is lower than 0.05 (p <0.005), and the significance is 0.005. Therefore, it can be concluded that

male parents are more supportive than female parents with regard to the introduction of English as an obligatory subject in the first grade.

TABLE 5
CORRELATION BETWEEN THE PARENTS' EDUCATION AND THEIR PERCEPTIONS REGARDING THE MOST APPROPRIATE GRADE TO START LEARNING ENGLISH AT SCHOOL

Parents' education		
Parents' perceptions regarding the most appropriate grade to start learning English at school	Pearson Correlation	.034
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.631
	N	200

Table 5 presents the data that show the correlation between the parents' education and their perceptions on the most appropriate grade to start learning English at school, and results indicate that there is no correlation between the two because P> 0.05 and sig. 0.631.

TABLE 6
CORRELATION BETWEEN THE TEACHERS' WORK EXPERIENCE AND THEIR PERCEPTIONS ON THE MOST APPROPRIATE GRADE TO START LEARNING ENGLISH AT SCHOOL.

Teachers' work experience		
Teachers' perceptions regarding the most appropriate grade to start learning English at school	Pearson Correlation	-.079
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.265
	N	200

As seen from Table 6, results indicate that there is no correlation between the teachers' work experience and their perceptions on the most appropriate grade to start learning English at school because P> 0.05 and sig. 0.265. In order to ascertain whether there are statistically important differences between the teachers' age and their perceptions regarding the most appropriate grade to start learning English, we used the ANOVA test, the Scheffe procedure.

TABLE 7
DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE TEACHERS' AGE AND THEIR PERCEPTIONS REGARDING THE MOST APPROPRIATE GRADE TO START LEARNING ENGLISH.

(I) Age	(J) Age	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
22-30	31-40	.761[*]	.207	.004	.18	1.34
	41-50	.396	.224	.375	-.24	1.03
	51-65	.379	.233	.450	-.28	1.04
31-40	22-30	-.761[*]	.207	.004	-1.34	-.18
	41-50	-.364	.245	.533	-1.06	.33
	51-65	-.381	.254	.521	-1.10	.33
41-50	22-30	-.396	.224	.375	-1.03	.24
	31-40	.364	.245	.533	-.33	1.06
	51-65	-.017	.268	1.000	-.77	.74
51-65	22-30	-.379	.233	.450	-1.04	.28
	31-40	.381	.254	.521	-.33	1.10
	41-50	.017	.268	1.000	-.74	.77

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

As seen from Table 7, multiple comparisons were conducted regarding the teachers' age and their perceptions on the most appropriate grade to start learning English at school, and results indicate that there are significant differences only between the teachers age 22-30 and those age 31-40, with the mean difference being 0.761(p< 0.05) and sig. 0.04.

TABLE 8
PARENTS' PERCEPTIONS REGARDING THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING IN THE FIRST GRADE

	n % 1	n % 2	n % 3	n % 4	n % 5	M	SD
Your child is very interested in learning English in the first grade.	3.0	11.5	28	15.5	42	3.82	1.18
The decision of MEST to make the English language a compulsory subject in the first grade is the right one.	18.5	31.5	18	22	10	2.74	1.27
Learning English in the first grade interferes negatively with the learning of the mother tongue.	10	21.5	21.5	36	11	3.17	1.18
Your child uses English words when he/she speaks Albanian.	21	24.5	35.5	15.5	3.5	2.56	1.09
You are satisfied with your child's knowledge of English obtained at school.	6	15	22	44	13	3.43	1.08
Your child's English teacher is sufficiently qualified to work with first grade pupils.	7.5	14	25	45	8.5	3.33	1.06
English textbooks used in the first grade are age-appropriate.	8.5	21.5	22.5	42	5.5	3.15	1.08
Your child's English teacher cooperates with you as a parent in the language learning process.	20.5	23	19.5	32	5	2.78	1.27
You are satisfied with the English teacher's work.	10	12.5	28	38	11.5	3.28	1.13
Your child is satisfied with his/her English teacher.	6.5	15.5	18	43	17	3.49	1.13

Note: 1. Strongly disagree, 2. Disagree, 3. Neutral, 4. Agree, 5. Strongly agree.

Table 8 presents the parents' perceptions regarding the English language teaching and learning in the first grade based on the ten statements relevant to the process included in the parents' questionnaire. The results indicate that 57.5% of the parents agree that their children are very interested in learning English in the first grade, 14.5% disagree, and 28% of the parents are neutral. Only 32% of the parents agree that the decision of MEST to make the English language a compulsory subject in the first grade is the right one, 18% are neutral, and 50% of the parents don't think that this decision is the right one. 47% of the parents think that learning English in the first grade interferes negatively with the learning of the mother tongue, 21.5% are neutral, and 31.5% of the parents contradict this opinion. Only 19% of the parents have heard their children using English words when they speak Albanian, 35.5 % are neutral, what means that either the parents do not speak English and do not understand English words, or they think that this is irrelevant, whereas 44.5% of the parents disagree with the statement. 57% of the parents are satisfied with their children's knowledge of English obtained at school, 22% are neutral, and only 21% of the parents are not satisfied. 53.5% of the parents agree that their children's English teachers are sufficiently qualified to work with first grade pupils, 25% are neutral, and 21.5% do not support the claim. Since parents are supposed to help their children with their homework, they have surely formed an opinion on the content of the book, therefore 47.5% of the parents agree that English textbooks used in the first grade are age-appropriate, 22.5% are neutral, and 30% of the parents disagree. 37% of the parents agree that their children's English teachers cooperate with them as parents in the language learning process, 19.5% are neutral, and 43.5% of the teachers deny any cooperation with their children's English teachers. However, in spite of the considerable lack of cooperation between the parents and the English teachers, 49.5% of the teachers seem to be satisfied with the English teachers' work, 28% are neutral, whereas 32.5% of the parents do not think that their children's English teachers are doing a good job. However, they have given different answers in regard to whether the children are satisfied with their English teachers, therefore, 60% of the parents think that their children are satisfied with their English teachers, 18% are neutral, and only 22% of the parents seem to think that their children are not satisfied with their English teachers.

TABLE 9
TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS REGARDING THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING IN THE FIRST GRADE

	n %	n %	n %	n %	n %		
	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
Your pupils are very interested in learning English in the first grade.	2.5	6.5	30	24.5	36.5	3.86	1.06
The decision of MEST to make the English language a compulsory subject in the first grade is the right one.	16.5	34	14	17.5	18	2.86	1.37
Learning English in the first grade interferes negatively with the learning of the mother tongue.	11.5	20	17	40.5	11	3.19	1.21
Your pupils use English words when they speak Albanian.	13.5	18	35.5	30	3	2.91	1.06
You are satisfied with your first graders' knowledge of the English language obtained at school.	3	16	38.5	28	14.5	3.35	1.01
English teachers are sufficiently qualified to work with first grade pupils.	9	13	19.5	33.5	25	3.52	1.24
English textbooks used in the first grade are age-appropriate.	4.5	16.5	37.5	27	14.5	3.31	1.05
The English teacher cooperates with you as a class teacher.	3.5	15.5	15	39	27	3.71	1.12
You are satisfied with the English teacher's work.	6	24	40	28	2	3.90	.89
Your pupils are satisfied with their English teacher.	3	5	19.5	38.5	34	3.96	1.00

Note: 1. Strongly disagree, 2. Disagree, 3. Neutral, 4. Agree, 5. Strongly agree.

Table 9 presents the teachers' perceptions regarding the English language teaching and learning in the first grade based on the ten statements relevant to the process included in the teachers' questionnaire. The results indicate that 61% of the teachers think that their pupils are very interested in learning English in the first grade, not surprisingly since most children of that age are curious about new languages, 30% are neutral, whereas only 9% disagree. In line with the answers regarding the most appropriate grade to start learning English at school, 50.5% of the teachers do not think that the decision of MEST to make English a compulsory subject in the first grade is the right one, 14% are neutral, whereas 35.5% disagree. In line with their answers to the key question of the questionnaire, 51.5% of the teachers have shown agreement with the statement that learning English in the first grade interferes negatively with the learning of the mother tongue, 17% are neutral, and 31.5% of them disagree with the statement. 33% of the teachers claim that their pupils use English words when they speak Albanian, 35.5% are neutral, and 31.5% of the teachers haven't heard their pupils use English words. However, 42.5% of the teachers seem to be satisfied with their first graders' knowledge of the English language obtained at school, 38.5% are neutral, and 19% of the teachers have shown disagreement with the statement. In regard to the English teachers' qualifications, 58.5% of the class teachers agree that English teachers are sufficiently qualified to work with first grade pupils, 19.5% are neutral, whereas 21% think that they are not sufficiently qualified for the job. Concerning the English textbooks used in the first grade, 41.5% of the teachers agree that they are age-appropriate, 37.5% are neutral, and 21% disagree. 66% of the teachers agree that English teachers cooperate with them as class teachers, 15% are neutral, and only 19% claim that English teachers do not cooperate with them. Only 30% of the teachers agree to being satisfied with the English teachers' work, 40% are neutral, and 30% of the teachers are not satisfied. Nevertheless, according to their teachers, pupils seem to have a different opinion since 72.5% of the class teachers agree that pupils are satisfied with their English teachers, 19.5% are neutral, and only 8% think that their pupils are not satisfied with their English teachers.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Parents and teachers' perceptions regarding the English language teaching and learning in the first grade constitute an important factor that may influence the pupils' success in this process, and it needs be taken very seriously by the decision-making bodies when they approve relevant educational policies. The present study aimed at shedding some light on this issue based on the analyses of the data that resulted from two questionnaires completed by 400 Kosovan parents and teachers. Despite the fact that the knowledge of English provides social, economic, and cultural advantages that parents aspire for their children, and surely, teachers for their pupils, the research results indicate that a considerable percentage of Kosovan parents and teachers do not support the introduction of English as an obligatory subject in the first grade (55.5% parents, 62.5% teachers). The percentage of parents and teachers who contradict the inclusion of English as an obligatory subject in the first grade, when children have nine other subjects as well, corresponds to the assertions made by most of them that it interferes negatively with the learning of the mother tongue.

A similar concern is also shared by Chinese parents and teachers (Chen et al., 2020) although de Bot (2014) would clearly disagree as he argues that learning English cannot affect the development of the mother tongue.

Nevertheless, we should not disregard the relatively high percentage of parents and teachers who prefer an early introduction to English, namely in the preparatory grade and in the first grade, 45.5% and 37.5% respectively, thus embracing the argument the "earlier, the better", even though the existing body of empirical research doesn't lend much support to the claim (Garton & Copland, 2019), furthermore, according to Munoz (2009), there are studies that suggest that an early introduction to a foreign language may result with "extremely limited" benefits. It is important to emphasize that the obtained results don't reveal a tendency toward code-switching among the children exposed to English in the first grade since only 19% of the parents and 33% of the teachers confirm to have heard the children use English words when speaking Albanian, but this could also imply the parents' failure to perceive such attempts, especially if they do not speak English themselves, or the teachers' indifference. Teacher qualification and age-appropriate textbooks, as two very important factors, have also been raised as questions which resulted with unexpected responses of Kosovan parents and teachers because the percentages derived from the data analysis are not in accordance with the actual situation in the field. Most of the parents and teachers agree that their children/pupils' English teachers are sufficiently qualified for work with children, and by this they probably mean they hold a degree in English, however, Kosovan universities and colleges currently offer only English teaching programs that prepare teachers for work with high school students, whereas the last program at the Faculty of Education that prepared English teachers for work with pupils from grades 5-9 was closed for new enrollments in 2013, therefore English teachers in Kosovo are in dire need of specific trainings for work with young learners, and we can mention one element related to this issue that has been dealt with in this research and justifies the demand, namely the lack of cooperation between the parents and their children's English teachers. Concerning the textbooks, a relatively high percentage of parents (47.5%) and teachers (41.5%) agree that they are age-appropriate. In line with the abovementioned responses, parents and teachers seem to be generally satisfied with the knowledge children obtain at school and the English teachers' work, but it is interesting to note that they display a whole new level of satisfaction when they speak on behalf of their children/pupils, and the obtained percentages on this matter are not in accordance with what was expected when this research was initiated and the feedback we received from numerous meetings with teachers and parents. However, the high percentage of children's satisfaction with their English teachers did not affect the parents and teachers' responses concerning this issue. We can say that the teachers and parents' perceptions regarding the English language teaching and learning in the first grade are generally similar. There is one aspect, however, that is worth emphasizing, and it concerns their choices on the most appropriate grade to introduce English at school. Since the results have already established that a considerable percentage of both parents and teachers do not support the inclusion of English as an obligatory subject in the first grade, considering the impact it may have on the mother tongue, and also the high number of subjects Kosovan children have to cope with in the first grade as well as long term consequences such a workload may have on children as they go through their developmental stages, a compromise they would surely agree on, based on the research results, is the inclusion of English in the third grade with more classes per week, thus supporting the suggestion already made by Jaekel et al. (2017), instead of just one class of English per week Kosovan first and second graders are exposed to (MEST, 2016). Such a limited exposure to English should not impose high expectations regardless of the pupils' very young age (Lightbown & Spada, 2013).

To conclude, the fact that only 1/3 of the parents and teachers who participated in this research agree with the decision of MEST to include English as an obligatory subject in the first grade may be seen as a lack of communication between them and the education authorities, or as a conscious decision of the latter to disregard the opinions of these very important stakeholders, but most importantly, it should serve as a reminder for the education authorities to change these practices in the future and involve all the stakeholders in the decision-making processes, thus providing the opportunity for feedback from all the relevant factors and avoiding the never-ending debates.

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Agnesa Çanta is an assistant professor of English at the Faculty of Education, University of Prishtina "Hasan Prishtina", Kosovo, and she has been teaching English for 22 years. She holds a PhD degree in Linguistics from the University of Tirana, Albania. Her research interests include theoretical linguistics, contrastive linguistics, and applied linguistics.

Valentina Nimonaj-Hoti is a teaching assistant at the Faculty of Education, University of Prishtina" Hasan Prishtina", Kosovo. She holds a PhD degree from the South East European University, Tetovo, North Macedonia. Her research interests concern the first grade, namely the first graders' workload in terms of content and homework, and the historic and pedagogical dimensions of textbooks.

Ardita Haziri-Aliu is a teaching assistant at the Faculty of Education, University "Kadri Zeka", Gjilan, Kosovo. She holds a MA degree in English from the AAB College, Prishtina, Kosovo. Her research interests include morphology and second language acquisition.

The Impact of Writing Through Integrated Skills Intervention on English Students' Writing Skills: Focus on Vocabulary and Grammar

Fantahun Kitila[*]
Wollega University, Nekemte, Ethiopia

Sharif Ali
Wollega University, Nekemte, Ethiopia

Ebissa Bekele
Wollega University, Nekemte, Ethiopia

Abstract—this study examined effects of writing through integrated skills intervention on students' general proficiency in writing skills, with a specific focus on vocabulary and grammar. A quasi-experimental study was conducted to achieve this goal, in which Participants were chosen not at random to the control and experimental groups in their entirety. Ninety-six grade 11 Sekela high schools from the 2022 academic year participated in the study. Before and after the intervention, tests of paragraph writing were administered, and the outcomes were assessed using SPSS. According to the outcomes of the independent samples t-test, there was no appreciable difference between the two groups ' pretest writing samples for either their overall composition or the vocabulary and grammar parts. On the posttest, however, there was a noticeable distinction between the two groups' writing styles in general and their vocabulary and grammatical elements. The experimental group improved their writing performance more than the control group, according to the results of the paired sample t-test. As a result, it can be said that teaching writing through an integrated skills intervention had a greater positive influence on students' writing skills than the traditional method. As a result of the inquiry, it was determined that integrated skills techniques should be used in EFL writing lessons to help students with their vocabulary and grammar.

Index Terms—integrated skills, writing skills, vocabulary, grammar

I. INTRODUCTION

The social constructivism hypothesis, which is at the foundation of the integrated skills approach to education, contends that interaction and communication with others through discussion and criticism can optimize both teaching and learning (Vygotsky, 1978). A method of collaborating on key skills to accomplish expected goals and advance one's own knowledge and abilities as well as those of others is commonly understood to be an integrated skills approach to education (Sarantakos, 2012). Additionally, it provides opportunities for language practice and fosters the growth of their critical reasoning, problem-solving, communication, and adaptability skills (lifelong learning).

Since the 1970s, when Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) became popular the integrated skills method of teaching has also been used in language instruction. Because it promotes learner engagement and is learner-centered like CLT, it is regarded as an extension of CLT. Then, instructors began implementing the integrated skills approach to teaching language classes in their classrooms using the four primary abilities of speaking, reading, and writing (Widdowson, 1978). Oxford (2001), a language scholar, highlights the importance of integrated abilities in the teaching and learning of second languages. They clarify that the way in which integrated abilities are used in contact serves as both a chance to use the target language and a source of understandable feedback (output). In other words, interaction fosters an atmosphere that is favorable because it aids in language acquisition and the improvement of students' language abilities. According to Richards and Rogers (2001), integrated skills interaction is crucial in order to learn a foreign or second language (L2).

One of the key language abilities is writing, which is important for both academic performance and everyday life. Students will not be successful in their studies, which will have an impact on their lives outside of school if they do not use acceptable language while writing their replies, assignments, and projects. In agreement with this, Seow (2002) asserts that writing proficiency is required if students are to succeed in school and in life. Because of this, writing is a crucial component of the English for and English curricula (Zahida, 2007). In fact, they said, writing is such a difficult activity that creating a precise and fluid paragraph is difficult. Writing skills, according to Raimes (1983), are intricate

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[*] Corresponding author: E-mail:fantahunkitila44@gmail.com

and difficult to teach because they call for developing pertinent ideas, using a variety of sentence structures, building appropriate and correct sentences, using the right mechanics, writing for a particular drive of viewers, and arranging information

The ability to write well, which can only be learned through education or training, has various educational benefits for instance, it promotes individual learning and aids in providing students with a variety of learning styles (Byrne, 1988). Students can also employ the syntax and terminologies they have acquired, sense in controller of the linguistic, revenue chances, besides interact through the novel language by doing this (Raimes, 1983). For writing instruction to be interesting and pertinent, it is crucial to share these details with both English teachers and students.

The writing was once thought of as a solitary or individual endeavor, and only professors provided reaction to students (Wigglesworth & Storch, 2009). Still, learners are required near write on a specific subject and submit their essays for editing. According to Selinker (1986), students cannot entertain a diversity of ideas in their work when using the isolated skill approach to writing. This is due to the fact that it discourages active learning, peer incentives, and assistance (Harmer, 2007). Though there have been attempts to use the integrated skills approach to writing in EFL classes, teachers have been unable to successfully execute the interdependence, interaction, and responsibility fundamentals of integrated skills learning. As a result, students just rely on their individual skills to do the work (Selinker, 1986).

Widdowson's (1978) work, which asserted that teaching with integrated skills improved student learning over teaching with isolated abilities, sparked interest in this kind of instruction in the early 1978s. Language experts began to investigate the efficacy of the integrated skills approach to instruction in the context of writing after considering its favorable impacts in other subject areas. Skehan (1996), a pioneer in the field, discovered that learners produced better writing using their integrated abilities than they did when they isolated their talents. Following the publication of the paper on the function of output in the development of foreign languages, the use of writing exercises in integrated skills practice continued (Storch, 2005).

Teachers have been giving students' integrated skills to do particular tasks for a long time. Engaging students in integrated skill-learning undertakings helps them achieve good knowledge outcomes, develop a sense of concern, improve general skills like communication and project management, and lessen the long periods of silence (Oxford, 2001). If managed effectively, the integrated skills approach to learning also provides students with the chance to practice and improve their language abilities. For instance, students are estimated to collect evidence, take résumés, share and discuss their thoughts, attend to others, establish the ideas, and write the essay when using integrated skills in essence, integrated skills training uses four key language skills to help students develop their concentration abilities.

However, in EFL classes, especially in the study area, the integrated skills approach to education was overlooked. Students' work may become confused if they are unclear about the goals and expectations of the integrated skills work or if they doubt the fairness and validity of the method. Due to a lack of experience, the integrated skill method of teaching and learning work will be less operational and may even have a deleterious effect (Oxford, 2001).

According to a study by Tangpermpoon (2008) on the way integrated skills writing exercises were handled in the English textbook for grade 11, less emphasis was placed on them when it came to practice in EFL classes. As a result, it is apparent that integrated skill work has been poorly managed and that practice effort has decreased. In turn, this has an impact on quality and is leading to an increase in dependency, carelessness, discontent, and unfairness (Rahman & Akhter, 2017).

Studies on writing skills show that even while teachers and students both thought writing was important, writing instruction was ineffective and students' writing abilities were much lower than what was expected of them (Geremew, 1999; Italo, 1999; Meseret, 2012). Additionally, the researcher has seen the issue while instructing at high schools. In the research area, the situation was the worst. While it's wonderful that language skills are currently covered in textbooks, speaking, writing, listening, and reading instruction still needs more work (Yohannes, 2010).

Poorly written work produced by students, for instance, is indicative of a lack of skill development. Learning to write in a foreign language is more difficult by nature, and it takes a lot of time and works to write well (Meseret, 2012). However, writing has received less effort, time, and attention in Ethiopia, particularly in high schools. Grammar and vocabulary are often given a lot of attention in the classroom because they make up the majority of the language tested in English exams. Therefore, it is an undeniable truth that writing instruction needs to be reevaluated.

Although the concept of writing through integrated skills first surfaced half a century ago, there has been very little research done in this area (Tangpermpoon, 2008). Many of these studies examine how developing integrated skills in different situations affects one or more of the writing's multiple features (accuracy, fluency, complexity, and linguistic elements like content, grammar, vocabulary, organization, and mechanics) (ESL and EFL, discourse types, proficiency levels, groupings, etc) (Abera, 2017; Desalegn, 2011; Abdullah, 1995).

The results of this research are contradictory on many factors, and a few show that teaching writing using integrated skills has not been successful. For instance, a study by Al-Faoury (2012) on American college freshmen found a substantial difference in the overall writing abilities of the experimental and control groups. He claimed that the experimental group's overall writing had greatly improved.

Alnooh (2015) conducted a study on the elements of writing and found that writing with integrated skills improved the organization and content. In a study conducted in a language school in Egypt, Chandrasegaran (2013) found that the

experimental group significantly outperformed the control group in terms of mechanics and organization. The disparity between these research findings can be seen. This shows that more research in this area, particularly in the areas of vocabulary and grammar, is necessary to determine which components of writing may be improved the most by using a combination of skills.

According to research on writing that combined skills learned overseas with those used locally, the experimental group's content, organization, and mechanics were all greatly improved. The assessments were varied for each student because they had to write about any two of the four subjects for various discourses. Due to the fact that different types of compositions call for different scoring criteria in specific writing-related areas, this may have compromised the validity and reliability of the test. In conclusion, first, both national and international research on writing through integrated skills is lacking. Second, contradictory results from earlier studies in the field were found. Last but not least, the integrated skills approach to teaching writing has not helped the majority of students create respectable paragraphs. The researcher was inspired to carry out this investigation as a result of these issues.

As a result, this research might be seen as a contribution to the field and tested the subsequent theories:

HO - There is no discernible change in writing results among students who get standard instruction and those who receive instruction using integrated skills.

H1 - There is a substantial change in the writing scores among students who are trained as usual and writing through integrated skills.

II. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Design

A quasi-experimental study was undertaken with the intention of determining whether writing through integrated skills intervention improves students' writing abilities or not. This type of experiment was carried out since it greatly reduces unimportant elements. For instance, it makes it possible to have a class with an intact teacher and a group of students who complete identical duties, as a result, non-randomly dividing students into controller and experimental groups.

B. Applicants

The applicants of the experiment were 96 grade 11 students of 2022 academic year at Sekela high School.

III. DATA GATHERING INSTRUMENT - WRITING TEST

To achieve its goals, the study used quantitative data, primarily test results. As a result, pre-and post-paragraph writing assessments were made available. There was a circumstance, and 45 minutes were allowed for the discussion. The required word count for the paragraph was between 100 and 120. The instructions made it clear what would be considered when marking their texts. The before intervention-test was used as a device and to ensure that the group scores were comparable. The post-test was utilized to see if any changes had taken place.

Two English teachers from the 11th grade who had been instructed on the scoring criteria and whose ratings had their inter-rater reliability confirmed examined and scored the examinations (0.721).

A. The Marking Scale

The assessments were graded using an analytical scoring approach because the study's goal was to assess not only overall writing skills but also writing characteristics from vocabulary and grammar that focus on content, organization or structure, acceptability, meaning, and message address. The Test of English for Educational Purposes served as its inspiration (Alnooh, 2015). Constructing the marking principles less arbitrary and specific, uniting, and escaping zero measures are all parts of the adaptation. In other words, numbers are used in place of words like some, low, and frequently, and zero marks are given for grammar and vocabulary.

B. Training Material

There are various sections in the manual. The first section introduces the manual, the teaching promise form, and the training phase allotted. The second talks about the notion of supporting writing by using a variety of skills. This enables the trainees to become familiar with the strategy prior to its use. In order to support the writing exercises in the textbook, writing assignments, which primarily involved writing paragraphs, were produced and used during the experiment for both the control and experimental groups. The activities were mostly based on the English textbook for grade 11 since they allow students to practice writing in depth. Paragraphs were the main focus of the exercises. When the experimental group mastered the tasks using the strategy that promotes writing with integrated abilities, the control group learned using the traditional approach, which encourages writing alone.

IV. PROCEDURE

When the teaching materials, before-after test, and recording scales were first created, advisers then colleagues reviewed them. Second, ethical evaluations were done once the subjects had been chosen. Thirdly, when the pretest was

conducted, the Shapiro-Wilk test was used to determine if the pre-and post-test scores were regularly distributed (p, 0.56, 0.092, 0.295, and 0.405 > 0.05). The posttest was then administered, scored, and its results were compared to those during the pretest.

V. FINDINGS

Independent samples t-tests were conducted for both the overall writing and its component parts in order to test the hypotheses previously put forth. To determine how the treatments affected writing, the paired samples t-test was also computed.

TABLE 1
INDEPENDENT T-TEST OF WRITING PERFORMANCE

Test	Control			Experimental			D/f	t-value	p-value	Sign
	N	X	S.D	N	X	S.D				
Pre	48	8.33	2.668	48	8.83	2.493	94	-1.597	.121	Not Sign
Post	48	10.33	2.895	48	12.83	2.902	94	- 0.619	.039	Sign

Although there was a mean change of 0.50 among the groups in the pretest, the table shows that there is statistically no difference between them (p, 0.121 > 0.05) as a result of the t-test. This demonstrates that prior to the mediation, the groups' paragraph writing skills were more or less comparable. The results of the t-test revealed a substantial change among the controller and experimental groups (p, 0.039 0.05), and the post-test mean difference among the groups is 2.50, as indicated in the table. This implies that integrated skill treatments for writing have a more positive overall influence on learners' writing than conventional teaching strategies.

TABLE 2
PAIRED T-TEST OF WRITING PERFORMANCE

Group	Pre			Post			D/f	t-val- ue	p-value
	N	X	S.D	N	X	S.D			
Control	48	8.33	2.668	48	8.83	2.96	47	-5.22	0.094
Experimental	48	11.51	2.41	48	13.72	2.73	47	- 5.94	0.002

Although the mean scores indicate that the experimental group improved by 3.32 points on the posttest, which is better than the pretest, the statistics in the table indicate otherwise. As a result, the experimental group showed a significant difference (T = (47)=-4.895, P = 0.000, P<0.05). The mean score of the control group post, however, only increased by 0.50. This demonstrates that there was no difference in the pre-and t scores of the control group (t = -5.341, P = 0.094, P > 0.05)

TABLE 3
INDEPENDENT TESTS ON SAMPLES FOR WRITING ELEMENTS

Writing Components	Test	Control			Experimental			D/f	t- value	p- value
		N	X	S.D	N	X	S.D			
Content	Before	24	2.07	0.63	24	3.05	0.73	94	-3.473	0.33
	After	24	2.02	0.69	24	6.7	0.77	94	-3.443	0.034
Organization	Before	24	3.62	1.32	24	3.86	2.45	94	-0.909	0.43
	After	24	3.53	1.42	24	7.49	2.55	94	0.597	0.038
Acceptable	Before	24	2.03	0.45	24	3.09	0.39	94	-2.756	0.28
	After	24	2.25	0.41	24	7.28	0.49	94	-0.502	0.000
Meaningful	Before	24	1.62	0.43	24	2.99	0.56	94	-2.262	0.36
	After	24	1.72	0.34	24	6.89	0.57	94	-0.684	0.033
Address message	Before	24	1.81	0.51	24	2.83	0.61	94	0.22	0.42
	After	24	1.92	0.37	24	5.94	0.55	94	-2.031	0.024

The table demonstrates that there was no statistically significant difference between the groups' scores on any of the writing components prior to therapy (p, > 0.05). The control group and experimental groups were on the same page in terms of content (P = 0.33 > 0.05), organization (p, 0.43> 0.05), acceptance (p, 0.28> 0.05), meaningfulness (p, 0.36> 0.05), and address message (p, 0.42> 0.05). The experimental and control groups significantly differed from one another in all writing-related metrics following the intervention (p = 0.0340., 0.038, 0.000, 0.033, and 0.024 > 0.05).

Thus, it might be inferred that learning to write through integrated skills education has a stronger impact on developing writing elements like vocabulary and grammar in line with acceptable, meaningful, message-focused writing than traditional writing instruction.

TABLE 4
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST FOR WRITING COMPONENTS

Writing Components	Group	Pre			Post			D/f	t- value	p-value
		N	X	S.D	N	X	S.D			
Content	Control	24	2.69	0.83	24	3.05	0.78	23	-2.30	0.24
	Experimental	24	3.05	0.73	24	6.6	0.77	23	-3.41	0.003
Organization	Control	24	3.6	2.25	24	4.69	2.64	23	-5.21	0.33
	Experimental	24	3.80	2.45	24	7.49	2.55	23	-3.25	0.005
Acceptable	Control	24	2.96	0.52	24	3.23	0.45	23	-2.46	0.33
	Experimental	24	3.09	0.39	24	7.28	0.49	23	-1.00	0.044
Meaningful	Control	24	2.82	0.66	24	2.99	0.67	23	-1.45	0.27
	Experimental	24	2.99	0.56	24	6.87	0.58	23	-0.81	0.058
Address message	Control	24	2.85	0.48	24	2.83	0.52	23	0.59	0.76
	Experimental	24	2.83	0.60	24	5.94	0.55	23	-3.44	0.038

The results of the paired sample t-test in the table show that the experimental groups advanced significantly in all areas, 0.05), organization (t =-3.25, P = 0.005, P <0.05), acceptability (t =-1.00, P = 0.04, p < 0.05), meaningfulness (t =-.81, p = 0.05, p <0.05), and address message (t =-2.33, P = 0.029, P 0.05). The control groups, on the other hand, showed no improvement in the areas of content (t=-2.30, P=0.13>0.05), organization (t=5.21, P=.22>0.05), acceptability (t=2.46, P=.22>0.05), meaningfulness (t=.1.45, P=.16>0.05), and address message (t=-3.44, P=0.038, p<0.05). This could be a result of teacher-fronted instruction. There was no instruction that included integrated skills.

VI. DISCUSSION

The main point of this experimental training was to determine how integrated skills education in writing improved students' capacity to construct paragraphs. The independent samples pre-test revealed no appreciable variances among the control and experimental groups in either the general writing performance or the writing components. The results of the independent samples post-test revealed that there were important changes among the experimental and control groups in terms of both general writing performance and its piece performance. This suggests that learning to write through the integration of other skills is preferable to learning to write through the traditional method. The finding so refutes the competing theory. Al-Faoury's (2012) report, which found that writing with integrated abilities had a larger overall impact, is consistent with this conclusion.

According to the results of the paired sample t-test, the experimental groups dramatically improved their overall writing performance. After the intervention, it can be concluded that students' overall writing skills increased as a result of their better vocabulary and grammar. This supports the findings of Alnooh (2015), who found that writing through integrated skills has an impact on students' writing components in EFL writing classes, as the control group was unable to improve in vocabulary and grammar. These results show that, in EFL writing classes, writing through integrated skills has an impact on student writing, particularly on vocabulary and grammar.

VII. CONCLUSION

The findings of the independent samples t-test proved that improving students' writing abilities in the pre-test did not significantly differ between the experimental group and the control group. In contrast, the experimental and control groups significantly differed on the posttest when it came to improving students' writing abilities, particularly their vocabulary and grammar. The null hypothesis is therefore accepted. The paired sample t-test also discovered a statistically significant change in the writing abilities of experimental students following the intervention, particularly in terms of vocabulary and grammar. It should be beneficial to use writing through integrated skills in EFL classes when our focus is on vocabulary and grammar in particular, even if it generally has a bigger impact on students' writing performance.

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Fantahun K. Gutema was born On August 8, 1973, E.C., in Ethiopia. He received his first degree from Wollega University, Ethiopia in 2002 and his MA in TEFL from the same institution in 2006, respectively. He is currently a TEFL PhD student at Wollega University in Ethiopia. He also works for a few academic journal publishers as an editor and on editorial boards.

Sherif A. Ahimed is currently an Assistant Professor in the Department of Language Studies and Literature at Wollega University. He has BA in Philosophy; MA and PhD in TEFL from Addis Ababa University (AAU). He has 15 years of experience in teaching Philosophy and English. As a matter of fact, after getting his PhD degree award in 2014 GC, he has been engaged in different University affairs such as teaching, research and community engagements. He has taught various courses at undergraduate and postgraduate level (MA & PhD): TEFL 501, TEFL 502, TEFL 503, TEFL 504, TEFL 508, TEFL 604, and TEFL 605; and taught PhD courses in team teaching TEFL 701 Critical Thinking and Reading as well as TEFL 702 Advanced Research Methods (Quantitative Methods). Besides, he advised 121 (one hundred sixteen) MA students (116 of them completed & graduated) in the various study areas. Two PhD candidates completed their studies under his supervision.

Ebissa B. Abate established his BA in Foreign Languages and Literature (English) from Addis Ababa University (AAU) in 2004, and MA Degree in (ELT) in 2012 from Adama Science and Technology University (ASTU), Ethiopia, and PHD from Osmania University, India in 2017. He taught EFL at Nekemte Poly Technique College, Wollega, Ethiopia (2004-2010). He also served as senior media monitoring and analysis expert in Federal Government Communication Affairs Office of Ethiopia (2012-2014). Since 2010 he has been working as an Assistant Professor of English (ELT) in Wollega University. He has been teaching, researching and advising a number of MA and PhD candidates. His academic experience basically focuses on ELT.

Continuities or Change?: A Synchronic and Diachronic Analysis of Documented Language Policies of Selected Universities in South Africa

Busani Maseko
School of Languages, North-west University, Vanderbijlpark, South Africa

Liqhwa P. Siziba
School of Languages, North-West University, Vanderbijlpark, South Africa

Abstract—**In line with the requirements of Department of Higher Education and Training's language policy framework, universities in South Africa have crafted language policies that commit to promote multilingualism and contribute to the transformation of higher education. This article is an analysis of previous and current revised language policies of North-West University and Stellenbosch University in South Africa. By focusing on the wording and framing of language policy provisions in the past and present policy documents, we show that language policies of the two institutions have been characterised by continuities than change. Through a theorisation of language policy as a function of ideologies, practices and management, the article exposes how the institutions' language policies perpetuate the marginalisation and exclusion of indigenous language as languages of instruction and continue to legitimatise Afrikaans and English in varying degrees. While the language policies of the two institutions are full of promise to foster inclusive multilingual education, the wording of the policy provisions betrays the fallacy of this promise by the inclusion of caveats and conditions to be met for indigenous African languages to be used in teaching and learning. The article however notes the positive steps taken by the two historically Afrikaans medium universities to commit to multilingual education by the inclusion of African languages as potential languages of instruction. We conclude that further policy revisions are imperative to eliminate vague and escapist terminology that militates against the implementation and realisation of multilingualism as envisaged in the language policies of the two universities.**

Index Terms—**language policy, ideologies, South African Universities, African languages, multilingualism**

I. INTRODUCTION

Consistent with the language provisions in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa and various other pieces of legislation in education, South African universities have crafted institutional language policies that seek to, among other things, transform language use in universities and eliminate the language barrier in accessing university education (Drummond, 2016; Thamaga-Chitja & Mbatha, 2012). The language policy of South Africa is spelt out in several legal documents such as the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996), the Pan South African Language Board (PANSALB) Act (Act 59 of 1996); and the National Language Policy Framework (Department of Arts and Culture 2003). The documented language policy recognises as official, a total of 11 languages including English and Afrikaans. Read together, these language policy documents undertake to promote multilingualism and diversity by according 'parity of esteem' to the 11 languages. To this end, the 11 languages are supposed to enjoy equitable functional and institutional status (Docrat, 2020; Docrat & Kaschula, 2015; Drummond, 2016; Ndhlovu, 2008). To complement these legal provisions and to contribute to the transformation of post-Apartheid South Africa, the Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET) Language Policy Framework for Public Higher Education Institutions (DHET 2002 as amended in 2020) also commits to promote and entrench multilingualism by foregrounding previously disadvantaged African languages as Languages of Instruction (LOIs) in higher education institutions. The DHET policy acknowledges how language has posed a barrier of access to higher education because teaching and learning have been conducted in English and Afrikaans while the majority of learners are previously disadvantaged speakers of African languages (Drummond, 2016). As a response to these policy pronouncements, universities in South Africa enacted language policies that seek to contribute to this transformation drive (Rudwick, 2018). Although the South African language policy has been applauded as one of the most progressive, inclusive and transformative in the world (Docrat, 2020), scholars have argued that some of the language provisions are idealistic as far as they have remained unimplemented, thereby perpetuating a status quo which has resulted in English and Afrikaans retaining the defacto status of being the twin official languages (Drummond, 2016; Ndhlovu, 2008). This has further precipitated the decline of African languages in post-colonial and post-apartheid South Africa (Ndhlovu, 2008). Given the foregoing, university language policies have not been exempt from similar criticisms and have often been perceived as a reproduction of the macro

language policies and practices at the state level (Antia & van der Merwe, 2019; Drummond, 2016; Madadzhe, 2019). The mismatch and contradiction between policy and practice has often been cited as a point of weakness for many institutional language policies. As it is with the documented national language policy, institutional policies have been criticised for being awash with various caveats (Docrat & Kaschula, 2015; Drummond, 2016; Kaschula, 2016) and escape clauses (Bamgbose, 1991) that insulate authorities from accountability and implementation imperatives (Kaschula, 2016). This misnomer has therefore meant that universities have to continuously review their language policies to align them with the prevailing language demands through space and time (Antia & van der Merwe, 2019).

Drawing on the theorisations of language policy as a function of language ideologies, language practices and language management (Spolsky, 2004, 2009), this paper analyses language policies of the North-West University (NWU) and Stellenbosch University (SU) (publicly available on the institutions' websites) to show how the previous and current language policies of the two institutions are characterised by continuities and inheritance (Makalela & McCabe, 2013) rather than change. The chosen cases are interesting in the sense that, while both are Historically White Universities (HWU), their initial language policy responses were informed by different ideologies and dispositions towards multilingualism and multilingual education. In this paper, HWU is a designation for those universities that previously enrolled white students only (Makalela & McCabe, 2013). It is also used as a synonym for Afrikaans medium universities, usually contrasted with Historically Black English Medium Universities (Mwaniki, 2012). NWU and SU recently published their revised language policies. Given the criticism and scepticism previously levelled on most university language policies concerning their commitment to transformation and inclusion (Drummond, 2016; Makalela & McCabe, 2013; Pillay & Yu, 2015) the present paper is a critical analysis of both the previous and recently revised language policies of NWU and SU to reveal the extent of changes that have occurred in the policy provisions and their implications for the success of multilingualism, and in particular, the inclusion of indigenous African languages in teaching and learning. For NWU, significant steps to include Sesotho and Setswana in the curriculum as languages of Instruction (LOIs) have been noted in the previous policy while the previous SU language policies seemed to foreground Afrikaans as an academic language (Antia & Dyers, 2016; Leibowitz, 2015; Leibowitz & van Deventer, 2007) with English and isiXhosa being embraced to give a semblance of transformation and inclusion (Docrat, 2020; Rudwick, 2018). However, there is still a lot of work that remains to be done, even for NWU as it is with other institutions across the country for the implementation of African languages as media of instruction. For most parts, the mismatch between the documented policies and actual practices is mediated by the absence of broad-based considerations of the sociolinguistic, economic and political factors (Maseko, 2021). These factors engender language ideologies that inform the preference for Afrikaans and English in the university business at large, consequently diminishing the intended transformative educational outcomes for African language-speaking learners (Maseko, 2021; Thamaga-Chitja & Mbatha, 2012).

Methodologically, this article deploys content analysis to identify and make sense of the changes and continuities characteristic of the previous and current revised language policies of NWU and SU. In particular, we pay attention to the wording of the policy provisions to draw conclusions regarding their commitment to realise the promise of inclusive multilingualism by the two institutions. Although documented language policies do not always translate to conforming practices (Spolsky, 2004), the wording and framing of provisions are important as they reveal the underlying dispositions and ideologies of those in authority towards multilingualism, inclusion, and ultimately, the transformation of the higher education sector in South Africa.

While this article focuses on the language policies of the named institutions, we are certainly not averse to the fact that mechanics of language policy and macro-level language ideologies have implications for language policies and practices in universities. We therefore follow up in the next session, with a cursory discussion of the politics of language policy in South Africa in order to locate the paper in its broader context.

II. THE POLITICS OF LANGUAGE POLICY IN SOUTH AFRICA

The language policy of South Africa is anchored on several documents among which are, the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996), the PANSALB Act (Act 59 of 1996); and the National Language Policy Framework (Department of Arts and Culture 2003) the Use of Official Languages Act (2012) and various other pronouncements on language use at different levels of education and the judiciary services (Docrat, 2020). The language policy of South Africa, a product of multipronged efforts from various stakeholders under the stewardship of the Language Plan Task Group (LANGTAG) has received rave reviews as the most democratic and inclusive document in the world (Ndhlovu, 2008). In line with the founding values and ideals of the South African Constitution, the language policy seeks to promote national unity within the country's linguistic and cultural diversity, to entrench democracy and foster the protection of language rights, to promote respect for, and tolerance towards linguistic and cultural diversity, to promote multilingualism, to contribute to the elaboration and modernisation of African languages and to promote national economic development broadly (Department of Arts and Culture, 2003). While the language policy provisions promise to treat all languages equitably by affording them 'parity of esteem' (Docrat & Kaschula, 2015), visible language practices have tended to betray the fallacy of this promise (Drummond, 2016; Mwaniki, 2012). Concerning section 6 of the Constitution, the linguistic provisions have been criticised for being contradictory, messy and non-committal insofar as they are practically unimplementable to achieve the envisaged 'parity of esteem' especially with respect to

historically underprivileged African languages (Docrat, 2020; Docrat & Kaschula, 2015; Drummond, 2016; Makalela & McCabe, 2013; Ndhlovu, 2008). While the Constitution identifies 11 official languages, among which nine are indigenous African languages, language policy and practices in official spaces continue to ameliorate and legitimise English and Afrikaans. This has resulted in African languages remaining peripheral and marginalised. Consequently, there have been frequent protestations from speakers of African languages on the marginality of their languages in post-apartheid South Africa. Ndhlovu (2008) suggests that the argument for the inclusion of African languages in mainstream and official domains is only a strategy employed by pro-English elites to challenge the resurgence of Afrikaans. He, therefore, questions the sincerity of the constitutional provisions on languages given this observation. Similar concerns have been expressed by other scholars (Docrat & Kaschula, 2015; Drummond, 2016; Kaschula, 2016).

In line with the devolved South African political governance system, the language policy management structure is similarly decentralised. The language policy empowers different levels of government to make localised decisions regarding language use. To this end, language policy decisions are made at either the national, provincial or local government levels (Ndhlovu, 2008). This provides opportunities for robust participation of local communities and encourages bottom-up agency in language policy decisions. However, the opportunities presented by the devolution of language policy decisions for the historically marginalised languages have thus far been missed because English and Afrikaans have remained the dominant languages of communication in education, government and business generally (Docrat, 2020; Makalela & McCabe, 2013; Ndhlovu, 2008). According to Docrat and Kaschula (2015), the constitutional provisions in section 6(1) and 6(2) which seek to cement the equality of languages by obligating the government to prioritise historically marginalised African languages are undone by the lack of clarity regarding implementation. For example, section 6(3) fails to categorically articulate how this equality is to be achieved and leaves room for variations in the implementation of these provisions. Section 6(3) (a) states that "the national government and provincial governments may use any particular two official languages for the purposes of government, taking into account usage, practicality, expense, regional circumstances and the balance of the needs and preferences of the population" (Republic of South Africa, 1996). A critical appraisal of the above provisions shows that they leave room for multiple interpretations and variations in implementation. The wording of these provisions is not categorical and exposes them to discretionary implementation (Docrat, 2020; Docrat & Kaschula, 2015; Drummond, 2016) since issues of 'practicality', 'expense' and 'regional circumstances' are subjective. This has resulted in the perpetuation of the status quo (Drummond, 2016; Makalela & McCabe, 2013; Mkhize & Balfour, 2017). Further, "this flexibility has resulted in a default situation where English and Afrikaans are adopted as the two official languages alongside another of the official languages" (Docrat & Kaschula, 2015, p. 1). Akin to most language policies in other African countries, some sections of the South African language policy are characterised by vagueness and the use of escapist terminology (Bamgbose 1991). As a result, "actual patterns of language use in […] South Africa […] show that these rosy ideals have remained a far cry from comprehensive and implementable policy frameworks"(Ndhlovu, 2008, p. 62).

For the purposes of this paper, a cursory discussion of the language policy provisions in the South African Constitution was imperative to locate the study within the broader context of language planning and language policy in South Africa. In this section, we have argued that while the language policy of South Africa has been described as progressive, transformative and democratic among other superlatives, the pronouncements made in the policy documents have not been implemented to the satisfaction of, especially the speakers of historically marginalised African languages. Language practices continue to ameliorate English and Afrikaans in varying degrees, to the detriment of African languages. In the next section, we discuss the paper's theoretical underpinnings.

III. LANGUAGE POLICY IN SOUTH AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES: AT THE INTERSECTION OF IDEOLOGIES, PRACTICES AND MANAGEMENT

At all levels of society, language policy is underpinned by a set of three interrelated components, identified as; language ideologies, language practices and language management (Spolsky, 2004, 2009). In this article, we draw on this theorisation of language policy to make sense of the past and recently revised language policies of NWU and SU. Relatedly, we interrogate the language ideologies behind the two institutions' documented language policies to understand how they are linked to broader national and societal language ideologies and concomitantly reflected in the institutions' commitment to embracing multilingualism by infusing African languages into teaching, learning and the conducting of university business at large. Language ideologies are the beliefs shared by speakers about appropriate language practices. These beliefs oftentimes form consensual behaviours and assign values and prestige to various aspects of the language(s) used in a community (Spolsky, 2004). Ideologies are "what people think should be done" (Spolsky, 2004, p. 14) about language. Language ideologies, therefore, refer to "a shared body of common-sense notions about the nature of language in the world, including cultural assumptions about language, the nature and purpose of communication" (Tollefson, 2000, p. 43). In this thinking, language ideologies imply that in a multilingual setting, different languages are valued differently depending on the beliefs speakers hold about them (Razfar, 2005; Spolsky, 2009). These beliefs are never innocent nor neutral but are always situated within specific social, historical and political contexts and contestations (Kiramba, 2018; Razfar, 2005). Ideologies can either reproduce or challenge systems of social difference by classifying and ranking speakers who use certain languages or language varieties (Bourdieu, 1991). For example, the 'legitimate language' ideology is inextricably associated with players in the politics

of state formation and is usually reproduced in educational institutions which are capable of imposing the 'legitimate language' to normalise their political domination (Bourdieu, 1991).

Language practices refer to the regular and predictable behaviours of choosing a language or languages among a set of alternatives by members of a community for use in specific domains (Ren & Hu, 2013). They are "the habitual pattern of selecting among the varieties that make up its linguistic repertoire" (Spolsky, 2004, p. 5). In terms of language policy in universities, language practices are the language choices and decisions that universities make for teaching and learning and conducting business. They are what universities actually do, rather than what they believe must be done (Ren & Hu, 2013; Spolsky, 2004). On the other hand, language management as one component of language policy refers to the explicit efforts by someone or a group that has, or claims to have authority over the participants in a named domain to impose, modify, adapt or influence the language practices of the less powerful in that domain (Spolsky, 2009). In this study, language management therefore denotes the nuanced interventions deployed by university authorities as 'language managers' to influence language ideologies and practices of students, staff and other stakeholders.

The three components of language policy discussed above influence each other in reciprocal ways (Ren & Hu, 2013). For example, although language ideologies do not constitute practices, they influence language practices in that languages which are valued by society are also legitimated in high domains such as education. Conversely, those that are devalued by society are condemned to marginality. This means that even if documented university language policies may proclaim African languages as languages of instruction, broader societal language ideologies may still valorise English or Afrikaans, resulting in contradictory practices in the university systems.

Studies have shown that despite the seemingly progressive nature of South African language policy, complemented in higher education by the language policy provisions in the Language Policy Framework for Public Higher Education Institutions (DHET, 2002, as amended in 2020) which seek to generously promote multilingualism in institutions, language practices are still skewed towards the use of English and Afrikaans in varying degrees (Antia & van der Merwe, 2019; Drummond, 2016; Dyers & Abongdia, 2015; Makalela & McCabe, 2013; Pillay & Yu, 2015). In other contexts, studies suggest that language ideologies are central to the reproduction of inequalities or their contestations, especially in education (Dyers & Abongdia, 2015; Kiramba, 2018).

In South African universities, language policy pronouncements intersect with the general government's ideology of inclusion, transformation and the drive towards embracing cultural diversity as a redress to the inequalities occasioned by the country's colonial and apartheid history. The language policy framework for higher education thus spells out the need for institutional language policies and practices to address these historical imbalances and social injustices created by this historical period (Dyers & Abongdia, 2015; Mwaniki, 2012; van der Merwe, 2022). It acknowledges that "language has been and continues to be a barrier to access and success in higher education" (DHET, 2002, p. 4) because the majority of learners are not proficient in English or Afrikaans. Therefore as a starting point, inclusion is the rallying ideology that seeks to promote multilingualism by propelling African languages to the position of being LOIs in higher learning institutions (Thamaga-Chitja & Mbatha, 2012). The foregoing however reveals that language practices in higher learning institutions tend to contradict these explicit ideologies by perpetuating the inheritance situation where colonial languages continue to dominate as LOIs (Makalela & McCabe, 2013; Pillay & Yu, 2015). The political and economic power that resides within the speakers of English and Afrikaans is implicated in these practices. Therefore, the contentious factors related to the history of language status, legitimacy, authority, and power mediate language practices in most institutions (Dyers & Abongdia, 2015; Razfar, 2005). Commenting on language practices in the broader South African context, Ndhlovu observes that,

> unlike in the apartheid era where racial or ethnic difference was the underpinning ideology of linguistic imperialism and cultural domination, the hidden language policy of post-apartheid South Africa is premised on perceived social or political class differences. The ruling political elites and the intellectuals appear to have an insatiable appetite for the English language to a point where the African official languages have been essentialised as identity markers for the less educated subaltern (Ndhlovu, 2008, p. 65).

The above notwithstanding, the language policy for higher education acknowledges that a move to full multilingualism is not going to be easy, and that the country might have to contend with the status quo for some time until African languages have developed enough to be used in higher education (Drummond, 2016). This disposition does not inspire confidence in African languages, as it reads like a veiled capitulation to the dominance of colonial languages and an admission that African languages are below standard. Although some language policy scholars paint a bleak picture regarding the implementation of multilingual education in universities, notable strides have been made in some institutions such as the University of Kwazulu Natal (UKZN). The implementation of isiZulu as an additional LOI and a compulsory language course across all curricula is a laudable positive step in that regard (Kamwendo et al., 2014; Kaschula, 2016; Pillay & Yu, 2015). Other universities are also following closely, with various efforts at using indigenous languages being visible at Rhodes University, the University of Limpopo and the University of South Africa (UNISA) (Madadzhe, 2019). At Rhodes University, students enrolled for Journalism must pass isiXhosa as a language subject while the University of Limpopo offers a course in Multilingual Studies in both English and Northern Sotho. UNISA has also begun offering its programmes in both English and African languages including translating some of its courses from English into African languages (Madadzhe, 2019).

IV. A SYNCHRONIC AND DIACHRONIC APPRAISAL OF LANGUAGE POLICIES

A. A Critical Overview of Past and Current NWU Language Policies

The previous language policy of NWU which was approved and adopted in November 2018 has recently been revised and adopted in June 2022 in line with policy stipulations. In this section, we provide a critical comparative analysis of the two versions of the policy documents to expose the nature of changes that have occurred and their implications to the implementation of multilingual education. While both the 2018 and the 2022 language policies of NWU commit to respond to the multilingual realities of the university's three campuses, the 2022 revised policy sets off by making explicit reference to an expanded set of legal frameworks, statutes and documents forming the basis for its interpretation and application. In this regard, Section 1 of the language policy (NWU, 2022, p. 1) cites the following expanded list of documents as being central:
- The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996
- The Higher Education Act, 101 of 1997
- The Statute of the North-West University
- The White Paper for Post-School Education and Training of 2013
- Language Policy Framework for Public Higher Education Institutions (2020)
- National Curriculum Statement: Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement Grade R–12 (2010)
- Pan South African Language Board Act, 59 of 1995
- National Development Plan (NDP)
- Relevant policies and rules as provided by the University Council

The previous 2018 language policy makes explicit reference only to the first three documents in this updated list. The drive to foster functional multilingualism in the University's three campuses (Mafikeng, Vaal Triangle and Potchefstroom) remains the guiding principle of the revised language policy of NWU. In the policy, functional multilingualism means that "the choice of a particular language in a particular situation is determined by the situation or context in which it is used" (NWU, 2022, p.1). Both the 2018 and the revised 2022 language policies are alive to the multilingual realities of South Africa and the marginalised status of African languages in South African higher education institutions. They, therefore, foreground the intellectualisation of African languages as a central concern in their articulation. According to NWU (2022, p. 1), intellectualisation of African languages refers to,

> a language planning programme whereby the university's African languages of choice are developed and implemented to be languages for administrative, teaching and research purposes, but in particular to measures designed to ensure the scholarly use of the languages in such a way that it fosters the academic self-respect and values regardless of language preferences

Both policy documents purport to give effect to the use of Afrikaans, English, Setswana and Sesotho "as the university's languages of choice" (NWU, 2018, p.1) in teaching and learning as well as in public communication and administration (NWU, 2022). The inclusion of Sesotho and Setswana as potential languages of instruction alongside Afrikaans and English in the policy is a laudable move which, if implemented, could contribute to the intellectualisation of African languages agenda. To this end, several sections of the revised language policy reflect this commitment. Section 5 of the 2022 revised policy purports to place the four languages on an equal footing, where the four languages are identified as the languages of choice that should be "acquired, learned and developed" (NWU, 2022, p.1). However, a close reading of both the 2018 and the revised 2022 language policy reveals that the commitment to develop Setswana and Sesotho is likely to be hampered by certain caveats and conditions in the provisions. For example, sub-section 5.4 states that the two languages are to be developed "without the diminishment of the use of English and Afrikaans" (NWU, 2022, p. 2). Effectively, this caveat ensures a safe space for English and Afrikaans in the university. Conversely, it diminishes the use of Setswana and Sesotho which are to be used and developed for international partnerships only when "it is practicable". While the foregoing is well motivated, given their limited international reach, it would seem that the underlying intention is to protect and further legitimise Afrikaans and English. Notably, there is no explicitly corresponding proclamation to protect Setswana and Sesotho in the local university spaces. Moreover, the principle of "functional multilingualism" is ill-defined in the policy. This poses a prohibiting barrier to the development and use of Setswana and Sesotho in the core business of the institution. It is likely to restrict their use to contexts outside the classroom and precipitate the further entrenchment of English as the compromise default language of instruction ostensibly to accommodate learners from diverse linguistic backgrounds. The "functional multilingualism" and the "where practicable" caveats can also be used as escape clauses and alibis by university authorities and a recourse to inaction and non-implementation of policy provisions (Docrat & Kaschula, 2015; Drummond, 2016).

Despite the apparent weaknesses in its provisions, the revised NWU language policy is a promising document which recognises and commits to champion multilingualism in all facets of university, including in its conduct of business with external stakeholders. It, therefore, addresses the language question beyond teaching, learning and research by extending the principle of functional multilingualism to language practices involving external stakeholders. Further, as part of language management, the policy commits to entrench and support multilingual pedagogical approaches such as translanguaging to ensure that the university's languages of choice are used as overlapping systems to foster learning. This is particularly important, given the transformative potential of translanguaging and its ability to challenge the

legitimate language and the monolingual ideologies in education (Creese & Blackledge, 2011; Seals & Olsen-Reeder, 2020; Barros et al., 2021; Burton & Rajendram, 2019). The legitimation of translanguaging by the NWU language policy is therefore a commendable step toward embracing multilingual pedagogies. If comprehensively implemented, translanguaging could create breathing spaces for Sesotho and Setswana in teaching and learning. The concept of breathing spaces implies that opportunities are consciously created to normalise the use of dominant and non-dominant societal languages alongside each other as a legitimate teaching strategy (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017, 2022).

B. A Critical Overview of Past and Current SU Language Policies

The previous language policy of SU was adopted in June 2016 and subsequently revised and approved in December 2021 for implementation in January 2022. The revised language policy also cites several documents to which it relates and is intended to be read with. These are cited by SU (2022, pp. 14-15) as follows:

- Conceptual Framework Document for Academic literacies at Stellenbosch University, 2020
- Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996
- Disability Access Policy, 2018
- Higher Education act 101 of 1997, as amended
- Language Policy Framework for Public Higher Education Institutions, 2020
- Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act 4 of 2000
- Uses of Official Languages Act 12 of 2012
- SU Relation: Language committee of Council, 2016
- SU mandate of the Language Planning and Management Advisory Committee (yet to be drafted)

Pertinent to this development in the revised SU language policy is that it also affirms that institutional language policies do not operate in a vacuum but are influenced by language ideologies circulating in the macro spaces beyond it. Like the previous 2016 language policy, it explicitly identifies institutional and government policy documents on which it draws and relates. This is important as an attempt to locate the language policy within the broader national ideologies of transformation and inclusion in post-apartheid South African Society. The net effect of this would be to inspire a more elaborated preamble of the policy that captures a broader essence. Part of the preamble in the 2022 revised language policy reads:

> The Language Policy aims to give effect to section 29(2) of the South African Constitution and to the Language Policy Framework for Public Higher Education Institutions (2020) in relation to language usage in the university's academic, administrative, professional and social contexts. The Policy aims to increase equitable access to SU for all students and staff, promote multilingualism and the appreciation thereof, and facilitate pedagogically sound learning and teaching (SU, 2022, p. 1).

As a departure from the previous policies, the revised policy is generally more elaborated and considered. Central to this elaboration is the explicit mention of the commitment and promise to promote multilingualism in general and the inclusion of isiXhosa as a language of teaching and learning in the university in particular, including the mechanics of operationalisation. This is particularly encouraging, given that isiXhosa, the predominant indigenous language spoken within the precincts of the SU was previously given the briefest treatment in the previous policy documents. A closer look at the previous language policy reveals how its wording was intended to entrench the use of Afrikaans as the primary language of instruction at SU. The previous language policies of SU committed to entrenching Afrikaans as a language of teaching and learning on the basis that it "has developed an academic repertoire over decades" (SU, 2016, p. 2). The insinuation here is that; when pitted against indigenous African languages, Afrikaans is miles ahead in terms of intellectualisation. Several sections of the previous policy animate and feed this disposition. In the past, the preference for Afrikaans as the sole LOI at SU was on the grounds that its speakers constituted a majority among students and staff (Leibowitz, 2015; Leibowitz & van Deventer, 2007) and that its long history of standardisation and use in the academy imbued it with a potential to empower a broad and diverse community of people (SU, 2016). However, in the revised 2022 policy, one gets a sense that English and Afrikaans are given primacy in varying degrees. In its treatment of Afrikaans for example, the revised language policy continues to justify foregrounding it as an academic language due to its international flair and appeal:

> Afrikaans is an international language that has developed a substantial academic repertoire across a variety of disciplines to which SU has contributed significantly. Proficiency in Afrikaans also aids internationalisation, as it opens doors for learning and research with some of the University's most solid academic partnerships in the Netherlands and Belgium (SU, 2022, p. 3).

By projecting Afrikaans as a language with the potential to foster internationalisation of the university in knowledge production, a trait that indigenous languages have been claimed to lack (Dyers & Abongdia, 2015; Madadzhe, 2019; van der Merwe, 2022), this ideology adds to its legitimation as an academic language alongside English and subsequently backgrounds isiXhosa within SU language practices. While the 2022 revised language policy commits to the use of Afrikaans, English and isiXhosa as "a means of empowering large and diverse communities" (SU, 2022, p. 3), the provisions on language use in the core business of teaching and learning at SU betrays the sincerity of this commitment. Notably, wherever Afrikaans and English are mentioned, the wording of the provisions is categorical, unambiguous and imperative. On the other hand, where isiXhosa is mentioned, there are always conditions attached to its usage. In sections that address teaching, learning and research, Afrikaans and English are prescribed as primary

languages while isiXhosa is an appendage or an afterthought whose use is conditional and discretionary. The policy provisions under Section 7 and its subsections further entrench the primacy of Afrikaans and English as languages of learning and teaching albeit with variations of contexts under which they should be used. The following animate this point. There is a further explicit commitment to support students to use Afrikaans and English as a way to facilitate learning through consultations, tutorials and practicals. The section also commits to ensuring that all lectures are conveyed "at least in English and summaries or emphasis on content are also given in Afrikaans" (SU, 2022, p. 6). In addition, where lecturers are only proficient in either Afrikaans or English, simultaneous interpretation is to be provided either in English or Afrikaans depending on the language of the lecturer. The policy provisions also entrench the primacy of the two languages by making it imperative that prescribed reading material, module frameworks and study guides are availed in Afrikaans and English (SU, 2022). The foregoing shows that while the previous policies sought to entrench Afrikaans monolingualism at SU, the revised 2022 policy is skewed towards Afrikaans-English bilingualism as a climb down from an Afrikaans-only monolingual ideology.

V. CONDITIONAL AND DISCRETIONARY IMPLEMENTATION OF AFRICAN LANGUAGES AT NWU AND SU: A CASE OF 'EXCLUSION BY INCLUSION?'

What is apparent thus far is that while the language policies of NWU and SU purport to promote multilingualism, a critical reading reveals that the provisions are fraught with caveats and conditions that have to be met before African languages can be used in various domains of the university. On the contrary, Afrikaans and English are not subjected to similar conditional and discretionary implementation. The following curious questions therefore materialise. Could this be a case of 'exclusion by inclusion?' In other words, is the mention of Sesotho and Setswana in the NWU policy and isiXhosa in the SU policy a sincere drive towards inclusion and transformation, or are they simply listed in the policies merely to service public relations and politics rather than as a reflection of a deep-seated commitment to promote and intellectualise them? These are critical questions that language policy scholars and other stakeholders must engage with going forward.

As the paper has unraveled, analyses of the wording of certain sections of the policies tend to expose the insincerity of their commitment. What is likely to happen is that isiXhosa will remain a peripheral language of teaching and learning at SU as long as its usage remains conditional. To further animate this point, the requirement that isiXhosa is used "in some cases […] for self-directed learning, the further reinforcement of concepts and revision" (SU, 2022, P. 7) suffices. Concerning isiXhosa, further escapist and vague terminology is used in the policy. IsiXhosa is permissible in teaching and learning only when it is "reasonably practicable", when it is "pedagogically sound" or when there is a "pedagogical need" (SU, 2022). The net effect of these caveats and conditions is to subordinate isiXhosa to Afrikaans and English and to present it as subservient to the two at SU. These ideologies relegate isiXhosa to a language of revision rather than a primary language of teaching and learning.

The requirement that the use of isiXhosa be well motivated casts aspersions and doubts on its potential to encode and disseminate scientific knowledge. On the other hand, Afrikaans is legitimised by the policy as a scientific language to be used across the University for teaching, research and symposia among other functions (SU, 2022). These conditions constitute escape clauses whose consequence is to permit discretionary implementation and therefore insulate responsible university authorities from answering 'hard questions' relating to implementation. Terms such as "reasonably practicable", "pedagogically sound" and "pedagogical need" are relative descriptors that leave the policy open to multiple interpretations and provide an escape route from accountability.

A commendable strategy in the NWU policy is the move to establish "flagship programmes" to serve as springboards for "the development and implementation of an African language as language of teaching and learning" (NWU, 2022, p. 1). However promising this innovation, as a language management strategy it remains ill-defined and rudimentarily developed to explain how it is to be operationalised. There is no effort to elaborate on how Setswana and Sesotho are to be used in the flagship programmes. This notwithstanding, the idea is a noble innovation that could mainstream Sesotho and Setswana as academic languages at NWU.

VI. CONTINUITIES OR CHANGE?

The analyses of language policies of NWU and SU reveal more continuities than change. These continuities are often punctuated by a replication of the linguistic provisions in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) and the National Language Policy Framework (Department of Arts and Culture, 2003). The revised language policies of NWU and SU still contain caveats that make the implementation of African languages conditional and discretionary. These reproduce escape clauses in the constitution and the language policy framework. Consequently, the wording of the provisions affirms the view that language policies are never innocent of the play of power and that ideologies circulating at the national level often find expression in institutional language policies. Contestations between English, Afrikaans and indigenous African languages continue to characterise language policies of the two institutions under focus in this article. This is not unexpected, however, as it has been shown that language policy is often power inflected and is never neutral and transparent (Maseko, 2021; Shohamy, 2007). This state of affairs is not unique to the NWU and

SU, and certainly not to South Africa generally, but pervades the African continent and the post-colonial states generally.

The wording of the language provisions in the NWU and SU language policies typify and reproduce a deliberate avoidance strategy, deployed by most post-independence African governments to lighten the burden of accountability when implementation fails (Bamgbose 1991; Shohamy 2003). As the foregoing has argued, continuities in most language policies perpetuate the preponderance of Afrikaans and English as languages of teaching and learning at NWU and SU. Similar continuities have been noted in language policies of other South African universities (Antia & van der Merwe, 2019; Drummond, 2016; Makalela & McCabe, 2013) as well as in language policies of other post-colonial African states (Hungwe, 2007; Makoni et al., 2006; Maseko, 2021).

At this point, it is prudent to note that the wording of the language policies of NWU and SU is ideological and legitimates English and Afrikaans in varying degrees. This inheritance situation (Makalela & McCabe, 2013) pervades spaces beyond higher education institutions in South Africa. The inclusion of indigenous languages in university language policies can be viewed as half-hearted, since the policy provisions neither categorically implore their use, nor sanction their neglect. In the absence of provisions for recourse, there is a real danger that African languages will continue to play a subservient role in teaching and learning. The office of the Language Ombud which is advocated for in the language policy of NWU does not appear sufficiently empowered enough to decisively act against violations of the language policies. Despite the central role of the Language Ombud in addressing violations and variations of policy, the NWU language policy accords it peripheral treatment without elaborating on the precise mechanics of reporting violations and channels for recourse. The NWU should nevertheless be commended for the move towards establishing the Language Ombud office.

For SU, the climb-down from its previous stance to promote a monolingual Afrikaans ideology to a commitment to promote multilingualism at SU is a welcome change. Although seemingly cosmetic and intended to give a semblance of inclusion, the visibility and frequent mention of isiXhosa throughout the policy document is particularly encouraging and could signal an important shift by SU towards genuine inclusion of African languages in the curriculum. Dismantling monolingual ideologies in higher education institutions through language policies is never an easy enterprise as it means dismantling the structures and systems responsible for their perpetuation. Language policies are similarly power inflected and reveal contestations between the elite and the subaltern. As such the acknowledgment that a movement towards full multilingualism in higher education institutions will not be easy (DHET, 2002) is not a farfetched assessment of the state of affairs. A continuous review of the university language policies is therefore imperative to incrementally recalibrate the linguistic ecology of universities for the realisation of a transformed higher education system in South Africa.

VII. CONCLUSION

This article analysed the previous and recently revised languages policies of North-West University and Stellenbosch University. The two are Historically White Afrikaans medium universities in South Africa which have recently revised their institutional language policies in line with the Language Policy Framework for Public Higher Education Institutions (DHET, 2020). Through a diachronic and synchronic analysis, the article focused on those policy provisions that have implications for the use of previously disadvantaged indigenous African languages to expose the extent of changes that have occurred in the language policy pronouncements of the two universities. By drawing on the theorisations on language policy as responsive to ideologies, practices and management (Spolsky, 2004, 2009), our analyses of the past and revised language policies of NWU and SU reveal a legacy of continuities more than change. Central to these continuities is the perpetuation of Afrikaans and English as the legitimate languages of teaching and learning at the two institutions. Although the policies of the two institutions offer a promise of inclusion, by embracing multilingualism, the wording of certain sections of their policies betrays the sincerity of this promise. In particular, provisions relating to the use of indigenous African languages in the two institutions are left open to multiple interpretations insofar as they are less categorical and imperative. As read from the policy provisions, conditional implementation of African languages as languages of teaching and learning shows that language policies are never innocent of the play of power. The economic and political power that resides in the Afrikaans and English-speaking elite tends to result in the attendant structural inequalities being reproduced in institutional language policies. However, there appears to be a change of attitude towards African languages and their potential to contribute to the transformation of higher education in South Africa as discerned from the two HWU's stances toward the 'multilingualism turn' in higher education. There is however a need for a continuous review of institutional language policies until multilingual education becomes a reality than merely a public relations and political rhetoric.

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Busani Maseko is a Post-Doctoral Research Fellow in the School of Language at North-West University in South Africa. He holds a Ph.D. in Languages and Linguistics from the University of South Africa. His research interests are in the areas of language planning and policy, language and identity, language and social justice and sociolinguistics broadly.

Liqhwa P. Siziba is an Associate Professor and Director of the School of Languages at North-West University in South Africa. She holds a Ph.D. in Languages from the University of Fort Hare. She has a keen interest in supervising and mentoring young academics and postgraduate students in her area of expertise. Her research interests are in multilingual pedagogies, translanguaging, academic literacies and language policy and planning.

Blogging as an Integrative Technology to Improve Language Proficiency: An Investigative Study Among Engineering Students in India

Vijay P

Department of English, School of Social Sciences and Languages, Vellore Institute of Technology, Vellore – 632014, India

Vijayakumar M*

Department of English, School of Social Sciences and Languages, Vellore Institute of Technology, Vellore – 632014, India

Abstract—**Technology has become an inevitable part of learning these days and the popularity of blogs and web forums is increasing exponentially. The purpose of blogging is to encourage discussions on a particular topic or concept, thereby throwing more light on the point of discussion. These discussions generally focus on knowledge sharing and acquiring, but in a way, they help the participants and the readers to enhance their language skills like listening, reading, writing, grammar, and vocabulary both directly and indirectly. The present study consolidates the opinions of the researcher about the use of blogs as educational technology and the opinions of the learners about the role of blogs in their language learning aspects. The result shows that blogs have a considerable impact on one's language proficiency.**

Index Terms—**blogging, e-learning, online learning, language learning, technology-enabled learning, vocabulary enrichment, weblogs**

I. Introduction

'Blog' is the short form of weblog. The one who creates or maintains a blog is called a blogger and the act of sharing information through blogs is called blogging. A blog is a webpage that is used to convey information, communicate one's viewpoints, and discuss a common idea or concept. All these communications and exchange of information are shown in a reverse sequential order which enables the users to look at recent updates. A blog can be used for texting, sharing pictures, audio, and video files. Even the links to other blogs and websites can be sent through blogs. Blogs can be used exclusively for teaching-learning purposes. Any information can be communicated to the students from the teacher's desk at his convenience. Discussions, exchange of ideas, and sharing of learning materials are possible not only between the teacher and the students but also among the teachers. Language teachers and learners can use these blogs constructively for the purpose of learning a language alone. Especially, in an English language classroom, it can be effectively utilised to develop one's language proficiency. Poth (2017) writes in an article published in *Kidblog* that using blogs in a "foreign language classroom has proven to be an imperative tool for promoting student's voice and enhancing communication and collaboration" (p. 1). The foregoing paragraphs analyse the possibilities of learning language skills using blogs and the opinion of bloggers about language learning.

II. Need for the Study

Blogs provide the learners a lot of opportunities for autonomous learning which helps them to have wider possibilities for learning. Also, they provide potential online instructional resources. Apart from that, using technology in a language classroom is becoming the order of the day as conventional classrooms are replaced by virtual learning environments and blogs serve the purpose. Many a research work has proved that "digital fluency is a prerequisite for sociability, lifelong learning, and employment opportunities" (Huffaker, 2005, p. 95). Teaching and learning take place even outside the classroom. Among the four primary language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing), listening and reading require the use of multimedia files (audio-visual and text files) as source files that can be shared through blogs. Reading blog posts and replying to them motivate the learners to become good readers and writers. Creativity is one of the key aspects to be promoted among the learners. It can be stimulated among the learners through discussions. Poth (2017) insists that "blogging provides a means for students to become more expressive and creative in their writing and to continuously develop confidence as they write" (p. 1). Instant publication of study materials, whether it is a text or an image, simplifies the task of the instructors. Setting up a blog is easy and quick, and does not

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* Corresponding Author. E-mail: vijayakumar.muthu@vit.ac.in

require much technical knowledge. If the reader wants to read others' blogs, millions of blogs are available at a single click.

Blogs facilitate the learners a shift from teacher-centered learning to learner-centered learning. According to Paul and Jefferson (2019), teacher-centered learning is considered to be passive learning because the teacher "controls the classroom dynamics" (p. 2). In a teacher-centered classroom, the teacher's role is active whereas the learner's role is passive as he or she simply listens to the lecture, takes notes, and raises questions. As far as the language learning environment is concerned, it should be learner-centered. Active participation will help the learners to learn the nuances of a language easily and quickly. Though online learning is a self-paced process, there is a scope for autonomous learning which in turn paves way for free and flexible learning. In the case of the young learners, parents can also be a part of this group and they can either participate in the discussions or monitor the progress of their children. Huffaker (2005) writes that "users find this blog to be not only an effective form of communication but also an excellent way to archive knowledge, creating an institutional history" (p. 95). Communication between peers leads to collaboration and enhances the learning environment. Learners become creative and take up leadership roles in the classroom (Poth, 2017).

III. Objective

As blogging is considered to be an effective avenue for independent learning, the researcher deliberates that the following objectives can be worked out in this paper:
(i) To find out the knowledge of the respondents with regard to the use of blogs for language learning,
(ii) To create an interest among the learners to effectively utilise a blog as a tool to improve their language proficiency
(iii) To integrate technology in English language classroom and
(iv) To find out the advantages and disadvantages of using blogs especially for language learning purposes.

IV. Review of the Existing Studies

Luján-Mora (2006) states in her research work that blogging is a fascinating methodology in the teaching-learning process as the learners can authenticate "their learning activities and learning results in a concurrent journal (log)" (p. 1). Baker (2003) writes in his article entitled "The Learning Log" that "a learning log is a tightly-focused academic journal that is created as the student becomes knowledgeable on an individually assigned topic" (p. 1). Also, it can "support class discussion and provide the basis for the creation of a class presentation and web site" (p. 1). Wagner (2003) points out that there are advantages in using blogs which include "ease of publication, sharing of results and instructor monitoring" (p. 131). Williams and Jacobs (2004) express their opinion that "blogging has the potential to be a transformational technology for teaching and learning" (p. 232). Du and Wagner (2005), in one of their research presentations, speak about the impact of blogging on an individual in a university environment. And they further conclude that the cognitive skills of an individual learner become intense along with social awareness. Montero-Fleta and Perez-Sabater (2010) consider that writing in blogs is done with a purpose that naturally encourages the bloggers to be more proficient and fluent in using language. In addition, they concentrate on using accurate language. Therefore, blogs can be considered "as a potential tool for the development of linguistic skills" (p. 773). Felix (2003) in his article entitled "Teaching languages online: Deconstructing the myths" puts forth his argument that "there is ample evidence that the most significant educational contribution of the new technologies lies in the opportunities for adding quality to what has always been difficult to achieve in the language classroom" (p. 126). However, he adds that "facilitating interpersonal communication in authentic settings, sustaining meaningful information gap activities, and involving students in creative problem based and project-based learning with native speaker partners" will give the learners enhanced learning experience (p. 133). Huffaker (2005) articulates in his research paper that blogs enable the users to "have a personal space to read and write alongside a communal one, where ideas are shared, questions are asked and answered and social cohesion is developed" (p. 95). He also states that blogs are functioning as an excellent medium for progressive learning both for individual and cooperative learning. Today's educational technologists should bring forth this technology across the globe for an enhanced teaching and learning experience.

V. Methodology

A study was conducted among the budding engineers belonging to a technical university in Vellore District, Tamil Nadu, India to collect their opinion about the blogs in the field of education. A survey was conducted among 110 first-year B.Tech. students belonging to various branches of study. Since it is a co-educational institution, responses were collected from both boys and girls. The age group of the respondents was between 18 and 20, and they were doing their second year or third year courses. A questionnaire was circulated among them and responses were collected in google forms. Since most of them are from a sound academic background, they have good knowledge about blogs and blogging. Moreover, every respondent possesses his or her own computer which is an added advantage as they can tap the technology at their fingers, at their convenience.

VI. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The university where the respondents belong is a technical university hence most of the teaching-learning activities are recorded in the university intranet. Intranet is a free interface for them to look at their timetable, check attendance, verify grades, know examination-related information, download study materials, and upload their digital assignments or projects in the intranet class group for evaluation. Hence owning a computer is mandatory for a student who has enrolled in a course. Similarly, the survey result indicates that all the respondents have computers.

TABLE 1
STUDENTS PARTICIPATION DISTRIBUTION

S.No.	Degree	Specialisation	Girls	Boys	Total
1	B.Tech.	Computer Science and Engineering	6	11	17
2		Civil Engineering	0	4	4
3		Computer Science and Engineering with Specialization in Internet of Things	2	6	8
4		Computer Science and Engineering with Specialization in Data Science	3	6	9
5		Electronics and Communication Engineering	3	7	10
6		Electrical and Electronics Engineering	4	7	11
7		Information Technology	8	9	17
8		Mechanical Engineering	0	9	9
9		Production and Industrial Engineering	1	3	4
10		Electronics and Instrumentation Engineering	1	2	3
11		Biotechnology	3	3	6
12	M.Tech.	(Integrated) Software Engineering	3	3	6
13	B.Sc.	Multimedia and Animation	1	5	6
		Total number of Respondents	35	75	110

The table above shows that the responses have been collected from students belonging to 13 different branches of study. Most of them are B.Tech. students and a few i.e. 12 students belong to Multimedia and Animation, a three-year undergraduate programme, and six respondents are from M.Tech. five-year integrated Software Engineering programme. Apart from these 18 students, the rest of them are from B.Tech. courses namely, Computer Science and Engineering, Civil Engineering, Computer Science and Engineering with Specialization in Internet of Things, Computer Science and Engineering with Specialization in Data Science, Electronics and Communication Engineering, Electrical and Electronics Engineering, Information Technology, Mechanical Engineering, Production and Industrial Engineering, Electronics and Instrumentation Engineering, and Biotechnology. However, their age group and year of study are equal. The ratio of the responses collected from both boys and girls is 35:75 which means out of the 110 responses, 32 percent are girls and 68 percent are boys. More than two-thirds of the respondents are boys and less than one-third are girls.
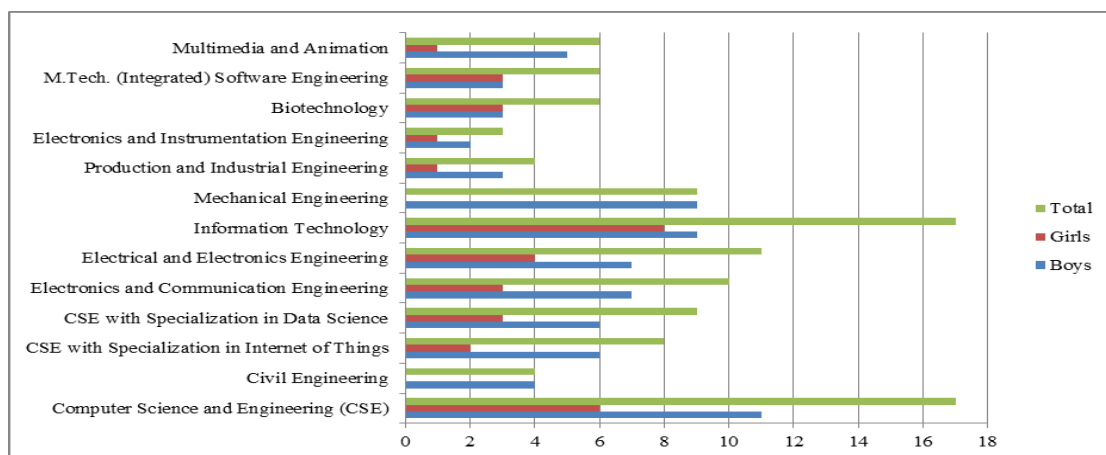
Figure 1 Respondents Distribution

From the chart above it is inferred that the maximum number of respondents are from the branches related to computer science related branches. The distribution between boys and girls is not equal because the number of boys in all branches of study in the institution is higher than the number of girls. Another inference is that there are no girl respondents in the non-circuit branches like civil and mechanical engineering.

More than 50 percent of the respondents have their own blogs. While asked about the frequency level of their visit to the blogs, only 20 percent of the respondents agree that they visit their blogs daily. 40 percent say that they are frequent visitors and the remaining respondents are occasional visitors. In an answer to the question about the preference of

blogs over vlogs (video blogs), 30 percent of the respondents prefer blogs over vlogs, 35 percent prefer vlogs and an equal number of respondents prefer to use both.

Consistent contribution to blogs will have an impact on the user's language proficiency. Rahmany et al. (2013) have proved in their research article that blogging has paved way for a significant contribution in improving one's grammatical accuracy. Also, they have seen a dramatic change in reducing the number of errors committed by their students. Publications in blogs both inform and educate the bloggers. When the respondents were asked whether the blogposts and publications had any influence on language proficiency, the maximum number of respondents (60 percent) positively replied that their proficiency had increased to a great extent. One-fourth of the respondents said that there was a significant improvement in their writing skills. A few respondents believed that they were able to catch up with a few words and phrases if they went through a particular content repeatedly. One of the respondents brought out the fact that he had learnt to write for the readers of his blog amusingly as he felt that the purpose of a good blog would be to "entertain and inform its readers".

When they were asked whether they preferred blogs over video blogging, they gave mixed reviews where 45 percent of the respondents brought out that it depended on the topic being searched for and 25 percent said that blogs were extremely helpful while looking for readable information; nevertheless, 35 percent of the students pointed out that video logging was the best source. The question of improvising language proficiency through the writing style of content creators was put forth and where 60 percent of respondents agreed that it influenced them when it was read frequently whereas 25 percent of the population agreed that they opted for it when a change of style in writing was required, and to an extent of 15 percent said that they got extremely influenced by the content creators as they used descriptive language.

In the hasty digital era, everyone is running fast and the attention span is remarkably less. The situation demands the bloggers to respond positively. The writing style should engage the readers. If they fail to grab the attention, they will move on to the blogs that educate and entertain them. Using unprofessional language, vague modifiers like 'really', 'actually' and 'very', and thought fillers like 'I mean' and 'you know' will mar the beauty of the language and discourage the readers to visit the blog. When asked if a blog had a counter-productive influence on users' language proficiency, 55 percent agreed that they were exposed to blogs that held writings that had poorly-framed phrases. On the contrary, 10 percent of the respondents believed that one's language proficiency cannot be affected due to counter-productive influences and 35 percent said that when the reader was exposed to wrongly-framed content, they got a counter-productive influence. The picture below evidently illustrates the same:
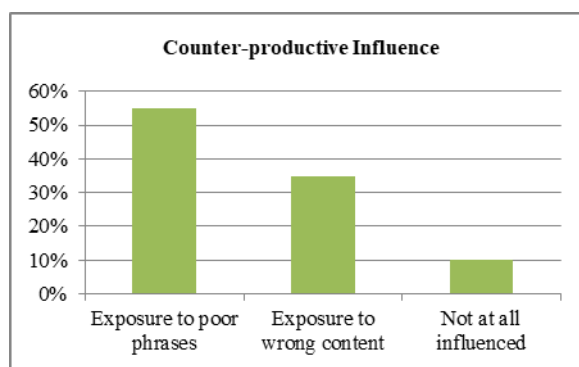
Figure 2 Counter-productive Influence Among the Respondents

When a question was raised as to whether readers learned any new words through blogs, 70 percent responded that any writer would want to impress the reader through catchy phrases and words, 10 percent pointed out that when there were unique words, they too got impressed and 20 percent of the students responded that they could never learn any new words since blogs nowadays are simple and comprehensible.

The next question tossed was whether blogging was a bad way to improve language proficiency as the user might interpret things in a wrong way, for which 20 percent of the students said that only when the reader did not have the capacity to comprehend the language, he misunderstood the concept. 40 percent of the students strongly refused the assumption because the descriptive style of writing would enhance the learning skill of any inquisitive learner, and 40 percent of readers said that there were blogs that belonged to language learners who belonged to the beginner level. A relevant inference is pointed out by Maslen in his article published in the *University World News* that millions of academicians "around the world have become internet bloggers while universities are increasingly establishing blogging sites on their web pages" (p. 1). Blogging was once considered to be the pastime of unemployed youths but now it has taken a different form and become "an accepted communication medium within the academic community" (Maslen, 2011) .

When the readers were asked whether they would consider active blogging as a good exercise to improve language proficiency, a definite 70 percent of students agreed because practice makes a man perfect; hence, practice is necessary. 10 percent of students grabbed the option that sometimes blogging was helpful for a short-term improvisation of speaking skills and 20 percent said that only by tuning the listening skills one can enhance his language proficiency.

Baisel (2020) infers in his article that "e-learning is cost-effective and flexible" (p. 49). He further adds that the content can be retrieved online as many times as possible and concentrate on improving oneself. Subsequently, the bloggers can go back to their posts, edit the content and post afresh.

The next question was whether students should be encouraged to go through blogs to improve their language proficiency for which 70 percent of the students agreed but they also mentioned that it had to be narrowed down to quality-filled literary blogs; 10 percent of the students said that sometimes they should but not always as it would create an addiction to surf on the internet. A bunch of 20 percent opted that books were the best source to improve language proficiency. When asked whether the forums on blogs would be useful to improve language proficiency, the majority of them (nearly 55 percent) agreed because they were able to pick up blogs belonging to their area of interest. 25 percent pointed out that never would they agree because nobody was interested in paying heed to forums and 20 percent said that they rarely did when there was a lot of time to spend on the internet.

The next question tossed was, "Could forums on blogs have an influence on one's behaviour?" In response to this question, 40 percent agreed that it was possible when the comment of a writer convinces the thought process of a reader, and another 40 percent opted that they were never influenced since everyone has his own ideologies and style of language. For another 20 percent, it is neither influencing nor discouraging but entertaining as they feel themselves as the forum lovers. The picture below illustrates the level of influence clearly:
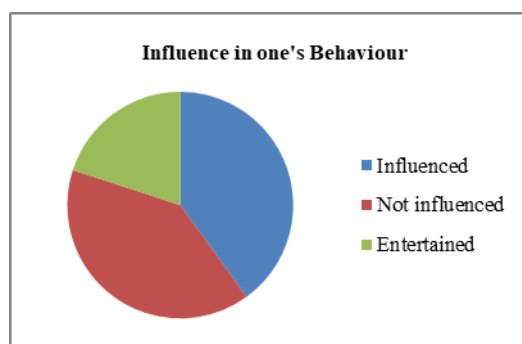
Figure 3 Influence in One's Behaviour

Finally, the last question put forth was whether they aspired to be bloggers, for which 40 percent of the students chose that they would aspire if they were paid a lot through advertisements apart from working elsewhere, 40 percent opted that they neither liked blogging nor wished to blog at any point in life as it was a waste of time and 20 percent of students picked the option that when there was nothing to do in life, it could be carried out.

VII. FINDINGS

1. Blogs help the learners to express themselves freely and encourage autonomous learning.
2. Possibilities are more to learn the language skills especially the writing skill.
3. Intensive exposure to commonly-used expressions plays a major role in one's vocabulary acquisition.
4. Bloggers have increased access to the essential aspects of language skills such as spelling, syntax, vocabulary, idioms and phrases.
5. The question of gender bias is eliminated as blogging encourages any individual to contribute and manage online identity.
6. Communication takes place among the contributors beyond social and cultural boundaries.
7. Reading blog posts enhances one's reading skills.
8. Interaction with international peers encourages the blogger and is motivated to attain the international dimension in learning a language.
9. Blog posts and blog publications help the users to develop their language proficiency.
10. Efforts are taken by the bloggers to give quality content in the grammatically correct language.
11. The suitability of the blog depends on the choice of blogs.
12. Active blogging is a good exercise. However, too much into it will lead to internet addiction.
13. An individual's blog may be subjective and contain inaccurate data.
14. People are willing to take it as a profession if they can earn through it.

VIII. LIMITATIONS

The study was conducted among the elite group of learners who had the advantages of having their formal school education through English medium schools or CBSE schools. The respondents not only belong to different states of India but also belong to different countries of the world. Though they belong to different regions of the country and the world, the learning environment demands everyone to communicate only in English to be understood better by their peers. This demand enables them to be good communicators and makes them fluent in English. Therefore teaching-

learning through blogs is not a big deal for the teachers as the learners already have the inclination to use good English. When the research is conducted among such elite groups, the results will naturally be positive and favouring one-sided.

The number of girls who participated in the survey is quite lesser than the number of boys. If the responses are collected from an equal number of boys and girls, the result will have a greater impact on the findings of the study. This conclusion is arrived at based on past studies. Some studies state that girls outperform boys and some other studies state that boys are better than girls in using technology. Kadijevich (2000) has mentioned in his article that "males showed a more positive attitude toward computers than females, even when computer experience was controlled" (p. 149). The article entitled *Gender Difference of Confidence in Using Technology for Learning* concludes that "male students have more confidence in using technology for learning than do female students in higher education" (Yau, 2012, p. 79). On the other hand, a recent study by Ullah and Ullah (2019) articulates that "girls' outperformance and boys' underperformance in education have become an established fact in the developed world" (p. 169).

If the study is conducted in an educational institution where the beneficiaries are the regional medium students belonging to the local community group, the results may vary. Their understanding of technology may be limited as they have limited exposure to electronic gadgets and technology (compared to the students of a technical university where the incumbents have the privilege of learning through online platforms). Also, the results may vary if the study is conducted among different levels of learners and grades of institutions. Another limitation is that the research was conducted by the researcher among his students and there is a possibility that the respondents have over-reported about the effectiveness of the usage of blogs.

IX. SUGGESTIONS AND CONCLUSION

Blogging is an ideal technology to be used in the classroom for language learning purposes. It can be used at all levels of learning, from elementary to higher studies. It also functions as an effective tool from the teacher's end. He can use it, apart from guidance and mentoring, to document the programmes, to broadcast materials, and to carry out discussion both among the teacher and the learner community. Online communication creates interest among young learners as their attraction towards technology is more than face-to-face communication. Blogs offer a wider learning environment where the learners can pick up methods and materials of their interest and choice. Time is not a constraint for the learners as they can access blogs at their convenience which is contrary to conventional classroom learning. Regular participation and contribution to blogs will surely enhance the reading and writing skills of the users. During the process, the users get higher levels of motivation when their posts are commented on and given feedback. They not only become familiar with the structures of basic English sentences but also acquire knowledge about the content.

Bloggers with outstanding writing skills and a huge fan base are in great demand. Many publishing agents run after the bloggers for contemporary content. Renowned organisations invite them for expert interviews and guidelines. As they are good at creating content, they are even sought after by advertising agencies. The process not only involves acquiring vocabulary and language skills but also the technical skill related to starting and developing a blog.

Generally, bloggers are matured and self-motivated learners. They are very much aware of the need for learning a language. This participatory, as well as interactive pedagogy, suits their prerequisites and expectations. Multitudes of people start their own blogs in a fresh flood of inspiration but fail to continue it as they lack motivation. If one is encouraged or motivated to maintain and publish content regularly, one will learn the process of writing blogs that will educate oneself and others. A blog post with poor spelling and grammar cannot attract an audience. Regular contribution to blogs will help the bloggers to understand and engage their audience. Over a period, they can see that their communication has encountered a drastic improvement. Simultaneously, they have to learn relevant technical tools that help them to post schedule or meet the deadline.

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Vijay P is a Full Time Research Scholar in the Department of English, School of Social Sciences and Languages, Vellore Institute of Technology, Vellore. He is graduated from Madurai Kamaraj University, Tamil Nadu. He has served in various Engineering and Arts & Sciences Colleges in Tamil Nadu for 10 years. He has published a few research articles in reputed international journals. He is currently pursuing his research in post-colonial literature.

Vijayakumar M is a Senior Assistant Professor in the Department of English, School of Social Sciences and Languages, Vellore Institute of Technology, Vellore. He has presented numerous research papers at national and international conferences. His research interest includes Indian Writing in English, Postcolonial Studies, Diaspora Studies, African American Literature, Canadian Literature and English Language Teaching. He has authored a few books and several book chapters. He can be reached at vijayakumar.muthu@vit.ac.in. ORCID: 0000-0002-1079-5383

Towards a Model of Teaching 21st-Century Skills in EAP Classes

Zahra Ali Al Lawati

Department of English for Humanities, CPS, Sultan Qaboos University, Muscat, Sultanate of Oman

Mohammad Athar Khan

Department of English for Humanities, CPS, Sultan Qaboos University, Muscat, Sultanate of Oman

Abstract—**Technological and globalisation advancements have made teaching 21st-century skills a part of any curriculum. However, EAP classrooms provide a perfect platform for teaching 21st-century skills. This article first outlines the importance of teaching these skills and briefly reviews how the literature defines these skills. It also looks at various frameworks of 21st-century skills, provides a brief rationale and outlines the challenges of teaching these skills. The latter part of the article shows how EAP classes are the perfect platform for teaching 21st-century skills. Finally, the piece ends with a working model for teaching 21st-century skills in an EAP context.**

Index Terms—**21st-century skills, 21st-century skills frameworks, EAP context**

I. INTRODUCTION

Technology, as we know, has brought an immense change in people's lives in the 21st century and has changed how we live and work. Society should produce life-long learners with specific competencies, skills, and experience to deal with complex problems. Some such skills are skills to search for new knowledge, use of technology, information management, teamwork, collaborative work, effective communication, etc. As Griffin et al. (2012, p. 1) say, "…a growing awareness that many countries are moving from an industrial-based to the information-based economy and that education systems must respond to this change". In other words, there must be a shift in pedagogy too. We cannot continue to teach and assess the way we did at the start of the 20th century, where students learn individually and are then evaluated separately because the workforce produced through this approach does not succeed in work when employed (Duerden et al., 2014; Soule & Warrick, 2015). Our educational system should be re-defined in terms of the needs of the 21st century.

This article discusses definitions, different frameworks, and the teaching of 21st-century skills. This is followed by teaching these skills in an EAP context and ends with a practical-working model of teaching 21st-century skills to EAP teachers. The suggested model, it is hoped, will help raise awareness of EAP instructors to develop their learners as 21st-century citizens.

II. DEFINING 21ST-CENTURY SKILLS

With the ever-increasing use of technology, our society has become loaded with information and knowledge. Levy and Mundane (2004) believe that most rule-based-recurring tasks can be performed through technology. However, studies that involve identifying and solving problems require understanding and interpreting multifaceted issues, which the human element can solely address. This human ability is crucial in the present-day knowledge society and requires 21st-century skills. According to Anderson (2008), knowledge society needs various sub-skills such as 'finding, organising, and retrieving information ', information management, 'knowledge construction', 'adaptability' ', teamwork', and 'critical thinking. Law et al. (2008) consider these skills life-long learning competencies. In short, 21st-century skills combine the knowledge, skills, and characteristics a learner possesses to survive in present-day society. Casner-Lotto and Barrington (2006) state that as 21st-century skills focus on the application level, they can be defined as those skills that enhance basic rudimentary knowledge (acquired at schools in science, mathematics, geography, English, etc.) to succeed in the workplace. Success is now defined as communicating, working in teams, adapting and innovating, sharing information, using the information, and making collective decisions. In short, in the 21st-century job market, what matters is not just academic knowledge, but one must possess skills vital to success. Moore et al. (2015, p. 1) say, "Crucial skills for education and success in the workplace are self-regulation, agency/motivation, persistence/diligence, and executive functioning". Wagner (2008), on the other hand, identified several essential skills and termed them survival skills, which include 'critical thinking, 'problem-solving', 'collaboration, curiosity and imagination, 'adaptability & agility', 'initiative & entrepreneurialism' and 'effective written and oral communication', etc.

Griffin et al. (2012) classified the 21st-century skills in four major areas: ways of thinking such as creativity, problem-solving, critical thinking, decision making and learning to learn; ways of working, for example, teamwork,

communication and collaboration tools for working, i.e., ICT literacy, information literacy, and ways of living, which includes social responsibility including cultural awareness and competence. NEA (2002) worked on about 18 different skills (for example, information literacy, technology literacy, media literacy, leadership, creativity, critical thinking, productivity, social skills, collaboration, communication, and flexibility) and finally identified the four most vital 21st-century skills known as the four Cs namely critical thinking, communication, collaboration, and creativity.

III. THE 21ST-CENTURY SKILLS FRAMEWORKS

The literature review reveals a dearth in identifying a core set of 21st-century skills. However, researchers and organisations have provided a list of skills under the overarching term 21st-century skills. This section minimises the lack of clarity by providing a concrete definition of 21st-century skills by looking at different models or frameworks and the skills covered under each model. Researchers have identified various skills that are considered 21st-century skills. The American Management Association (2010) recognised problem-solving, critical thinking, communication, collaboration, and creativity (innovation) as essential skills. Boyles (2012) has listed the following skills required for the 21st century: innovation and creativity, analytical and problem-solving, communication and collaboration skills, critical thinking, self-direction, flexibility, and adaptability. However, Businessschooledge.com (2013) provides a broader category of skills: productivity (time management, meeting management, leadership, systems, personal productivity), creativity (imagination, inventiveness, problem-solving, brainstorming, making connections), and communication (written, social networking, oral, sales), planning (strategic, project, financial, risk, logistics). Holtzman and Kraft (2011) identified skills such as speaking/oral communication, ethical understanding, interpersonal skills, adapting to change/being flexible, and time management. Schuele and Madison (2010) also mention a similar set of skills: critical thinking, problem-solving, innovation, cultural competency, communication, and teamwork. Similarly, different organisations have suggested diverse frameworks for 21st-century skills. For example, Lemke et al. (2003) show that En Gauge promotes 21st-century skills in teachers, students, and administrators. It focuses primarily on contextual skills and knowledge. It includes four primary categories: Effective Communication (teaming, collaboration, Interpersonal Skills, etc.), High Productivity (prioritising, planning, managing, etc.). Digital-age literacy (scientific, economic, and technological literacies, visual and information literacies, and multicultural literacy) and Inventive Thinking (adaptability, managing complexity, creativity, risk-taking, higher-order thinking, etc.). Binkley et al. (2012) show that Assessment and Teaching of 21st-century skills (ATCS) stress classroom assessments and provide operational definitions of 21st-century skills to develop assessment tasks. Partnerships for 21st-century skills (2008, 2009) primarily implement 21st-century skills in education and offer framework definitions. This framework emphasises that students should learn apart from learning academic content. Thus, it encourages critical thinking and problem-solving, creativity and innovation, collaboration, information and media literacy, and life skills (people skills, leadership skills, personal responsibility, etc.). The assessment must measure all these skills integrated with core subjects by combining classroom assessment with standardised testing. The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (2016) proposes three different categories of competencies: "acting autonomously (act within the big picture, defend and assert rights, interests, limits, and needs), using tools interactively (use knowledge, technology, and information interactively, use language, symbols and texts interactively) and interacting in heterogeneous groups (co-operate, work in teams, manage and resolve conflicts)".

IV. TEACHING 21ST-CENTURY SKILLS

The world is undergoing speedy social, economic, and technological changes. The education system thus must prepare students for these challenges when they enter the real world. Once students leave the four walls of the classroom, they will need the knowledge (that they have gained) but also tools to use and apply that knowledge to succeed. As discussed above, these skills are 21st-century skills, also known as non-academic, non-cognitive, soft, generic, or transversal. In this context, Voogt and Pelgrum (2005) argue that curricula need to be changed to facilitate ways that help learners acquire 21st-century skills. Furthermore, Voogt (2008) suggests the need to adopt a pedagogical approach that provides various learning activities, lets students learn at a pace suitable to their abilities, encourages collaborative work, focuses on problem-solving, etc. In other words, we should revisit our curricula and teaching practices.

The teaching of 21st-century skills is a challenge because of many reasons. The first one is finding a suitable model for its integration into curricula. Should it be taught as a specific subject across subjects or introduced as extracurricular activities? The other challenge is definitional, i.e., the lack of a well-defined set of these skills in the current literature. Teaching these skills also has an operational challenge, i.e., the lack of a measurement system, and finally, the systemic challenge, i.e., the mismatch between 21st-century skills and the examination system.

V. EAP CLASSES AT SULTAN QABOOS UNIVERSITY

At Sultan Qaboos University (SQU), the Centre for Preparatory Studies (CPS) serves the English language needs of the University students through two major English Language programmes, namely, the Foundation Programme English Language (FPEL) and the Credit English Language Programme (CELP). Most university students go through the FPEL

before entering the CELP. The CELP courses are EAP courses usually offered during the first two semesters of students' college studies. They provide additional support in English language skills for the students to pursue their studies in one of the university colleges: the College of Arts and Social Sciences, College of Education, College of Medicine, College of Engineering, College of Science, College of Agriculture and Marine Sciences, College of Economics and Political Sciences and College of Law). Teaching, learning and assessment in CELP's EAP courses emanate from the learning objectives (Los) of the course, i.e. LOs guide the materials being used in the classroom, and assessment evaluates the extent to which learners have achieved these LOs. Assessment procedures involve a combination of formative and summative assessments. Each EAP course is conducted over a semester of 16 weeks. Teachers use various methodological approaches such as lectures, discussions, and collaborative learning that lead to independent learning.

The purpose of CELP, as stated in the CELP (2020, p. 6) curriculum, is, "Students must develop independent critical thinking skills and competence in the English language necessary for attaining success in their college studies and future undertakings. As English is emphasised in research, data analysis, debates, discussions, etc., practice in these areas is provided by the CELP". Thus, the focus of these EAP courses is on thinking and problem-solving skills delivered through skill-based and task-based approaches. The overview in the CELP curriculum document (2020, p 6) states, "students develop independent critical thinking skills and competence in the English language necessary for attaining success in their college studies and future undertakings". Therefore, the CELP programme objectives revolve around "Logical and critical thinking skills".

The EAP courses are offered through Credit English Language Programme (CELP) under two different departments: the Department of Humanities, which offers 16 Courses and the Department of Sciences, which oofers11 Courses. The CELP curriculum document provides course descriptions, objectives, learning objectives, suggested topics, activities, and assessment details. The content analysis of the CELP curriculum document shows that EAP courses focus on the following aspects or terms related to 21st-Century skills: Critical Thinking Skills, Problem Solving, Communication, Collaboration and Innovation. The integration of EAP courses with college courses is stated in the rationale of the CELP courses in the following words: " It considers the real world in which we live, initiates the students by making learning relevant to their lives, makes sense of vast amounts of information by making connections among disciplines, looks at the comprehensive curriculum by viewing content as a 'means' not an 'end', recognises reading, listening, speaking, writing and use of language as enabling skills within thinking/problem-solving processes" (CELP Curriculum Document, 2020, p. 7).

VI. EAP CLASSES AND 21ST-CENTURY SKILLS

As English is the world's lingua franca, it empowers the learners to real-world opportunities. Thus, teaching 21st-century skills in English language classes is of greater importance. Therefore, these skills (creativity and imagination, collaboration, leadership, critical thinking, digital literacies, etc.) must be integrated into regular English classes. Trilling and Fadel (2009) suggest 7Cs as 21st-century skills: creativity and innovation, critical thinking and problem-solving, teamwork and leadership, collaboration, cross-cultural understanding, communication and media literacy, computing and ICT literacy, and career and learning self-reliance. According to Kumaravadivelu (2001, 2006) and Brown (2007), the teaching focus is on eclecticism in ELT. In other words, language teaching and learning involve integrating digital literacy with project-based learning. Moreover, Corbett (2003) and Kohn (2013) focus on teaching intercultural communicative competence, i.e., while teaching both local and international English. This, in turn, produces learners who are influential language users of English as a lingua franca.

Students bring real-world issues into the classroom through technology, smartphones, and multimedia devices. They have encouraged teachers of English to use e-books, YouTube, etc., to prepare lessons and classroom activities. Thus, both teachers and students bring real life to the classroom. Integrating technology into a school helps learners from different parts of the world. Students may know more than their teachers about using technology. However, teachers still help students select, analyse and use the correct information to realise their learning objectives.

EAP teaching involves developing several learners' skills that help produce 21st-century citizens. As discussed here, EAP learners adopt nine roles corresponding to the nine most critical 21st-century skills.

A. Learners as Collaborators

The EAP learning environment provides an immense opportunity for learners to develop as collaborators. Most of the classroom activities involve working in pairs and teams. This requirement to work together helps learners develop understanding and cooperative skills apart from managing and resolving conflicts. Even individual work such as research helps students collaborate when they seek help understanding the concept or explore resources on the internet. The learners, when editing peer work, are again collaborating. These pairing and grouping activities are reliable and valuable. Additionally, mixed-ability groups allow learners with different learning styles and abilities to understand each other's needs and work together. They learn to adjust and listen to each other, preparing them for future collaborative activities.

B. Learners as Communicators

Learners in EAP classes are encouraged to communicate with their peers and teachers through speaking and writing activities. The speaking activities involve responding to the teacher's questions, adding to peers' responses, taking the initiative, and more extended interactions with peers and teachers. Moreover, classroom presentations and debates provide students with a platform to communicate for extended periods. Written communication involves language tasks, assignments, posters, projects, reports, etc. EAP Learners communicate and develop negotiation skills in both forms, i.e., speaking and writing.

C. Learners as Innovators

A plethora of EAP activities help learners innovate. The small-scale research activities in problem-based and project-based learning activities help them innovate. This innovation or creativity is reflected in how they identify problems, research, and propose solutions in Problem Based Learning and how they learn long-term project-based. Their reports and presentations based on these two types of learning provide them with opportunities to innovate.

D. Learners as Critical Thinkers

Every EAP curriculum directly or indirectly encourages learners to become critical thinkers. For example, tasks such as research reports, presentations, debates, etc., involve brainstorming, prioritising, planning, analysing, evaluating, and synthesising. Using these skills to complete the task helps learners become critical thinkers. For example, after students have read a text, teachers set essential thinking duties, such as relating the problem to their context, visualising an event in the past, etc., to ignite their thinking.

E. Learners as Leaders

Classroom group activities provide a platform for learners to take on the roles of leaders - as team presentations, conducting research, solving a task in a group, etc. Other activities that help teach leadership qualities in EAP classes are checking/editing peers' work, assisting peers in understanding the job, etc. Leadership roles in these activities help them in planning and risk-taking. Moreover, these activities also help them develop adaptability, flexibility, and time management, thereby developing self-directed learning abilities.

F. Learners as Problem Solvers

Many activities encourage EAP learners to adorn the role of a problem solver, individually or as a team, especially in those classes driven by problem-based learning philosophy. The learner identifies a problem, conceptualises it and works to provide suitable solutions. Most of these activities end in oral presentations or written reports. In either form, learners develop as problem solvers.

G. Learners as Autonomous Learners

In any EAP class, learners are provided with the opportunity to select their partners in role-plays or group activities. Additionally, they are free to choose topics for their research, projects, and presentations. Providing such autonomy to learners ensures maximum participation as they take responsibility for their learning.

H. Learners as Reflectors

Many EAP classes revolve around activities that require learners to produce journal writing and portfolios. The learners reflect on various aspects, such as their role as team leaders and team members, while participating in research activities, projects, presentations, debates, etc. Such reflective writing helps these learners identify their strengths and areas of concern and either polish them further or address them. As the reflective writing activities have no right or wrong answer, it helps the learners express themselves without inhibitions.

I. Learners as Digitally Literate Participants

Teachers and learners represent the natives of the digital world. The Covid 19 pandemic has further pushed us to be digitally literate. EAP classes have always used various online learning tools and platforms to deliver teaching and learning practices. Individual and group tasks are assigned on Moodle, Big Blue Button, etc. The learners use technology to work with each other by using Google meet, Google class, Microsoft teams, WhatsApp, YouTube, etc. The use of technology provides a higher degree of engagement and responsibility to both teachers and learners. For example, the learner's submission of an assignment on the plagiarism tool (e.g.Turnitin) helps learners own the responsibility for the originality of their work.

VII. TOWARDS A MODEL OF TEACHING 21ST-CENTURY SKILLS IN AN EAP CONTEXT

The above discussion culminates in a suggested model of teaching these skills in the EAP teaching and learning context. This model has emanated from a literature review on teaching 21st-century skills, a review of various frameworks of 21st-century skills, and our experience of teaching these skills in EAP classes.
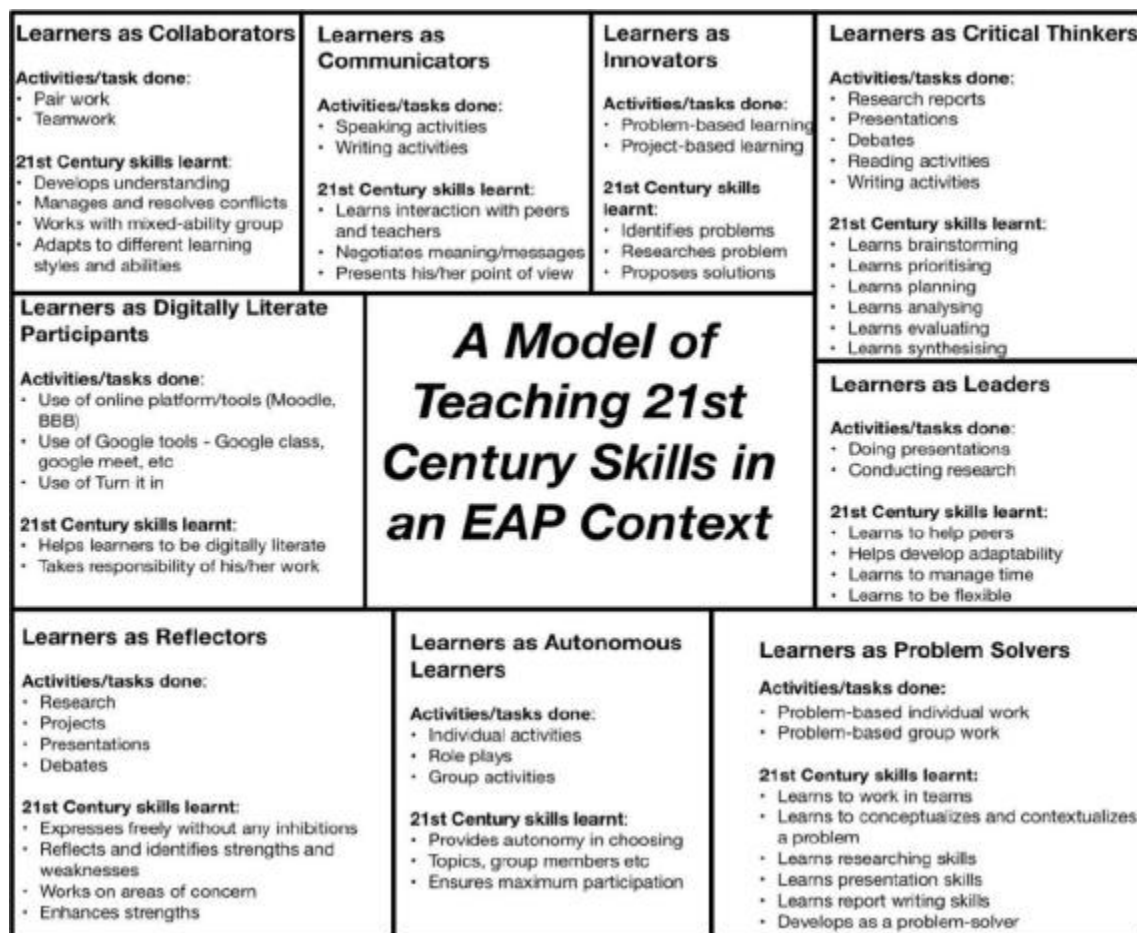
Figure 1. A Model of Teaching 21st-Century Skills in an EAP Context

The model shows that the nine most critical 21st-century skills are taught and practised in EAP classes, which are learners as collaborators, learners as communicators, learners as innovators, learners as critical thinkers, learners as leaders, learners as problem solvers, learners as autonomous learners, learners as reflectors and learners as digitally literate participants. Researchers (Boyles, 2012; Holtzman & Kraft, 2011; Madison, 2010) and organisations (Businessschooledge. com, 2013; American Management Association, 2010; En Gauge; Assessment and Teaching of 21st-Century Skills-ATCS; Partnership for 21st-century skills-P21; Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development- OECD) consider all the categories discussed here as crucial 21st-century skills.

The model demonstrates how learners in an EAP class adopt nine roles corresponding to the nine primary 21st-century skills. Furthermore, each box in the model shows the activities or tasks that facilitate learning 36 sub-skills, which constitute 21st-century skills. Thus, EAP classes are the perfect places to equip learners with 21st-century skills.

VIII. CONCLUSION

Teaching 21st-century skills produce individuals who can face the challenges of the modern world. This paper has shown how different elements of 21st-century skills, as outlined in the literature, are effectively delivered in EAP classes. This further suggests a practical working model for teaching these skills in an EAP context.

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Zahra Ali Al Lawati teaches at the Centre for Preparatory Studies, Sultan Qaboos University, Muscat, Sultanate of Oman. At present, she is the Deputy Director for Academic Programs. She received her MA in Language Studies with a focus on Language Testing from Lancaster University, UK, in 2002 and PhD in Applied Linguistics with a focus on Language Testing from Lancaster University, the UK, in 2014. Her research interests include language assessment, language education, critical thinking and 21st-Century skills.

Mohammad Athar Khan is the Head of the Sustainable Development Unit at the Centre for Preparatory Studies, Sultan Qaboos University, Muscat, Sultanate of Oman. He is a qualified Oman Academic Accreditation Authority and Quality Assurance External Reviewer. He has a B.Sc, MA (English), PGDTE, M.Phil (ELT) and PhD in Language Assessment. His research interests include language testing and assessment, learner strategies and 21st-Century skills, benchmarking and quality assurance.

The Milestone of Blended Process-Based Approach in Argumentative Writing: Exploring the Sophomore's Perception and Writing Achievement

Anak Agung Putri Maharani
Postgraduate Program, Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha, Singaraja, Indonesia

Ni Nyoman Padmadewi
Postgraduate Program, Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha, Singaraja, Indonesia

Ni Made Ratminingsih
Postgraduate Program, Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha, Singaraja, Indonesia

Made Hery Santosa
Postgraduate Program, Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha, Singaraja, Indonesia

Abstract—**The scarcity of investigation towards the injection of virtual flipped classrooms into the argumentative essay writing process, hereafter blended process-based approach, limits the array of advanced technology benefits within the EFL writing context in Indonesia. This research aims to investigate the students' perceptions of the blended process-based approach in the argumentative writing course, to figure out the valuable strategies in every stage of writing, to delve how the male and female students perceive blended process-based approach, and to determine the effect of blended process-based approach towards their writing achievement. Framed within an explanatory mixed-method research design that employed quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis, 28 sophomores participated. The perception questionnaire was administered to gain a rich data set, and tests using pre-test and post-test were given, instructing the participants to create an argumentative essay. The findings showed that the participants positively perceived the blended process-based approach in the argumentative writing course. Amongst the stages, pre-writing has the highest frequency of strategy selections. Then, male and female students perceived differently in all perception dimensions. Finally, they performed significantly better on the post-test, which indicated that they made noticeable progress in writing due to using a blended process-based approach.**

Index Terms—**argumentative essay, blended process-based approach, gender, perception, virtual flipped classroom**

I. INTRODUCTION

In the 21st century, with the spread of internet-mediated technology, the goals of writing, the nature of the audience and author, and the genres of written communication are rapidly changing. Writing technology allows students to create and exchange information anywhere at any time (Gamble & Easingwood, 2000). Therefore, the advent of technology has made it possible to implement virtual flipped classrooms (hereafter, VFC) in English Language Teaching (ELT), especially in teaching writing skills. A new learning model which merges Flipped classrooms and a virtual environment, referred to as VFC, was proposed in 2019 (Ismail & Abdulla, 2019). The VFC enables students to watch and listen to lectures at home before performing interactive activities and applying their knowledge in a virtual synchronized classroom like a traditional classroom (Ismail & Abdulla, 2019; Mariyana et al., 2021; Thohir et al., 2020).

A way of growing, a writer needs the practice to be skillful. Writing is a skill anyone can learn with practice (Albright & Langan, 2020; Haerazi et al., 2020). It is a recursive process that students can master with hard work if they want to become good writers, so they must do much more practice for themselves. However, writing is the most complex skill to master. Indonesian students face a variety of writing challenges (Ratminingsih, 2015), including (1) difficulties in expressing what they are thinking in a foreign language, (2) limited vocabulary storage, (3) being unable to organize writing coherently, and (4) grammatical errors in writing. The intricacy of writing demands students to grasp methodical and well-ordered thinking, which will eventually become their way of life (Gonye et al., 2012). It instils in EFL writing students a new belief that writing teaching should focus on writing practice rather than theory.

The emergence of the process approach becomes an innovation in writing as the increasing dissatisfaction and the drawbacks of the product approach. The process approach is preferable as it represents the change from a product focus to a process focus where the ways of accomplishing writing products are executed (Hasan & Akhand, 2010). The virtue of the approach offers students a systemic explanation of text production, which highlights communicative purposes concerning acceptable content, linguistic knowledge, and language styles to a particular discourse community (Kitjaroonchai et al., 2022). In this approach, students are motivated to write based on their original idea, intended to achieve fundamental purposes, and the results are designed for real audiences (Graham & Sandmel, 2011). The writing process involves pre-writing, drafting, reflecting, peer or tutor reviewing, revising, and publishing (Coffin et al., 2003). In this current research, these six interrelated stages, which provided more comprehensive experiences in writing, were implemented to yield the writing product.

A study investigated the impact of the process-based approach in English writing classes of 57 non-English upper-secondary students in Vietnam's Mekong Delta (Ngo & Trinh, 2011). It was figured out that the participants in the experimental cohort outperformed those in the control cohort, in which the students in the process-based approach showed better results in writing. Another study investigated how scaffolding influences the writing skills of EFL students during the writing process (Kamal & Faraj, 2015). In favour, that scaffolding in writing via the writing process approach met the students' demands in EFL writing and improved writing competence (Gashaye & Muchie, 2021).

However, a subset of writing obstacles was found amongst the sophomores of the English Language Education Study Program (hereafter, ELESP), Faculty of Teacher Training and Education. In the writing class, which involved the fourth-semester students, it was observed that they were reluctant to communicate their ideas. They argued without proper reasons and facts. Arguing skills seemed to be a significant gap in enhancing their argumentative writing skills. There were twofold reasons identified. First, they were not used to arguing simply because they used to get involved within an environment where lecturers taught a set, traditionally oriented curriculum that did not contemplate the development of lifelong soft or 21st century skills (Mora-González et al., 2018). The second reason is they kept struggling to filter valid and reasonable reasons supporting their arguments. The internet has been giving an abundance of information which, at the same time, brings negative sides, such as invalid data, hoaxes, and so forth.

Argumentative writing is a significant element of the academic experience of foreign language learners since it is a mode of academic writing (Pessoa et al., 2017). The argument is the primary rhetorical goal of writers' work and is seen as an essential part of intellectual activity in higher education (Coffin et al., 2003). One form of argumentative writing genre is argumentative essays. Argumentative essay writing is a series of strategies used by an orator to persuade the audience to change their minds, grab their attention, or admit a particular circumstance or viewpoint. This essay deals with contentious issues, and an author defends a point of view that they believe is valid. Their purposes are convincing, attaining adhesion, justifying a way to see facts, refuting interpretations about an event, or persuading the reader to modify an opinion.

Students' perception of their experiences in writing in English plays a momentum role in the teaching and learning process, which can, per se, help educators alleviate their students. Students' perceptions should always be measured in the classroom because, in an instructional technology course, they are more satisfied with using technology to aid and help them better in learning than those in a typical system (Saeed, 2020). Perception can be broken down into threefold components; cognitive, affective, and conative (Baron & Byrne, 1991). These components assist students in their academic growth, particularly when finding ways to make learning more meaningful. The cognitive component of perception is related to someone's knowledge, views, and beliefs about an object. It also has a relation to how a person perceives an object. Meanwhile, the affective component is related to positive feelings, such as pleasure in an object, and negative feelings, such as dislike of pleasure in an object. Finally, the cognitive component is associated with a person's behaviour or tendency to act on an object. This component shows someone's act toward an object.

Individual variances in writing have recently received increased attention. These differences in writing performance have been linked to various higher-level variables (Al-Saadi, 2020). Understanding individual differences and their consequences on writing performance is fundamental to effective instruction. Students as writers vary in their cognitive and linguistic abilities and perception; another crucial variable is gender. A vast potential for distinctions in gender has been identified in writing. These differences can be attributed to distinguished aspects such as perception, motivation, and language proficiency (Beard & Burrell, 2010; Berninger & Fuller, 1992; Olinghouse, 2008; Troia et al., 2012).

Although a growing body of research in writing on the topics mentioned above, namely process approach, VFC, perception, gender in writing, and achievement, have been conducted frequently, the embarking of research on these five topics are crucial to be undertaken due to the context of the study involving Indonesian students whose fluency in English writing is different with those who are native English writers or whose second language is English. Based on the background, the fourfold research questions are framed as follows:

a. What are the students' perceptions of a blended process-based approach in an argumentative writing course?
b. What are the strategies that the students believe helping them the most in every stage of the blended process-based approach in the argumentative writing course?
c. How do the male and female students perceive the blended process-based approach in an argumentative writing course?
d. Is there any effect of a blended process-based approach on the students' writing achievement?

II. Method

A. Participants

The study involved the fourth-semester students, as the participants of the study, who had enrolled in the Argumentative Writing course in ELESP Faculty of Teacher Training and Education. There were 28 sophomores who had started their experience in writing at the second semester. They simultaneously joined the second and third semesters of the paragraph and essay writing courses. The detailed profile of the participants can be seen in the participants' demography table as follows.

TABLE 1
THE PARTICIPANTS' DEMOGRAPHY

Aspects	Description
Male	8
Female	20
Age	19-21
Ethnicity	Balinese and outside Bali
Followed Previous Courses	Paragraph writing and essay writing

B. Research Design

This study employed an explanatory mixed-method embedded design which is dominantly in quantitative analysis and supported by qualitative analysis. It was used to include straightforwardness and opportunities for the exploration of more detailed quantitative results, espoused by qualitative results, to assist the explanation and interpretation of the findings. The qualitative findings were gained from the open-ended items of the questionnaire sparking their points of view related to valuable strategies they used in each writing stage. Then it also provided quantitative findings from the closed-ended items, which also portrayed percentages of the participants' perceptions. Meanwhile, the quantitative data were collected using pre-experimental research with a pre-test-post-test design. A single group of participants was observed after a treatment presumed to cause change. In the experiment, the participants underwent a six-stage writing process-based teaching program. The experiment continued for six meetings (involving synchronous and asynchronous meetings). Toward the program closure, a post-test was administered to measure students' abilities in essay writing. A particular focus was on format, mechanics, content, organization, grammar, and structure elements.

C. Instruments

To gain a rich set of data of the participants' perceptions of the writing process experienced when writing in English, the questionnaire developed by Baron and Byrne (1991) was utilized. This questionnaire contained statements about writing practices and the participants' online learning experiences. The questionnaire items incorporated 3 dimensions of perception per each stage of the writing process, which originated from the cognitive, affective, and conative components. The questionnaire was also mix-structured, employing 40 close-ended items based on a 4-point Likert-type scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. It also proposed 3 open-ended items used to gauge the students' point of view about their valuable strategies in each writing stage.

To ensure the questionnaire is eligibly administered, its validity must be highlighted. In terms of construct validity, the instrument had been constructed based on adapting Baron and Byrne's perception theory (1991). It had also been validated concerning its content in which the questionnaire items had been developed based on elaborating the referred dimensions of perception. Furthermore, to keep the questionnaire consistent in measuring, the inter-rater reliability was applied wherein two judges scrutinized the items. Then the results were analyzed using the Gregory formula, and the level of content validity was categorized as very high (index 1).

Pre-experimental research with a pre-test-post-test design was conducted to support the qualitative findings. The pre-test was administered before the blended-based process was implemented and then continued by administering the post-test after the blended-based process was implemented. Both pre-test and post-test were in the form of performance tests instructing the participants to create an argumentative essay based on the task design and assessed by a scoring rubric adapted from Oshima & Hogue (2006), covering format, mechanics, content, organization, and grammar and structure.

D. Data Collection Procedures

All data were collected during the fourth semester in students' classrooms. However, the induction stage and the teaching and learning process in each writing stage are explained before collecting data. The induction stage aimed to introduce the blended system and orient the students' writing process stages. In generating comprehensive induction, the session focused on discussing the implemented blended system, which is mainly based on VFC. Then it was followed by a discussion of the writing stages. The students had been previously offered enough time to develop their argumentative writing competence within the process approach. A questionnaire was administered via Google Form to gather the required data, which can be accessed at http://bit.ly/PerceptionQuest. It was distributed to 28 students. Besides, as the participants were English majors, they had no problem responding to the items in English. After obtaining the data, the responses of open-ended items were selected to take part in delving into their perceptions

concerning the perception of blended-based process writing in an argumentative writing course. Pre-test and post-test were also administered to see the effect of the blended process-based approach on the participants' writing achievement.

E. Data Analysis

In analyzing the collected data, quantitative and qualitative analyses were employed. Quantitative analysis refers to the calculation of frequency and percentage results. The detailed technique of quantitative data analysis was as follows: tabulating the writing score, testing the normality of the data, calculating the Paired Samples t-test, which was performed to compare the mean difference between pre- and post-test scores, giving the interpretation, and concluding the study. Then, qualitative analysis, the latter concerned with interpreting the students' responses to open-ended items of the questionnaire. Additionally, the qualitative data analysis technique steps were as follows: counting the number and percentage of responses, grouping and placing the students' responses into tables and graphs, providing interpretation, scrutinizing the result or the students' responses, and explaining the various attained responses.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This part describes the findings and their interpretation to find out the result of the study as a whole. The purposes of this research are to answer four framed research questions as follows: 1) to figure out the students' perceptions of the blended process-based approach in an argumentative writing course, 2) to scrutinize how the male and female students perceive the blended process-based approach in an argumentative writing course, and 3) to figure out the whether or not blended process-based approach has any significant effect on writing achievement, particularly in writing an argumentative essay.

A. Results

(a). The Students' Perceptions on Blended Process-Based Approach in Argumentative Writing Course

The frequency of responses for each item on the scale was calculated to interpret the Likert scale results of the participants' perception. In addition, the open-ended questionnaire concerning the valuable strategies in every stage of the blended process-based approach gauged the participants' responses and later supported the previous findings. The obtained responses were read verbatim several times, coded, and then grouped into frequently recurred themes in each stage. These responses are available after the table of perceptions.

Figure 1 The Students' Perception of Blended Pre-Writing Process

Based on figure 1, there are seven items of perceptions, and most of the students perceived agreed upon the implementation of the blended pre-writing process. The finding is supported by table 2.

TABLE 2
PRE-WRITING STRATEGIES

No	Stage	Strategies
1.	Pre-writing	- Step-by-step outlining - Guided outlining - Small group discussion - References based outlining - Outline examples of adapting and modifying

In the pre-writing stage, there are five strategies that the participants found to do.

Figure 2 The Students' Perception of Blended Drafting-Writing Process

Based on figure 2, there are six items of perceptions, and most of the students perceived agreed upon the implementation of the blended drafting-writing process. The finding is supported by table 3.

TABLE 3
DRAFTING STRATEGIES

No	Stage	Strategies
2.	Drafting	- Guided drafting by using draft sample and tutor instruction - Scoring rubric-based drafting - Rough draft writing

In the drafting stage, there were three strategies that the participants frequently had done.

Figure 3 The Students' Perception of Blended Reflecting Process

Based on figure 3, there are six items of perceptions, and most of the students perceived agreed upon the implementation of the blended reflecting process. The finding is supported by table 4.

TABLE 4
REFLECTING STRATEGIES

No	Stage	Strategies
3.	Reflecting	- Draft reviewing - Strength and weakness highlighting

In the reflecting stage, two strategies were frequently done by the participants.

Figure 4 The Students' Perception of Blended Peer or Tutor Reviewing Process

Based on figure 4, there are six items of perceptions, and most of the students agreed upon implementing the blended poor or tutoring process. The finding is supported by table 5.

TABLE 5
PEER OR TUTOR REVIEWING STRATEGIES

No	Stage	Strategies
4.	Peer or tutor reviewing	- Peer discussion - Judging free - Comparing works with other works

In the peer or tutor reviewing stage, the participants conducted three strategies.
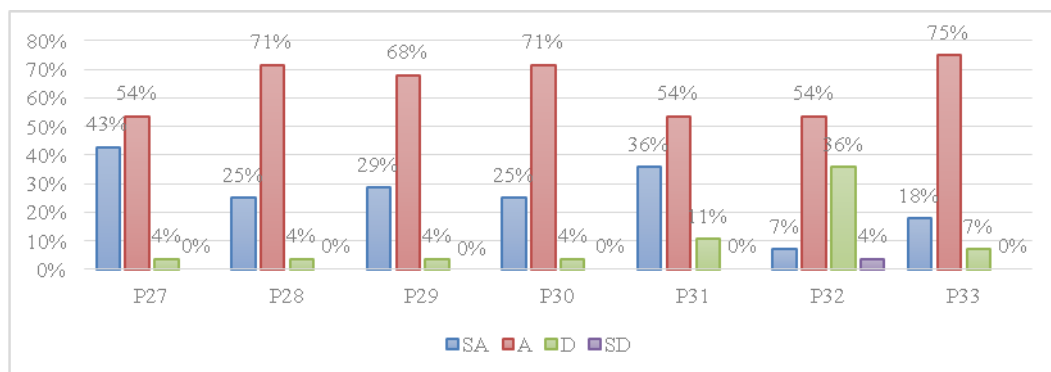
Figure 5 The Students' Perception of Blended Revising Process

Based on figure 5, there are seven items of perceptions, and most of the students perceived agreed upon the implementation of the blended revising process. The finding is supported by table 6.

TABLE 6
REVISING STRATEGIES

No	Stage	Strategies
5.	Revising	- Re-assessing the revised results - Fixing some points based on the discussion that had been done before - Focusing on writing development and content

In revising stage, the participants frequently implemented three strategies.
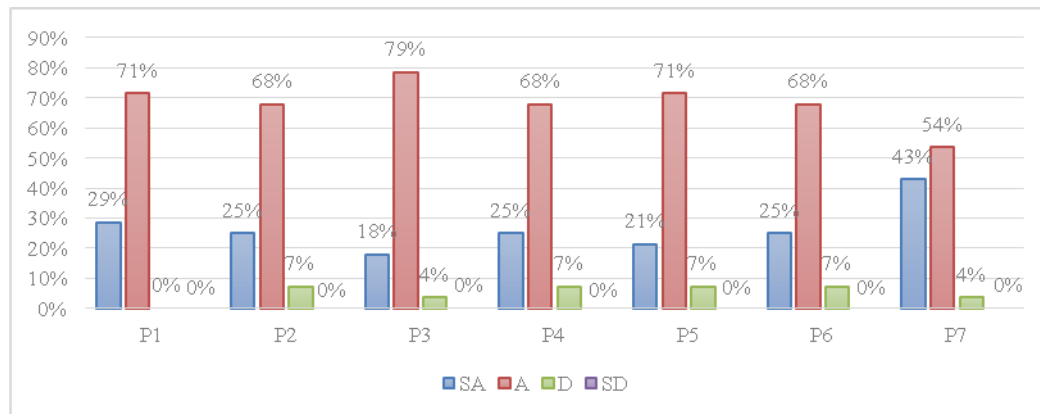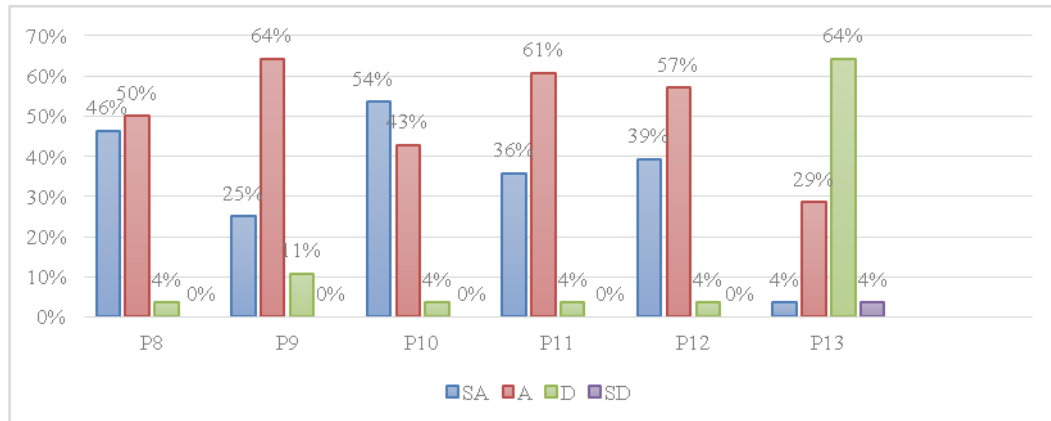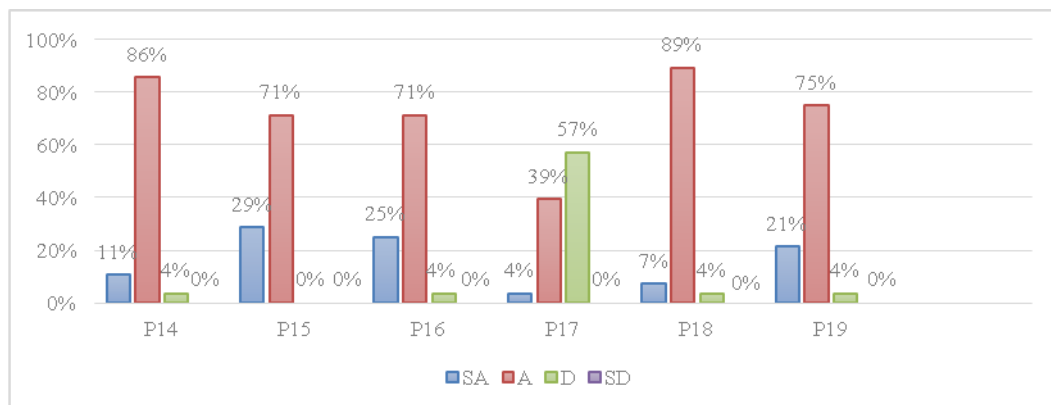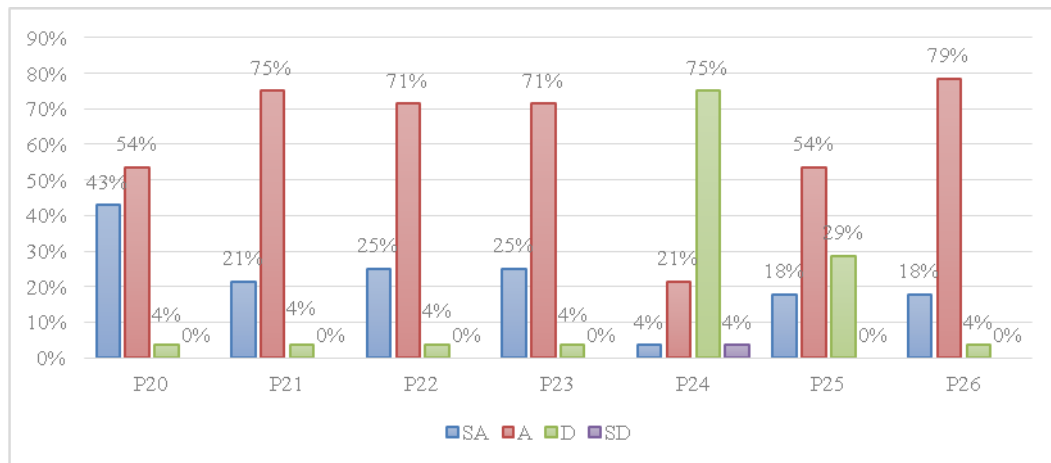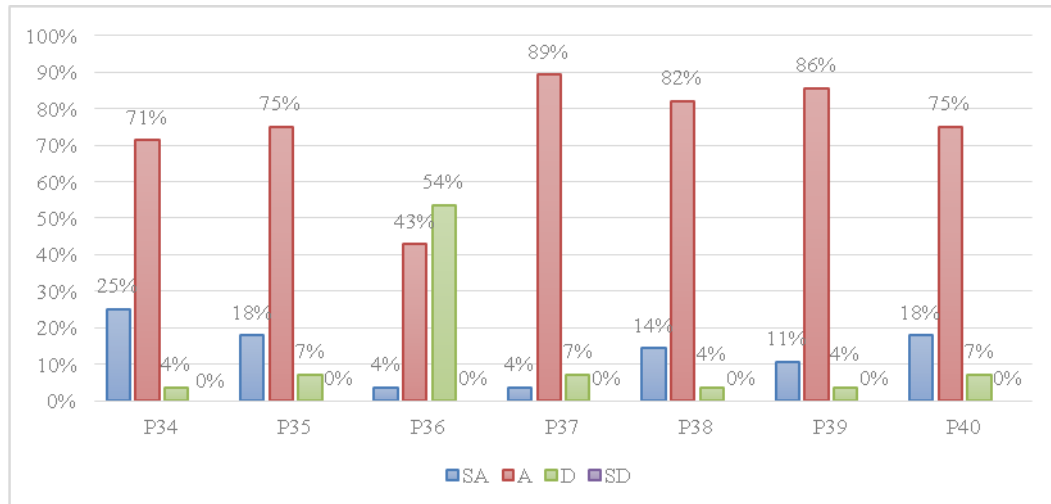
Figure 6 The Students' Perception of the Blended Publishing Process

Based on figure 6, there are seven items of perceptions, and most of the students perceived agreed on the implementation of the blended publishing process. The finding is supported by table 7.

TABLE 7
PUBLISHING STRATEGIES

No	Stage	Strategies
6.	Publishing	- Completing the essay - Reading verbatim the whole essay - Checking the similarity percentages

In the publishing stage, the participants frequently published their final essays using three strategies.

(b). Male and Female Students' Perception of Blended Process-Based Approach in Argumentative Writing Course

TABLE 8
MALE AND FEMALE STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS IN EACH COMPONENT OF PERCEPTION

Criteria	*Frequency*	*Male*	*Female*
Cognitive Perception			
Strongly Agree		5(63%)	12(60%)
Agree		2(25%)	5(25%)
Disagree		1(12%)	3(15%)
Strongly Disagree		0(0%)	0(0%)
Total	28	8(100%)	20(100%)
Affective Perception			
Strongly Agree		2(25%)	14(70%)
Agree		4(50%)	3(15%)
Disagree		2(25%)	3(15%)
Strongly Disagree		0(0%)	0(0%)
Total	28	8(100%)	20(100%)
Conative Perception			
Strongly Agree		2(25%)	5(25%)
Agree		5(63%)	14(70%)
Disagree		1(12%)	1(5%)
Strongly Disagree		0(0%)	0(0%)
Total	28	8(100%)	20(100%)

Based on table 8, it can be seen that the female and male students perceived differently in each domain of perception. Concerning the cognitive perception, male students' strongly agree percentage (63%) exceeds the female students (60%). It portrays that male students perceived stronger beliefs than female students in viewing an object. Conversely, in the affective domain, the female group perceived stronger than the male group on strongly agree scale. The females' agree percentage (70%) exceeds the males' percentage (25%), revealing that female students have higher positive and negative feelings about an object. Moreover, concerning conative perception, which is associated with the students' behaviour or tendency to act on an object, both males and females have the same percentage on strongly agree scale (25%).

(c). Differences in Students' Writing Achievement After Being Treated by Using Blended Process-Based Approach

1. Testing the Normality of the Data

To determine the normality of the data on the writing pre-test and post-test, the Shapiro-Wilk test was conducted, which captured the significant value of the pre-test and post-test (Table 9).

TABLE 9
TESTS OF NORMALITY

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
PRE-TEST	.153	28	.090	.958	28	.313
POST-TEST	.121	28	.200[*]	.961	28	.374

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction
*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

Based on table 9, the significance values of the pre-test and post-test calculated employing Shapiro-Wilk were $0.313 > 0.05$ and $0.374 > 0.05$. It can be concluded that the present data had met the normality assumption.

2. Testing the Difference

To probe the third major research question, a paired-samples t-test was proceeded to statistically compare the participants' mean scores on the pre-test and post-test of argumentative essay writing. As table 10 shows, the participants had a higher mean score on the post-test of writing (M = 82.36, SD = 1.890) than the pre-test (M = 79.86, SD = 2.172).

TABLE 10
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST OF ARGUMENTATIVE ESSAY WRITING

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	PRE-TEST	79.86	28	2.172	.411
	POST-TEST	82.36	28	1.890	.357

The results of the paired-samples t-test t (27) = 9.442, p< .05 (two-tailed) (Table 10) indicate that the students performed significantly better on the writing post-test. The mean score increase in the post-test was 2.5, with a 95% confidence interval ranging from 3.043 to 1.957. Therefore, the answer to this research question is positive.

TABLE 11
PAIRED SAMPLES TEST

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	PRE-TEST POST-TEST	-2.500	1.401	.265	-3.043	-1.957	-9.442	27	0.000

B. Discussion

Following the calls to investigate perception viewed from different gender as well as writing achievement within the emergence of the writing process combined with technology, this study aimed at answering three highlighted research questions which centre on students' perception towards the implementation of the blended process-based approach in the argumentative writing course, their strategies in each stage and the writing achievement of the students. In addition, the results will be interpreted further. They will be related to relevant studies regarding perceptions, gender differences related to perception in writing, strategies in writing, and achievement.

The statistical evidence through percentages revealed that the participants positively perceived the blended process-based approach in the argumentative writing course. Drawing on the statistical evidence garnered through the perception questionnaire, the participants among the four scales most frequently selected the Likert scale of agree. This finding accords with that of Husnawadi (2021), who revealed that the respondents in the survey overall viewed the implementation of the flipped method positively.

The positive perception portrays that using VFC assisted students in joining the writing process stages. The crucial idea and concept of VFC allow students to watch and listen to lectures at home before engaging in interactive activities and applying their knowledge in a virtual synchronized classroom that mimics the actual classroom setting (Ismail & Abdulla, 2019). Thus, the concept of blended learning in this research, which is mainly based on VFC, is the combination of technology integration and stages of writing. This idea has brought the term into the limelight the infusions of web-based technologies (Staker & Horn, 2012), which create new opportunities to interact with peers, instructors, and learning materials, inside and outside the class (Vaughan et al., 2013). Similarly, the students had a high perception of the significance of their written competence through flipped learning approach (Montaner-Villalba, 2021).

The students' perception of the strategies in learning writing might influence their choices of the strategies used in the learning of writing (Eliwarti & Maarof, 2017). In the context of this research, the use of systematic steps of process approach in writing combined with the implementation of VFC is the employment of multiple teaching techniques to train the students' writing performance. The respondents favoured learning through the process approach, which

validates teaching writing through this approach (Bin-Hady et al., 2020). Further, all participants had a highly positive level of perception towards the strategies in the process approach, in which editing and revising strategies were perceived as the most useful (Eliwarti & Maarof, 2017).

A study by Abas and Aziz (2018) figured out the ten writing strategies employed by students in writing: mechanics of writing; relating the topic to past experience and knowledge; talk-writing; freewriting; outlining; listing; using online materials; seeking help; considering the reader; and text organization in each stage of the writing process. Similar to this current research, the findings comprised four strategies in the pre-writing stage, three strategies in the drafting stage, two in the reflecting stage, four in the peer or tutor reviewing stage, and three in the revising stage, and three strategies in the publishing stage.

Amongst the stage, pre-writing has the highest frequency of strategy selections. This result implies that the students have different ways to start writing. Since the students had to prepare what they wrote in the pre-writing stage, they preferred systematic outlining with guidance from the instructor or the scoring rubric. The students also chose to form their ideas into an outline form through searching ideas from multiple resources, which they executed via small group discussion. Students applied this strategy before writing to brainstorm their minds or start writing their ideas.

They also necessitated an outline sample to be used as the sample of outline writing. This strategy can also be done in the classroom by browsing examples of writing from sources on the internet using their mobile phone. The findings mentioned above were supported by (Sari, 2014), who figured out that every student actively engaged in brainstorming their ideas about the topic they chose. Pre-writing is the ready-to-write stage when writers determine the topic and organize ideas (Tompkins, 2019).

The drafting stage strategies were only three that applied to build and develop the outline into a rough draft. They mainly stated that they needed guidance and a scoring rubric which led them to draft the essay. In a study by (Pacello, 2019) figured out that drafting was helpful for students to create the flow of their content more logically. The scoring rubric and the draft sample were necessitated as both helped the participants see how reasons for any side of the argument they chose are put in the draft. By following the guidance and draft sample, the participants could save time in drafting.

In reflecting, the participants tended to focus on reviewing their drafts and figuring out the strengths and weaknesses of their writing. These strategies imply that students consider the urgency of reflection while drafting or after drafting to enhance the quality of their writing. Reflecting helps identify what parts of the essay the students are powerful or weak on. Based on the students' reflection excerpts, revealed that the students took genuine pleasure in writing, despite the obstacles, which mostly related to searching for the appropriate academic vocabulary, and struggling with structures (Carolan & Kyppö, 2015).

The next stage is peer or tutor reviewing, where the strategies are threefold. This stage allowed the participants to share and comment on each other's work based on the provided checklist. Therefore, the first strategy that they did was having peer discussion. Another way, both the writers and their peers check each other writings, so both have benefited from one another. They also compared works with the pair's works to highlight the strengths and weaknesses of the shared draft. Another study (Susanti et al., 2020) figured out that the students had significantly better writing after experiencing proficiency pairings in collaborative writing tasks. The students expected that they had a chance to show their work to someone, get feedback, and revise before submitting the writing to the teacher. A study by Čėsnienė (2015) figured out that following peer review enables students to develop critical evaluation skills, which are used to effectively examine and identify various flaws in the essay's argument. Moreover, the tutor reviewing session allowed them to check mistakes and errorness after gaining feedback from the teacher (Koliadina, 2015; Purnomo et al., 2021). This strategy helps them learn from their mistakes to avoid making the same mistake.

In the stage of revising, threefold strategies were conducted. The participants checked if the essay met the requirements by re-assessing the revised results. It was done in to fix some points based on the discussion that had been priorly done. This implies that checking the essay requirements before and after writing their work is essential. Furthermore, they also focused on writing development and content, which means that they did not solely highlight the writing's surface but also underlined the content of the essay. The last stage is publishing, in which the students mostly applied three strategies. As this is the final stage of the writing process, the students did a final check to complete their essays. It could be done by reading verbatim the whole essay as the strategy. They were also equipped with avoiding plagiarism in creating their essay, so the next strategy they did in the publishing stage was to ensure that their work was plagiarism-free.

Besides, undergoing these strategies in each stage of writing covered by VFC possibly builds different perceptions of male and female students. Male and female students' perception of the blended process-based approach in argumentative writing courses can be seen in Table 8 viewed from 3 dimensions of perception: cognitive perception, affective perception, and conative perception. Generally, it is indicated that male and female students positively perceived the blended process-based approach in all perception dimensions. Specifically, male and female students are perceived differently in all dimensions.

In the cognitive dimension, male students had the highest percentage of strongly agree scale than female students. Conversely, on disagree scale, female students had higher percentages. None of the participants had perceived strongly

disagreed with blended-based process writing. The cognitive process in writing is the intellectual process by which knowledge is gained from perception or ideas (Tarigan et al., 2021). In this case, the male and female students have dissimilar cognitive perceptions in following a blended process-based approach where the male group perceived more on strongly agree scale.

In affective perception, the female students had the highest percentage of strongly agree scale than the males. Similarly, on disagree scale, female students had a higher percentage than males had. Conversely, on agree scale, male students had a higher percentage. Additionally, it is believed that females outperformed males' processing in the affective domain, which drives them to have more positive or negative feelings when joining the blended process-based approach. It is supported by Deng et al. (2016), who figured out that women had stronger emotional expressivity than men.

In conative perception, males selected strongly agree (25%) as the same as females did. On the agree scale, female students had a higher percentage. Correspondingly, female and male students tend to agree on having the perception that they do not surrender easily in doing English writing tasks (Maharani & Fadilah, 2022). They further state that visual support is required to inspire them in defining appropriate themes for their tasks. In contrast, in the disagree scale, male students had a higher percentage than female students. Furthermore, none of the females perceived strongly disagreed. Moreover, men and women act differently psychologically, from how they communicate to how they try to influence others.

A study by Challob et al. (2016) revealed that the participants had favourable impressions of the blended learning writing environment, which they saw as assisting them in reducing their writing anxiety and improving their writing skills. Moreover, it was found that flipped classroom can engage students in the writing process as demonstrated by high means reported for all three constructs, namely emotion (3.88), cognition (3.95), and behaviour (3.96) (Norazmi et al., 2017). Using the blended process-based approach assists the participants in experiencing all stages of writing to create their writing product. The effectiveness of the blended process-based approach can be proven by the higher mean score on the post-test (M = 82.36, SD = 1.890) than that of the pre-test (M = 79.86, SD = 2.172). Additionally, the results of the paired-samples t-test t (27) = 9.442, p< .05 (two-tailed) indicate that the students performed significantly better on the post-test. These findings display that the students achieved perceptible progress in their argumentative essay writing due to using a blended process-based approach as the combination between the process approach and VFC instruction to convert their writing activities.

The process approach and VFC are a tailored combination of a student-centered approach and a blended learning model assisted by a web-based application to writing. Combining these sets of innovations, it offers specific steps such as pre-writing, drafting, reflecting, peer or tutor reviewing, revising, and publishing for the students to spark their argumentative essay writing. These stages also train the students to plan and develop multiple writing drafts, seek feedback from different reviewers, work on revisions, and produce the final drafts. Therefore, compared to the product approach to teaching writing, this combination is more effective for teaching writing to sophomores in the English Language Education Study program context.

These results can be rationalized and are per what the literature review portrays regarding the nature and influence of VFC and process approach in writing. Likewise, a study by (Bin-Hady et al., 2020) had proven that there were improvements in students' writing under the auspices of the process approach, in which the greatest enhancement was demonstrated through the development of the students' performance in providing a counter-argument and refutation. Concerning the process approach, it was implemented within four lessons in a group of a low intermediate class consisting of 25 young adults whose ages ranged from 19 to 34 years old (Mart ńez et al., 2020). It was figured out more organized and structured paragraphs resulted when process writing was conducive to more vital writing skills.

Similarly, the effect of VFC compared with Virtual Classroom on the students' learning abilities was investigated (Mariyana et al., 2021), and it was figured out that those in VFC performed better than those in Virtual Classroom. VFC offers advantages for the students in which the availability of the material in the form of video offers students the freedom to stop or repeat and relearn the material at any time. Another research conducted by Jasionavičienė (2013) infused Web 2.0 tools like blogs and wikis into process approach implementation. These technologies provided a fantastic learning environment that encouraged students to write, improve their digital writing skills, and immerse the students in real-world experience and cross-cultural dialogue.

From the findings discussed, the teaching intervention utilizing a blended process-based approach enhanced the participants' writing skills and adjusted their perceptions towards the process of writing framed within VFC mode assisted by web-based applications. The findings suggest that a blended process-based approach instils valuable benefits. Using the approach boosts learners' experience in the whole process from beginning to end writing tasks. This study had several limitations due to gender and research design. Other researchers may include larger participants with a comparable number of males and females. A future study using a more sophisticated experiment design is needed to determine the cause-effect of the blended process-based approach in English writing class.

IV. Conclusion

This research explored the EFL learners' perception of the blended process-based approach in argumentative writing, the writing strategies, and writing achievement at the collegiate level. Although the study quantitatively was limited to a

pre-experiment with a limited number of informants, the findings –not generalizable through– are vital to build on in further queries. The outcome highlighted that the participants positively perceived the implementation of the blended process-based approach in the argumentative writing course. Even though they perceived positively, the male and female students perceived differently in each dimension of perception. Moreover, the strategies done were distinctive in each stage. These findings are supported by the statistical evidence, which portrays the significant difference between pre-test and post-test results. It indicates that the participants performed better after joining the blended process-based approach in writing the argumentative essay. The findings imply that experiencing each step of writing within VFC mode is still relevant in the writing atmosphere. It is crucial thus to incorporate this approach when teaching writing to EFL learners. To conclude, this research partially contributes to understanding students' perceptions of argumentative writing and writing strategies using the blended process-based approach and their writing achievement in the context of online learning within the 21st century.

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Anak Agung Putri Maharani is a Ph.D. Candidate, Postgraduate Program, Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha, Singaraja, Bali, Indonesia. She is also one of the lecturers in English Language Education Study Program, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Universitas Mahasaraswati Denpasar. She is passionate in the areas of writing, assessment, literacy, and 21st century teaching and learning. She can be contacted at email: agungputrimaharani@gmail.com

Ni Nyoman Padmadewi, M.A. is a professor in English Education Study Program, Faculty of Language and Arts and Postgraduate Program, Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha, Singaraja, Bali, Indonesia. She completed her master degree at Macquarei University, N.S.W Australia and received her doctorate from Udayana University. Her research covers various topics related to pedagogy, development of competency standards, and assessment of English language learning at various levels of education. Apart from being active in teaching and researching, she is also actively involved and organizes various social activities in the context of community development in rural areas. She can be contacted at email: nym.padmadewi@undiksha.ac.id

Ni Made Ratminingsih, M.A. is a professor in the English Education Study Program, Faculty of Language and Arts and the Postgraduate Program, Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha, Singaraja, Bali. Her interest is English Language Teaching (ELT) in the context of learning English as a foreign language (EFL) and learning English for children (TEYL). She completed her master degree in English education at Deakin University with an Australian government scholarship under the Equity Merit Scholarship Scheme (AIDAB) in 1997, and completed her doctoral study at Universitas Negeri Jakarta in 2011 which also went through scholarships obtained from the Indonesian government. She has been active as a speaker in various national and international seminars/conferences. She can be contacted at email: made.ratminingsih@undiksha.ac.id

Made Hery Santosa, S.Pd., M.Pd., Ph.D teaches at the English Language Education Study Program, Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha, Bali, Indonesia. He accomplished his Ph.D. at the Faculty of Education, La Trobe University, Australia. He is an editor at SAGE Open and a reviewer in TESOL, TESL EJ, Springer, Frontiers, Kasetsart Journal, and many others. He has published articles, books, and chapters in reputable journals and publications. He has been invited as keynotes and speakers in international and national academic forums. His research interests include English as a Foreign Language (EFL), Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL), E-Learning, Digital Literacy, Literacy, and Innovative Pedagogies. He can be contacted at email: mhsantosa@undiksha.ac.id

The Relationship Between Chinese EFL Learners' Learning Anxiety and Enjoyment in a Blended Learning Environment

Jing Chen

Department of British American Humanities, College of Humanities, Dankook University, 152, Jukjeon-ro, Suji-gu, Yongin-si, Gyeonggi-do 16890, Korea;
GL International Hospitality Management School, Guilin Tourism University, No.26 Liangfeng Road, Guilin, GuangXi, China

Hyun-Ju Kim

Department of British American Humanities, College of Humanities, Dankook University, 152, Jukjeon-ro, Suji-gu, Yongin-si, Gyeonggi-do 16890, Korea

Abstract—For the past two decades, learner psychology in relation to second language acquisition (SLA) has been a hot topic, and negative emotional variables in students' language learning have attracted a lot of attention. More recently, focus has shifted to a positive emotion, enjoyment, and its relationship with anxiety. The present mixed-method study investigated the levels of FLCA and FLE of 228 Chinese EFL learners, the correlations between the two and the sources evoking these two emotions in a blended learning environment. Considering the questionnaire's findings, participants reported relatively high levels of FLE (Mean=3.53, *SD*=.61) and low levels of FLCA (Mean=3.12, *SD*=.42). There was no significant correlation between FLCA and FLE, according to correlation analysis. Additionally, a qualitative investigation of students' emotional experiences found that FLCA was more closely tied to learner-internal factors while FLE was to the teacher. The conclusions have pedagogical ramifications for EFL teaching in China's educational system.

Index Terms—Chinese EFL learners, positive psychology, foreign language enjoyment, foreign language anxiety, blended learning

I. INTRODUCTION

Language learning is an emotionally and psychologically dynamic process that is influenced by a myriad of ever-changing variables and emotional "vibes" that produce moment-by-moment fluctuations in learners' adaptation (Gregersen et al., 2014). However, until the beginning of the current century, emotions were neglected, while cognitive and social perspectives received significant attention in the FL academic field. A turning point appeared in the 1970s. Dulay and Burt (1977) investigated the role of affect, especially anxiety, in language learning to find an explanation for why some students were able to obtain a high degree of language proficiency while others were not. Since then, numerous studies on emotions, primarily foreign language anxiety (FLA), have been carried out in the area of FL learning, leading to a thorough comprehension of the debilitating impact of anxiety in FL classrooms (MacIntyre, 2017).

In FL learning research, inspired by the idea of positive psychology (PosPsy), attentions to negative emotions shift to a more comprehensive perspective of both sides of the emotions. PosPsy studies: positive emotions, positive individual traits, and positive institutions (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Foreign language enjoyment (FLE) is one of the most studied positive feelings. Dewaele and MacIntyre conducted the first study on FLE in 2014. Since then, Dewaele and others have pursued the study of FLE and its relationship with FLA and other variables (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; Dewaele et al., 2017; Dewaele et al., 2018; Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2019; Dewaele et al., 2019; Dewaele et al., 2020).

One interesting finding in Dewaele and MacIntyre (2014) is that the levels of FLCA and FLE of Asian learners differ significantly from those of learners in the rest of the world (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014). To understand how cultural factors in China may influence the interaction between learner's internal and external variables on foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA) and FLE, as well as the uniqueness of classroom emotions of Chinese FL learners, Li et al. (2018) looked at these issues. Later, investigations on FLCA and FLE among Chinese non-English undergraduates and English majors were conducted (Jiang & Dewaele, 2019; Fang & Tang, 2021).

Regarding the Chinese educational context, one change that should be noted is the recent popularity of blended learning. The People's Republic of China's Ministry of Education stated in its most recent *Guidelines on College English Teaching* that English teachers in China's higher education should widely employ blended learning, which combines online educational materials and opportunities for interaction with traditional place-based classroom methods. Blended learning has always been a hot issue in China's education. One of its benefits is that blended learning can create a favourable English learning environment (Zhang & Han, 2012; Cui, 2014; Yao, 2018).

As learner anxiety and enjoyment are two psychological factors closely related to the external learning environment (Fang & Tang, 2021), it is thus meaningful to investigate Chinese EFL learners' FLE and FLCA to explore the relationship between and to identify the primary sources of both aspects within a blended learning environment.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Blended Learning

Blended learning has always been a hot topic in the educational field, especially in the post pandemic era. Garnham and Kaleta (2002) suggested that "blended learning courses are courses in which a significant portion of the learning activities have been moved online, and time traditionally spent in the classroom is reduced but not eliminated" (as cited in Liu, 2009, p.773). Rovai and Jordan (2004) point out that "a blended course can lie anywhere between the continuum anchored at opposite ends by fully face-to-face and fully online learning environments" (p.4). Quite straightforwardly, blended learning, as defined by Bonk and Graham (2012), combines face-to-face training with computer technology.

The advantages of blended learning have been thoroughly explored in numerous research and can be summed up as follows: enhanced student outcomes; higher level of autonomy and self-directed learning in learners; increased flexibility for teachers and students; personalisation; chances for professional learning; cost efficiencies; and increasing engagement between all the members (teacher and students) in the classroom (Smith & Hill, 2018).

The study of blended learning in China started at the *Seventh Conference of Chinese Application of Computer in Education* in Nanjing in 2003. Professor He Kekang from Beijing Normal University introduced blended learning into the field of China's education technology. Later, in the same year, several studies focused on inducing the theory of blended learning from abroad and explored its implications and influence on the Chinese context (Li & Zhao, 2004; Lv, 2004; Zhao, 2004). Since then, blended learning has witnessed popularity with its implementation of various forms in different levels of education in China (Zhang & Han, 2012; Cui, 2014; Zhang & Zhu, 2018).

B. Foreign Language Anxiety and Foreign Language Enjoyment

In one of his most influential articles, MacIntyre (2017) introduced the three phases of the development of language anxiety research. The first phase, known as the "Confounded Approach", produces inconsistent results since the ideas about anxiety and its effect on language learning were adopted from various sources without detailed consideration of the meaning of the anxiety concept for language learners (Dewaele & Alfawzan, 2018). It moves to the second phase, called the "Specialised Approach", with the ground-breaking study by Horwitz et al. (1986), in which the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) was constructed. According to their definition, FLCA is a "distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviours related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 128). It is related to three performance anxieties: (1) communication apprehension (difficulty in speaking in dyads or groups or public, i.e., oral communication anxiety); (2) test anxiety (a type of performance anxiety stemming from a fear of failure); and (3) fear of negative evaluation (fear of others' judgments, avoiding circumstances where judgments are made, and anticipating negative judgments from others) (Horwitz et al., 1986, p.127). The third phase is the "Dynamic Approach", which is influenced by complexity and dynamic system theory. Numerous learner factors, environmental factors, and other elements interact continuously with anxiety. The factors are specific topics being discussed, physiological reactions, linguistic abilities, interpersonal relationships, self-related appraisals, pragmatics, and the environments in which people are interacting (Sevinç 2020).

MacIntyre (2017) pointed out that "fear and anxiety can be highly detrimental to the learning process" (as cited in Boudreau et al., 2018, p. 151). MacIntyre is neither the first nor the only one to realise that negative emotions hinder L2 learning (Schumann, 1978; Krashen, 1982; Fredrickson, 2003). However, MacIntyre and Gregersen (2012) introduced PosPsy into SLA, shifting exclusive attention on FLA to a more holistic view of negative and positive emotions. They argued that positive emotions encourage students to explore and take calculated risks, which strengthen social cohesiveness and have a good impact on learners' long-term resilience and toughness (MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012).

Boudreau et al. (2018) distinguished FLE from "pleasure", a more superficial experience. They proposed that to distinguish enjoyment from pleasure, one needs to "think of pleasure as a function of conserving or maintaining needs, and enjoyment as a function of progression or challenging limits" (Boudreau et al., 2018, p153).

Although FLE was introduced as a positive counterpart to FLA in the FL classroom, Botes et al. (2020) stressed that they shouldn't be viewed as the opposites of the same emotional state because they are not the two extremes of a continuum. Instead, FLE and FLA should be seen as a learner's left and right feet, and the balance of his body can be maintained "when both feet, enjoyment and anxiety, are brought into equilibrium" (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2016, p. 218).

In terms of the dimensions of FLE, Dewaele and MacIntyre (2014) identified two subdimensions: a social subdimension and a private subdimension. Classroom laughter, shared legends, and enjoyable interactions with teachers and peers are examples of the social aspect. The private aspect includes internal sensations such as happiness, pride, and a sense of accomplishment (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2016). According to Dewaele and Dewaele (2017), there are three components to FLE: social, private, and a peer-controlled versus teacher-controlled positive atmosphere. While examining the psychometric properties of the Chinese version of the Foreign Language Enjoyment Scale, Li et al. (2018)

proposed a new 3-factor model for FLE: FLE-Private, FLE-Teacher, and FLE-Atmosphere (Li et al., 2018). The latter classification was adopted in this study.

C. Studies on the Relationship Between FLCA and FLE

The levels of learners' FLE and FLCA and their correlation were first examined by Dewaele and MacIntyre in 2014. The FLE items (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014) combined with eight items extracted from the FLCAS (Horwitz et al. 1986) was demonstrated to 1746 multilingual from all over the world. The findings demonstrated that the subjects had far more FLE than FLCA. A moderate negative correlation between FLCA and FLE with a small effect size (12.9% of variance was shared) led to the conclusion that these two are separate emotional dimensions. The dataset of this study has been reused for different research purposes: to distinguish dimensions of FLE (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2016); to investigate gender differences in FLCA and FLE at the item level (Dewaele, 2016); and to investigate how multilingualism and perceived proficiency affect FLE and FLCA (Botes et al., 2020).

A pseudolongitudinal approach was employed by Dewaele and Dewaele (2017) to find out how FLCA and FLE evolved among foreign language students from various demographics in London. 189 secondary school pupils aged 12 to 18 were divided into three age groups. A negative relationship between FLCA and FLE across all three age groups was revealed in the result, with only one group showing a significant difference. This result further proved the argument that FLCA and FLE are not two ends of one continuum. Across the three age groups, FLE increased slightly with FLCA remaining static over time.

To look into how FLCA and FLE affect foreign language performance differently, Dewaele and Alfawzan (2018) adopted a mixed-method approach. The participants were two different groups of students. One included 189 foreign language students from two secondary schools in London, and the other had 152 Saudi Arabians who are EFL learners and English language users. The benefit brought by FLE on students' performance was shown to be greater than the harm brought by FLCA. This finding provided excellent evidence for Dewaele et al.'s (2017) advice to improve enjoyment in the learning process rather than focusing solely on decreasing FLCA (Dewaele et al., 2017).

Dewaele et al. (2019) attempted to explore the relationship between FLCA and FLE and other teacher-centred variables within the Spanish classroom context. A moderate negative relationship between FLCA and FLE was revealed. In the cases of participants with L1 English-speaking teachers, greater levels of FLE and lower levels of FLCA were observed, while this is not the case for participants with LX English-speaking teachers.

In Dewaele et al.'s (2022) study, a novel finding was reported. In contrast to prior research that found moderately unfavourable associations between FLCA and FLE, a slight positive correlation was found between FLCA and FLE among 592 learners of Turkish as an FL in Kazakhstan. According to the findings of the study, Kazakh learners were shown higher FLE and slightly higher FLCA. The authors concluded that this result could be interpreted as a more intense emotional state that could be beneficial for learning (Dewaele et al., 2022).

Li et al. (2018) made the first attempt to investigate the FLE level of English learners in China. The authors investigated the psychometric features of the Foreign Language Enjoyment Scale in Chinese. The participants were 2078 Chinese high school students. The dimension FLE-Teacher received the highest score from the participants, followed by FLE-Private and FLE-Atmosphere. By analysing the qualitative data, the authors discovered that, in addition to the teacher-related and peer-related variables, an extensive range of internal and external learner variables also have an impact on an individual's experience of FLE, which is similar to the situation in other parts of the world.

Jiang and Dewaele (2019) claimed that it is essential to examine how cultural factors affect the interactions between learner-internal and learner-external variables on the FLCA and FLE of FL learners in China. Thus, they used a mixed-method technique to determine how different the FLCA and FLE of Chinese EFL learners were from learners from other countries. In their English Listening and Speaking lessons, the participants reported much higher levels of enjoyment than anxiety. The research also discovered a substantial negative relation between FLCA and FLE. FLCA was largely predicted by learner-internal variables, but FLE was mainly predicted by teacher-related variables, confirming prior research conducted outside China.

Fang and Tang (2021) discovered that English majors had much greater levels of FLE than FLCA and they experienced FLE more frequently than FLCA. It was also reported that the participants' FLE was more associated to external variables, while their FLCA was more related to internal variables, such as fear of a negative evaluation and speaking without adequate preparation.

The literature review reveals that a more comprehensive understanding of the FLE and FLCA of Chinese EFL learners needs to be further investigated in diverse circumstances. In this case, FLCA and FLE within a blended learning environment are worth exploring. The current study will look into the following research questions:

RQ1: What are the levels of FLCA/FLA and FLE of Chinese EFL learners in a blended learning environment?

RQ2: What is the relationship between the FLCA and FLE of Chinese EFL learners in a blended learning environment?

RQ3: What sources of FLCA and FLE may be detected in participants' account of enjoyable and anxious experiences in their English classes?

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The current study included 228 second-year undergraduate students (50 males and 178 females) from two provincial key universities in southwest China. The participants' average age was 19.5 years old (SD=0.7). They had been studying English for at least 6 years and had experienced blended learning since they got into the universities. All the participants were non-English majors who majored in arts, management, electronic technology, and so on. The blended learning model is mainly implemented in the *Listening and Speaking* course in this context. Although they were from two different universities, they used the same *Listening and Speaking* textbook, which is recommended by China's Education Ministry for non-English undergraduates. With the rapid development of information technology in China, hundreds of online learning sources have been provided.

B. Instruments

The questionnaire began with a demographics section, from which the above information was gathered. Then, 44 items in total on a 5-point Likert scale (ranging from *strongly disagree*=1 to *strongly agree*=5) were organised to investigate the levels of the students' FLCA and FLE. The questionnaire ended with three open questions.

The first 33 items were extracted from the Chinese version of the FLCAS (Wang, 2003). This Chinese version of FLCAS has been validated. To examine English classroom anxiety, the term "外语 (foreign language)" was revised to "英语 (English)" with items related to the Chinese version of FLCAS. Three dimensions were indicated in these items: communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation (Horwitz et al., 1986). The Cronbach's alpha was 0.89, indicating that the adapted scale had acceptable internal consistency reliability. The remaining 11 items were extracted from the Chinese Foreign Language Enjoyment Scale (CFLES), which contains 3 dimensions: FLE-Private, FLE-Teacher, and FLE-Atmosphere (Li et al., 2018). Cronbach's alpha for the CFLES was 0.826 and 0.792, 0.896, and 0.778 for each dimension, respectively, indicating high reliability within the items.

Fifty-five of the 228 participants answered the open questions. The questions are as follows: 1. What do you think of the blended English class compared to a traditional one? 2. What are the most enjoyable English learning experiences in a blended learning class? 3. What is one of your most nervous English learning experiences in a blended learning class? The first question was intended to offer supportive information for RQ1, and the second and third questions were designed to answer RQ3. These questions were written in both English and Chinese. The students could answer the questions in either English or Chinese.

C. Data Collection and Analysis

Although the blended learning approach has recently received much attention in China, not all English teachers use it. Concerning the above situation, the author purposely invited 4 teachers from two universities who are conducting a BL approach to help with the study.

The data collection proceeded in two phases. First, the questionnaire was organised by Wen Juan Xing (an online platform for designing and distributing questionnaires) and a QR code was generated. In class, the students were informed of the purpose of the investigation, and then their teachers showed the QR code to the whole class. Students voluntarily finished the questionnaire by scanning the QR code. The questionnaire remained online for one month. The questionnaire was anonymous.

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 16.0 served as a tool to analyse the quantitative survey data. The calculation of Q-Q plots showed that the data are non-normally distributed (see Figures 1 and 2). The skewness and kurtosis values confirmed the above conclusion (see Tables 1 and 2). Then, Spearman correlation analysis was employed to examine the relationship between FLCA and FLE.
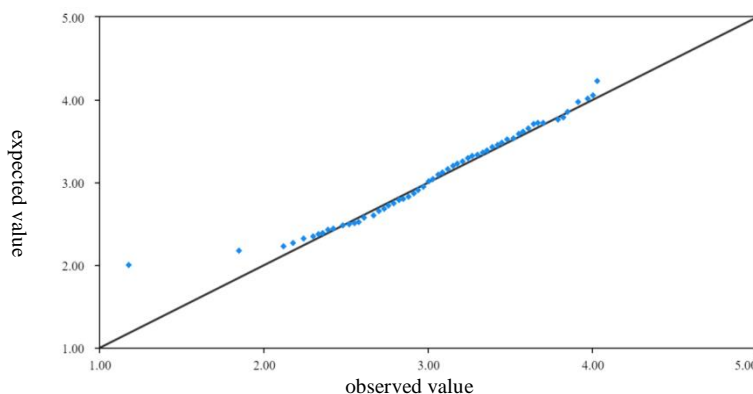
Figure 1 Normal Q-Q Plot of FLCA
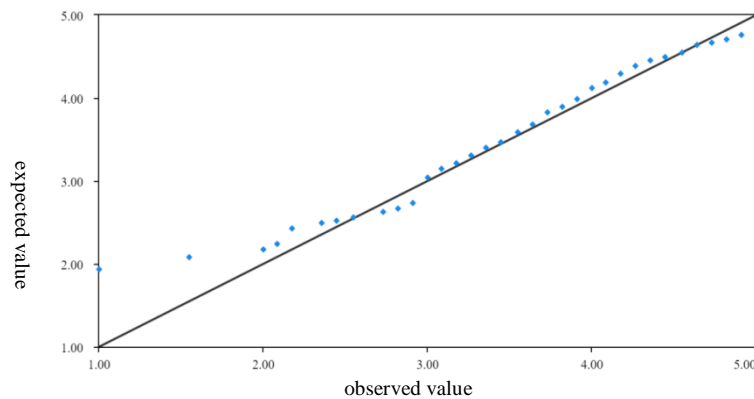
Figure 2 Normal Q-Q Plot of FLE

TABLE 1
TEST OF NORMALITY OF FLCA

	N	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Kolmogorov–Smirnov test	
						Statistic	p
FLCA	228	3.116	0.423	-0.478	1.799	0.065	0.020*

* *p<0.05 ** p<0.01*

TABLE 2
TEST OF NORMALITY OF FLE

	N	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Kolmogorov–Smirnov test	
						Statistic	p
FLE	228	3.530	0.610	-0.302	1.456	0.096	0.000**

* *p<0.05 ** p<0.01*

NVivo 11 software was used to analyse qualitative data in the second phase. Fifty-five students answered the open questions, with 25 responding to the questions in English and the rest responding in Chinese. The coding approaches of Jiang and Dewaele (2019) and Horwitz et al. (1986) were employed in this study. For FLE, the transcriptions were divided into three major categories: "FLE-self", "FLE-teacher", and "FLE-peer". FLE-self is defined as no other person, but the participant him/herself is mentioned as the cause of the emotion. The second category, FLE-teacher, identifies the instructor as the primary cause of the feelings. The third group is FLE-peers, which denotes that the emotions are specifically brought on by other peers' acts or interactions with other peers. The three main categories for FLCA are communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. As some descriptions touched upon multiple themes, there was some overlapping coding.

IV. RESULTS

RQ1: What are the levels of FLCA/FLA and FLE of Chinese EFL learners?

Tables 3 and 4 show that the mean levels for FLCA and FLE were 3.12 (SD=.42) and 3.53 (SD=.61) respectively. These means are within the range of FLCA and FLE values from earlier investigations (see Table 5).

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR FLE

	N	Min.	Max.	M	SD
FLE	228	1.00	5.00	3.53	0.61

TABLE 4
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR FLCA

	N	Min.	Max.	M	SD
FLCA	228	1.18	4.15	3.12	0.42

TABLE 5
COMPARISON OF VALUES OF FLCA AND FLE IN THE PRESENT STUDY WITH THE PREVIOUS ONES

	Present study	DM 14	LJD 18	JD 19	FT 21
FLE	3.53	3.8	3.12	3.94	3.4
FLCA	3.12	2.8	/	3.14	3.12

DM14: Dewaele and MacIntyre 2014; LJD 18: Li, et al. 2018; Jiang and Dewaele 2019; FT 21: Fang and Tang 2021

RQ2: What is the relationship between the FLCA and FLE of Chinese EFL learners?

TABLE 6
SPEARMAN'S CORRELATION ANALYSIS

	FLCA
FLE	-0.053
* P<0.05 ** P<0.01	

Spearman's correlation revealed no correlation between FLCA and FLE of Chinese EFL learners, which once again confirms the findings of previous research (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; Dewaele et al., 2017; Dewaele et al., 2018; Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2019; Dewaele et al., 2019).

RQ3: What sources of FLCA and FLE may be detected in participants' account of enjoyable and anxious experiences in the blended English classes?

To answer RQ3, the author conducted a qualitative analysis of the data collected by the open questions on the most enjoyable/anxious experiences in the blended English classes. Tables 7 and 8 provide a summary of the sources for these categories as well as the total number of tokens under each source.

TABLE 7
THREE CATEGORIES OF FLE AND THE NUMBER OF TOKENS IN THE ACCOUNT OF 55 PARTICIPANTS ON ENJOYABLE EEXPERIENCES

Category	FLE-self	FLE-teacher	FLE-peer
number of tokens	22	26	11

Table 7 demonstrates participants' FLE is more connected with the FLE-teacher and FLE-self categories. Teacher recognition was most frequently mentioned among the participants, for example:

Extract 1

I felt most pleasant when I was praised by the teacher.

Among the FLE-self category, the realisation of progress was mentioned most frequently, accounting for 84% of the 22 tokens. Among the FLE-peer categories, peer interaction was the only one indicated as a source of enjoyment. The evidence can be obtained from the following description of the participant's enjoyable interaction with his classmates.

Extract 2

In the English class, I really enjoyed exchanging thoughts with my classmates because it can broaden my view and enrich my knowledge. What's more, I can remember some new English words and phrases while talking with others.

TABLE 8
THREE CATEGORIES OF FLCA AND THE NUMBER OF TOKENS IN THE ACCOUNT OF 55 PARTICIPANTS ON ANXIOUS EXPERIENCES

Category	Communication apprehension	Test anxiety	Fear of negative evaluation
number of tokens	55	0	0

As shown in Table 8, participants' FLE is exclusively related to communication apprehension with multiple manifestations, such as teacher questioning (26), receiver anxiety in the listening tasks (22), and speaking in front of the class (10). For example:

Extract 3

I felt so nervous while I couldn't get the speaker's idea in the listening materials.

Extract 4

I felt so nervous as my teacher asked me to answer some questions.

V. DISCUSSION

From the result of the first question, it is reported that the participants experienced a relatively higher level of FLE than that of FLCA in a blended English learning class. This supports the conclusions of earlier research. It can be easily noted (see Table 5) that participants in the current study reported FLE levels that were lower than those of Jiang and Dewaele (2019), who also investigated non-English majors in China. This may be due to the different levels of English proficiency between the participants of the two studies. As mentioned in the limitations section, Jiang and Dewaele (2019) point out that the participants of their study were from a prominent Chinese university and had a relatively good command of English. Consequently, their conclusions cannot be applied to all Chinese universities.

On the other hand, comparing the results from Li et al.'s (2018) and Fang and Tang's (2021) studies, the participants in the present study reported higher levels of FLE. While describing the differences between a blended English learning class and a traditional one (English classes in most high schools in China), all of the participants expressed a preference for the blended learning model. Many of them mentioned the benefits of online learning, such as offering them enough time and various sources for better preparation for offline classes (the original transcriptions were translated from Chinese into English by the author):

Extract 5

Online English classes can effectively arise my interest in learning English with so many choices of learning materials. It can also help me review and consolidate my knowledge. As a result, I can participate more in the offline classes with good preparations.

Extract 6

There is more time for free learning. I can learn according to my own pace and my own schedule. Sometimes I would learn something again and again until I could completely understand it.

Based on the above account, it can be concluded that a blended learning environment can contribute to the improvement of Chinese EFL learners' FLE.

The second research question dealt with the correlation between FLCA and FLE of Chinese non-English major EFL learners. The results of Spearman's correlation analysis showed that no correlation existed between the participants' FLCA and FLE, which confirms the results of earlier investigations (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; Li et al., 2018; Jiang & Dewaele, 2019; Fang & Tang, 2021). This further supports the claim that FLCA and FLE do not reflect opposite extremities of a single continuum of classroom emotions (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014). According to this, Chinese learners may have higher FLE and lower FLCA. Meanwhile, there may be a possibility that students experience both high FLCA and FLE or neither.

The third question focused on the sources of the FLCA and FLE of participants' account in the blended English classes. The primary contributor to FLE experiences was cited as the teacher. In contrast, the sources of FLCA mainly related to learner-internal variables, such as fear of speaking English in public or listening to a spoken message. These results support the idea that whereas FLE is more dependent on circumstance and connected to teacher and peer behaviour as well as interactions between all parties, FLCA is more learner-driven (Dewaele et al., 2018).

It makes sense, with the result of all 55 participants showing communication apprehension in their English classes. First, most Chinese students are poor performers in the productive skills of English, while they can be pretty impressive in written examinations. The participants in this study experienced blended learning in the English Listening and Speaking course. Like most Chinese EFL learners, they rarely had opportunities to speak English before they got into universities. Additionally, insufficient exposure to the target language has a significant influence on their listening and speaking abilities.

VI. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

The findings of this study have educational importance for Chinese universities' English teachers. Instead of overly focusing on eliminating FLCA, teachers should focus on creating an enjoyable English learning environment.

The first contribution of this study has been to confirm that blended learning should be widely implemented in foreign language teaching in China. Regardless of its implementation design, blended learning has been proven to significantly improve language teaching and learning (Ma'arop & Embi, 2016). When online sessions were added to conventional classes, students not only learned more, but also interacted with each other more actively. Besides that, blended learning also provided flexibility to students and enhanced feedback time (Ma'arop & Embi, 2016). Students can be well prepared before class. As a result, the anxiety associated with insufficient preparation can be reduced. With sufficient preparation, students' confidence will be grown while their FLCA will be alleviated to a certain extent.

Second, this study contributes to existing knowledge of the crucial role of the teacher in provoking students' pleasant feelings (Dewaele et al., 2018; Liu & Guo, 2021). Teachers are expected to be friendly, humorous and supportive. A friendly learning environment can be built with the positive impact of a teacher's good personality, which also can help reduce students' anxieties related to the fear of negative evaluation. Although Dewaele (2015) strongly pleaded that teachers need the freedom to do unexpected, challenging, and humorous things and he sees routine as a classroom killer. Nevertheless, in China's context, teachers do have to follow some routines. It is safe and efficient for teachers to arrange innovative and enjoyable activities which correspond to learners' interests and their language proficiency levels (Jiang & Dewaele, 2019).

Third, it is well established from a variety of studies that positive group dynamics have measurable positive effects (Dörnyei & Muir, 2019). Teachers can build a healthy learning environment by promoting acceptance and cohesiveness within a class group. Some of the main factors listed by Dörnyei and Murphey (2003) are as follows:

1. Learning about each other: By sharing personal information with each other, the relationship between members can be quickly established.

2. Shared group history: It represents the time students spent with each other, which can create a bonding effect among them.

3. The rewarding nature of group activities: It includes the enjoyment of participating in the activities, achievement of these goals, approval of the goals and personal benefits.

4. Group legend: Successful groups frequently develop a type of group mythology, which includes naming the group, generating specific group traits (such as a slogan), and partaking in group rituals, as well as developing group mottoes, logos, and other symbols.

5. Cooperation towards common goals: The most effective way to bring group members together is cooperation toward common goals. It has been well proven that even hostile parties can work with each other under such circumstances.

6. Teacher role modelling: Students always prefer friendly and supportive teachers.

Fourth, teachers shouldn't have to follow rigid rules and a uniform curriculum that restricts their ability to be creative, which has been realised in a blended learning environment. It is suggested that teachers should offer more freedom in language assessment, which means that the forms of language assessment can be diverse and more formative than summative. In this case, as the forms of language assessment are diverse in a blended learning class, test anxiety can be eliminated for most students.

With regard to the research design, some limitations need to be acknowledged. First, the sample size is relatively small compared with other studies. Future research could investigate participants from different levels of education as it targets EFL learners, not just university students. Second, as Dewaele and Dewaele (2017) noted, emotions are dynamic in nature and so do the causes of positive and negative emotions and their relationships. It is recommended that further research be undertaken to examine the longitudinal changes in positive emotions and negative emotions in the foreign language learning classroom.

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Jing Chen was born in Hubei province of China in 1987. In 2010, she earned a bachelor's degree of Liberal Science and majored in English Teaching at Hengyang Normal University, China. In 2012, she earned a master's degree of Liberal Science and majored in English Teaching at Guangxi Normal University, China.

She worked as an English teacher in Guidian Middle School from 2012 to 2016. Now, she is working as an English teacher at Guilin Tourism University, Guilin, China. Meanwhile, she is studying in a Ph.D. program at Dankook University, Korea. Her main interest is English language teaching, specifically speaking blended learning and the application of positive psychology in the English language learning classroom.

In 2021, her study *Integration of Flipped Classroom Model for a Hotel English Course in China* was published in the International Journal of Foreign Language Teaching and Research.

Hyun-Ju Kim is a professor of English at Dankook University in Korea, where she teaches undergraduate and graduate courses in TESL and applied linguistics. She received her Ph.D. in the program of Foreign Language and ESL Education at the University of Iowa in the US. Her research interests are in World Englishes, L2 assessment, the integration of World Englishes perspectives into the non-native speakers' English language proficiency tests, etc.

A Review of Teachers' Perceptions of the Use of Social Networking Sites for the Teaching and Learning of English

Shereen Wong

Faculty of Education, National University of Malaysia, Selangor, Malaysia

Melor Md Yunus

Faculty of Education, National University of Malaysia, Selangor, Malaysia

Abstract—Due to the advent of the industrial revolution 4.0, there is now a crucial need for teachers to ensure that pupils are both skilled in English and technologically savvy. Due to the Covid-19 pandemic, the use of social networking sites (SNSs) has become compulsory. Their use has influenced the education system, which has embraced online learning. By implementing SNSs, English teachers have provided pupils with ample opportunities to learn, apply and produce knowledge, rather than simply to regurgitate it. As such, this literature review was conducted to study and summarise English teachers' perceptions of the use of SNSs in terms of their level of effectiveness, the degree to which they motivate pupils and how difficult they are to implement for teaching English. This review also sheds light on English teachers' willingness and readiness to use SNSs. The review synthesizes a total of 35 articles from 2018 to 2022, and it demonstrates that teachers feel positive about implementing SNSs in their English classrooms; according to the teachers studied, these platforms provide more advantages than disadvantages and are able to impressively enhance pupils' proficiency. This review contributes to the body of knowledge on new teaching methodologies by revealing the latest trends regarding teachers' perceptions of the use of SNSs for the teaching and learning of English.

Index Terms—social networking sites, systematic literature review, teachers' perceptions, education technology, PRISMA

I. INTRODUCTION

The transnational flow of education in a globalized society is greatly affected by pupil needs and aspirations. As such, several stakeholders have launched myriad efforts to improve English teaching and learning to provide pupils with a quality education in accordance with United Nations' Sustainable Development Goals (SDG). According to González et al. (2020), the fourth SDG entails providing quality education, eliminating gender disparities and the urban–rural gap, and ensuring equal access to education across the country. Thus, the ways in which teachers and administrators advance this goal whist taking into account the differences in privilege between pupils from urban areas and those from rural areas, greatly affect pupils' growth. Due to the requirements of today's increasingly globalized society, it is crucial that pupils be both multi-talented and skilled, in not only all four English skills, but also in the use of technology. As countries worldwide competed with one another to achieve the intended economic and education successes, with graduates constantly competing to fulfil the high requirements companies demanded, Covid-19 hit the world like a storm. This turn of events urged ministries of education across the world to drastically increase online learning to ensure that education prevailed despite the pandemic. Over the years, teachers have reported success in the implementation of technology, usually social networking sites (SNSs), in the teaching of English, and such success stories have become even more common since the pandemic began. After all, as Cloete (2017) asserted, the use of SNSs has come a long way; such sites now play a central role in flipped learning, blended learning and even online learning.

This review was carried out based on past studies to better comprehend English teachers' perceptions of using of SNSs to teach English. The aim of this study is to shed light on teachers' perceptions of utilizing these platforms in terms of their effectiveness, the motivation they provide and possible difficulties they create for English instruction throughout the world. This literature review also aims to investigate English teachers' willingness and readiness to use SNSs in their teaching practices. As described below, this review was conducted using the preferred reporting items for systematic review and meta-analyses (PRISMA) 2020 checklist. Before discussing the studies analysed for the purposes of this systematic review, further insights on SNSs and the teaching and learning of English are presented below.

In order to study English teachers' perceptions of using SNSs in the teaching and learning of English, this systematic literature review was conducted to provide a better understanding of teachers' perspectives as well as to provide insight on how willing and ready they are to continue using SNSs in their classrooms. This systematic review aims to answer the following questions:

1. What are English teachers' perceptions of the use of SNSs in the teaching and learning of English?

2. How willing and ready are teachers to use SNSs in the teaching and learning of English?

II. CORE CONCEPTS

A. Teaching and Learning of English

English is not only the second language in most countries; it also functions as a lingua franca worldwide. Hence, there is an urgent need to teach the language. The English language contains numerous idiosyncratic structures with four main skills – listening, speaking, reading and writing – that pupils must master by the end of their 11 years of schooling. In today's society, in addition to being able to communicate in their national language and in English as a second language, pupils' abilities to perform tasks using technology and communicate using SNSs are also highly valued (Tohara, 2021). These skills are now considered part of pupils' holistic development. Thus, this paradigm shift allows teachers to play a huge role in achieving these goals and instilling pupils with the required skills. Additionally, in order to cope with challenges presented by Covid-19, ministries of education made decisions related to online learning, and almost all education-related communication was shifted to SNSs. According to Mishra et al. (2020), due to the sudden outbreak of Covid-19, most pupils were forced to use technology in order to learn. School teachers and pupils were provided with emails for use with Google Classroom, and schools were given the authority to design and implement schedules for online learning. At schools that complied with these changes, pupils advanced technologically.

This proliferation of the use of technology and upsurge of accessibility has enabled teachers worldwide to connect, communicate ideas and improve their pupils' learning opportunities using SNSs (Prestridge, 2019). This represents a great shift in the professional learning landscape for both teachers and pupils; it has provided pupils with opportunities for constant, self-directed and on-demand learning. Teachers now opt to use SNSs to find educational resources as well as networks with which to cooperate and curate lesson plans with fellow teachers and pupils at any time. As mentioned above, English teachers have utilized newer teaching strategies such as implementing SNSs in their classrooms. This method enables both teachers and pupils to stay connected before, during and even after school, increasing the chance that pupils will pick up the language. Additionally, as noted by Albiladi and Alshareef (2019), this new mode of teaching blends both traditional and online teaching modes, and it is an effective method for developing pupils' language skills by indirectly enhancing the English learning environment. This change in teaching styles is necessary if schools are to achieve 21st- century educational goals in accordance with global educational standards. Using a combination of traditional and online teaching modes not only produces efficient teachers but also yields skilful pupils capable of competing worldwide by utilizing their English skills.

B. Social Networking Sites (SNSs)

The application of technology and media to education not only leads to faster, more effective learning; it also makes learning more enjoyable for pupils. Teachers' pedagogical skills are likewise advanced when technology, especially SNSs, is implemented for the acquisition of English. Alizadeh (2018) defined SNSs as a group of Internet-based applications built on the ideological and technological foundations of Web 2.0. Meanwhile, Alakrash and Razak (2019) asserted that SNSs are web-based services that enable users to display a semi-public profile within a bounded system of other individuals they have chosen to connect with. In short, SNSs are applications that permit teachers to explore their connections to fellow teachers and pupils within the system. The many SNSs that are often used in the teaching and learning of English include Facebook, Whatsapp, Tiktok and Instagram. The use of these social platforms for an academic purpose, namely the teaching and learning of English, has enabled teachers to communicate more fluidly with pupils, who are now able to connect with teachers and learn outside school hours.

Due to the advancement of the industrial revolution 4.0, education has taken a new shape in which classrooms are flipped and pupils are self-directed and independent. SNSs provide pupils with ample opportunities to learn, create, apply and produce knowledge, rather than to just listen and regurgitate knowledge learnt from their teachers. Alakrash et al. (2021) seconded this, mentioning that posited learning spaces are now nestled within virtual environments, meaning that learning is not limited to the four walls of the classroom. This implies that, due to the presence of technology-supported applications like SNSs, teachers are now able to more thoroughly engage in in-classroom activities. The sudden dependency on SNSs as a source of learning has changed the role of English instruction. Avidov-Ungar and Forkosh-Baruch (2018) corroborated this statement by stating that, in this era of globalization, teachers and administrators must not only acquire knowledge of Information Communication Technology implementation but also develop a contemporary technology-enabled curriculum. Henceforth, questions regarding teachers' perceptions of the use of SNSs in the teaching and learning English have surfaced; after all, the use of SNSs could be quite overwhelming for pupils without proper management by the teachers.

III. DATA SOURCES AND ANALYSIS

As mentioned in the introduction, the PRISMA 2020 checklist was used to conduct this systematic literature review. The PRISMA checklist includes 27 criteria to uphold transparency when conducting a systematic review. Descriptive comparison, a comparative research approach, was used. This paper aims to investigate English teachers' perceptions of the use of SNSs in the teaching and learning of the language. Teachers' perceptions in terms of how efficient,

motivating and difficult they find SNSs to be for teaching English are analysed. Additionally, this study also explores English teachers' willingness and readiness to use SNSs. The main aim of this systematic literature review is to enhance understanding of how teachers perceive the use of SNSs for teaching English. This study was conducted in three phases, as described below.

A. Phase I: Identification

In this phase, relevant studies were selected for systematic review. Inclusion and exclusion criteria were not yet applied at this stage. The databases used were Scopus and Google Scholar, and the keywords used for this study are listed below in Table 1. Galvan and Galvan (2017) mentioned that literature evaluations must not only be broad but also include the most recent findings. Hence, articles from 2018 to 2022 were selected for this study. In order to further specify the articles chosen, the inclusion and exclusion criteria displayed in Table 2 were applied.

TABLE 1
KEYWORDS USED TO FIND ARTICLES

Databases	Keywords
Scopus	TITLE-ABS-KEY (("Social Networking Site *" OR "SNS *" OR "Social Media Sites *") AND ("teacher perception *" OR "teacher view *" OR "teacher willingness *" OR "teacher motivation" OR "teacher difficulty"))
Google Scholar	Social Networking Sites (SNSs) AND teachers' perception, Social Networking Sites (SNSs) AND English teaching, Social Networking Sites (SNSs) AND teachers' motivation, Effectiveness of Social Networking Sites (SNSs) AND teachers' view, Social Networking Sites (SNSs) AND teachers' willingness, Social Networking Sites (SNSs) AND teachers' readiness

TABLE 2
INCLUSION AND EXCLUSION CRITERIA

Criterion	Inclusion	Exclusion
Language	English	Non-English
Year published	2018–2022	before 2018
Type of article	Journal article	Book, book chapter, systematic review
Perceptions	Teachers, student-teachers, teachers in addition to pupils and parents	Pupils, parents

B. Phase 2: Screening

Suitable articles were selected from Scopus and Google Scholar. Scopus was selected because it presents a list of prestigious articles recognized by authors around the world, and Google Scholar was selected because it offers a large range of articles related to various aspects of the study. In a process that took approximately two weeks, selected articles were screened, and duplicates were eliminated. The articles were then screened once more to ensure that they aligned with the requirements set by the researcher. Articles were excluded (see Table 2) if they were not written in English; were published before 2018; were books, book chapters or systematic reviews; or analysed the perceptions of pupils and parents.

C. Phase 3: Inclusion

This phase followed the screening phase. During this phase, the researcher ensured that the remaining articles aligned with the inclusion criteria. For the purposes of this study, articles analysing the perceptions of teachers, student-teachers, and teachers in addition to pupils and parents were included, whilst articles focusing on the perceptions of solely pupils and parents were excluded. Articles on the perceptions of student-teachers were included because the researcher believed that their input would be vital in helping to gauge and understand teachers' readiness to apply SNSs in the English classroom. As such, this phase was crucial to ensuring that the data obtained were reliable and of high quality.
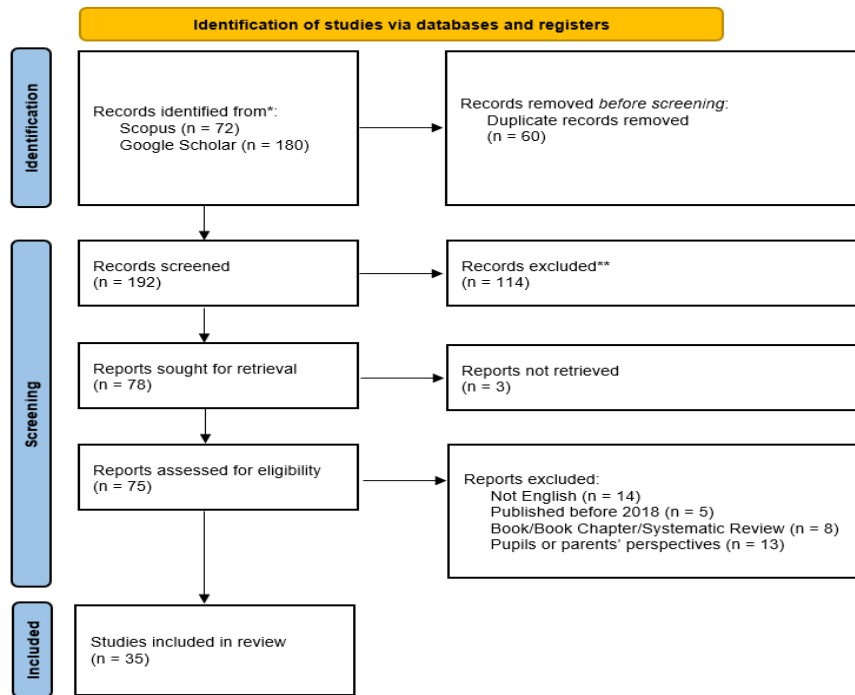
Figure 1 Chart of the Research Article Selection Process

IV. RESEARCH RESULTS

This section of the systematic literature review highlights and discusses the results of the selected research articles in great detail. Following the three phases described above, a total of 35 articles were identified as suitable for the study. These articles were read and analysed. Three main aspects of teachers' perceptions of the use of SNSs in the teaching and learning of English were observed, as shown in Table 3. The three main aspects were SNSs' perceived effectiveness, their ability to motivate pupils and their difficulty of use. Additionally, the number and percentage of research articles found for each aspect of teachers' perceptions are shown in Table 4.

TABLE 3
FINDINGS ON TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE USE OF SNSS FOR TEACHING ENGLISH

Methods	Authors	Perceptions		
		Effectiveness	Motivation	Difficulty
Qualitative study, n = 16	Arfiandhani (2020)	/	/	/
	Khoshsima at al. (2018)	/		/
	Rwodzi & De Jager (2021)	/	/	/
	Hamadeh et al. (2020)	/	/	/
	Kwihangana (2020)		/	/
	Xue & Churchill (2020)	/	/	
	Xu (2018)	/	/	
	Alberth et al. (2018)	/	/	
	Habibi et al. (2018)	/	/	
	Lilis & Yudhi Arifani (2021)	/	/	/
	Amelia (2020)	/		
	Lukas & Yunus (2021)	/		/
	Kusuma (2022)		/	/
	Maghfira (2021)	/	/	
	Asmara (2020)	/	/	/
	Dayu (2018)	/	/	
Quantitative study, n = 8	Far ́as & V ́diz (2019)		/	
	Cihat, Aydin, & Bagci (2019)		/	
	Bjørkelo, Almås, & Helleve (2021)			/
	Forkosh & Hershkovitz (2018)			/
	Noori et al. (2022)		/	
	Namaziandost & Nasri (2019)	/	/	
	Yildiz Durak (2019)	/	/	/
	Farooq & Soomro (2018)	/		/
Mixed methods study, n = 11	Thumvichit (2021)	/	/	/
	Sirivedin et al. (2018)	/	/	
	Van et al. (2020)	/	/	/
	Ganapathy, Kabilan, & Meenakshisundram (2020)	/		
	Purnamasari, A. (2019).	/		
	Yunus, Zakaria, & Suliman (2019)	/	/	/
	Ubaedillah et al. (2021)	/	/	/
	Rahayu & Wirza (2020)	/		
	Zheng, Yim, & Warschauer, (2018)	/	/	
	Nariyati, Sudirman, & Pratiwi (2020)	/	/	
	Yusof et al. (2021)	/		/

TABLE 4
NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF ARTICLES DISCUSSING THE DIFFERENT PERCEPTIONS

Perceptions	Number of Articles	Percentage
Effectiveness	28/35	80
Motivation	25/35	71.4
Difficulty	18/35	51.4

V. DISCUSSION

This section details teachers' perceptions of the use of SNSs in the teaching and learning of English in terms of their effectiveness, the degree to which they motivate pupils and the difficulties they present. This section also sheds light on teachers' willingness and readiness to apply SNSs in their English language teaching.

A. English Teachers' Perceptions of the Effectiveness of SNSs

As mentioned earlier, a total of 180 articles were initially selected, and at the end of the screening process, 35 articles were selected for analysis. Of these 35 articles, 28 (80%) discussed teachers' perceptions of how effective SNSs are in the teaching and learning of English in schools worldwide, indicating that effectiveness is one of the main elements discussed regarding English teachers' views on their use of SNSs. This indicates that most teachers agreed that SNSs are effective tools for teaching English. Teachers from around the world agreed that SNSs are effective tools for teaching English as they not only help pupils learn in fun and meaningful ways but also enhance teacher–pupil communication. SNSs can be utilized in myriad ways, including for sharing information and videos and even for conducting collaborative activities (Alberth et al., 2018; Arfiandhani, 2020; Rwodzi & De Jager, 2021). Lukas and Yunus (2021) noted that English teachers in Malaysia preferred to use SNSs to teach English as they believed that these applications are especially effective for promoting pupils' enthusiasm in learning the language as they enable pupils to communicate with friends and discuss topics, they find interesting. SNSs also enabled teachers to share information with their pupils for the sake of informal learning, which they hoped would, in time, further motivate pupils to autonomously learn the language (Thumvichit, 2021). In addition to helping teachers to communicate with their pupils, SNSs also enabled teachers to communicate among themselves and thereby develop professionally (Yusof et al., 2021).

This aspect of SNSs provided both parties with ample opportunities to learn and improve their own abilities in real time. A study conducted by Yunus et al. (2019) described English teachers in Vietnam successfully using Facebook and Zalo to promote English language learning in the classroom. The study demonstrated that meaningful interactions through these SNSs and their interactive features provided pupils with opportunities to acquire, exchange and create new linguistic knowledge. Meanwhile, a study conducted by Khoshsima et al. (2018) indicated that the application of SNSs such as Telegram resulted in Iranian English teachers' professional growth as they had the opportunity to collaborate with one another and share ideas to further enhance their teaching. According to these studies, SNSs are not only effective for improving pupils' overall performance in English but also for assisting teachers in developing their English teaching skills.

B. English Teachers' Perceptions of How SNSs Motivate the Pupils and Themselves

As stated in the introduction, teachers' perceptions of how different SNSs are able to motivate the pupils and themselves were also analysed. Specifically, this section presents a discussion of how English teachers viewed the way SNSs motivated them to improve their teaching and their pupils to improve their language. Teachers believed that motivation plays a vital role in helping pupils learn a language as creating a positive perception of the subject matter aids pupils in being willing to autonomously learn the language (Dayu, 2018; Kusuma, 2022; Yildiz Durak, 2019). After all, without proper motivation, pupils eventually lose interest in the language, making it difficult for them to grasp its importance and functionality. Of 35 articles, 25 (approximately 71.4%) mentioned about how SNSs were able to motivate both teachers and pupils to better teach and learn the language. This indicates that teachers have come to see SNSs as tools that should continue to be utilized for teaching and learning English. SNSs enable pupils to communicate with fellow classmates and teachers before and after their schooling hours. The extra help they acquire through the implementation of SNSs further motivates them to learn the language. As quoted in a study conducted by Yunus et al. (2019), pupils become motivated to learn English by using SNSs because these platforms create an entertaining yet meaningful learning environment. This study highlighted the fact that English teachers realized that their pupils displayed great progress in their language learning after SNSs were implemented.

Moreover, a qualitative interview study conducted by Kwihangana (2020) demonstrated that a teacher who used to reject the use of SNSs became more open to the idea of utilizing them after he was exposed to the abundance of benefits that follow their implementation. As stated in Maghfira (2021) and Van et al. (2020), pupils in the 21st century are accustomed to conducting online learning and have been proven to learn more effectively with the aid of SNSs. This emphasises the fact that teachers must move towards implementing blended learning by combining traditional teaching methods and online learning in order to enable pupils to achieve their language-learning potential. In short, teachers worldwide generally agree that SNSs are appropriate for use in teaching English as they influence pupils positively, motivate teachers to teach more effectively and motivate pupils to learn more effectively.

C. English Teachers' Perceptions of the Difficulty of Using SNSs

In today's globalized society, everything is a click away. Learning comes effortlessly through use of SNSs such as Whatsapp, TikTok, Telegram and Instagram. Information transfer is easy as teachers effortlessly apply these SNSs in their classrooms during and after the advent of Covid-19 pandemic, as proven by the findings presented in sections 5.1 and 5.2. Nonetheless, according to Lim and Yunus (2021), as feasible as implementing SNSs is, some teachers found these platforms difficult to navigate and therefore provided negative feedback on their use. Of the 35 articles, 18 (51.4%) analysed teachers' perceptions of the difficulties they encountered when using SNSs to teach. Although this percentage is not nearly significant enough to repudiate the many advantages that SNSs offer to the English classroom, it is worth noting.

One of the main factors that contributed to teachers' struggles in using SNSs was the fact that there is abundance of information shared online. This inevitably makes it difficult to find information relevant to language instruction (Khoshsima et al., 2018; Yunus et al., 2019). Teachers that choose to use SNSs would need to go through copious number of materials before determining their relevance to the English speaking lessons. In time, this could pose as strenuous task for the teachers.

Furthermore, the absence of a stable Internet connection and pupils' inability to stay focused during lessons also contributed to the drawbacks of using SNSs. This was supported by Khoshsima et al. (2018), Hamadeh et al. (2020), and Asmara (2020) which stated that pupils in rural areas often faced issues related to the lack of an Internet connection and the devices needed to properly learn the language. Tiing and Yunus (2021) stated that this issue is of great concern for administrators, and certain English teachers opted to not incorporate SNSs into their English lessons for fear that their pupils would not be able to complete the tasks.

In addition to challenges related to hardware problems, some teachers also found it difficult to use SNSs to teach English as they themselves lacked the skills to exploit the platforms for learning purposes. Farooq and Soomro (2018) asserted that common barriers that impeded teachers' adoption of SNSs include poor computer literacy and a lack of confidence in using the applications. Meanwhile, Van et al. (2020) revealed a similar issue; they mentioned that teachers tend to opt for traditional teaching as they have limited time to familiarize themselves with the technology and lack support for teaching through SNSs.

Nevertheless, as addressed at the beginning of this section, the difficulties teachers experience when using SNSs are not nearly substantial enough to outweigh their many benefits. With further assistance provided by stakeholders, such as the government and non-government organizations, it is hoped that the education system will overcome these challenges in the near future. As the world evolved to accommodate the needs of the industrial revolution 4.0, it comes as a surprise that some countries like Malaysia still experience major challenges, typically a lack of Internet connection, especially in rural areas. After all, technology and SNSs are now a huge part of modern life, and they play a major role in making learning easier and more accessible (John & Yunus, 2021).

D. Teachers' Willingness and Readiness to Use SNSs in the Classroom

This literature review also examined teachers' willingness and readiness to use SNSs in the teaching and learning of English. As observed in Table 5, most teachers seemed to have a positive outlook on incorporating SNSs into their teaching practices. Most of the teachers observed were ready and willing to continue to implement SNSs in the teaching and learning of English. Of the 35 articles, 24 discussed teachers' willingness to use SNSs, whilst 11 of the 35 articles discussed teachers' readiness to use SNSs. This further indicates that most teachers are prepared and willing to use SNSs in their classrooms in the future.

TABLE 5
FINDINGS ON TEACHERS' WILLINGNESS AND READINESS TO USE SNSS

Authors	Perceptions	
	Willingness	Readiness
Arfiandhani (2020)		
Khoshsima at al. (2018)	/	
Rwodzi & De Jager (2021)	/	
Hamadeh et al. (2020)	/	
Kwihangana (2020)	/	
Xue & Churchill (2020)	/	
Xu (2018)	/	
Alberth et al. (2018)		
Habibi et al. (2018)	/	
Lilis & Yudhi Arifani (2021)	/	/
Amelia (2020)		
Lukas & Yunus (2021)		/
Kusuma (2022)		/
Maghfira (2021)	/	
Asmara (2020)		
Dayu (2018)		
Farías & Véliz (2019)	/	
Cihat, Aydin, & Bagci (2019)		
Bjørkelo, Almås, & Helleve (2021)		
Forkosh & Hershkovitz (2018)		/
Noori et al. (2022)	/	/
Namaziandost & Nasri (2019)	/	/
Yildiz Durak (2019)	/	/
Farooq & Soomro (2018)		
Thumvichit (2021)	/	
Sirivedin et al. (2018)	/	
Van et al. (2020)	/	/
Ganapathy, Kabilan, & Meenakshisundram (2020)	/	
Purnamasari, A. (2019).	/	
Yunus, Zakaria, & Suliman (2019)	/	/
Ubaedillah et al. (2021)	/	/
Rahayu & Wirza (2020)	/	/
Zheng, Yim, & Warschauer, (2018)	/	
Nariyati, Sudirman, & Pratiwi (2020)	/	
Yusof et al. (2021)	/	

According to the articles analysed, over time, teachers seemed to regard SNSs as vital platforms for ensuring that pupils could continue their studies in an environment conducive for learning despite the pandemic. As asserted by Kumar (2021) and Yunus et al. (2020), in this era of globalization, English has become the predominant language across the world, and technology is rapidly developing and enabling the use of new pedagogical strategies for teachers and learners to share knowledge and communication in addition to bridging social and economic gaps. Meanwhile, Cladis (2020) and Krishnan et al. (2021) stated that, from SNSs to reality television and on-demand movies, teachers are rapidly outsourcing entertainment for educational purposes due to numerous paradigm shifts in the education system. For instance, most teachers willingly incorporated SNSs into their English instruction during and after the advent Covid-19 pandemic (Maghfira, 2021; Rwodzi & De Jager, 2021; Thumvichit, 2021). Teachers were well aware that change is constant and that newer, better pedagogical strategies are always being developed. The application of technology, and SNSs specifically, is not new. Teachers worldwide have been exposed to this teaching and learning technique. Nevertheless, the Covid-19 pandemic has forced teachers to transition towards online learning, making the

implementation of SNSs mandatory instead of optional. Thankfully, the years of employing SNSs in their daily routines made teachers well-equipped with the knowledge they needed to teach using these tools (Kusuma, 2022; Lilis & Yudhi Arifani, 2021; Rahayu & Wirza, 2020). The implementation of these platforms allows for a wider range of components and tools to be used in making learning more fun and interactive. For instance, a study conducted by Sirivedin et al. (2018) showed that interviews and questionnaires conducted among English teachers in Thailand proved that they voluntarily and successfully exploited Facebook's features to make learning more engaging. These teachers mentioned that Facebook could significantly improve their pupils' writing skills by helping them to construct more accurate, meaningful and clear sentences. In addition, employing SNSs assisted teachers in better enhancing their own learning as they learned to speak more fluently and confidently in addition to enhancing their own content knowledge of the language (Arfiandhani, 2020; Alberth et al., 2018). Most teachers chose to implement Whatsapp to teach English not only because it is easy to employ but also because many teachers already used the platform, enabling them to easily utilize it to teach English. Of the 35 articles analysed, only one article specifically addressed teachers' lack of readiness to use SNSs. According to Lukas and Yunus (2021), some teachers, typically veteran teachers, were not ready to use SNSs to teach English as they not only lacked the Information Communication Technology skill to do so but also worried about which SNSs platform would be best suited for instruction. Nonetheless, this is not enough to refute the fact that most teachers reported positive outcomes of using SNSs to teach English. Taking into consideration all the studies analysed on the application of SNSs, it was determined that most teachers are not only ready but also willing to continue using SNSs to teach English in the future.

VI. CONCLUSION

This systematic literature review analysed teachers' perceptions of the use of SNSs in the teaching and learning of English. Teachers' thoughts on the effectiveness of SNSs, how they help to motivate pupils and the difficulties they pose in the teaching and learning of English were examined. Additionally, teachers' willingness and readiness to use SNSs were also reviewed. Overall, results showed that teachers look forward to continuing to implement SNSs in their English classrooms as these platforms provide more advantages than drawbacks, thus aiding in improving pupils' language proficiency. The studies examined also proved that SNSs are indeed impressive platforms for enhancing pupils' English-language skills, typically in the areas of reading and writing. Additionally, this review demonstrated that teachers perceive SNSs as potentially beneficial teaching and learning tools as they are not only effective and motivating but also feasible for use to help facilitate pupils' academic achievement and knowledge development. This study provides crucial evidence that SNSs have indeed left a positive impression on teachers worldwide as they are now more accepting of utilizing such platforms to deliver their lessons. Overall, the articles discussed in this review helped to answer both research questions. The articles scrutinized were able to gauge teachers' perceptions and investigate their willingness and readiness to use SNSs in their teaching practices, thereby sustaining the teaching and learning of English during and post pandemic. In addition to the advancement of technology, today's teachers are tasked with helping instil a love of learning English in their pupils through the use of SNSs. After all, it has been proven that SNSs are helpful and engaging; as such, they carry great potential for improving pupils' academic performances and facilitating their knowledge development.

VII. LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This systematic literature review provides an abundance of information for teachers in Malaysia related to the possibility of using SNSs to help improve the ways in which English is taught and learned. As mentioned above, most of the articles analysed found that teachers worldwide provided positive feedback on the use of SNSs for teaching English. Nonetheless, the current study has some limitations that are worth mentioning; researchers interested in similar topics could fill these knowledge gaps in the future. This systematic review only analysed 35 articles from Google Scholar and Scopus journals. As such, it is highly recommended that future researchers explore similar articles from other databases like Education Resources Information Centre and Web of Science to further enrich and expand knowledge in the field. As noted, expanding the research to encompass more views from various scholars would be interesting, as the results may further strengthen the findings of this study or else achieve different results as viewed from different schools of thought. Furthermore, this literature review was conducted based on the viewpoints of English teachers. Thus, the area of study is narrow. In order to overcome this, further research on this topic could be conducted from the viewpoints of pupils, parents and even community members. Additionally, research could also be conducted on specific SNSs used by teachers, like Whatsapp and Telegram, to investigate in depth how different shareholders perceive them. Next, most articles analysed for this review focused only on the perceptions of teachers in urban areas. Therefore, in future studies, the perceptions of teachers in rural areas should be studied in depth. As of now there are also very little research conducted in terms of SNSs' impacts on speaking and listening skills. Only two out of 35 articles specifically mentioned advancements in pupils' speaking skills after the implementation of SNSs, and only one mentioned an improvement in their listening skills. This represents as a gap in the literature that other researchers could study in the future. All in all, this systematic literature review contributes teachers' perceptions of the use of SNSs in the teaching and learning of English to the body of knowledge in the education field.

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Shereen Wong was born in Sarawak, Malaysia Sarawak in 1995. She completed her degree majoring in Teaching English as a Second Language in the Teacher's Training Institute Campus Tun Abdul Razak in the year 2018 and is currently pursuing her Masters under National University of Malaysia. She teaches in Sekolah Kebangsaan Nanga Jambu, Julau, a rural school in Sarawak. She is passionate in conducting research and coming up with innovation to help curb English language related issues among her rural pupils.

Melor Md Yunus is a Professor of English Language Education and Innovative Pedagogies and currently is a Deputy Dean of Research and Innovation at the Faculty of Education, National University of Malaysia. She is best known for establishing the integration of ICT in teaching and learning English as a Second Language research. She is active in scholarly journal writing and publishing and has currently published more than 500 papers in Citation-Indexed journals particularly WoS and Scopus. Her publications are on the integration of ICT in teaching and learning English as a Second Language, Technology-enhanced Language Learning (TELL), Computer-assisted Language Learning (CALL) and Innovative Pedagogies.

EFL Writing Teaching / Learning Could Go Online: Instructors' Perceptions, Students' Perceptions, and Achievement

Rashed N. AlTamimi

English Language and Translation Department, College of Languages and Translation, King Saud University, Riyadh, KSA

Abstract—In light of the COVID -19 pandemic and government policies to conduct online learning, the present study aimed to examine how EFL faculty and students perceive teaching and learning EFL writing online, whether they differ significantly in their perceptions, and to examine if the scores of the students who study face to face are significantly different from those who studied online .21 EFL teachers and 104 EFL students voluntarily participated in this study via Google Form. Both EFL faculty and students were asked to complete a five-Likert point questionnaire about EFL teaching and learning of writing online. In addition, the scores of 54 students who studied in person were compared with the scores of 52 students who studied online regarding EFL writing. Descriptive statistical analysis was conducted using SPSS for data analysis. The results showed that EFL instructors had both positive and negative perceptions toward EFL writing online teaching. However, the positive perceptions outweighed the negative ones. In addition, students perceived online writing instruction as a useful tool to compensate for face-to-face learning during the COVID -19 pandemic. Moreover, the students preferred ODeL writing courses to traditional courses whereas the instructors did not. Furthermore, the students who studied online outscored those who studied in person. The important implications of the findings for research on teaching and learning EFL writing online are discussed.

Index Terms—EFL instructors and students, online EFL writing, perceptions, achievement

I. INTRODUCTION

A clear and specific definition of online learning does not exist in the literature, and frequently, the existing definitions show inconsistency (Rice & Gregor, 2016). "Virtual Learning," "remote learning," and "online learning" are all terms that are often used interchangeably. In the field of language teaching and learning, e-Learning is used to refer to situations in which students learn a language entirely via internet, without face-to-face interaction in the context of a formal language course (Hockly, 2015). As a result, it is viewed as an interaction mechanism that learners use to communicate with instructors either simultaneously (i.e., at the same time) or non- simultaneously (i.e., their simultaneous online presence is not required) (Tunmibi et al., 2015). In this study, the terms "eLearning" and "online distance learning" (ODL) are used reciprocally to refer to the academic means of distanced learning via the cyberspace or the web.

Because of the blocks imposed to stop the outbreak of COVID -19 during 2020, education systems around the world were forced to accustom to and embrace distance education through online platforms to assist students. Since then, researchers in the field of English language have studied the impact of the changes on the performance, attitude, and overall learning progress of language learners in both second language (ESL) and foreign language (EFL) contexts (Mahyoob, 2020; Al-Bargi, 2022; Alahmad & Alraddadi, 2020; Dahmash, 2020a; Hashmi & Shah, 2021; Dahmash, 2021). A number of nations, including Saudi Arabia, have adjusted their educational policies as a result of this unexpected and necessary shift to online classrooms.

A call for a speedy transition from in person instruction to online instruction is the most noticeable change in the Saudi education system. Despite the fact that numerous researches have been conducted in Saudi Arabia on students' perspectives of ODL (e.g., Alwahoub et al., 2020; Alfehaid, 2019), the present study is significant because it examines both faculty and students' perceptions of English eLearning writing skills courses at two major universities in Saudi Arabia. Views are a crucial component that influences how faculty and learners approach tasks and as a result, the whole learning process (Getie, 2020). Consequently, understanding students' views and opinions will help academic institutions and instructors understand contemporary practices and promote and implement appropriate types of online learning to meet students' needs.

It is important to emphasize that prior to the outbreak of COVID -19, all writing courses at these two universities were taught in-person in English language departments. There are a number of obstacles to teaching writing because there are a number of procedures and requirements that faculty must prepare for in the classroom. An effective written product in English requires complicated steps such as brainstorming, prewriting, drafting, and editing. To improve students' written outcomes, successful teaching methods and strategies most likely need to be carried out in face-to-face

classes. Given the nature of learning writing skills, it is worthwhile to explore the opinions of faculty and students about the effectiveness of virtual settings for writing subjects as well as comparing the performance of those who studied in person with those who studied online. Therefore, this study sought to find answers to the questions that follow:

a. How do instructors view the use of eLearning for teaching writing courses?

b. How do students view the use of eLearning for the study of writing courses?

c. Is there a significant difference between the views of instructors and students regarding the use of eLearning for the study of writing courses?

d. Is there a significant difference between the scores of the students who studied face to face and who studied online regarding writing courses?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Due to the widespread use of online learning, students are inevitably drawn to other online language learning resources (Plaisance, 2018). Web-enhanced learning, amalgam or mixed learning, and entirely virtual or online learning are all examples of online language learning. Recently, much attention has been paid to eLearning in educational settings because research has shown that it has many benefits. Some research (e.g., Cabi & Kalelioglu, 2019; Geta & Olango, 2016) has proven that eLearning effectively contributes to student learning progress and achievement. It also removes physical and time constraints (Hew & Tang, 2018), facilitates access to materials and scheduling, and saves money (Guelbahar 2012).

A very recent research that has shown the effectiveness of teaching EFL writing online during the COVID-19 Pandemic is the study by Alwaheebi and Al-Qahtani (2022). They examined EFL instructors' and students' perceptions of online writing instruction during the COVID-19 Pandemic. They point out the benefits, challenges, and prospects of utilizing Moodle in EFL writing classes among Saudi tertiary level learners and EFL faculty at Shaqra University. They have seen Moodle as an engaging instrument in online writing. It helped learners with doable, open, and instant peer/group feedback. It made adaptable, comfortable, and student-centered learning environment where the faculty and students were greatly involved. In addition, it guaranteed intuitive, smooth, and momentarily e-collaboration in online writing. However, technical difficulties and Internet disconnection were the most deterrents ruining the learners from adequate interaction with their teachers and classmates.

In addition to technical problems and interment disconnection other problems emerged. For example, academic infidelity (deceiving) and infringement were the main problems in online assessment. In fact, online assessment has a number of drawbacks that make it a controversial issue amid L2 and EFL teachers (Alghamdi et al., 2016). The current shape of education not only opened up opportunities for educators across disciplines, including EFL, to reflect on barriers, but also new opportunities in adopting best practices in ELT, as fully online learning became the global standard during the Covid 19 epidemic (Atmojo & Nugroho, 2020). The main issues of online learning relate to various aspects such as teacher and student involvement, learner autonomy, teacher and student motivation, meeting curricular objectives, and new experiences gained from fully online teaching and learning.

It is critical to explore how students feel about using online learning, as their attitude is an important component that can influence their participation, for instance, their fitting and active engagement in the learning process. According to Rhema and Miliszewska (2014), students' opinions about eLearning are an important predictor of future eLearning efforts, and a positive impression of eLearning is critical to students' willingness to participate in online learning. To minimize resistance that may lead to reluctance or ineffectiveness, it is important to explore inconsistencies in instructors' and learners' views when they implement virtual Learning activities (Alfehaid, 2019).

During the outbreak of the Covid 19 pandemic, few researches were conducted to examine specific areas of writing instruction in EFL contexts generally and the Saudi EFL context particularly. Almossa (2021) conducted a study in the Saudi EFL setting in which she examined students' opinions about their online learning during the outbreak of the Covid-19 pandemic. She concluded that the abrupt shift from face-to-face to online learning had a significant impact on students' engagement in learning and assessment as they faced multiple challenges, including adapting to the online platform, managing a large amount of assignments, and coping with family issues as a result of the Covid-19 pandemic. She went on to say that it is critical for students and professors to communicate openly to ensure shared understanding and acceptance. In cases where communication is poor, faculty support and mediation between students and faculty is also important and should be a priority.

Other research addressed the advantages and disadvantages of online learning. Alahmad and Alraddadi (2020) studied the impact of online instruction on classroom engagement at a Saudi Arabian institution during the epidemic. They surveyed 90 students enrolled in an intensive English course using a questionnaire. They examined student engagement and participation in a real-time, synchronous class. They found that online classrooms encouraged students to communicate with each other as well as with their professors. Virtual classrooms were also shown to help shy students overcome their anxiety and improve their language skills by encouraging them to participate in class conversations.

A qualitative study conducted by Dahmash (2020a) at a Saudi institution further explored the benefits and limitations of virtual learning. It examined how an intensive English course offered at COVID -19 used synchronous virtual lectures, online assessments, and instructional resources distributed through Blackboard. Results showed that students'

English writing skills were improved through synchronous lessons that included spelling and grammar exercises. Students were encouraged to improve their English skills through online research on Google and YouTube, and sessions were tailored to students' needs and situations as well as their family commitments. Students indicated that they experienced technical difficulties that interfered with their learning, for instance, sound problems and the web connectivity issues.

In addition, Hashmi et al. (2021) conducted a study using surveys to capture the perspectives of 265 language instructors at four universities during the pandemic. Eighty percent of the instructors used Blackboard to teach English in a synchronous lecture mode. According to Hashmi, students reported limited access due to technical issues. Students were not trained in online learning and said they missed classroom interaction and found it challenging to navigate the Internet and find study materials on Blackboard. Their students were also increasingly dissatisfied and discouraged in their efforts to learn English.

Most of these previous studies examined teachers' and students' views of eLearning in teaching and learning English as a foreign language in general. However, there are very few studies that have investigated the dimensions of eLearning for teaching English writing courses in Saudi universities/colleges. Therefore, the current study is an attempt to investigate both the concerns of EFL teachers/learners and the positive outcomes that have resulted from the conversion of writing classes from face-to-face to cyberspace teaching platforms.

III. METHODS

A. Participants

The participants in this study were faculty and students at two major Saudi universities. The faculty members were male and female in the English department and their academic positions ranged from teaching assistant to associate professor. They had previously taught online writing courses (i.e., Writing 1, Writing 2, Writing 3). In these courses, students learn how to write short paragraphs to five-paragraph essays. A total of 104 students who studied Writing 2 participated in this study. Because of the closure of the college after the epidemic COVID -19, all participants used online learning for writing courses in the first semester of the academic year 2020- 2021.In addition, scores of 52 students who studied online and 54 who studied face to face were taken from the system of the one of the two universities for the purpose of comparison.

B. Data Collection Instruments

Two questionnaires were used in this study: 1) the teacher questionnaire with 25 questions and 2) the student questionnaire with 25 questions. The first questionnaire was divided into two parts: a) demographic information (six questions) and b) teachers' views about teaching writing courses online (19 questions). A five-point Likert scale was used to answer the items (5 = strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3 = neutral, 2 = disagree, and 1 = strongly disagree). The same five-point Likert scale was used for the second questionnaire, and it contained the same number of items as the instructor questionnaire. However, some questions were tailored to students' experiences of using eLearning in writing courses.

C. Procedures of Data Collection and Analysis

Two groups of EFL instructors and students were sent the links of the questionnaires via Whatsapp and email so that they could google and fill them out. It turned out that there were 21 instructors and 104 students. The data were analyzed with Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software, version 20, using descriptive statistics with the help of means and standard deviations and independent sample t-test and then compared with the research questions of the study.

IV. RESULTS

The purpose of Research Question 1 was to investigate how teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL) view the use of eLearning for teaching writing courses. A questionnaire with a five-point Likert scale was used to elicit these perceptions. Internal consistency of the results was checked using Cronbach's alpha. The internal consistency of the questionnaire was (a =.89).The Pearson correlation coefficient was used to check the validity of the questionnaire.17 and 19 were not valid as they were not statistically significantly different.75 and .26 were their p-values, respectively, while the remaining questions were valid as their p-values were .000.Table 1 shows the means and standard deviations of the instructors' ratings. As we can see, instructors disagreed with questions 9, 10, 21, 22, 23, and 25, while they agreed with the remaining questions.

TABLE 1
MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF INSTRUCTORS' ITEM SCORE

Item	Mean	SD
7. ODeL is beneficial for writing courses.	3.05	1.284
8. ODeL promotes students' learning autonomy (i.e., independent-learning).	3.38	1.117
9. I prefer ODeL writing courses to traditional courses (i.e., in person instruction).	2.76	1.300
10. ODeL increases students' motivation to learn writing.	2.80	1.281
11. ODeL enriches students' writing.	3.00	1.000
12. The tasks given are easy to understand and promote students' writing skills.	3.19	1.209
13. In ODeL, students receive feedback on tasks given quickly.	3.62	1.244
14. Presentation methods and delivery of content are appropriate for learning to write.	3.57	1.326
15. Learning writing online helps students understand the content easily.	3.05	1.203
16. It is easy to contact the course instructors in ODeL.	3.33	1.155
17. It takes time to respond to student inquiries in ODeL.	3.38	1.161
18. In ODeL, students have many opportunities to complete tasks in collaboration with peers.	3.43	1.207
19. In ODeL, social interaction is lacked whether between students and instructor or students themselves.	3.48	1.167
20. It is hard to participate in class discussions in an ODeL writing course.	3.14	1.062
21. I intend to offer more online writing courses.	2.95	1.284
22. Students' actual language skills are reflected by their written work submitted in online writing exams.	2.33	.966
23. Feedback from the online writing instructor is more convenient to receive and discuss than in-person evaluation.	2.95	1.024
24. Face to face writing assessment is more stressful than online writing assessment.	3.19	1.030
25. Face-to-face writing assessment can be as real life as online writing assessment.	2.33	1.017

The purpose of Research Question 2 was to investigate how students of English as a foreign language (EFL) perceive the use of eLearning in writing courses. A questionnaire with a five-point Likert scale was used to determine these perceptions. The internal consistency of the students' questionnaire was (a =.93). Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to test the validity of the students' questionnaire. All questions were valid because their p-values were (0.000). Table 2 shows the means and standard deviations of the students' scores. As we can see, students agreed with all questions.

TABLE 2
MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF STUDENTS' ITEM SCORE

Item	Mean	SD
7. ODeL is beneficial for writing courses.	3.51	1.141
8. ODeL promotes students' learning autonomy (i.e., independent-learning).	3.68	1.017
9. I prefer ODeL writing courses to traditional courses (i.e., in person instruction).	3.37	1.270
10. ODeL increases students' motivation to learn writing.	3.44	1.164
11. ODeL enriches students' writing.	3.52	1.024
12. The tasks given are easy to understand and promote students' writing skills.	3.76	.950
13. In ODeL, students receive feedback on tasks given quickly.	3.77	1.072
14. Presentation methods and delivery of content are appropriate for learning to write.	3.75	.983
15. Learning writing online helps students understand the content easily.	3.50	1.239
16. It is easy to contact the course instructors in ODeL.	3.80	.979
17. It takes time to respond to student inquiries in ODeL.	3.44	1.087
18. In ODeL, students have many opportunities to complete tasks in collaboration with peers.	3.55	1.087
19. In ODeL, social interaction is lacked whether between students and instructor or students themselves.	3.58	1.129
20. It is hard to participate in class discussions in an ODeL writing course.	3.11	1.198
21. I intend to offer more online writing courses.	3.44	1.276
22. Students' actual language skills are reflected by their written work submitted in online writing exams.	3.44	1.148
23. Feedback from the online writing instructor is more convenient to receive and discuss than in-person evaluation.	3.51	1.070
24. Face to face writing assessment is more stressful than online writing assessment.	3.74	1.106
25. Face-to-face writing assessment can be as real life as online writing assessment.	3.45	1.198

The purpose of research question 3 was to see if EFL instructors and students differ significantly in their perceptions of using eLearning for teaching writing courses. An independent sample t-test was used to detect such a difference, if any. The t-Test revealed that the difference between the instructors' and students' scores of their perceptions about using eLearning for teaching (EFL) writing courses was statistically significant, $t = -2.550$ $p = .012$ (Table 3).

TABLE 3
T-TEST SUMMARY OF INSTRUCTORS AND STUDENTS SCORES

Group	n	mean	SD	t	p	Df
Instructors	21	59.0000	12.73578	-2.550	.012	123
Students	104	67.3558	13.87316			

Table 4 shows the differences between instructors and students item scores. As we can see from the table, the students agree with the items (9, 10, 21,22,23,25) ,their means are 3.37,3.44, 3.45, 3.44, 3.51,and 3.44 whereas the instructors disagree with those items, their means are 2.80, 2.76, 2.33,2.33,2.95,and 2.95. In addition, the degree of agreement of the students is bigger than that of the instructors' for the rest of the items. For example, for items 7 ,12, 18, the students overscored the instructors (3.51 vs. 3.05; 3.76 vs. 3.19; 3.55 vs.3.43).

TABLE 4
INSTRUCTORS AND STUDENTS ITEM DIFFERENCES

Item No	Item content	Instructors / Students	Mean
7	ODeL is beneficial for writing courses.	Instructors	3.05
		Students	**3.51**
8	ODeL promotes students' learning autonomy (i.e., independent-learning).	Instructors	3.38
		Students	**3.68**
9	I prefer ODeL writing courses to traditional courses (i.e., in person instruction).	Instructors	2.76
		Students	**3.37**
10	ODeL increases students' motivation to learn writing.	Instructors	2.80
		Students	**3.44**
11	ODeL enriches students' writing.	Instructors	3.00
		Students	**3.52**
12	The tasks given are easy to understand and promote students' writing skills.	Instructors	3.19
		Students	**3.76**
13	In ODeL, students receive feedback on tasks given quickly.	Instructors	3.62
		Students	**3.77**
14	Presentation methods and delivery of content are appropriate for learning to write.	Instructors	3.57
		Students	**3.75**
15	Learning writing online helps students understand the content easily.	Instructors	3.05
		Students	**3.50**
16	It is easy to contact the course instructors in ODeL.	Instructors	3.33
		Students	**3.80**
17	It takes time to respond to student inquiries in ODeL.	Instructors	3.38
		Students	**3.44**
18	In ODeL, students have many opportunities to complete tasks in collaboration with peers.	Instructors	3.43
		Students	**3.55**
19	In ODeL, social interaction is lacked whether between students and instructor or students themselves.	Instructors	3.48
		Students	**3.58**
20	It is hard to participate in class discussions in an ODeL writing course.	Instructors	3.14
		Students	**3.11**
21	I intend to offer more online writing courses.	Instructors	2.95
		Students	**3.44**
22	Students' actual language skills are reflected by their written work submitted in online writing exams.	Instructors	2.33
		Students	**3.44**
23	Feedback from the online writing instructor is more convenient to receive and discuss than in-person evaluation.	Instructors	2.95
		Students	**3.51**
24	Face to face writing assessment is more stressful than online writing assessment.	Instructors	3.19
		Students	**3.74**
25	Face-to-face writing assessment can be as real life as online writing assessment	Instructors	2.33
		Students	**3.45**

The purpose of research question 4 was to see if EFL students who studied face to face and who studied online differ significantly in their scores regarding writing courses. An independent sample t-test was used to detect such a difference, if any. The *t*-Test revealed that the difference between the scores of the students who studied face to face and who studied online regarding writing courses was statistically significant, $t = -3.708$ $p = .000$. (Table 5).

TABLE 5
T-TEST SUMMARY OF FACE TO FACE AND ONLINE SCORES OF STUDENTS

Group	n	mean	SD	t	p	Df
Face to face	54	78.8519	10.26885	-3.708	0.000	104
Online	52	86.5962	11.22717			

V. DISCUSSION

The first aim of this study was to investigate English as a foreign language (EFL) instructors' perceptions of using eLearning for teaching writing courses. A five-point likert scale questionnaire was used to find out those perceptions .The descriptive statistical analysis showed that the instructors did not prefer ODeL writing courses to traditional courses (i.e., in person instruction). Also, they thought that ODeL does not increase students' motivation for learning writing. In addition, they did not intend to offer more online writing courses, and they did not believe that actual language skills are reflected by their written work submitted in online writing exams. Moreover, they did not agree to the view that online writing teacher's feedback is more convenient to receive and discuss than onsite assessment. Furthermore, they thought that face-to-face writing assessment can not be as real life as online writing assessment. These results are similar to Al-Bargi (2022) results in that the vast majority of teachers questioned the accuracy of online writing assessment, indicating the need for a more developed model for the post Covid-19 era. However, they thought that ODeL is useful for writing courses in many other respects .For example, they believed that face to face writing assessment is more stressful than online writing assessment. This is similar to previous research in this area (Al-Bargi, 2022) in that instructors shed light on considerable amount of advantages of teaching L2 writing online.

The second aim was to investigate the perceptions of English as a foreign language (EFL) students about using eLearning for teaching writing courses. A five-point likert scale questionnaire was used to find out those perceptions. The descriptive statistical analysis showed that the students agreed to the all items of the questionnaire in that ODeL is useful for learning writing. The results are the same as Hazaymeh (2021) result in that the participants had a positive attitude of online distance learning. In another study by Dahmash (2021) it was discovered that students were offered real-time communication and were provided prompt evaluation in online classes.

The third aim was to see if instructors and students differ significantly in terms of their perceptions about using eLearning for teaching (EFL) writing courses. An independent sample t-test was used to detect such a difference, if any. The descriptive statistical analysis showed that the instructors and students are significantly different from each other. The students preferred ODeL writing courses to traditional courses (i.e., in person instruction ,thought that ODeL increases students' motivation for learning writing ,welcomed the idea of having more courses taught online, believed that students' actual language skills are reflected by their written work submitted in online writing exams, thought that online writing teacher's feedback is more convenient to receive and discuss than onsite assessment, and believed that face-to-face writing assessment can be as real life as online writing assessment ,but the faculty did not. These results partly conform to Alwaheebi and Al-Qahtani (2022) study. The students in both studies have shown the usefulness of teaching ELF writing online whereas the instructors have shown differences. In Alwaheebi and Al-Qahtani (2022) study, the instructors totally agreed to the usefulness of teaching EFL writing on online whereas the instructors in this paper partially agreed.

The fourth aim was to see if there is a significant difference between the scores of the students who studied face to face and who studied online regarding writing courses. An independent sample t-test was used to detect that difference if it is found. The descriptive statistical analysis showed that the scores of the students who studied face to face and who studied online are significantly different from each other. The students who studied online over- scored those who studied face to face as is shown in the means difference in table 5. These results align with Dahmash (2020a) results in that there were improvements in the students' writing skills particularly spelling and grammar. In addition, instructors encouraged students to improve their English skills via online research on Google and YouTube, and tailored the sessions to cope with students' needs and situations as well as their family commitments.

VI. CONCLUSION

The present study contributed to previous studies on virtual learning of writing skills in the context of EFL from teachers' and students' viewpoints. EFL teachers and learners have given responses to some questions about the usefulness of teaching writing classes online. Various areas ranging from comparing face-to-face writing learning with online learning to some sub-areas of teaching writing are discussed. As a result, instructors did not give preference to online writing teaching. However online writing teaching should be put in practice because of the real needs for it

during some conditions and circumstances, such as Covid-19 era. The instructors must be informed about the importance of online writing learning and encouraged to apply it. Students welcomed online writing teaching. Therefore, they should be helped to practice online writing learning through training sessions and workshops. The integration of online teaching and learning should be included in teachers' education and training since the needs of online teaching and learning integration in language learning is inevitable.

APPENDIX. PERSONAL INFORMATION AND QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Instructors' Personal Information

1.Gender	2.Nationality	3.Rank	4.Age	5.Years of Experience	6. Training workshops on any online platforms (Blackboard, Zoom, etc) for learning?

2. Students' Personal information

1.Gender	2.Nationality	3.Age	4.Academic Level	5.Years of using online platforms	6. Training workshops attended on any online platforms

3. Main Questionnaire

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
7. ODeL is beneficial for writing courses.					
8. ODeL promotes students' learning autonomy (i.e., independent-learning).					
9. I prefer ODeL writing courses to traditional courses (i.e., in person instruction).					
10. ODeL increases students' motivation to learn writing.					
11. ODeL enriches students' writing.					
12. The tasks given are easy to understand and promote students' writing skills.					
13. In ODeL, students receive feedback on tasks given quickly.					
14. Presentation methods and delivery of content are appropriate for learning to write.					
15. Learning writing online helps students understand the content easily.					
16. It is easy to contact the course instructors in ODeL.					
17. It takes time to respond to student inquiries in ODeL.					
18. In ODeL, students have many opportunities to complete tasks in collaboration with peers.					
19. In ODeL, social interaction is lacked whether between students and instructor or students themselves.					
20. It is hard to participate in class discussions in an ODeL writing course.					
21. I intend to offer more online writing courses.					
22. Students' actual language skills are reflected by their written work submitted in online writing exams.					
23. Feedback from the online writing instructor is more convenient to receive and discuss than in-person evaluation.					
24. Face to face writing assessment is more stressful than online writing assessment.					
25. Face-to-face writing assessment can be as real life as online writing assessment.					

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Rashed Nasser Altamimi, works as Assistant Professor of Linguistics in department of English Language and Translation at College of Languages and Translation, King Saud University, Saudi Arabia. Dr. Rashed teaches and is interested in the area of English as a Second Language, second language pedagogy, and classroom-based language acquisition.

Adjustments in Indonesian-English Translation of Public Signs in Bali

Made Susini[*]
Faculty of Letters, Warmadewa University, Denpasar, Indonesia

I Wayan Ana
Faculty of Letters, Warmadewa University, Denpasar, Indonesia

Nyoman Sujaya
Faculty of Letters, Warmadewa University, Denpasar, Indonesia

Abstract—**Public signs that are written in two languages are language phenomena found in some regions in Bali. This study is to explore the translation of public signs from Indonesian into English found in Bali. Deploying the concept of pragmatic equivalence (House, 2015) and translation shifts (Catford, 1965), this study focuses on the adjustments found in the translation of public signs from Indonesian into English. The data were taken from the public signs found in Badung regency and Denpasar city, Bali province, Indonesia by taking photos. The finding reveals that public signs in Bali are realized in the forms of non-sentence and sentence. The non-sentence used includes noun phrase, verb phrase, adjective phrase, adverbial phrase, and preposition. Public signs in the form of sentence include declarative, interrogative, and imperative sentence. To achieve the equivalence, the source public signs are rendered by re-contextualizing their forms in target language. The re-contextualization includes the change from sentence into non-sentence, non-sentence into sentence, one type of sentence into another type, one form of non-sentence into another form, the change of unit and of phrase/clause structure.**

Index Terms—**public signs, re-contextualization, adjustments, non-sentence**

I. INTRODUCTION

Public signs play an important role in tourism development in Bali, Indonesia. Some regions in Bali do the tourism promotion in some ways. One of them is promotion through the way how the visitors are welcomed. It is a common phenomenon in Bali as a tourist destination that public signs are found everywhere and written in two languages, they are Indonesian and English. When the Indonesian public signs are well translated into English, they will be beneficial for the visitors who come to Bali. As long as the promotion is concerned, public signs become the window of a tourist destination since the people visiting Bali can get information directly from the signs displayed.

Correct and satisfied information will depend on the language used in public signs. Since Indonesian and English are languages that are linguistically and culturally different, the translation of public signs from Indonesian into English needs to be well handled. To achieve equivalence, adjustments become a must in translating public signs from Indonesian into English. This statement refers to the concept of translation which defines that in translation there is a re-contextualization of a source language text in target language (House, 2015). Referring to this phenomenon, adjustments through re-contextualization in the translation of public signs are important to be conducted and the translations of public signs become translation researchers' concerns.

A number of studies on the translations of public signs have been carried out previously (Beili & Tuo, 2015; Wang & Jiang, 2020; He, 2019; Liang, 2019; Yu, 2019; Amenador & Wang, 2020; Zheng, 2021; Zhao & Wu, 2021; Ariani & Artawa, 2022; Susini et al., 2021). Their works show that they viewed the translations of public signs from different perspectives. The translations examined also involved different languages. One study by Amenador and Wang (2020) applied Functional Theory. Other researches examined the translations of public signs by using other theories. Eco-translatology was used in the research conducted by Yu (2019), Linguistic Landscape by Beili and Tuo (2015) and Wang and Jiang (2020), Skopos Theory by Zheng (2021), and translation procedures proposed by Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) and Ariani and Artawa (2022). Translation strategies by Malone (1988) were used by Susini et al. (2021) who found out that certain translation strategies applied by the translators resulted in translation alternatives in target language. The translations investigated involved the translation from Chinese into English, except for Ariani and Artawa (2022) and Susini et al. (2021) who worked on the translation of public signs from Indonesian into English. Applying pragmatic equivalence (House, 2015b) and translation shifts (Catford, 1978), this present study is to find out the kinds of linguistic adjustments in the translations of public signs from Indonesian into English.

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[*] Corresponding Author.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Public signs are signs displayed in public area. As a sign for public, the language used will be very much influenced by the situation and cultural contexts of the texts. Indonesian signs as the source language (SL) texts have different situation and cultural contexts compared with the texts of English as the target language (TL). To handle this issue, this study adopts the concept of pragmatic equivalence proposed by House (2015b) and translation shifts by Catford (1978).

A. Pragmatic Equivalence

House (2015b) viewed translation as intercultural communication. Based on this, language and culture are always involved in translation and they cannot be separated each other. Language functions to shape culture and the meaning of the linguistic units always depends on the cultural context of the text. The concept of interconnectedness between context and text must be considered in achieving translation equivalence. The evaluation of a text from its context can help the translator get the closest meaning. Shortly, in this type of intercultural communication, to achieve translation equivalence, a translator functions to build a bridge between the language and culture of the two languages involved. Equivalence is viewed as a concept that is very important in translation (Nida, 1964; Catford, 1978; Neubert, 1985; House, 1997). Viewing text in context, the three aspects of meaning involve in preserving meaning in target text. They include semantic, pragmatic, and textual meaning. Semantic meaning deals with the relation between linguistic units and their reference, pragmatic meaning between linguistic units and their user (s), while textual meaning deals with the interrelation of any component of text to form a coherent whole. Since a text always covers the three meanings, equivalence in translation must be examined from the semantic and pragmatic point of view (House, 2015b).

B. Translation Shifts

Translation always involves languages which have different culture. As far as translation as intercultural communication is concerned, linguistic adjustments are common in achieving translation equivalence. This adjustment bears shifts in the process of rendering SL text into TL. The concepts of shifts were proposed in different points of view (Vinay & Darbelnet, 1995; Catford, 1978). One of the concepts defined shifts as departures from formal correspondence in the process of going from the SL to TL (Catford, 1978, p.73). A distinction was also made dealing with the types. There is a categorization between obligatory and optional shifts (Toury, 1980) and between level and category shifts (Catford, 1978).

Catford (1978) proposed shifts of two kinds. They include shifts of level and shifts of category. Shifts of level can be found, as example, in the case when grammar in one language is expressed by lexis in another. Category shifts involve structure shifts, class shifts, unit shifts and intra–system shifts. Structure shifts refer to shifts in grammatical structure. Class shifts occur when a source language item is rendered into a member of a different class. In these shifts there is a change from one part of speech to another. Unit or rank shifts refer to a change of rank between the SL and TL texts. The change of rank includes hierarchical linguistic units, such as sentence, clause, group, word and morpheme.

III. RESEARCH METHOD

The data of this study are in the form of bilingual public signs. The Indonesian public signs function as the SL and the English ones function as the TL. The signs chosen as data were collected in Badung regency and Denpasar city, Bali Province by taking their photos. The data needed were transcribed and grouped based on their forms. To analyze the data, it was carried out by applying descriptive qualitative approach. The stages are as the followings.

Firstly, the public signs chosen as data of the SL were examined in terms of their forms. The forms meant include the word classes and their syntactic structures. The analysis was to find out whether the public signs are in the form of sentence or non-sentence. Non-sentence refers to a sentence which does not have complete structure. It can be formed by noun phrase, prepositional phrase, adjective phrase, or vocative. The simple form is not caused by a process of ellipsis or substitution (Quirk et al., 1978). The same things were also applied for the data of the TL. Secondly, the SL texts and their translations were compared to investigate the changes of their forms. The changes were identified as the adjustments carried out by the translators to achieve the translation equivalence. The adjustments from their linguistic dimension were then viewed from their cultural and communicative dimensions to see their translation equivalence pragmatically.

IV. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Referring to the concept of translation shifts by Catford (1978), the category shifts as a whole are broken down into further classifications. They are then categorized as linguistic adjustments in translation. Based on the data, some adjustments are found in the translations of public signs from Indonesian into English. In general, the adjustments include the change from the form of non-sentence into sentence, the change from sentence into non-sentence, the change from one type of sentence into another type, the change from one form of non-sentence into another form, the change of unit, and the change of structure. The linguistic changes which occur in the translations of public signs from Indonesian into English are elaborated in the followings.

A. The Change From Sentence Into Non-Sentence

(1)   SL   : *Dilarang berjualan/berjemur di dalam area ini*
       TL   : No selling and sunbathing in this era

(2)   SL   : *Dilarang menyalakan petasan/kembang api.*
       TL   : Fireforks prohibited.

(3)   SL   : *Jam operasional dimulai dari jam 07.00-22.00 WITA.*
       TL   : Open daily from 7.00 a.m to 10.00 p.m.

(4)   SL   : *Jaga jarak*
       TL   : Social distancing

The source texts in the translations above are in the forms of sentence. The data (1) and (2) belong to imperative sentence characterized by the use of negative word *dilarang* and the verb *berjualan/berjemur* in datum (1) and *menyalakan* in datum (2). The datum (3) is in the form of declarative sentence. The Subject is filled by *jam operasional* and Verb *dimulai*. The datum (4) belongs to positive imperative sentence. The verb used in this datum is *jaga*. To create equivalence, all these sentences are rendered into non-sentence. The form used is noun phrase in data (1), (2), and (4). The head of the noun phrase of datum (1) is *selling and sunbathing*, datum (2) is *fireforks* and datum (4) is *distancing*. The non-sentence functioning as the equivalent of the third source text is filled by verb phrase. It is characterized by the use of the verb *open*. As a whole, all these translations show shifts of unit. The source texts which are in the forms of sentence are rendered into noun phrase in data (1), (2), and (4), and into verb phrase in datum (3). This kind of shifts occur when the public signs are used to express prohibition as in data (1) and (2), to give information as in datum (3), and to express command as in datum (4).

B. The Change From Non-Sentence Into Sentence

(5)   SL   : *Cara penyebaran*
       TL   : How it spreads?

(6)   SL   : *Tidak meninggalkan barang berharga di atas sepeda.*
       TL   : Do not leave any valuable belonging on the bicycle,

(7)   SL   : *Tidak diperkenankan menggunakan segala jenis mainan yang dapat menganggu kenyamanan dan keselamatan orang lain di kolam renang.*
       TL   : Inflatable or mechanical toys are not permitted in the pool for convenience and safety of all guests.

The source texts of the public signs above are all in the forms of non-sentence. The non-sentence which fills the datum (5) is noun phrase *cara penyebaran*. This noun phrase has *cara* as head and *penyebaran* as modifier. The source texts of data (6) and (7) are filled by negative verb phrase with verb of *meninggalkan* in datum (6) and *diperkenankan* in datum (7) as the heads. Both verbs are preceded by negative marker of *tidak*. When these source texts are translated into English, their equivalents are all in the forms of sentence. The target text of datum (5) is in interrogative sentence. It is realized by interrogative word *how* followed by Subject *it* and Verb *spreads*. The target text of datum (6) is in the form of negative imperative sentence. It is composed of auxiliary verb of *do*, followed by negative word *not*, and Verb *leave*. The target text of (7) is in passive declarative sentence. It is represented by Subject *inflatable or mechanical toys* with negative passive verb filled by *are not permitted.* Referring to the concept of shifts (Catford, 1978), unit shifts occur in these three translations. Phrase in the source texts become sentence in target texts. The changes from phrase into sentence are found in the translations of public signs which function to give information (datum 5), to express command (datum 6), and to express prohibition (datum 7).

C. The Change From One Type of Sentence Into Another Type

(8)   SL   : *Dilarang untuk berenang jika dalam pengaruh obat-obatan atau alkohol.*
       TL   : Swimming is not allowed if under influence of drug or alkohol.

(9)   SL   : *Dilarang untuk berlari, melompat, atau melakukan tindakan yang membahayakan di sekitar kolam renang.*
       TL   : Running, jumping, or rough play inside the pool are prohibited.

(10)   SL   : *Dilarang meninggalkan kendaraan.*
       TL   : Drivers don't leave the vehicle.

All the texts of the SL are in the forms of imperative sentence. The source texts are characterized by the verb of *dilarang* followed by the verb *berenang* (*untuk* before it is not grammatically used) in datum (8), by the verb *berlari* (*untuk* is also ungrammatically used) in datum (9), and by the verb *meninggalkan* in datum (10). The adjustments carried out by the translators to achieve equivalents are by rendering imperative sentence into a sentence of another type.

In the translation of datum (8), its equivalent is represented by declarative sentence in passive form. The sentence is realized by the use of Subject *swimming* filled by negative passive verb represented by *is not allowed*. In datum (9) the target text is also in passive declarative sentence characterized by Subject *running, jumping, or rough play inside the pool* and passive verb *are prohibited*. The target text of datum (10) is realized by active declarative sentence. The subject of the sentence is filled by *drivers* and the verb by *don't leave*. The changes from one type of sentence into another type indicate that structure shifts occur in these translations. The shifts are found in the translations of public signs which show prohibition. In Indonesian language, prohibition is commonly characterized by the use of negative word *dilarang* which means 'it is forbidden'.

D. The Change From One Form of Non-Sentence Into Another Form

    (11)   SL   : *Keluar*
            TL   : Exit

    (12)   SL   : *Masuk*
            TL   : Entrance

    (13)   SL   : *Masuk*
            TL   : In

    (14)   SL   : *Tutup*
            TL   : Closed

All source and target texts in the translations above are in the forms of non-sentence. All the source texts belong to word class of verb represented by *keluar* in datum (11), *masuk* in data (12) and (13), and *tutup* in datum (14). In their translations, the verb form changes into noun as in datum (11) and (12), preposition in datum (13), and into adjective in datum (14). The adjustments in these translations are from one form to another form of non-sentence. The change from one word class into another word class is categorized into class shifts. This kind of shifts occurs in the translations of Indonesian public signs that have function to give information. The source texts are to inform people that it is the way where people can go out as in datum (11), that it is the way where people can enter the building as in data (12) and (13), and to inform people that the area is closed as in datum (14). The following is datum which shows the change from verb phrase into noun phrase.

    (15)   SL   : *Tidak diperkenankan untuk piknik.*
            TL   : No picnic allowed.

The source text of this datum is in the form of verb phrase represented by the verb *diperkenankan* as the head preceded by negative marker *tidak* and followed by modifier *untuk piknik*. The target text is in the form of noun phrase with *picnic* as the head preceded by negative marker *no* and followed by modifier *allowed*.

E. The Change of Unit

    (16)   SL   : *Maaf*
            TL   : Sorry for the inconvenience

    (17)   SL   : *Mushola*
            TL   : Prayer Room

    (18)   SL   : *Gejala umum*
            TL   : Symptoms

The change of unit is found in the translation which covers the change from sentence into non-sentence, and vice-versa. This change also occurs in the change from word into phrase and vice-versa, as found in the data (16) and (17). The signs *Maaf* and *Mushola* are in the forms of word, while their translations are in the forms of phrase. *Sorry for the inconvenience* is adjective phrase with adjective *sorry* as its head and *for the inconvenience* as modifier and *Prayer Room* is noun phrase with noun *room* as its head and *prayer* as modifier. On the other hand, *gejala umum* in datum (18) is in the form of phrase with noun *gejala* as the head and *umum* as modifier. Its translation is in the form of word represented by noun *symptoms*.

F. The Change of Phrase/Clause Structure

    (19)   SL   : *Titik kumpul*
            TL   : Assembly point

    (20)   SL   : *Pelayanan bus umum*
            TL   : Public bus service

    (21)   SL   : *Parkir sepeda tidak dikenakan biaya apapun (Gratis) bagi karyawan*

& pengunjung Lippo Mall Kuta
TL   : Bicycle parking is free of charge for employee & visitors of Lippo Mall Kuta.

(22) SL   : *ATM untuk sementara tidak dapat dipergunakan.*
       TL   : ATM is temporary out of service.

The change of structure in the translation of public signs in Bali includes the change of noun phrase and clause structure. Data (19) and (20) above show the changes of noun phrase structure. The source noun phrases come with head before the modifier, while the target noun phrases after modifier. The nouns functioning as the head of the source texts are *titik* (datum 19) and *pelayanan* (datum 20). The nouns as the heads of the target noun phrases are *point* (datum 19) and *service* (datum 20). In the datum (21) the source clause is formed by Subject filled by *parkir sepeda*, Verb by *tidak dikenakan*, Adverbials by *biaya apapun* and *bagi karyawan & pengunjung Lippo Mall Kuta.* The target text has different structure. It is composed by Subject filled by *bicycle parking*, Verb *is*, Complement *free of charge,* and Adverbial *for employee & visitors of Lippo Mall Kuta.* Change of clause straucture also occurs in datum (22). The source text is composed of elements of Subject realized by *ATM*, Adverbial by *untuk sementara*, and Verb *tidak dapat dipergunakan*. The target text consists of Subject *ATM*, Verb *is*, Adverbial *temporary*, and Complement *out of service*. This shows that the structures between the source and the target texts are different.

To sum up, bilingual public signs in Bali as a tourist destination become a common phenomenon. The forms of the language used to increase the promotion of the tourism development are various. The public signs are realized in the forms of non-sentence and sentence. The non-sentence used covers noun phrase, verb phrase, adjective phrase, adverb phrase, and preposition. The types of sentence used include declarative, interrogative, and imperative sentence.

Indonesian and English have different language systems and they also have different culture. To translate the Indonesian public signs, a translator must be able to function as a bridge to overcome these differences. When the bilingual public signs found in Bali are concerned, the data show that to achieve the equivalence, a number of Indonesian public signs are re-contextualized in English. The common recontextualization which occurs can be seen in the change of phrase and clause structures. In terms of the change of phrase structures, for instance from *pelayanan bus umum* becoming *public bus service*, the translation implies that the change is induced by grammatical systems of the two languages. How to restructure the head and modifier of the phrase is not the same between Indonesian and English. So, this is a kind of obligatory change. The use of non-sentence is commonly found in public signs which are used to give information and to express prohibition. Viewed from the communicative dimension, the change from sentence into non-sentence is partly induced by the intention of the translators to make the information or the instruction more direct. *Open daily from 7.00 a.m to 10.00 p.m.* which is in the form of verb phrase is more direct compared with *Jam operasional dimulai dari jam 07.00-22.00 WITA* which is in the form of declarative sentence.

SL   : *Motor dilarang naik*
TL   : No motor allowed

This datum also shows the change from sentence into non-sentence represented by noun phrase. It functions to express prohibition. In this translation the Indonesian public sign comes with the additional context using the word *naik* meaning 'go up'. This word is used to refer to the location of the parking area which is upstairs. In its translation in English, the use of a specific word as the translation of the word *naik* is considered not so necessary since the context of place is clear enough. So, in this datum, the translation equivalence is achieved through a kind of pragmatic equivalence by using non-sentence represented by noun and by re-contextualizing the context of place. The use of noun phrase as the equivalent makes the information conveyed more direct.

The adjustments carried out by the translators result in some linguistic changes in TL. The translations of Indonesian public signs into English cover shifts of class, structure, and unit. The shifts occur in the translations of the source texts which function to express prohibition, command, warning, welcoming, and to give information.

Indonesian prohibitions are characterized by the use of negative word *dilarang* followed by verb, such as *Dilarang memakai kaos*, *Dilarang menyalakan petasan, Dilarang menginjak rumput.* and the use of passive declarative sentence. The adjustments carried out are partly by rendering the source texts into noun phrase, negative imperative sentence, and even by re-contextualizing negative word by positive word, such as *Dilarang menginjak rumput* which is translated into *Keep off grass*.

Some source data of public signs investigated reflect Indonesian characteristics represented by the use of negative word *dilarang* to express prohibition and *wajib* to imphasize the instruction. He (2019) also found that some public signs in China come with Chinese characteristics. In general, the translation of public signs in Bali shows to be in line to the eco-translatology perspective deployed in the translation of public signs in China. The perspective was through the transformation of the three dimensions which include linguistic, cultural, and communicative dimensions (Yu, 2019).

V. CONCLUSION

Linguistic adjustments in the translation of public signs in Bali are induced by linguistic and cultural differences between Indonesian as the source language and English as the target language. The adjustments are to make the texts equivalent from the three dimensions which include linguistic, cultural, and communicative dimensions. Some are

categorized as obligatory change induced by the different system of the two languages.

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Made Susini was born in Singaraja, Bali, Indonesia in February 6, 1962. She obtained her Master Degree in Applied Linguistics (Translation) in 2005 and her Doctorate in Applied Linguistics (Translation) in 2019 from Udayana University, Bali, Indonesia.

She is a lecturer at English Department, Faculty of Letters, Warmadewa University, Denpasar, Bali, Indonesia. Her research interest focuses on Translation.

I Wayan Ana was born in Denpasar, Bali, Indonesia. He obtained his Master Degree in Linguistics in 2000 and his Doctorate in Applied Linguistics (Translation) in 2021 from Udayana University, Bali, Indonesia.

He is a lecturer at English Department, Faculty of Letters, Warmadewa University, Denapasar, Bali, Indonesia. His main research interests include Translation and Interpreting. He has participated and become invited speaker in a number of seminars and conferences on Translation and Interpreting.

Nyoman Sujaya was born in Singaraja, Bali, Indonesia. He got his Master Degree in Applied Linguistics (Translation) in 2003 and his Doctorate in Linguistics in 2020 from Udayana University, Bali, Indonesia.

He is one of the lecturers at English Department, Faculty of Letters, Warmadewa University, Denpasar, Bali, Indonesia. His main research interests include Translation and Syntax. He has participated in a number of national and international seminars and conferences.

Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC): A Comparison of Thai and International Teachers of English in the Thai Vocational Context

Watsana Thongpan
Faculty of Humanities, Srinakharinwirot University, Bangkok, Thailand

Narathip Thumawongsa
Faculty of Humanities, Srinakharinwirot University, Bangkok, Thailand

Abstract—This study aims to investigate English teachers' levels of ICC within five components, which are knowledge, attitude, skills of interpretation and relating, skills of discovery and interaction, and critical cultural awareness, and to compare the differences between levels of ICC and its components between Thai and international teachers of English. This study also seeks to understand the influences of aspects of intercultural background, consisting of international travel experiences, international seminars/training experiences, and intercultural contact. The participants were 113 Thai and 36 international teachers of English who were chosen using a multi-stage sampling methodology. The research instruments consisted of ICC scales adapted from the Byram ICC model (2020) and an intercultural background survey. Descriptive statistics, a t-test, and a two-way ANOVA analysis were used to analyze the dataset. The results showed that international teachers had greater levels of ICC. Of the five components, the attitude component was found to be at the highest level in both groups. Critical cultural awareness was at the lowest level among Thai teachers, while international teachers' skills of interpretation and relating were at the lowest level. Regarding international travel experiences, contact with international friends, social media contact, and frequency of co-worker contact were found to affect the ICC score of two groups; however, no effect on ICC score was found in regard to international seminars/training experiences. This study suggests that ICC components could be integrated into vocational education. Moreover, travel experiences and intercultural contact could contribute as extra activities for developing ICC in ELT.

Index Terms—Intercultural Communicative Competence, English Language Teaching, English teachers, Thai Vocational Education

I. INTRODUCTION

One of the biggest challenges in today's globalized world is communicating and interacting effectively with people from different parts of the world—which is known as intercultural interaction. This communication is increasing as globalized communication becomes standard, and the range of language and cultural backgrounds involved in interactions are also increasing. The complexity of the above-mentioned communication often affects the interaction between culturally diverse people. Cultural norms are unknown when at least two languages and two cultures interact, so the participants rely on knowledge of their own culture and their limited knowledge of the other person's culture (McCloskey, 2019). Through these interactions, they adapt their behavior to norms specific to that group.

Before the COVID-19 pandemic, intercultural communicative competence (ICC) had been developed relative to its importance. Post-pandemic, ICC is influential when people interact with a diverse group and is often used adaptably, evolving through skills acquired within the intercultural interaction. Accordingly, vocational education has had to face the challenges and meet the skill needs of ICC to prepare students working in multinational and multicultural work environments in many businesses and industries, in line with the theory of intercultural communication. With examining the level of ICC, the high levels of ICC may lead to the current intercultural challenges for English Language Teaching (ELT) in Thai vocational education.

To achieve effective communication, ELT in Thai vocational education should develop the learner's ability to communicate with people of different nationalities in English rather than merely focusing on language teaching (Chao, 2015). English teachers who work in Thai vocational colleges include local (Thai) teachers and international teachers (non-Thai) who are non-native English speakers (non-NES). This study was thereby conducted to assess the vocational Thai and foreign English teachers' levels of ICC, to compare the differences in ICC levels between Thai and foreign English teachers, and lastly, to identify factors that may have an impact on their ICC levels.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. ICC Components

ICC is defined as an individual's capacity to interact effectively and appropriately with people from a different cultural background in a situation where individuals from different countries, or those living in the same country, meet (Byram, 2020). This would cover encounters between people migrating from a country, or even sojourners (Byram, 2020). ICC was conceived by Byram (2020), with his model containing five sub-components—knowledge, attitude, skills of interpretation and relating, skills of discovery and interaction, and critical cultural awareness. First, the knowledge component determines what is known of one's social groups, their cultures, and similar knowledge of the interlocutor's social groups and culture, and understanding of the interaction process at an individual and societal level. Second, attitude measures ICC related to language teaching and emphasizes two capacities: the first capacity is curiosity, openness, and readiness when faced with people from various cultures, and the second is an ability and willingness to not judge one's own culture as superior to that of others (Byram, 2020). Moreover, skills of interpretation and relating determine the capacity of an individual to interpret situations or documents from another culture and to explain and relate them to events from one's interpretations of situations or documents. The fourth underlying rationale of ICC are skills of discovery and interaction, where the capacity to interact in real time and to discover new cultural knowledge as well as the capacity to use existing knowledge, skills, and attitudes under the pressure of real-time communication and interaction. The last component is critical cultural awareness, which is a vital component in the ICC model. It determines the capacity to evaluate critically based on different perspectives, a reasoning process, and values displayed in one's own culture and other cultures (Byram, 2020).

ICC has been incorporated into the teaching of English in recent years (Lwanga-Lumu, 2020; Petosi & Karras, 2020; Taylor, 2022) with some previous studies investigating the viewpoints of teachers, students, and educators (Günçavdi & Polat, 2016; Sangiamchit, 2017; Tawagi & Mak, 2015), while other studies have addressed ICC relating to just teachers (Gong et al., 2018; Thongpan & Thumawongsa, 2019; Yazdanpanah, 2019). Gong et al. (2018) found that teachers prioritized teaching intercultural knowledge followed by teaching intercultural attitude, and a study conducted by Thongpan and Thumawongsa (2019) measured the ICC levels of international teachers of English. The results revealed that all the ICC components were necessary for classroom language teaching, and teachers with high levels of ICC were aware of diverse cultural practices within language teaching and learning (Yazdanpanah, 2019). Given the existing studies, teachers, students, and educators have had opportunities to investigate the outcomes of ICC in ELT. These investigations have focused mainly on local English teachers, with several studies having been conducted on local teachers of English at vocational colleges in Thailand (Loo et al., 2019). Their studies emphasized pedagogical approaches employed in English classrooms and revealed that the teachers' lack of ICC knowledge had an effect on their teaching. There have also been several studies on international English teachers (Loo et al., 2019; Thongpan & Thumawongsa, 2019). Existing research has examined the levels of ICC among international teachers (Loo et al, 2019), but there is a research gap as there has been insufficient research examining Thai teachers' ICC levels compared to those of international teachers in vocational education.

B. Intercultural Background

Intercultural background is a common factor that should be investigated. In this study, intercultural background refers to how participants have engaged with individuals from culturally or ethnically dissimilar backgrounds, including experiences of international travel, participation in international seminars/training, and intercultural contact (Guzman, 2018). International travel refers to the way that intercultural competence can be developed by those who have traveled. Any travel or tourist stays would have an effect on that development, with the duration of the visit influencing the number of intercultural experiences gained (Guzman, 2018). In this study, the operational definition of intercultural seminar/training is an event where a member of a particular culture interacts with members of another culture. Participation in intercultural seminars/training is aimed at getting chances to experience intercultural situations. The experiences of teachers taking intercultural courses or seminars may influence perceptions of the level of ICC. Cui (2016) suggests that the number of culturally oriented courses taken affects a teacher's level of intercultural competence.

Intercultural contact is one factor of intercultural background which refers to the various ways in which people engage with individuals from culturally or ethnically dissimilar backgrounds (Brand, 2014). These individuals can be international friends and co-workers (Baron-Earle, 2013), and the use of social media which is relevant to intercultural communication (Chen, 2012). Therefore, intercultural contact used in this study includes the frequency of co-worker contact, international friend contact, and social media contact.

Many researchers have suggested that intercultural background affects the levels of ICC the most (Cui, 2016; Estaji & Tabrizi, 2022; Jubert, 2016; Liu, 2019; Peng & Wu, 2016; Spijkers & Loopmans, 2020; Zhang, 2017), with the results showing that cultural background influenced intercultural communication. It was found that a higher frequency of intercultural contact with other nationalities led to a higher level of ICC, with direct contact and social media interaction also affecting ICC. However, this effect is not independent of actual interplay with the host culture (Liu, 2019), and the number of countries visited could not predict a teacher's ICC level. Prior international experiences were found to be unconnected to ICC levels (Estaji & Tabrizi, 2022), but social media was found to have a strong effect on the development of ICC (Peng & Wu, 2016). Thus, investigating how an English teacher's intercultural backgrounds influence their ICC levels would promote intercultural activities in ELT.

The study aims to examine the ICC levels of Thai and foreign English teachers, compare the differences in ICC levels between Thai and international teachers of English, and investigate whether cultural background affects the ICC levels of the two groups of English teachers. The above purposes of this study lead to the following research questions:

1. What are Thai and international English teachers' levels of ICC?
2. Do Thai and international English teachers differ in their ICC levels?
3. Do teachers' intercultural backgrounds affect their levels of ICC?

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Research Setting and Participants

The population was English teachers from 429 vocational colleges across Thailand. In total, 120 Thai teachers were randomly selected, and 113 of them agreed to participate in the study and complete the questionnaire, representing a response rate of 94.17%.

Investigation of international teachers of English in all or most colleges in Thai vocational colleges was not possible; therefore, some of the colleges were selected as representative cases. A total of 49 colleges in Thailand were selected, with 36 colleges completing the questionnaire, representing a response rate of 73.47%.

B. Instrumentation and Scoring Criteria

The questionnaire consisted of ICC scales and an intercultural background survey. ICC scales are one of the most widely used assessments of intercultural communication, measuring the ability of an individual to communicate and interact effectively. The ICC scale consisted of 23 items, rooted in the Byram ICC model (2020), related to the five sub-scales, which were knowledge (eight items), attitude (five items), skills of interpretation and relating (three items), skills of discovery and interaction (four items), and critical cultural awareness (three items). The Likert scale responses for the ICC scales were divided into a 5-point rating scale, with participants rating each item as strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, or strongly disagree. Participants could earn up to 5 points per item, with a maximum total of 115 points, and higher ratings indicated a higher level of ICC. Assigned scores were averaged across items and rates, and the mean and total scores are reported.

Another section of the questionnaire was the intercultural background survey, which consisted of items which assessed their international travel history, international seminar/conference/training experiences, and previous intercultural contact. To assess an individual's prior experiences, yes/no options were provided. If participants responded "Yes", they were asked to indicate the number of countries they had visited and the number of international seminar/conference/training sessions they had participated in. For intercultural contact, the survey relied on self-reporting, with the scale designed to measure the frequency of a participant's intercultural contact with people from different cultures. Participants indicated this frequency on a scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always), based on contact with co-workers and relevant international friends, and social media contacts.

C. Data Collection

Following approval from the Ethics Committee of Srinakharinwirot University (approval granted on July 29, 2021), the questionnaire was piloted with 30 teachers to ensure that the questions could be understood before the data collection. Once this was assured, all the individuals involved electronically signed a knowledge consent form and completed the questionnaire online. The official letter of permission and survey link was distributed to 168 targeted colleges via E-office, and a total of 149 responses were collected using Google Forms. These were exported to an Excel CSV file, copied into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20, and prepared for data analysis.

D. Data Analysis

For the first research question, the mean scores were computed to examine the level of ICC and its five components of the two groups of teachers. The mean scores were classified according to the following criteria: 1.00-1.80 was designated as "very low", 1.81-2.60 as "low", 2.61-3.40 as "middle", 3.41-4.20 as "high", and 4.21-5.00 as "very high". These criteria were used to show the categorical data distribution of ICC levels among the five components.

The data analysis determined if there were any statistically significant differences between the two groups for answering research question 2. The assumptions of parametric tests had not been violated, so an independently sampled t-test was used to determine the significant differences in the variability between teacher types according to ICC, which has a mean score with an alpha value of 0.05.

A two-way analysis of variance test (ANOVA) was used to analyze the third research question. This analysis was performed to examine the significant differences for the variables of teacher type and intercultural background based on the ICC total score, and a Scheffe Post-Hoc Test was used to determine statistically valid relationships between the variables, with the statistical significance deemed to be 0.05 for all analyses. Eta squared values were calculated to find the effect values, which were interpreted as suggested by Cohen's d as: small effect size =0.20, medium effect size =0.50, and large effect size =0.80 (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2018). For the international travel experiences and seminar/training participation, teachers who responded "No" were excluded from the analysis, and similarly, teachers

who did not report their prior international seminars/training were dropped from the analysis of teacher types and intercultural backgrounds using the ICC score.

IV. RESULTS

A. ICC Level

The investigation of Thai and international teachers regarding their ICC levels is presented according to each component of ICC, and the study also reports the mean and SD of each component. The numerical value affixed to each component (ranking) represents the means of both Thai and international teachers' groups. The components with the highest means were given the highest ranks and the components with the lowest means were given the lowest ranks.

TABLE 1
COMPARISON OF MEAN, STANDARD DEVIATION (S.D), AND INTERPRETATION OF THE ICC LEVELS BETWEEN THE TWO GROUPS

Components of ICC	Thai Teachers (n=113)			Ranking	International Teachers (n=36)			Ranking
	Mean	S.D	Levels		Mean	S.D	Levels	
Knowledge	3.90	0.82	High	3	4.41	0.41	Very High	2
Attitude	4.33	0.62	Very High	1	4.52	0.42	Very High	1
Skills of Interpretation and Relating	3.84	0.85	High	4	4.36	0.55	Very High	5
Skills of Discovery and Interaction	3.91	0.80	High	2	4.39	0.51	Very High	3
Critical Cultural Awareness	3.70	0.81	High	5	4.37	0.69	Very High	4
Average	**3.96**	**0.57**	**High**		**4.42**	**0.36**	**Very High**	

Table 1 shows that the ICC level of the international English teachers (M=4.42, SD=0.36) was slightly higher than that of the Thai English teachers (M=3.96, SD=0.57). The ICC levels of the Thai teachers were somewhat lower than those of the international teachers across all categories. It was found that the attitude component was ranked as the highest component of both Thai and international English teachers. The lowest level of ICC among the Thai teachers was found in critical cultural awareness, while skills of interpretation and relating were found to be the lowest among international teachers.

B. Comparison of ICC Level by Teacher Type

An independent samples t-test was used to compare the means of the two samples, and it showed that the two samples were normally distributed from the randomly assigned groups (For each group, the Shapiro-Wilk test showed a non-significant difference, p>0.05). The two variances were approximately equal (Levene's test showed the variances were not significantly different, p>0.05). Thus, these assumptions were not violated. The independent samples t-test could be performed to determine a statistical difference in the mean scores for ICC.

TABLE 2
RESULT OF AN INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST SHOWING ICC LEVEL DIFFERENCE ACCORDING TO TEACHER TYPE

Variables	Assumptions	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances				
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig.
Total Score	Equal variances assumed	6.089	.015	-4.587	147	.000
	Equal variances not assumed			-5.729	93.316	.000*

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 2 shows the results of the independent samples t-test, p=0.00, which indicate that the average ICC scores of the two groups of teachers were significantly different. When both Thai and international teachers were compared, the average ICC score for the international teachers' responses was higher (M=101.64, SD=8.35) than that of the Thai teachers (M=91.00, SD=13.08).

After testing the levels of ICC, it was decided that the five sub-scales of ICC components be analyzed to further understand the differences between the two groups. An independent samples t-test was used to interpret this data. Overall, it was found that all components demonstrated significant differences in the level of ICC between two groups.

TABLE 3
RESULT OF AN INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST SHOWING ICC LEVEL DIFFERENCE OF EACH SUB-COMPONENT ACCORDING TO TEACHER TYPE

	Thai		International		Group Comparison		
	M	SD	M	SD	t	df	Sig.
Knowledge	31.11	6.52	35.28	3.28	-5.074	119.380	.000*
Attitude	21.58	3.12	22.61	2.09	-2.275	88.581	.025*
Skills of interpretation and relating	11.54	2.56	13.08	1.65	-4.227	92.740	.000*
Skills of discovery and interaction	15.65	3.22	17.56	2.02	-4.217	95.031	.000*
Critical cultural awareness	11.13	2.44	13.11	1.93	-4.774	68.952	.000*

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 3 shows that there was a significant difference between Thai and international teachers' knowledge (p=.000), attitude (p=.025), skills of interpretation and relating (p=.000), skills of discovery and interaction (p=.000), and critical

cultural awareness (p=.000). These results reveal a significant difference between the two groups' ICC levels, specifically in the five components of ICC.

In sum, group differences exist between Thai and international teachers for the five components. The international teachers gained higher scores than the Thai teachers in all five components. This result indicates that international teachers tend to know more about appropriate and effective intercultural communication than Thai teachers.

C. Influence of Intercultural Background on ICC Scores

This study specifically explored the influence of a teacher's intercultural background on their ICC levels. The intercultural backgrounds were investigated using three variables: international travel experience, international seminar/training experiences, and intercultural contact. The assumption of the two-way ANOVA was not violated and was fulfilled.

(a). International Travel Experience

TABLE 4
RESULT OF A TWO-WAY ANOVA TEST ON THE ICC LEVEL FOR DIFFERENT TEACHER TYPES IN RELATION TO TRAVEL EXPERIENCE

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Types of Teachers	764.581	1	764.581	6.121	.015	.055
Numbers of Countries	416.430	3	138.810	1.111	.348	**ns*
Types of Teachers x No. of Countries	216.839	3	72.280	.579	.630	**ns*
Error	13114.729	105	124.902			

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.
**Non-significant

Table 4 shows that the effect of interaction between the types of teachers and the number of countries visited was not statistically significant at $F_{(3,105)}$= .579. Thus, this result could be used to examine the effects of other components. The results revealed a significant effect for the types of teachers p =.015, which indicates a significant difference between Thai and international teachers on the ICC score. The effect size, according to the partial Eta-squared value, for this statistical difference was small, at η^2= .055, and this value indicates that this variable affects the ICC level.

(b). International Seminar/Training Experiences

TABLE 5
RESULT OF A TWO-WAY ANOVA TEST ON THE ICC LEVEL FOR DIFFERENT TEACHER TYPES IN RELATION TO INTERNATIONAL SEMINAR/TRAINING EXPERIENCES

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Types of Teachers	52.529	1	52.529	.379	.541	**ns*
Number of Seminars/Training Courses	251.948	3	83.983	.606	.614	**ns*
Types of Teachers * Numbers of Seminars/Training Courses	384.908	3	128.303	.925	.434	**ns*
Error	8321.554	60	138.693			

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.
**Non-significant

Table 5 shows that the interaction effect between the different types of teachers and their participation in seminars/training was not statistically significant at $F_{(1, 60)}$= .379, p=.541. In addition, a significant effect related to the teacher type and the number of seminars was not found either (p>0.05), which indicates that this component did not affect their ICC scores.

(c.) Intercultural Contact

1. Intercultural Contact With Co-Workers From Different Cultures

TABLE 6
RESULT OF A TWO-WAY ANOVA TEST ON THE ICC LEVEL FOR DIFFERENT TEACHER TYPES IN RELATION TO CO-WORKER CONTACT

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Types of Teachers	17.491	1	17.491	.144	.705	**ns*
Frequency of Co-Worker Contact	4267.474	4	1066.868	8.785	.000*	.201
Types of Teachers * Frequency of Co-Worker Contact	474.049	3	158.016	1.301	.277	**ns*
Error	17002.821	140	121.449			

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.
**Non-significant

Table 6 shows a significant effect for the frequency of co-worker contact, p=.000, which indicates that the number of seminar participation events was significantly different from the ICC score with $F_{(4, 140)}$= 8.785, p=.000, and the

effect size was small, $\eta^2 = .201$. Thus, post-hoc tests were conducted to investigate the main effects of the frequency of contact with co-workers. The Scheffe Post-Hoc Test was employed to compare the frequency of co-worker contact. The results showed significant differences in the ICC score based on some frequencies relating to co-worker contact, with the scores for never-sometimes, never-often, and never-always being significant (P<0.05).

2. Intercultural Contact With Friends of Different Nationalities

TABLE 7
RESULT OF A TWO-WAY ANOVA TEST ON THE ICC LEVEL FOR DIFFERENT TEACHER TYPES IN RELATION TO INTERNATIONAL FRIEND CONTACT

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Types of Teachers	689.496	1	689.496	4.723	.031*	.032
Frequency of International Friend Contact	586.099	4	146.525	1.004	.408	*ns**
Types of Teachers * Frequency of International Friend Contact	43.216	2	21.608	.148	.863	*ns**
Error	20582.582	141	145.976			

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.
**Non-significant

Table 7 shows that the interaction effect between types of teachers and international friend contact was not statistically significant at F(2, 141) = .148. This result allows it to be used for the main effects of the other factors, and the main effect of teacher types. The score for teacher types (1, 141) = 4.723, p=.31 was found to be significant at an alpha of 0.05, and the effect size for this difference was small, $\eta^2 = .032$. However, the effect of frequency of interaction with international friends at F(4, 141)= 1.004, was not found to be significant.

3. Social Media Contact

TABLE 8
RESULT OF A TWO-WAY ANOVA TEST ON THE ICC LEVEL FOR DIFFERENT TEACHER TYPES IN RELATION TO SOCIAL MEDIA CONTACT

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Types of Teachers	765.583	1	765.583	5.584	.020*	.144
Frequency of Social Media Contact	1087.360	4	271.840	1.983	.100	***ns*
Types of Teachers * Frequency of Social Media Contact	907.330	4	226.833	1.654	.164	***ns*
Error	19058.178	139	137.109			

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.
**Non-significant

Table 8 shows that the interaction effect between types of teachers and frequency of social media contact was not statistically significant at F(4, 139)= 1.654. This result could be used for the main effects of the other factors as the main effect of types of teachers, at F(1,139) = 5.584, p=.020, was found to be significant at an alpha of 0.05, and the effect size for this difference was small, $\eta^2 = .144$. However, the frequency of social media contact, at F(4, 139) = 1.983, was not found to be significant.

In sum, the effect of intercultural background on ICC scores has been computed, and several sub-variables of intercultural background, including international travel, international friend contact, frequency of co-worker contact, and social media contact, were found to have significant differences according to types of teachers. On the other hand, international seminar/training experiences were found not to affect teachers' ICC.

V. DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study is to ascertain whether there is a difference between the ICC levels of the two groups and investigate the influence of intercultural background on a teacher's level of ICC. Previous studies have neither focused on the ICC levels of Thai (local) and NNES teachers (international teachers), nor compared the levels. This study examines the ICC levels of the two groups and the difference in ICC ratings between the two groups using teachers from vocational colleges across five Thai regions. The results presented here show three main points. First, they show that the teachers' levels of ICC were investigated using the five components of ICC. Second, they show the differences in the teachers' levels of ICC, which could be explained using the average mean scores from Thai and international teachers. Thirdly, they show how intercultural backgrounds were used to examine the effect on the ICC scores of the two groups of teachers. All three points will be discussed based on the research questions of the study.

A. Teachers' ICC Levels (Research Question 1)

The first research question focused on the level of ICC among the teachers who answered the ICC questionnaire. The findings show that the ICC components can be rated and the ICC levels of teachers can be compared between two groups. International teachers attained higher scores on components dealing with knowledge, skills of interpretation and relating, and skills of discovery and interaction than Thai teachers. The lowest score across all the components was for critical cultural awareness, which was found among Thai teachers, while the lowest score of international teachers was

for skills of interpretation and relating. International teachers were at a very high level in all categories, but Thai teachers only reached this level for the attitude component, where both groups scored equally high.

Thai and international teachers scored highly on the attitude component, revealing that they were open-minded and ready to act on cultural differences, which could be related to the study of Abduh and Rosmaladewi (2018). They state that the attitude component influences ICC levels the most. Furthermore, Saricoban and Oz (2014) also state that communication between people from different cultures was affected by the attitude of others, and Estaji and Tabrizi (2022) show that teachers were more open-minded and more respectful of other cultures in some contexts, which facilitated the intercultural process in learning situations. Alalwi (2016) describe interlocutors becoming more open-minded when interacting in intercultural communication, which corroborates Byram (2020), who states that a high score for the attitude component is a precondition for successful intercultural communication.

Within the five components, Thai teachers scored lowest for critical cultural awareness. It might be because of the fact that Thai teachers live primarily within their own culture, so they may value their culture while paying less attention to other cultures when communicating with people from different cultures. This may be why Thai teachers scored lower in this component. Riley and Pidgeon (2019) state that teachers who teach within their own culture cannot recognize cultural differences and will unconsciously attach negative stereotypes to people in other cultures. Hendrith (2018) suggests that teachers' lack of awareness about cultural differences may lead them to be ineffective at communicating, which indicates that they may lack ICC awareness, even if it is facilitated by their own experiences with successful intercultural communication. As such, being aware of the different cultures of foreigners is necessary within ICC; however, critical cultural awareness was considered less effective in intercultural communication among Thai teachers.

International teachers scored lowest for the skills of interpretation and relating; these skills may also reflect the idea that non-verbal communication creates misunderstandings and conflicts, especially in regard to behavior, which can create limits to understanding non-verbal meaning. International teachers may see that avoiding conflict means understanding other ways of communication as well as knowledge expressed in different cultures rather than interpretation and understanding of the behavior produced. For instance, the communication behavior may be individual in terms of writing or body movements, depending on the medium in which the intercultural communication has occurred. Interpretation may be factual and emotional interpretation may be influenced by their cultural knowledge. Ten (2014) states that each culture creates particular concepts of communicative behavior. Therefore, the ability to interpret the communicative behavior which has occurred in the intercultural communication would be at the lowest level among international teachers.

B. Distinction between Thai and International Teachers (Research Question 2)

In regard to the second research question, "Do Thai and international teachers of English differ in their levels of ICC?" the findings of this study demonstrated that there were significant differences between the two groups related to the levels of ICC, with international teachers demonstrating a higher level of ICC than Thai teachers. One explanation for this finding is that international teachers working or living in Thailand are living in an intercultural situation, so their ICC competency is naturally enhanced. Difficulties in everyday life will increase their level of ICC as well as improve communication skills and their ability to interact with people of different cultural backgrounds (Murray, 2022). The Thai teachers' lower levels of ICC may be caused by having less experience working with people from different countries and backgrounds, or poorly executed intercultural experiences, which reduces confidence in interaction with other nationalities. On the other hand, international teachers bring real ICC experiences gained recently; therefore, they have confidence in communicating with people of diverse nationalities.

International teachers with high levels of ICC, who have qualities that help them adhere to the behavior of most members of the host culture, are non-native English speakers (NNES); this is a group that typically includes cultural diversity. International teachers therefore gain more ICC experience as they work alongside both the local hosts and other cultures different from their own on a daily basis. Their host country's culture and other cultures are different, so behaviors must be adapted to communicate appropriately (Zhang, 2017), possibly leading to higher levels of ICC. Thai teachers may not have an awareness of themselves and may evaluate their own cultural norms as an important condition for interaction with people from different cultures. A conclusion that can be drawn from the above observation is that the experience of moving to work in Thailand, which forces adjustment to the host and other cultures, has an effect. International teachers must attempt to understand cultural differences to succeed, which is reflected in the higher levels of ICC.

Moreover, international teachers who have experiences in cross-cultural communication, lead to high levels of ICC. This fact is in line with the study of Ulla (2018), who found that NNES with experience working in other countries could have more ability to communicate successfully across cultures, which leads to a higher ICC level. One explanation for international teachers who are NNES showing higher levels of ICC than Thai teachers may be that when they move to Thailand, they meet more difficulties in intercultural communication and it may be beyond their ability to solve these problems caused by cultural differences in real time (Günçavdi & Polat, 2016). On the other hand, if Thai teachers are aware of difficult problems that they are unable to solve, they may remain at a lower level of ICC as well as avoid communicating with people who are from different cultures or countries. Therefore, international teachers tend to have more individual competency in intercultural situations.

C. Effect of Intercultural Background on ICC Levels (Research Question 3)

This section addresses the third research question, "Do teachers' intercultural backgrounds affect their levels of ICC?" This study found that the level of ICC was significantly different between those with international experience and those who had none. The international teachers had more international experiences, created by interaction with people of other nationalities as well as those of the home country (Thailand), whereas Thais only had a limited number of interactions with the international group. This fact might imply that experience gained through living in places where different cultural encounters are common enhances ICC (Guzman, 2018; Zhang, 2017). Thus, international teachers with experience of living in different cultures were more sensitive in terms of intercultural differences. Zhang (2017) states that there were significant effects on ICC caused by intercultural experiences, as those international experiences start the adaptation process, which can produce competencies in intercultural communication.

It is, therefore, not surprising that international friend contact affects ICC. This study reached similar conclusions by considering intercultural friendships, which were effective in providing successful communication in the context of cultural differences (Şekerci & Doğan, 2020). This finding is also congruent with research by Sousa, Gonçalves, and Santos (2019), which states that contact with friends of other nationalities has a significant effect on ICC. Tawagi and Anita (2015) also found that international teachers who had international friends had higher levels of ICC than Thai teachers. This might be because the international teachers commonly arrive as individuals with prior experiences in contacting potential international friends. As such, they have both the need and ability to communicate with NES and NNES, whereas Thai teachers' international friend contact would be less extensive, and they would have less experience communicating in intercultural situations (Tawagi & Anita, 2015).

Contact with co-workers did not affect ICC levels for either Thai or international teachers. However, the impact of frequent contact with co-workers could be of particular interest, as the difference in the frequency of contact with co-workers could affect the ICC score. Teachers who scored highly on ICC also had frequent co-worker contact, which was obvious for international teachers working in Thai colleges. Baron-Earle (2013) emphasized the importance of the number of times there was contact with foreign friends in raising ICC levels, and since both Thai and international teachers have contact with each other frequently at college, they have more opportunities to interact in intercultural situations. Spijkers and Loopmans (2020) state that intercultural contact within college does not influence intercultural competence, but this study explored the frequency of co-worker contact, which quite possibly influences ICC levels.

This study found that social media contact also affects ICC. As mentioned earlier in this paper, social media has been found to have a strong effect on the development of ICC. Peng and Wu (2016) found that social media contact affects ICC, and that an international teacher's ICC level may be enhanced through social media. Therefore, this study tends to suggest that this factor is still strongly influential in intercultural communication despite the implementation of other strategies used in ICC. This finding is consistent with those in previous studies of Elboubekri (2017) and Liu (2019). However, this study did not find that the frequency of social media contact affects ICC. There might be a need for international teachers to have more social media contact with people from different cultures, if not more social media interaction.

VI. Conclusions and Implications

Thai teachers gained a high score in four out of five sub-components of ICC, which were knowledge, skills of interpretation and relating, skills of discovery and interaction, and critical cultural awareness, and gained a very high score for attitude. International teachers gained a very high score in all five areas. Teachers with a high level of ICC can build their knowledge and understand events in history and how such knowledge relates to a social group. Byram (2020), who observed how ICC allows intercultural speakers to enhance their own individual understanding, showed how it is important to respect the values and cultures of intercultural speakers and their countries. Moreover, curiosity and openness when faced with people from various cultures, and how teachers interpret events are important for mutual understanding. Higher levels of ICC are found where there is effective interaction and communication between people from different countries, and the results of this study suggest that two types of experiences would be considered relevant in effecting influences in ICC: international travel and intercultural contact (frequency of contact with co-workers, contact with international friends, and social media contact). Vocational education can contribute by providing extra activities as well as encouraging students to make international friends and social media contacts to increase their ICC and understanding of cultures different from their own. Intercultural background influences both ICC and the learners' skills to allow them to work effectively in diverse environments.

The implications of this study could be used to promote ICC within ELT in vocational education, and give impetus for prioritizing the teaching of the highest ICC components levels to vocational students in Thailand. This study may help curriculum designers, English teachers, and educational researchers select activities related to international travel or intercultural contact, such as promoting international friendships and social media contact as extra activities to increase students' ICC levels. Furthermore, educators can choose whether to combine ELT and ICC effectively or continue to follow the native English-speaking culture only in ELT. Such a change would help effective communication and interaction with people who use English around the world.

VII. Recommendations

This research has some limitations, but it could lead to further research opportunities. The number of participants was relatively small (international teachers); therefore, future researchers could consider sampling a larger group of participants to expand the scope of the project. Second, the non-NES international teachers were analyzed in intercultural circumstances relevant to Thailand, but further research could observe the degree to which the ICC level is relevant to their circumstances in different contexts and interactions. Finally, the researchers found that the frequency of intercultural contact with co-workers was the factor that affected the ICC score the most, in that it seems that an increased frequency of contact with individual co-workers leads to an increase in the levels of ICC. It has been suggested that in addition to further research, it is necessary to examine the number of nationalities and how individuals interact, as well as the time they spend interacting with people from different cultures. It could be viable to study the distinctions within the approach of ICC primarily based on intercultural contact levels.

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Watsana Thongpan was born in Ratchaburi Province, Central region, Thailand on October 19, 1981. She is a PhD. Candidate at Srinakharinwirot University, Bangkok, Thailand, and holds a B.Ed. English Major from Rajabhat Institutes, Loei Province, Thailand in 2004. In 2012, she completed a MA in Applied Linguistics from King Mongkut's Institute of Technology Ladkrabang, Bangkok, Thailand.

She has 14-years teaching experience in Samut Songkhram Technical College, and her research interests are culture and communication in English language teaching. Her research has published in many publications, including: Thongpan, W., & Thumawongsa, N. (2019). A study of international English teachers' perceptions and the current use of Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) in English Language Teaching (ELT) in Thai Vocational Students. In proceeding in *the 11ᵗʰ Humanities and Social Sciences (HUSOC) Network Conferences*, Bangkok, Thailand., and Thongpan, W., & Witayapirak, J. (2012). Comparison of Internet-Based learning in Vocational colleges: A cases of Samut Songkhram Technical College. In proceeding in *the 10ᵗʰ International Conference on Developing Real-Life Learning Experiences (DRLE),* Bangkok, Thailand.

Narathip Thumawongsa was born in Chicago, Illinois state of America on June 26, 1979. She received her Doctorate and Master's degree in Language and Communication from the National Institute of Business Administration (NIDA) in Bangkok, Thailand. In 2000, she obtained a bachelor's degree in Business English from Assumption university.

She is the head of the M.A. in English program and a lecturer in the department of western languages at Srinakharinwirot University. Her research interests are English language learning and intercultural communication. Her recent publications are:

[1]Suwannatrai, L., Thumawongsa, N. & Chumpavan, S. (2022). English Instruction Difficulties Perceived by Teachers in English as Foreign Language (EFL) Classrooms at the University Level in Thailand. *Rajapark Journal*, *16*(47), P 23-38.

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Student-Produced Video for Learning: A Systematic Review

Jedidiah Zehuan Lam
Faculty of Education, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Selangor, Malaysia

Melor Md Yunus
Faculty of Education, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Selangor, Malaysia

Abstract—In this modern era, students learn in various ways, and thus, the learning methods should also change to suit them. Student-produced videos are one of the proposed methods. Therefore, this systematic literature review focuses on student-produced videos and their benefits to learning. This systematic literature review used the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Review and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) review methodology. A total of thirty articles from 137 articles related to student-produced videos in learning were identified between the years 2018 and 2022. These articles were selected from Web of Science (WoS) and Education Resource Information Center (ERIC) databases. Based on the results, four benefits were identified: video production skills, creativity, collaboration, and a learning environment. Thus, this systematic literature review paper can benefit policymakers, educators, and learners looking to utilize and implement student-produced videos in learning.

Index Terms—student-produced videos, videos, learning, PRISMA, systematic literature review

I. INTRODUCTION

Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, students should actively participate in the learning process through their teachers' innovative and creative teaching strategies (Mohtar & Yunus, 2022; Rapanta et al., 2021; Sher Ryn & SC, 2020). A survey by Sher Ryn showed that video-conferencing was the least popular method of using Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in the classroom (Sher Ryn & SC, 2020). Therefore, during the pandemic, educators needed to adapt their teaching methods. Moreover, traditional teaching and learning methods must change to attract the current Gen-Z students (Shahrani et al., 2020). Educators need to engage learners in their learning that fits best with their learning styles. Integrating technology and ICT has become popular among educators (Sher Ryn & SC, 2020; Thandevaraj et al., 2021). With these in mind, the researchers found that video production in the classroom emerged as one of these innovative methods (Oechsler & Borba, 2020). As a result, this systematic review of articles will elaborate on and go deeper in the educational advantages of student-produced videos.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Language Skills

Learning a language necessitates a variety of abilities, including reading, writing, speaking, and listening. The ability of speaking is critical to master, even more so during English learning. (Ali & Celik, 2019). There is a need to have good speaking skills as it is used to communicate thoughts and carry out transactions in our everyday life (James et al., 2019; Kehing & Yunus, 2021; Thandevaraj et al., 2021). The speaker must communicate clearly in order for the audience to understand and comprehend the speaker's objectives and meaning. However, there are more challenges in speaking as compared to the other language skills (Rao, 2019). Learners should not be intimidated to try to use the English language; as the saying goes, 'practice makes perfect'. With practice in the targeted language, learners will become more familiar and use it more masterfully. In Malaysia, it is no different. Language skills were given importance by the Ministry of Education through various policies (MOE, 2014). The English syllabus has recently been aligned with the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (Zuraidah & Mardziah, 2019). This alignment places importance on communicative skills in listening and speaking. Poor speaking skills may lead to learners being unable to perform well in the workplace (Ramamuruthy et al., 2021). Therefore, there is much to consider in practical learning activities to improve students' language skills.

B. Videos in Learning

Video is an audio-visual medium with the purpose of entertainment, marketing, information, music, and learning materials (Yuli & Satira, 2019). Videos have previously been used in learning. However, there are many ways in which videos may be used (Yuli & Satira, 2019). In the learning, videos can be used in various ways, such as watching videos taken from websites such as YouTube or videos recorded by the educator themselves. The final way in which videos

can be used is through learners engaging in the video production themselves. Researchers found that video-based modules were practical in helping their respondents understand the topics that they learnt (Nabayra, 2020; Paavizhi et al., 2019; Shahrani et al., 2020). Videos are a powerful tool that educators can use in their classrooms with many benefits. Learners may also acquire different skills and knowledge through videos in learning (Almutairi et al., 2020; Verch & Nissen, 2020; Yawiloeng, 2020). Learners may also different skills, content and knowledge through text, graphics, and audio in the video as well as engage their senses since videos are multisensory.

C. Student-Produced Videos

Student-produced videos are videos in which the teacher and students are involved in the production of the videos. This process involves both participating parties in video production, from writing a script to shooting the video and finally editing it into its final form. Through research, researchers found that learners learn better when they are involved in video-making process (Rakhmanina & Kusumaningrum, 2017; Santhanasamy & Yunus, 2022; Stanley & Zhang, 2018). Learners with a clear goal will also be motivated to complete the video task (Afifiah et al., 2019). Learners were found to be more motivated to speak through videos (Lestari, 2019; Maulidah, 2018; Wahyuningsih, 2018). Learners will also learn how to use the camera to record and how to ensure the subject's ideal lighting. They would also have to learn about audio and ensure the actors can be heard in the video. Many benefits can be reaped through the video production process.

Video production in learning is rising in popularity, and so there is a need to explore this topic. This systematic review of the literature seeks to synthesise the findings of research articles that may be relevant to the educational benefits of student-produced videos. This article may also serve as a resource for policymakers, educators, and learners seeking to understand the value of student-produced videos and the learning process.

III. METHOD

The Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic review and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) technique was adopted to assist systematic review writing and promote transparency. PRISMA contains a 27-item updated checklist. Initially developed for health-related research, this checklist has been broadened to cover social and educational topics. This checklist aided in the planning and execution of this systematic review by providing a structure for collecting, categorizing, and assessing the papers examined. The first step involved choosing articles searched through two databases which are the Education Resource Information Center (ERIC) and Web of Science (WoS) databases. This evaluation seeks to serve as a guide for incorporating video production into the educational process. Next, by examining various relevant works, this paper analyses the benefits of incorporating video production into the classroom and the language skills required. The review was conducted in three stages: identification, screening, and lastly, inclusion. The steps are illustrated in Figure 1.
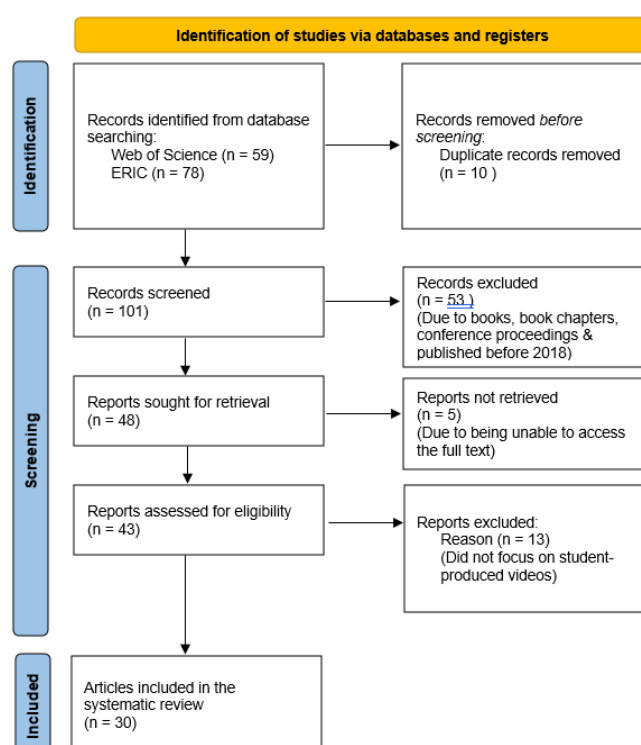

Figure 1. Process Flowchart for Choosing Research Papers

A. Identification

Two databases were chosen for the study's initial step of the systematic review, and the researchers chose ERIC and WoS. ERIC is an online digital collection of education research and data that includes over 1000 comprehensively indexed publications, whereas WOS is an international online journal that publishes in the fields of Law, Political Science, Philosophy, Psychology and Linguistics. These two databases were chosen as they were deemed suitable for this study's aim, are user-friendly, and the full text is available to the researchers. The keywords used to locate the articles are listed in Table 1.

TABLE 1
KEYWORDS USED TO LOCATE RELEVANT ARTICLES.

Databases	Keywords
ERIC	Video Production AND Learning, Video making AND Learning, Student-produced video AND Learning, Student produced video AND Learning, Student-created video AND Learning, Video Projects AND Learning, Video Production AND Learning, Video Production AND Teaching, Video making AND Teaching, Student-produced video AND Teaching, Student produced video AND Teaching, Student-created video AND Teaching, Video Production AND Teaching, Video Projects AND Teaching
Web of Science (WOS)	TS = (("Video Production *" OR "Video making *" OR "Student produced video *" OR "Student-produced video *" OR "Video Creation *" OR "Video Project *") AND ("Learning" OR "Teaching"))

*: Search String

B. Screening

After searching the WoS and ERIC databases, duplicates were identified and removed from the list. The remaining publications were then re-examined to verify that they met the researcher's requirements. Table 2 summarizes the criteria.

TABLE 2
CRITERIA FOR INCLUSION AND EXCLUSION

Criterion	Inclusion	Exclusion
Literature Type	Journal articles • Video production is done by students • Peer-reviewed and complete text • Quantitative, qualitative and mixed-method research	Book, book chapter, systematic reviews, proceedings • Using videos to teach
Language	English	Non-English
Year	Between the years 2018 and 2022	Before 2018

In this stage, the collected papers were evaluated for eligibility as they had to fulfil the requirements listed in the Table 2's inclusion section. This procedure is carried out to ensure the information gathered for this study is highly calibrated and reliable. The systematic review of the literature was then conducted without the inclusion of the excluded papers. Non-journal papers that were published before 2018 were also excluded. Additionally, those not written in English were also omitted. Additionally, the researcher had excluded non-peer-reviewed journal papers and those whose complete text could not be acquired. After a thorough selection process based on the inclusion and exclusion criteria, thirty papers were selected for this systematic review.

C. Included

The publications included in this systematic review were chosen based on their content about student-produced videos. Table 3 displays the studies included.

TABLE 3
SUMMARY OF THE STUDIES THAT WERE CHOSEN

Study	Database	Aim	Samples	Research Methods
Kulsiri, S. (2018)	WOS	To evaluate students' impressions of the SPV project in terms of improving their English language ability, utilizing technological resources in the project and collaboration with peers.	107 first year-tertiary students (non-English major)	QN
Stanley, D., & Zhang, Y. (2018)	WOS, ERIC	To examine if there are differences among demographic backgrounds and does students-generated video projects increase student learning and retention in online education.	113 tertiary students (junior or senior major)	QN
Tseng, S.-S., & Yeh, H.-C. (2019)	WOS, ERIC	To examine the perspectives of students who received video feedback versus those who received textual input regarding the utility of feedback for improving English speaking skills, as well as their preferences.	43 third-year EFL college students	MM
Yeh, H-C. (2018)	WOS, ERIC	To ascertain students' perceptions of the process of creating multi-modal videos and the benefits to students' multiliteracies.	69 students advanced EFL tertiary learners	MM
Bobkina, J., & Romero, E. D. (2020)	WOS	To get insight into the perceptions of Spanish English for Specific Purposes (ESP) engineering students regarding the usefulness of video production in growing their digital oracy skills in comparison to the effectiveness of in-class presentations in building their public speaking skills.	97 undergraduates (Computer engineering major)	MM
Leung, S. K. Y., Choi, K. W. Y., & Yuen, M. (2019)	WOS	To investigate the role of video art in early visual arts education by creating videos with digital devices and analyzing the data using the digital play framework.	9 participants (aged 5-8)	QL
Yeh, H.-C., Heng, L., & Tseng, S.-S. (2020)	WOS	To investigate the impact of video production as a kind of multimodality and its potential for improving EFL students' writing skills.	57 third-year tertiary students	QL
Riyanto, E. D. (2020)	WOS, ERIC	To investigate the advantages of incorporating video production into a speaking class.	29 first-semester tertiary students	QL
Huang, H.-W. (2021)	WOS	To examine the effectiveness of collaborative video blog (vlog) project and perceptions of students of group collaboration	65 students in a public technical university	MM
Chen, K. T.-C. (2010)	WOS	To explore the effects of TLBT (Task based language teaching) facilitated by technology	25 sophomore students	MM
Chen, C. W.-Y. (2018)	WOS	To engage students in video production and to investigate how it can aid in the development of students' knowledge of digital empathy.	46 freshmen students	MM
Debbag, M., & Fidan, M. (2020)	WOS	To conduct a comparative analysis of prospective teachers' text- and video-based learning diaries.	20 prospective Science students	QL
Sari, A. B. P., Dardjito, H., & Azizah, D. M. (2020)	ERIC	To investigate the factors in higher education affecting YouTube video projects and students' self-improvement in EFL	79 third-semester tertiary students (non-English major)	QN
Jung, C. D. (2021)	ERIC	To investigate post-secondary English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students' perspectives of how their collaborative experiences creating video projects affect their motivation to learn English.	8 tertiary students (non-English majors)	QL
Mahardika, G. N. A. W., Widiati, U., Bhastomi, Y., & Suryati, N (2021)	ERIC	To examine non-specialist language learners' perceptions of the educational impact of video production.	35 non-specialist English students	QN
Anas, I. (2019)	ERIC	To shed information on the manner in which students worked on the project during the stages preceding submission.	41 tertiary students (Business administration major)	QL
Oranpattanachai, P. (2018)	ERIC	To investigate students' perceptions of creating video projects as part of their grade assignment	42 engineering students	QL
Masruddin, M. (2018)	ERIC	To determine the efficacy of using short video clips to teach speaking to Indonesian English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students.	25 eleventh grade Senior High School students	QN
Seow, P.-S. & Pan, G. (2018)	ERIC	To discover how an AIS video project might aid in students' comprehension	308 undergraduate students	QN
Campbell, L. O. (2018)	ERIC	To ascertain the status of a student-created video through the use of the ICSDR model.	10 tertiary students (enrolled in an education program)	QL
Spring, R. (2020)	ERIC	To explore video project-based language learning (PBLL) to improve learners' oral proficiency	40 Japanese EFL tertiary students	QN

Study	Database	Aim	Samples	Research Methods
Speed, C. J., Lucarelli, G. A., & Macaulay, J. O. (2018)	ERIC	To conduct research into the instructional guidelines for small group student-produced video assessments.	230 second-year tertiary students and 74 third-year tertiary students	MM
Dollah, S. & Weda, S. (2018)	ERIC	To explore the practices of students' group presentation in an EFL classroom using videotaping.	23 third-semester tertiary students (English education study program)	MM
Dollah, S. & Weda, S. (2018)	ERIC	To explore the practices of students' group presentation in an EFL classroom using videotaping.	23 third-semester tertiary students (English education study program)	MM
Oechsler, V & Borba, M. C.	ERIC	To address how video creation can help this process of borderless classrooms and how it can be used as a teaching and learning tool.	Middle school students aged 13-14	QL
Nadzlan, N. A., Seng, G. H., & Kesevan, H. V. (2020)	ERIC	To determine whether online platforms and/or video blogs can help decrease public speaking anxiety.	54 first-year tertiary ESL learners	MM
Talley, K. G. & Smith, S. (2018)	ERIC	To explore the effectiveness of resulting asynchronous peer-to-peer video context	Engineering students	QN
Zellner, N. (2018)	ERIC	To determine the influence of student-created videos.	356 college students	MM
Apriyanti, D., Syarif, H., & Ramadhan, S. (2021)	ERIC	To investigate the effects of the Digital Video Feature Project (DVFP)	25 fourth-semester tertiary students	QN
Parente, J. M., & Haile, Y. (2020)	ERIC	To investigate the use of student-prepared videos with regard to Generation Z	Undergraduate students	QL
Lestasi, N. (2019)	ERIC	To ascertain students' perspectives on the usage of video blogs to enhance speaking abilities and to examine students' techniques for using video blogs to enhance speaking abilities.	5 tertiary students	QL

QL = Qualitative; QN = Quantitative; MM = Mixed Methods

D. Data Analysis Procedure

The selected papers were transferred to Mendeley, a citation management system. Following that, thematic analyses were conducted to determine the significant themes necessary to address the following study questions:

(1)   What are the benefits of employing student-produced videos?
(2)   Which language skills are focused on when using student-produced video?

Themes for the research themes were found through an interpretive evaluation of the papers. Data gathered from student-produced videos and articles were used to identify the themes. To answer the second research question, the language skills were classified according to the articles. The following section discusses the findings.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. RQ1: What Are the Benefits of Employing Student-Produced Videos?

To answer the first research question, the articles were analyzed, and there were four main benefits to using student-produced videos. Table 4 below summarizes the results.

TABLE 4
BENEFITS OF USING STUDENT-PRODUCED VIDEOS.

Authors	Benefits			
	Video production skills	Creativity	Collaboration	Learning environment
[1]	✓	✓	✓	✓
[2]	✓			
[3]			✓	
[4]	✓			
[5]	✓			
[6]	✓	✓		✓
[7]	✓			✓
[8]	✓		✓	
[9]	✓		✓	
[10]	✓	✓	✓	
[11]	✓		✓	
[12]				✓
[13]	✓	✓	✓	✓
[14]	✓		✓	
[15]	✓			✓
[16]	✓		✓	✓
[17]			✓	✓
[18]			✓	
[19]			✓	
[20]	✓		✓	✓
[21]			✓	
[22]		✓	✓	✓
[23]			✓	✓
[24]		✓	✓	✓
[25]	✓			✓
[26]	✓	✓	✓	
[27]	✓	✓	✓	
[28]	✓	✓		
[29]			✓	✓
[30]	✓	✓		

Table 5 summarises the total number of research publications identified on ERIC and WoS databases that were relevant to this systematic review.

TABLE 5
TOTAL NUMBER OF ARTICLES DETAILING THE VARIOUS BENEFITS

Benefits	Number of research articles
Video production skills	20
Creativity	10
Collaboration	20
Learning environment	14

B. RQ2: What Language Skills are Focused on When Producing Student-Produced Videos?

For the second research question, we combed through the papers for references to the skills involved in incorporating student-produced videos into the classroom. Listening, speaking, reading, writing and vocabulary were considered as language skills. Table 6 shows the breakdown of the skills by article.

TABLE 6
LANGUAGE SKILLS FOCUSED WHEN USING STUDENT-PRODUCED VIDEO

Language Skills	Articles
Listening	24, 35, 36, 38
Speaking	19, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 6, 20, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49
Reading	25, 36, 47, 48
Writing	6, 24, 25, 28, 32, 33, 35, 36, 47, 48
Vocabulary	20, 25, 35, 37, 38, 39

Vast majority of the articles focus on speaking skills. This shows that there are benefits to the speaking skills as videos both contain visual and audio. Therefore, it is not surprising that speaking was a primary focus of researchers.

C. Discussion

In this section, the benefits of carrying out video production in learning will be discussed through four main benefits: video production skills, creativity, collaboration and learning environment.

(a). Video Production Skills

A total of twenty out of the thirty journal articles discusses video production skills. The majority of the articles agreed that their learners were able to gain video production skills when producing videos. Video production skills involved many skills from scriptwriting (Sari et al., 2020; Stanley & Zhang, 2018; Yeh, 2018; Yeh et al., 2020) to video shooting (Anas, 2019; Lestari, 2019; Parente Jr. & Haile, n.d.; Talley & Smith, 2018; Zellner, 2018). The art of recording videos were learnt by learners even though it involves different skills. Various research were conducted to show learners of different ages, such as children as young as five to eight years old, who could produce videos (Leung et al., 2020) to students from middle school (Oechsler & Borba, 2020). However, the majority of research was conducted at the university level. Through all the research conducted, the researchers concluded that learners from different disciplines and interests could gain new knowledge regarding video production skills. Learners enjoyed the script writing as it was their planning session before the recording session (Apriyanti et al., 2021; Campbell & Cox, 2018; Jung, 2021; Leung et al., 2020; Riyanto, 2020; Yeh, 2018). They were able to practise their intonation and pronunciation before the actual recording. Learners even went as far as to write cue cards to practice their gestures before the recording (Apriyanti et al., 2021). After the recording, the next part is the editing of the video. In this part of the process, learners used various software to edit their videos. Some examples include basic editing software such as Windows Movie Maker, to more professional video editing software such as Adobe Premier which was used to edit the videos. In the video editing process, the learner had to deal with various technical difficulties (Jung, 2021; Madzlan et al., 2020). However, this did not demotivate the learners or caused them to give up on the assignment. As quality of mobile phones improved throughout the years, the quality of the video taken also improved. Thus, some learners chose to only record their videos using mobile devices (Huang, 2021; Lestari, 2019). As many video editor applications are available on the Play Store or App Store, learners are able to record and edit videos on their mobile devices.

Research by Riyanto (2020) showed that the learners were mindful of their surroundings as the lighting and noise levels can affect the video quality, and therefore, most of the locations chosen for shooting were the classrooms or the main library. According to Zellner's study in 2018, various video styles were shot, including documentary, narration, TV shows, interviews, re-enactments, and raps. These different styles of videos required different techniques to shoot and edit. Importance was placed on camera and microphone placements in order to ease the video editing process. Similarly, Talley and Smith (2018) discovered that their students prefer other types of videos, such as live-action, interviews, speeches, or a mixture. Research conducted by Chen (2021) showed that shooting of the videos was one of the learners' main concerns in improving video quality. All in all, learners are able to gain video production skills when they produce videos during their learning.

(b). Creativity

Out of the thirty journal articles chosen, a total of thirteen journals stated that student-produced videos were able to boost students' creativity. Watching a video can activate learner's sight and sound in learning as video consists of images and audios. There is a requirement for innovation in how the video is made, particularly by the learners. Since video watching is an experience on its own, learners must be creative in various aspects such as the tempo, image quality and sound quality to ensure that the meaning of the message can be conveyed to the viewers. The styles of videos chosen, such as documentaries, voiceovers, and interviews, can demonstrate creativity (Leung et al., 2020). In a research conducted by Chen (2021), the learners showed creativity during the video tasks in the classroom. The learners had to select and decide carefully on the video style they would like to shoot as these were marked for creativity.

Similarly, Sari et al. (2020) also found that their learners spent some time discussing the method used to present in their video. It was found in a research conducted by Lestari (2019) that the learners planned the shoot based on the storyboard and the script outline, and finally, videos, pictures and sounds were edited into the final video. Research conducted by Zeller (2018) found that the learners initially made videos about historical events, and the trend moved to video formats such as "Family Feud" or without real people in their video. Therefore, learners engaging in video production could creatively present their meaning from their video (Oechsler & Borba, 2020; Speed et al., 2018; Talley & Smith, 2018).

(c.) Collaboration

From the thirty research articles chosen, twenty articles were found to include the aspect of collaboration. Most of the research conducted used collaboration when producing videos (Campbell & Cox, 2018; Chen, 2018; Chen, 2021; Huang, 2021; Jung, 2021; Kulsiri, 2018; Masruddin, 2018; Oranpattanachai, 2018; Riyanto, 2020; Sari et al., 2020; Seow & Pan, 2018; Speed et al., 2018; Spring, 2020; Tseng & Yeh, 2019). Due to the nature of student-produced videos, it was a group effort to produce; thus, collaboration became important. Research conducted by Zellner (2018) saw the learners learning to work as a group by dividing the tasks amongst themselves in order to produce higher quality video while learners learnt to work with their group members (Dollah & Weda, 2018; Riyanto, 2020). When producing videos, students have to learn to interact with their group members to ensure that the group would be able to come up with the product (Huang, 2021). Learners could learn their teammates' strengths and weaknesses by working together to produce their videos (K. T. C. Chen, 2021; Sari et al., 2020). As a result, the video production workflow was smoother, where learners played to their strengths regarding video production.

(d). Learning Environment

A total of fourteen of the thirty research articles expanded on the learning environment. Learners were found to be more engaged in the learning where they said they enjoyed the video production activity (Kulsiri, 2018). The video production process can get students to be immersed in their local cultures and communicate them through their videos (Speed et al., 2018). Learners were more enthusiastic during the recording session (Dollah & Weda, 2018; Oechsler & Borba, 2020). With student-produced videos, learners are required to take a more active role in their learning process (Anas, 2019; Campbell & Cox, 2018; C. W. Yu Chen, 2018). Learners who are involved in the lessons tend to have more motivation and are excited to share it with their peers (Apriyanti et al., 2021; Leung et al., 2020). Researchers also found that learners were able to improve their scores when learners engaged in video production in their learning (Dollah & Weda, 2018; Kulsiri, 2018; Masruddin, 2018; Speed et al., 2018; Talley & Smith, 2018; Wijaya Mahardika et al., 2021). Similarly, an improved learning environment is not limited to learners but the educators themselves. Research conducted among teachers found that a video diary was preferred as the video format made them feel more comfortable communicating their thoughts (Debbağ & Fidan, 2020). With such a learning environment, learners could be more engaged and learn more through producing videos.

V. CONCLUSION

To summarise, this systematic review examined research publications on using student-produced videos in learning. Two databases, WoS and ERIC, were accessed. Based on the inclusion and exclusion criteria provided in Table 2, thirty publications were included in this systematic review. These research articles employed various techniques to demonstrate the value of student-produced videos. The main findings showed four main benefits regarding the advantages of student-produced videos in learning: learners benefited from student-produced videos by learning video production skills, creativity, collaboration and an engaging learning environment. Nevertheless, despite the toughness of video editing, learners were not demotivated as the results were worth it. Also, video production proved to be a way for students to be creative in producing knowledge as there many video formats in which the same content could be presented.

Furthermore, working with their groupmates made video production much easier as the tasks could be divided among each other. Besides working in groups, learners actively participate in their learning. Active learning engages students in the learning and ensures that they have mastered topics or contents chosen. Therefore, student-produced videos have many benefits to the learning process and should be considered by educators in class.

One of the challenges of this review that should be addressed is the academics interested in this issue. The researcher sorted and selected thirty of the highest-quality publications from ERIC and WoS that covered the topic. Additional publications may exist in other databases, such as Scopus and Google Scholar. It would be intriguing to broaden the research to incorporate more viewpoints from different academics to uncover further findings. The majority of the articles chosen focuses on speaking skills. Perhaps future research might delve into other skills such as reading and writing. Twenty-six of the thirty research publications selected were geared toward tertiary students. Few studies have been undertaken at the elementary and secondary levels. Thus, it would be worthwhile to perform more research focused on elementary and secondary school students to shed light on their advantages.

Student-produced videos can be a powerful tool for learning and could be used by educators from all over the world and with learners of different ages. Educators would be able to engage their learners in the video production process and unlock their learners' roles to a more active one. Attracting and inspiring students is a necessary component of making learning relevant, and student-produced videos are an effective method of including students in the learning process.

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Jedidiah Zehuan Lam is a postgraduate student in Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) program at the Faculty of Education, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia. He has participated in a few national and international innovation competitions and has won awards ranging from bronze to gold aside from publishing in an international journal. He has also presented as a speaker for Sarawak English Language Education Symposium 2021 (SELES). His fields of interest include technology-based learning. He can be contacted at email: jedidiah.lam@hotmail.com.

Melor Md Yunus is a Professor of English Language Education and Innovative Pedagogies and currently is a Deputy Dean of Research and Innovation at the Faculty of Education, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia. She is best known for establishing the integration of ICT in teaching and learning English as a Second Language research. She is active in scholarly journal writing and publishing and has currently published more than 500 papers in Citation-Indexed journals particularly WoS and SCOPUS. Her publications are on the integration of ICT in teaching and learning English as a Second Language, Technology-enhanced Language Learning (TELL), Computer-assisted Language Learning (CALL) and Innovative Pedagogies.

China's Building of International Discourse System Against COVID-19 Pandemic—From the Perspective of Proximization Theory

Yunyou Wang

College of Translation and Interpreting, Sichuan International Studies University, Chongqing, China

Abstract—Since the outbreak of the COVID-19 Pandemic, China has been actively leading international cooperation in fighting the virus. However, The US and some other western countries have repeatedly passed the buck to China, which has posed greater challenges for the building of China's international discourse system against such backdrop. To this end, this paper focuses on the official discourse of the Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs themed on "fighting against the COVID-19 Pandemic", and construes the strategies of building China's international discourse system against the context through the analytical tool—cognitive-pragmatic model of proximization theory, thus exposing the hidden ideology as well as the false propaganda of the western countries toward China and providing intellectual support for China to transform its development advantages in the field of hard power into those in soft power.

Index Terms—COVID-19 pandemic, official discourse, proximization theory, international discourse system, ideology

I. INTRODUCTION

The COVID-19 pandemic has accelerated China's profound changes unseen in a century. China has taken the lead in containing the epidemic at home and in international cooperation. However, the western world, particularly the US, is trying to shift the blame to China and make it the scapegoat. In fact, in the international public opinion field, such a "strong in the West and weak in China" pattern has been existing for a long time. The western world has been stigmatizing and demonizing China's achievements in the fight against COVID-19 and creating a "discourse deficit" that is not consistent with China's achievements, thus forcing China to face a more complicated and severe international public opinion environment. China's president Xi Jinping attaches great importance to international communication. In a series of important speeches, he has mentioned many times that "We will improve our ability to engage in international communication so as to tell China's stories well, make the voice of China heard, and present a true, multi-dimensional, and panoramic view of China to the world."[1] Until now, the majority of the discourse studies in the context of COVID-19 were conducted from the perspectives of the United States and the West by using the principles of communication and political science to summarize the communication mechanism and path as well as the influence. However, little attention was paid to China's efforts of building its international discourse system. If we define politics broadly as the negotiation of subjective views or power struggle or reconciliation of social difference through discussion and persuasion (Chilton, 2002; Wodak, 2009; Cap, 2010), then language would be the main ideological tool of political discourse deconstruction.

Therefore, against the backdrop of COVID-19 pandemic, this paper, by building the corpus of anti-pandemic official discourse of Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs and adopting the cognitive-pragmatic model of proximization strategy, is trying to demonstrate China's real, solid and comprehensive anti-pandemic narrative framework, sort out the discourse logic of China's "justified, restrained and well-grounded" response to the West's bogus claims on China and conclude China's strategies for building its international discourse system against the backdrop of COVID-19. Meanwhile, it aims to expose the ideology behind the false China-related propaganda of the US, thus providing intellectual support for China to transform its development advantage in the field of hard power into its discourse advantage in the field of soft power in the new era.

II. WHAT IS PROXIMIZATION

The proximization is a cognitive pragmatic strategy that legitimizes the speaker's political behavior by means of discourse intervention. The concept of "proximizing", which simply means bringing closer, originates from the political discourse research of Paul Chilton (Wang, 2019). Chilton (2004) believes that discourse—that is, language in use—is a process whereby readers and hearers set up discourse worlds ("conceptual domains" or "ontological spaces") that carry a deictic "signature" for space, time, and modality, and relationships among them (p.138). Cap (2006) develops

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[1] It is quoted from President Xi's speech at the CPC conference on publicity on August 21, 2018

Chilton's view and coins the term "proximization". In its most general and practical sense, proximization is a discursive strategy of presenting physically and temporally distant events and states of affairs (including "distant adversarial ideologies") as increasingly and negatively consequential to the speaker and the addressee (Cap, 2013, p. 293). According to Cap (2014), the speaker can use various means to highlight that the distant entities are gradually encroaching upon the speaker and addressee geographically and ideologically, but the primary goal is to legitimize the speaker's own actions and policies—evoking the closeness of the external threat and soliciting the legitimization of preventive measures. The threat comes from entities peripheral to the discourse space, referred to as "outside-deictic-center" entities (ODCs), which are conceptualized as crossing the space to invade "inside-deictic-center" entities (IDCs)—the speaker and the addressee (Wang, 2019).

From the formulation perspective, the proximiaztion theory was evaluated from the construal operation. It is a core concept of cognitive grammar in cognitive linguistics. This operation aims to explain why people have different ways of expressing the same event (Wang, 2019). At the same time, as an important cognitive mode, the construal operation determines the corresponding language expression; this can be used to discuss how and what kind of differences people experience when they perceive the same event (Wen, 2011). As an important part of the construal operation, deixis involves the use of conceptualization to explain the meaning construction of parts beyond the sentences in discourse, and adopts a practical positioning method to illustrate the consistency of textual context and subjective values (Wang, 2019).

From the practical point of view, the proximization strategy could be used to legitimize political discourse. Cap (2014) believes that the geopolitical environment of interventionist discourse is often very unstable, and due to the long time period, speakers need various methods to maintain the legitimization position, which must be able to cope with linguistic or non-linguistic changes at any time in the process of global legitimization. To this end, the proximization strategy achieves these goals by achieving positive self-presentation and stable leadership power, and at the same time, the proximization strategy offers a dynamic model to explain the non-linguistic changes in space, time and value domains. In other words, the proximization strategy can explain the changed or re-formulated policies in political discourse and cope with the changes and fluctuations of political situation. As such, the proximization strategy combines critical discourse analysis with cognitive linguistics and provides a new perspective and paradigm for discourse analysis.

III. ANALYTICAL MODEL AND THE CORPUS

Cap (2013) believes that the proximization is a rhetorical pragmatic strategy in which the speaker, in order to persuade the addressee and legitimize his actions, regards the actor, situation or event as threats from temporal, spatial, and axiological dimensions. The approach is summarized as the spatial-temporal-axiological model (STA), namely. When entities and events are mapped onto axes representing social space, time, and ideological distance, mental space provides conceptual coherence to the context and an analytical tool with which to reveal and evaluate the ideologies conveyed in the discourse (Wang, 2019). In recent years, this approach has been used in state political discourse to a certain extent, and has successfully provided practical research paths and analytical tools for discourse such as crisis construction and rhetoric of war, discourse analysis of immigrants, political party representation and construction of national memory.

To limit the subjective tendency existing in discourse analysis, this paper introduces quantitative research methods, represented by corpus to objectively determine the concepts like "who is the speaker; why is he speaking and under what circumstances is he speaking" and further carries out the follow-up critical discourse analysis, in order to better figure out the ideology and power relations behind the discourse. To this end, this paper collects texts from the database of official website of Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs themed on "Fighting against Covid-19 pandemic" from January 2, 2021 to August 15, 2021. Forty-seven related articles including 11,281 words in total have formed the corpus. Meanwhile, the corpus retrieval tool AntConc, combined with Cap's STA model is used to form a word class table of the entity elements of discourse space. Based on it, a more operational and effective critical discourse analysis is carried out.

IV. PROXIMIZATION THEORY AND BUILDING OF INTERNATIONAL DISCOURSE SYSTEM DURING COVID-19 PANDEMIC

A. Spatial Proximization Shapes China's Philosophy of "Global Cooperation Against the Pandemic"

Spatial proximization refers to the forced construal of the discourse space to perceive that the peripheral entities are encroaching physically upon the discourse space of central entities, the speaker and addressee (Cap, 2013). Spatial proximization has a diachronic nature. It can be viewed as the most basic tool for legitimizing. In political interventionist discourses, a pre-emptive response to "collective threats" is legitimized by allowing the collective to perceive that a threat is imminent and will have a negative impact on individuals (Wang, 2019). Let's see the statistical table below:

TABLE 1
ENTITY ELEMENTS AND THE FREQUENCY (SPATIAL PROXIMIZATION)

Category	Words	Frequency （%）
IDCs (noun phrases)	We	1.36
	People in China	0.74
	People across the world/in all countries	0.51
ODCs (noun phrases)	Covid-19	2.14
	Pandemic	1.76
	Virus	1.59
ODCs move to IDCs (verb phrases)	Spread	2.38
	Rage	0.92
	Resurge/recur	0.43
ODCs encroach upon IDCs (verb phrases)	Threat	0.32
	Devastate	0.27
	Wreck	0.14

In the discourse themed on "fighting against the pandemic", the spatial proximization strategy was used extensively to win the understanding and support of the international community, in order to push the international community to take measures to deal with the pandemic in time. The table above shows that the most frequent word in the IDCs category is "we", indicating that China has linked itself to the fate of the international community since the beginning of the outbreak, which is highly consistent with the concept of "a community of shared future for mankind" [2]proposed by China. It has further enhanced the international community's recognition of China's anti-pandemic works as well as its diplomatic philosophy. The second and third highest frequent words/phrases are "People in China" and "People across the world/in all countries". The word "people" with a collective nature, has demonstrated the fact that no one can be left out of the pandemic and at the same time it's a call for the international community to cooperatively fight against the pandemic. Meanwhile, the most frequent words in the ODCs are "Covid-19", "pandemic" and "virus", which directly and explicitly includes the pandemic in the oppositional camp and guides addressees to construe it as the top threat faced by the international community.

(1) Life is the most precious. Since the outbreak of the <u>COVID-19,</u> President Xi has demonstrated tremendous political courage, and put forward that we must always put <u>people</u> and life front and center. At this Summit, President Xi shared China's experience in combating the virus, stressing that to completely defeat the virus, we must put people's lives and health front and center, and truly respect the value and dignity of every human life...Putting people first, science-based policy, and coordinating pandemic prevention and control and economic recovery are written in the Declaration of the Summit.

In the above example, by repeatedly mentioning words like "People" and "COVID-19", China frames the international community and the pandemic as two groups in opposition to each other. Therefore, the construction of a central entity and a peripheral entity is achieved, which has laid a foundation for anchoring the spatial threat.

After the clarification of the central and peripheral entities through the noun phrases, the relationship between the two needs to be further presented with the help of the verb phrases for the ultimate purpose of legitimization. To this end, at the first level, verbs which could demonstrate sense of space such as "spread", "rage" and "resurge/recur" frequently appear in the discourse, anthropomorphizing the abstract pandemic and making the addressees feel that the object will keep approaching and getting closer, and eventually become an inescapable reality. At the second level, verbs like "threat", "devastate", and "wreck" has created us a negative emotion of the approach of the pandemic, which will pose a direct threat to the addressees and eventually lead to an immediate international response to combat the pandemic.

(2) The sudden pandemic is a "big test", and it has laid bare weaknesses and deficiencies in the global public health governance and highlighted the urgency to enhance capacity-building of global governance in the area of public health. President Xi has pointed out many times that public health emergencies like COVID-19 may very well <u>recur</u>, so there must be global action, global response and global cooperation. All parties shall uphold multilateralism, increase their political support and financial input to the WHO, support the WHO in playing a key leading role, and continuously improve the global health governance system.

Faced with the second wave of the COVID-19 pandemic, China's related discourse still attaches importance to drawing the international community's attention to combat the pandemic through spatial proximization. The discourse evokes the international community's empathy for the pandemic outbreak through term like "recur", to prompt cooperative measures to fight against the pandemic, or we might bear risks of being crushed by it.

It is interesting to note that, for one hand, from the critical discourse analysis in this section, the spatial proximization strategy, by constantly reducing the distance between the central and peripheral entities, can reveal the negative impact of the peripheral entities on the central entities, thus legitimizing such the discourse as "state interventionism" (more towards negative discourse studies). For the other hand, in the author's view, this strategy is also clearly explanatory enough to be used in the "state demonstration effect" discourse (more towards positive discourse studies) by showing

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[2] In the Resolution 2344 (2017) adopted by the UN Security Council at its 7902nd meeting, on 17 March 2017, "a community of shared future for mankind" is firstly mentioned.

the central entities overcoming the negative influence from the peripheral entities. It could be a potential practical area for proximization strategy. For example,

(3) Fighting the pandemic is currently the most pressing task for us. To complete this task, China will work with CEE countries through solidarity, coordination and cooperation. Our two sides could enhance joint response and experience sharing on prevention and treatment, explore cooperation on traditional medicine, and scale up public health and medical cooperation. These efforts will contribute to a global community of health for all.

By stating that "Fighting the pandemic is currently the most pressing task for us", China aims to acknowledge the pandemic as a peripheral entity that can pose a threat to the central entity, and at the same time, the sentence "To complete this task, China will work with CEE countries through solidarity, coordination and cooperation" is to demonstrate the possibility that the central entity can overcome the threat of peripheral entities through measures. This redoubles legitimacy of the discourse. The traditional proximization studies are limited to the threats and the consequent negative effects from ODCs to IDCs in one direction, but future studies could be more focused on the responses from IDCs to ODCs, i.e. the corresponding positive effects, both of which can achieve the purpose of enforcing the addressee's construal of a certain point of view as well as a more comprehensive understanding of the conflicting nature of political discourse.

B. Temporal Proximization Shows China's Determination to Overcome the Pandemic in a Cooperative Manner"

Temporal proximization can be used as a method of enhancing spatial proximization. In the spatial axis, temporal proximization is useful for interpreting a process wherein an event is approaching or has already occurred (Wang, 2019). According to Cap (2013), temporal proximization is a symbolic "compression" of the time axis, and a partial conflation of time frames, involving two simultaneous conceptual shifts (pp.85-86). They are past-to-present shift and future-to-present shift. The past-to-present shift could construe the past events and actions, mainly those instigated/performed by the ODC entities, informing the speaker's present context, in the interest of her own current actions. And the information is validated by analogies holding between the past and the present context arrangements. The future-to-present shift accommodates construal of the near future ODC actions stemming directly from the present context, a collection of premises up-dated by the premises construed from the past events. Under future-to-present shift, a future event is interpreted as entailing urgent need to take immediate measures; under past-to-present shift, past events are construed as still occurring and affecting reality (Wang, 2019).

TABLE 2
ENTITY ELEMENTS

Category	examples
past-to-present shift	[1] We meet at a time of great changes and a pandemic both unseen in a century. [2] The recent resurgence of the virus and its frequent mutation are a sobering reminder that the fight against COVID-19 is a marathon. [3] COVID-19 has taken its toll on countries' ability of fighting terrorism.
future-to-present shift	[1] The ongoing pandemic has also amplified the unadaptable side of the global governance system. [2] As COVID-19 is worsening global food shortages, the international community needs to deepen cooperation on food security and help developing countries overcome their food challenge. [3] As the virus continues to mutate and wreak havoc, putting it under control remains our top priority. [4] The impact of COVID-19 on world peace and security is still unfolding, with long-standing hotspots showing new dynamics and new hotspots exacerbating long-held grievances.

It can be seen that the Chinese side, in addition to demonstrating the negative impact of the outbreak on the international community from the beginning of the pandemic to the present, still emphasizes that the pandemic will continue, and urges the international community to continue to play an active role in the fight against the pandemic by construing the possible future events from the present context.

The relationship between language and human history can be explained from the perspective of cognitive construction. Both thought and language are meaningful and can be interpreted as a reconstruction process that is propagated in a particular way. First, the role of language in memory structure cannot be ignored. It is not only a tool to understand the past, but also a way to reshape history. Through discourse characterization, the collective memory of history is formed, and the legitimization of historical behaviors and events is realized (Wang, 2019). In addition, the past-to-present shift demonstrates that since the outbreak of the pandemic in 2019, no country in the world has been spared, thus making the international community form an objective collective memory of history of the pandemic. For this reason, through temporal proximization strategy, the international community's perception of this history can be reconstructed, and ODCs and IDCs could be brought closer. The discourse in this process becomes both a tool for understanding the past and a way to reshape history, ultimately legitimizing real actions and events through historical analogy.

(4) The recent resurgence of the virus and its frequent mutation are a sobering reminder that the fight against COVID-19 is a marathon. No country should slacken in its efforts, and cooperation must be strengthened. The COVID response should be more science-based to maximize the roles of vaccines and drugs and to make good use of preventive measures with a particular emphasis on international and regional coordination

and information sharing. Efforts should continue to balance routine COVID protocols and emergency measures, and ensure both epidemic control and socio-economic development.

This sentence is a typical analogy strategy proximization. "The recent resurgence ... and frequent mutations are a sobering reminder" highlights the whole process of the international community's fight against the pandemic in the past period, and awakens the collective historical memory of the addressees that the threat of the pandemic to the international community has not disappeared, and that cooperation is still needed to finally overcome the threat. Apart from that, the collective agreement on identity of different people is constructed, and common concern of different people about the reality is enhanced, which becomes an effective means to lead future actions.

(5) The impact of COVID-19 on world peace and security is still unfolding, with long-standing hotspots showing new dynamics and new hotspots exacerbating long-held grievances. The interplay of traditional hotspots and non-traditional challenges has made them even more complicated and difficult to solve. We the BRICS countries should act on the new security vision of common, comprehensive, cooperative and sustainable security, and encourage political settlement of regional hotspots and resolution of disputes through dialogue and consultation. And we should take more preventive actions to this end.

In contrast to description of the past-to-present shift in the previous examples, this example adopts a future-to-present shift strategy aimed at shaping a common identity by stating "The impact of COVID-19 on world peace and security is still unfolding". It points out the increasingly widespread negative impact of the pandemic on global health governance, as well as on peace and security. It creates a common conceptual space for current and future actions to be taken by the international community through stating "we should take more preventive actions to this end". The temporal proximization model is presented as follows.
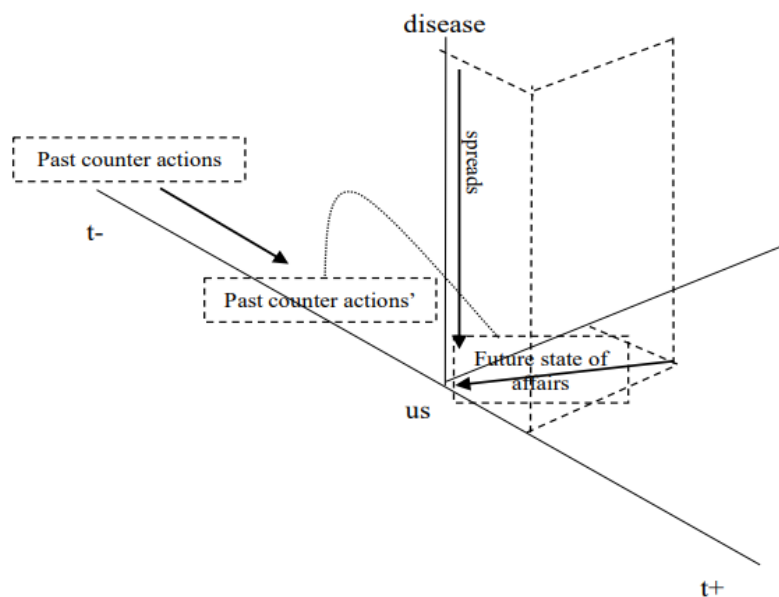

Figure 1. Temporal Proximization Model

Temporal proximization therefore has a dual effect. On one hand, it helps to establish a collective memory of the past; On the other, it legitimizes or delegitimizes historical events to help people of different groups reconstruct these historical events and shape a common identity (Wang, 2019).

C. Axiological Proximization Exposes the US and the West's Intention of Politicizing the Pandemic.

Axiological proximization refers to the mechanism through which the ODCs' value is derived, from both far and near. The values of IDCs and ODCs are interpreted as there being a growing conflict of consciousness between the two. The mechanism of axiological proximization involves the addressee's construal of a continuing ideological conflict that eventually materializes in a physical clash between the speaker/addressee and the audience (Cap, 2010). International values are generally regarded as the embodiment of ideology. The construction of certain ideology relies largely on who is to convey the ideology and how to describe and explain it—that is, how to seek shared values or promote the integration of values through external forces. At the same time, it is also important to choose which events or issues to describe, and this choice itself has an impact on the value orientation of these events.

TABLE 3
ENTITY ELEMENTS AND THE FREQUENCY (AXIOLOGICAL PROXIMIZATION)

Category	Words	Frequency（%）
IDCs(noun phrases)	We	1.31
	China	0.92
ODCs (noun phrases)	US	0.53
	They	0.36
ODCs threats IDCs (verb phrases)	Politicalize	0.15
	Slander	0.05

It is noted that in the section, China identifies the "false statements made by the U.S. and the West against China's fight against the pandemic" rather than the "pandemic" as a peripheral entity, because it is not the "virus" that holds values, but the U.S. and Western countries who use the "virus" to engage in "virus politicization". Clarifying this point is crucial to the perspective from which we conduct critical discourse analysis, and helps us to further understand the operation of proximization strategies in practice.

(6) China's position on global origin-tracing is consistent and clear-cut. First, origin-tracing is a matter of science. It should be and can only be left to scientists to identify, through scientific research, the virus's zoonotic source and animal-human transmission routes. No country has the right to put its own political interests above people's lives, nor should a matter of science be politicized for the purpose of slandering and attacking other countries.

The words "politicize" and "slander" directly point out the approach taken by the U.S. and the West on dealing with the pandemic, which highlights the inaccurate statements by the US and the West towards China. It's a direct response to the U.S. and the West's attempt to cover up their own ineffectiveness in fighting against the pandemic by discrediting China. It also reinforces the support of the Chinese people and the international community for China to have a say during the pandemic. In the global "test" against the pandemic, China delivered convincing answers and became the "top student", while the U.S. and the West responded poorly and were reduced to the "poor student". In the context of the pandemic, the difference between the two sides' anti-pandemic philosophy determines the ideological difference in their discourse. Faced with the U.S. and the West's "shifting the blame", the Chinese side, out of safeguarding its anti-pandemic achievements and maintaining its international image, identified the U.S. and the West, especially the U.S., who made false statements, as peripheral entities, and its "politicization of the virus" as well as its "shifting the blame to China" as threats. The way of doing it helps China spread its positive position on global anti-pandemic cooperation.

D. Application of STA Model

According to the spatial-temporal-axiological (STA) model in proximization theory, these three strategies are conducive to continuously narrowing the distance between entities in the discourse space and influencing addressees (Wang, 2019). Cap (2013) believes that one of the principles of proximization theory is that, although any application will likely contain all three strategies—spatial, temporal, and axiological—the degree of their expression in the discourse parallels their effectiveness in changing contexts. This is particularly evident in axiological proximization analysis, as spatial and temporal proximization can be projected onto the axis of analysis by means of metaphors, which constitute an integrated use of the STA model:

(7) "China, like other countries, is a victim of the pandemic, and we all hope to find out the origin of the virus and cut off its transmission as early as possible. Given the ongoing spread and rebound of the virus, the priority remains to be stepping up equitable distribution of COVID-19 vaccines and enhancing solidarity and cooperation. Origin-tracing cooperation must be based on science, and politicization must be firmly rejected. China will work with other parties to carry out science-based global origin-tracing, and contribute China's part to humanity's final victory over COVID-19."

"China, like other countries, is a victim of the pandemic" takes the lead in identifying China as the central entity under threat, and reinforces this judgment with the word "victim" as a value anchor. In addition, the description of "politicization must be firmly rejected", with the metaphor "reject" helps the listener learn the fact through mental space that the central entity is under threat and he's unwilling to bear the threat. It can be seen that spatial proximization plays an important role in compensating for the ideological expression of axiological proximization, and in terms of discursive effect, it achieves the purpose of strengthening the addresses' construal.

V. CHINA'S INTERNATIONAL DISCOURSE SYSTEM

A. "China's Voice" in the Context of the Pandemic Is Conducive to the Building of Its International Discourse System in the New Era

As China moves closer to the center of the world stage, it is also accompanied by "troubles on the rise". The U.S. and the West have been repeatedly making various arguments and creating traps to malign China. Especially since the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic, the U.S. and the West have aggressively fabricated the statement of "Wuhan virus leak", and forced the World Health Organization to launch the "The second investigation on the origins of the

COVID-19" to China. In this regard, China's experience in fighting against the pandemic and its adoption of public health governance to stimulate innovation and improvement of the global governance system has promoted its initiative to facilitate its building of international discourse system.

B. Focusing on Both Attack and Defense Has Become an Important Feature of China's International Discourse System in the New Era

International public opinion itself is a war of narrative, language or information, which involves not only the right to explain, such as the origin of the virus, the spread of the virus and the information and narrative of overcoming the virus, but also implies the battle of different philosophy and values. In the face of new development opportunities and complex communication environment, China's international communication philosophy gradually change from passive ones based on "explanation" to active issue setting and public opinion guiding, such as the "Investigation of Fort Drikritsu" initiated by the Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs with the participation of 25 million Chinese netizens.

C. Proximization Strategy Could Be an Important Analytical Tool for International Discourse Gaming

The "speech-act" reflects the cognitive construction process, and discourse becomes important corpus for analyzing behaviors. The three dimensions of the proximization strategy can be used to analyze how political discourse converges the ideologies of ODCs and IDCs by bringing the "peripheral entities" and the "central entities" closer in time, space, and ideology. In the post-pandemic era, discourse has become the main mediator of the international community, and the competition between the East and the West for global discourse power will become more and more intense. Discourse analysis can help us better understand and interpret the political behaviors of all parties and seek for the value convergence between different political forms. The building of the discourse of similar value can better stimulate the resonance of public opinion, bridge the gap, and serve our international image building and international communication.

VI. Conclusion

The battle of discourse is the third battlefield followed by the economic and political ones. The great rejuvenation of the Chinese nation will inevitably affect the international order dominated by Western powers and trigger blocking, containment and interception by certain vested interests in the international community. Therefore, China must be fully and strategically prepared. In this paper, the author adopts proximization theory as a new research perspective within the framework of critical cognitive discourse analysis to examine the construal operations under the corpus of the official discourse of the Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs on "fighting against the COVID-19 pandemic". This paper demonstrates the feasibility of proximization strategy in critical discourse analysis and the strong explanatory power of its SAT model in the building of values, which can provide theoretical support for the construction of China's international discourse system in the next stage.

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Yunyou Wang, born on 1st, December, 1991, is a PHD and a lecturer in Sichuan International Studies University (SISU), China, majoring in English Language and linguistics, and focusing on the research of cognitive linguistics. She received her Doctorate from Southwest University in 2019.

Students' Perception of the Use of Learning Management System in Learning English for Specific Purpose During the Pandemic: Evidence From Rural Area in Indonesia

Gabriel Fredi Daar
Universitas Katolik Indonesia Santu Paulus Ruteng, Indonesia

Ni Luh Supartini
Institut Pariwisata dan Bisnis Internasional, Bali, Indonesia

Ni Made Ayu Sulasmini
Institut Pariwisata dan Bisnis Internasional, Bali, Indonesia

Kadek Ayu Ekasani
Institut Pariwisata dan Bisnis Internasional, Bali, Indonesia

Denok Lestari
Institut Pariwisata dan Bisnis Internasional, Bali, Indonesia

Ida Ayu Gayatri Kesumayathi
Institut Pariwisata dan Bisnis Internasional, Bali, Indonesia

Abstract—The use of LMS in learning activities can be done anywhere. A similar application was applied to learning English specifically for midwifery students on Flores Island during the covid-19 pandemic. This study aims to describe the perception of midwifery students about the use of LMS in English learning activities. This study is qualitative research with a case study approach. The study was conducted on midwifery students at the Universitas Katolik Indonesia Santu Paulus Ruteng. Data were collected using interviews, observation, and documentation. Determination of the informant is done purposively with a total of 10 students. The results showed that students had a positive perception of LMS use. LMS is considered to have several advantages that students can use to interact with lecturers and fellow students. In addition, the use of various learning methods such as discussions on chat forums and Question & Answer by utilizing LMS encourages the achievement of student learning goals. However, students urged that they found several barriers to using the LMS, especially related to the instability of the internet network, running out of internet credit, and lack of knowledge and skills in operating the LMS. Against these obstacles, students apply various practical and applicable strategies that can be carried out spontaneously to minimize the impact of any obstacles found, including collaborative strategies that involve the participation of lecturers and other staff.

Index Terms—students' perception; learning management system, English for a specific purpose, pandemic

I. INTRODUCTION

The emergence of the Covid-19 pandemic significantly impacted all areas of life, including higher education. The widespread Covid-19 at the end of 2019 has forced governments as policymakers to take quick and appropriate decisions to unravel the spread of the virus. Considering the trend of increasing positive cases of Covid-19, the Minister of Education and Culture of Indonesia issued a decree No 4 of 2020 to stop face-to-face learning activities and replace them with online learning activities. This policy fulfills the community's right to get a proper education, even in an emergency.

The significant policy of the Indonesian minister of education and culture certainly has a broad impact on Indonesian education. At the tertiary level, the establishment of face-to-face learning patterns quickly and simultaneously shifts to online learning patterns by utilizing various online learning tools. This transformation presents new problems and challenges for both lecturers and students in using existing online learning instruments (Lie et al., 2021; Aryanti, 2020; Kapasia et al., 2020; Daar, 2021; Dube, 2021). The challenges are faced by universities that are new to online learning platforms due to the pressure of the pandemic (Olaitan, 2020). These universities tend to be technologically stuttering in

the early days of adapting to online platforms and needing a long time to carry out learning activities in a conducive and effective manner.

In Indonesia, learning English specifically for midwifery students is applied to universities undertaking midwifery programs. The application of ESP aims to introduce the students to midwifery terminology in English. It also prepares students with additional skills of English communication ability that can be utilized in the workplace. Before the Covid-19 pandemic, learning activities, including learning English for Midwifery students, were face-to-face. However, several universities in Indonesia have used online technology instruments in their learning activities. The change in the learning system is not a problem for them. They even found the positive impact and value-added for digital skills development. Several studies have shown the positive effect of using LMS in learning activities.

In contrast, using the Learning Management System (LMS) in the teaching and learning activity is a new experience for lecturers and students at the Universitas Katolik Indonesia Santu Paulus Ruteng. It is the university's response to the policy made by the minister of education and culture to apply online learning from home as an effort to reduce the spread of the Covid-19 virus. LMS in learning is applied to all study programs and courses, including English Courses for Midwifery students. The LMS used is Modular Object-Oriented Dynamic Learning Environment (Moodle).

Some scholars have conducted research regarding the challenges and opportunities in the LMS applications. Nasser et al. (2011) conducted a study on the effects of using LMS in Qatari Schools. The study revealed a strong relationship between ICT knowledge and LMS usage. It's affirmed by the study conducted by Asiri et al. (2012) on the factors influencing the use of LMS in Saudi Arabian higher education. They concluded that three crucial factors affect LMS application: innovator, innovation, and context. Innovators are those who use the LMS. Innovation refers to the nature of technology to support the LMS application, and context refers to the availability of infrastructure with social support for the learning environment. Moreover, Rahim (2013), through his study on the teachers' attitude toward LMS, found a positive relationship between their attitude and their confidence level for LMS application. Daar (2021), through his in-depth literature review on the opportunities obtained by both lecturers and students during the pandemic, concluded that engaging in learning technology, promoting Independent Learning, and Changed Practices and Perspectives are some of the opportunities gained.

Concerning the above studies, the view on challenges, opportunities, and experiences of applying LMS should be based on various perspectives and evidence. It can be noticed that how LMS is applied and students' voices from rural areas are hardly ever studied, particularly in the learning English for specific purpose context. Regarding the above phenomenon, this research is essential to explore midwifery students' perspectives on using LMS as the primary tool for learning English during the pandemic. Reid (2019) stated it is important to know student perceptions about learning management systems. It is practical learning and communication with their instructor and classmates within an online learning environment. In addition, it is necessary to examine the challenges or obstacles experienced by students while using the LMS to minimize problems in subsequent use. In addition, it is also essential to explore the strategies used by students to overcome challenges and recommendations or suggestions for improvement in subsequent learning activities. It is related to the effectiveness and achievement of English learning objectives and increasing digital competence as one of the requirements to survive in the current era of digital technology.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A learning management system (LMS) is an online digital environment that provides a comprehensive toolset for teacher-student interaction. Some faculty members felt that evolving Web 2.0 applications could provide students with an alternative to LMS that makes learning content easier to access and manage. In addition, it helps teachers provide learning materials to students and manage student enrollment. It is a toolbox for web resources, including social bookmarking tools, document sharing applications, and social networks (Obadara, 2014; Educause, 2010; Okron & Koko, 2009).

A learning management system increases the quality of methodical, didactic information support for the educational process and all the participants (Lyashenko & Malinina, 2015). Moreover, the aim of using LMS is to enable learning practices in the active environment of all the participants, online and offline. It also encourages students to be active in the educational process, creates conditions for active interaction between students and teachers, and improves the digital skills of both teachers and students (Lyashenko & Malinina, 2015).

LMS uses a variety of tools and functions. They are course management tools, online group chat and discussion, homework collections and grading, documentation, course evaluation tracking, and reporting of course or classroom events between various people that participate. Moodle is an example of such LMS (Ajijola et al., 2021).

LMS adoption by higher institutions worldwide is truly dramatic (Embi et al., 2012). Warger (2003) stated that these systems have become essential to the institution of higher learning drive for implementing instructional technology. In its implementation, teachers and students found difficulties in using LMS. Aljaloud (2012) identified some barriers encountered by teachers and students in Saudi Arabian institutions. It includes content-specific barriers and school/administration/region-specific barriers. The barriers are also related to resistance to change and lack of technical staff for skills training in the technology. In addition, it is found to lack availability and accessibility to hardware.

However, another study revealed the positive impact of using LMS. An experimental study conducted by Agudo-Peregrina et al. (2014) identified three different interaction classifications independently of the system. Based on the

investigation of the effects of these classifications in different virtual learning environment formats on academic achievement, they found a significant influence on academic achievement in online courses by conducting the student-student, student-content, student-system, and student-teacher interactions. It is affirmed by the study conducted by Nair and Patil (2012). They found that students learning skills has improved in courses where LMS are available. This learning improvement may be due to the learning environment, as LMS provides access to course materials and immediate results, allowing students to track their knowledge more efficiently (Ebardo & Valderama, 2009).

III. METHOD

This research was conducted at the Midwifery Department, the Univeritas Katolik Indonesia Saint Paulus Ruteng, Eastern Indonesia. The subject was chosen because using a learning management system is a new shift from face-to-face or offline learning to online learning due to the emergence of the Covid-19 pandemic. The study was conducted for two months, from October to November 2021. A qualitative method with a case study approach was carried out to explore the perspectives of academic students at higher education institutions regarding the implementation of learning management systems, in particular how English for a specific purpose (English for Midwifery students) is delivered. The purpose of applying a qualitative method with a case study approach was to capture the real-life perspectives of students. Data were obtained through in-depth interviews, observation and documentation.

For individual interviews, it was taken the participant by using purposive sampling. Each participant is at agreed-upon locations that were conducive to doing the interview. Each participant was asked fourteen qualitative research questions designed to answer the three qualitative research questions regarding the perspectives of each participant dealing with the use of a learning management system. It was assured that the participants' identities would be kept confidential and anonymous.

Data analysis was carried out by following the analysis model proposed by Miles and Haberman (1994). The data of participants' perspectives on the use of LMS in learning English for Specific Purposes were collected. These data collection instruments are tools used to capture the qualitative responses from participants who volunteer to participate in the study. The collected data were then classified based on the need for analysis. It is conducted to lead the analysis to specifically answer the research questions, including participants' perspectives on the implementation of LMS, participants' perspectives on the challenges they may encounter during the use of LMS, and strategy they undertake to cope with the challenges. The data was then displayed to be analyzed and interpreted. The final step is concluding the finding of the study.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Results

In this section, the results of the study and discussion are presented. It accounts for students' perceptions about LMS use, student perceptions about the challenges of using LMS, and strategies to overcome challenges. Data on the three topics were obtained through in-depth interviews by asking several questions that were relevant to the topic being studied.

(a). Students' Perceptions of the Use of Learning Management System

Data related to student perceptions of LMS use were obtained through in-depth interviews by asking questions to find out midwifery students' opinions about the effectiveness, advantages, and disadvantages of using LMS (moodle) in English learning activities. The submission of these questions is to explore opinions based on student experiences using LMS for one semester (odd semester 2021/2022). To comprehensively describe the perception of using LMS, questions were also referred to the activities undertaken during the learning process, including the methods provided by the lecturers so that English learning activities run effectively and the competencies expected to be achieved. Based on the results of in-depth interviews, it was found that students considered LMS (Moodle) effective to be used in English learning activities. It is considered to have an advantage. It is recommended to keep using it during learning from home. Other advantages are related to immediate time consumption, which is supported by the ease of access.

"I think Moodle is very effective in learning English. The advantage of Moodle in English learning activities is that it can facilitate the learning process. It is swift and does not take much time". (MFK)

Another advantage that is considered positive of using LMS in learning English is its effectiveness in building communication between students and lecturers. With its effectiveness, lecturers can provide additional reading material to students to enrich information sources that can be accessed easily. In addition, by utilizing available technology, students can carry out learning activities anywhere as long as an internet network is available.

"The advantage is that it is an effective means of building communication between lecturers and students. Teachers can provide additional reading material to students through the system. Students can study anytime and anywhere." (MAS)

Based on the experiences and opinions of students as research subjects, LMS has weaknesses that can hinder student learning processes and outcomes during the pandemic. According to the students, the lack of offline access is one of the

weaknesses of using LMS. It becomes a problem for students who live in locations that do not have an internet network and do not have data credit. Therefore, the use of LMS (Moodle) is considered financially inefficient.

"I think the weakness of using LMS is that you cannot access it when you are offline. To enter or log in, we must use internet data. Moreover, it takes a stable and good internet connection to access the LMS. If not, the learning process through LMS will be hampered. (MOUs). LMS Costs more to assess (MAS). In addition, network disturbances cause hampered access (MD).

Another thing that is considered a weakness of using LMS is the loss of opportunities for lecturers and students to interact in a real-time setting. It raises another problem. Students often have difficulty downloading learning materials sent by lecturers with file sizes that exceed the system's capacity. It is a severe problem for students who cannot operate information technology optimally.

"LMS is less able to implement real-time interaction between lecturers and students. Students can access any material files given by the lecturer when sending assignments in the form of files; always experiencing problems, files with exceeded size would not be able to download. Moreover, it is difficult to find additional applications to operate the file" (MD).

To improve students' performance in learning English, they are facilitated to be involved in intense interactions with fellow students and with lecturers. In addition, the lecturer uses a question and answer method that aims to improve students' English speaking skills.

"Techniques used by lecturers in learning English are questions and answers, lectures, and giving assignments. This method is very effective because students can open their horizons and train themselves to pronounce words and sentences in English. I build interaction with classmates through joining a zoom meeting or google meet and chat on Moodle" (MFK).

Lecturers also apply methods that actively stimulate and motivate students to participate in group discussions. Interaction and discussion are usually done using the zoom application integrated with LMS (Moodle) provided. In addition, there is also a discussion forum through the chat column that students can use to ask and answer questions.

"The methods commonly used are group discussions, quizzes, and assignments. Students can be more active in the lecture process, understanding the extent of their abilities. The availability of discussion forums and chat as a good means to build interaction with classmates in learning". (MAS)

(b). Strategies to Overcome Challenges of Using Learning Management System

Data on student strategies in overcoming challenges using LMS were obtained by asking questions about the strategies used for improving English learning activities using LMS in the future. The strategy in this study refers to an effort made by the students to cope with the problems encountered during learning activities using LMS. Based on the results of in-depth interviews, the strategies used by students are practical, valuable strategies, namely strategies that are easy to do when obstacles are found. In connection with internet network barriers or running out of internet credit, students try to find other locations that have been identified to have a stable internet network or to refill the internet data that have run out. In addition, students join forces with their friends around, so they do not miss the material being studied.

"If there is a problem or challenge, I will immediately move to a place with good network quality, or I can join using Moodle with colleagues." (MAS)

For students who have not been able to operate LMS optimally, the strategy used is to learn to adapt to all the menus available in the application. In addition, they discuss or ask other friends who can operate Moodle. Discussions are usually carried out through the WhatsApp application.

"Installing the Moodle application and adapting to the models available in it. Therefore, internet data must remain available and be in a place where there is a stable internet network. In addition, I discussed with friends of mine via WhatsApp to solve problems in the learning process (MFSN).

B. Discussion

(a). Students' Perceptions of the Use of Learning Management Systems

The use of learning management systems in learning activities in higher education supports the effectiveness of the teaching and learning process during the pandemic. Based on the results of data analysis, it was found that the use of learning management systems in English learning activities for midwifery students was effective. This effectiveness can be seen in the advantages of the learning management system, such as the availability of various features that support student-student interaction and students-lecturer interaction. It raises students' motivation and enthusiasm for learning. The study results align with research conducted by Reid (2019), which showed that the use of the learning management system in universities shows a positive and optimistic response from students and faculty members concerning preference, utilization, appreciation, and satisfaction for online teaching-learning. According to Adzharuddin (2013), LMS is an indispensable tool for college students. They get immediate notifications about their daily tasks because they cannot keep up with the coursework.

Similarly, instructors can easily reach out to students outside of class hours and be immediately notified of coursework-related issues via the LMS. In addition, Afendi and Amin (2009) stated that LMS is very suitable for

facilitating online interactions between learners and instructors. LMS as a platform used for online communication is considered more organized and contextualized.

With the implementation of various learning methods used by teaching staff while utilizing a learning management system integrated with the Zoom meeting application, students think that LMS is very efficient in terms of time needed. It was applicable due to its easiness to access. It supports the convenience of student learning and encourages the achievement of student competencies and learning goals. In their study, Akay and Gumusoglu (2020) showed the impact of learning management systems on student achievement in language exams. Participants felt that LMS contributed to the language learning process, so they responded to LMS use. They showed an overwhelmingly positive attitude. Mardiana and Faqih (2019), in their research on the Utilization of Learning Management Systems in Discrete Mathematics Learning Processes, showed a positive influence on the use of LMS on the quality of students' mathematics learning outcomes. In addition, through their research, Wihastyanang et al. (2014) showed that the use of LMS was effective in improving students' writing skills.

As a new instrument in learning activities, both students and lecturers experience various problems with using LMS. The obstacles are caused by the lack of ability to operate the LMS. Another obstacle was related to internet data and internet networks. It was confirmed by Asfihana and Yansyah (2016) in their research on the use of LMS found that lecturers have several barriers to implementing LMS, including inadequate skills and knowledge, lack of facilities, and lack of practice in LMS training.

With its various advantages of using LMS, students suggested that LMS be used continuously, especially in storing easily accessible learning materials, assigning assignments, and conducting discussions through chat forums provided on the LMS menu. However, Wiratomo and Mulyatna (2020) recommend using simple and easy applications. Such applications are acceptable in the teaching and learning process in online classes.

(b). Strategies to Overcome Challenges Using the Learning Management System

Learners' success in technology depends on their ability to cope with technical difficulties. It also validates their confidence in using technology to engage in learning (Gunawardena et al., 2010; Cheok & Su, 2015). Therefore, it is necessary to determine the right strategy to deal with the obstacles found (Daar, 2021). Strategies are considered patterns or sequences carried out consciously and systematically to run the learning process effectively. It can be undertaken by both teachers and students (Jovanović et al., 2017; Rosari, 2019). The strategy in this study refers to the students' efforts in dealing with the obstacles they find while using LMS in English learning activities. The strategies adopted by students are beneficial in minimizing the negative impacts caused by the obstacles to using the LMS. This strategy determines the success of learning activities (Daar & Nasar, 2021).

The study results showed that the strategy used by the students was appropriate and practical, namely, a strategy that was easy to do when obstacles were found. It helps students reduce the impact of internet network problems that are less stable or run out of internet data. Regarding the obstacles due to the lack of knowledge and ability to operate the internet, students find solutions by asking, discussing, and studying with fellow students who are considered to have the ability to operate an LMS. Discussions are usually carried out through the WhatsApp application.

In the implementation, it turns out that students receive support from education providers in dealing with the obstacles they experience. The support is in the form of facilitation and socialization of LMS use to students and lecturers. The socialization aims to improve the competence of students and lecturers in operating the LMS and anticipate problems that hinder the achievement of learning objectives. Moreover, it is recommended to apply a collaborative strategy that involves students' and teachers' participation (Lyashenko & Malinina, 2015).

V. CONCLUSION

Based on the data analysis and discussion results, it was concluded that the use of LMS in English learning activities specifically for midwifery students was the right choice during a pandemic. The use of LMS encourages creativity and participation of lecturers and students to achieve learning objectives. In implementing learning activities, students find several advantages of using LMS that can be used to improve student competence and success. It is supported by the learning methods used by lecturers through various features in the LMS application used. However, they also found problems that could hinder the achievement of learning objectives. Against these obstacles, students apply various practical, applicative strategies that can be carried out spontaneously to minimize the impact of any obstacles found, including collaborative strategies that involve the participation of lecturers and other staff.

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Gabriel Fredi Daar is an English lecturer at Faculty of Health Science, Universitas Katolik Indonesia Santu Paulus Ruteng, Indonesia. He obtained his Master's degree in English Education from Unindra PGRI Jakarta in 2015. He is currently is a Ph.D student of linguistic at Udayana University, Bali, Indonesia. His research interest is in sociolinguistics, pragmatics and language teaching.

Ni Luh Supartini was born in Denpasar, December 20, 1988. He is a lecturer, researcher and writer. Her last education was a Master of English Education, which he obtained at the Ganesha University of Education in 2014. Teaching as her first career since 2010, and she is currently one of the lecturers at International Institute of Tourism and Business. Her writings have also been published in many national and international journals. She was also one of the winners of Research Grant for the Beginner Lecturer category in 2017. Her first book entitled "Ragam Bahasa Pariwisata " has been published and can be reached online version. She is studying for Doctoral degree at Udayana University in Linguistics, especially English for Specific Purposes.

Ni Made Ayu Sulasmini, born in Denpasar in 1981, Ni Made Ayu Sulasmini is active in writing articles and editing manuscripts. One of his articles on teaching Balinese local wisdom was granted an award at the National Conference of Creative Industry held at Bunda Mulia University, Jakarta. Her interest in language pedagogy made her believe that a good writing is writing that has and is able to convey a simple moral message. As a lecturer at the International Business and Tourism Institute, Ayu can be contacted at ayu.sulasmini@ipb-intl.ac.id or sulasmini.teja@gmail.com

NI Kadek Ayu Ekasani was born in Denpasar, 1982. She is graduated her bachelor, master and doctoral program in Faculty of Arts, Udayana University Denpasar. She is a lecturer in International Institute of Tourism and Business, especially for teaching English Coresspondences and English for Hospitality. Some of her studies are published in national and international journals, such as International Linguistics Research, International Journal of Linguistics, Literature and Translation, and International Journal of Business on Hospitality and Tourism. In 2020, as a reviewer in Asian Research Journal of Arts & Social Sciences. Her research received grants from the Ministry of Research and Technology of the Republic of Indonesia in 2017 and 2018.

Denok Lestari, S.S., M.Hum, completed her Doctoral study of Linguistics at Udayana University in 2017. She was assigned to the University of La Rochelle, France as the Ambassador of Indonesian language and culture in 2019. Her expertise in applied linguistics and foreign languages bring her to the international conferences and publications. She is teaching English for Hospitality at IPB Internasional, Bali. E-mail her at denoklestari@ipb-intl.ac.id

Ida Ayu Gayatri is currently a lecturer in The International Institute of Tourism and Business (IPB International). She received her Master of Education in year 2018 from Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha, Singaraja, Bali. She has teaching experience of more than 5 years in the areas of English Language Teaching. She presented her first paper in Asean ELT conference year 2018. She currently focusses on her research interest on English Language Teaching Media Development.

EFL Learners' Engagement: Empowering EFL Young Learners to Initiate Speaking Through Personalizing Meaningful EFL Classroom Activities

Amir Abdalla Minalla

Faculty of Education and Arts, University College of Tayma, University of Tabuk, Saudi Arabia

Abstract—The study aims to determine whether personalizing classroom activities with meaningful and realistic situations can encourage EFL beginners to apply their learning experiences to verbal practices. The study employs a pretest, a posttest, and an interview as tools for data collection. Although the learning material was the same for both groups, the control group's participants were taught in a classroom using a traditional method based on one-size-fits-all instruction, whereas the experimental group's participants used a personalized learning method. The findings show that participants in the experimental group, whose class uses the personalized learning method, outperform participants in the control group, whose class uses the traditional method based on one-size-fits-all instruction. Hence, personalizing classroom learning experiences is an effective means of empowering EFL beginners to initiate speaking, particularly at the early stage of their learning. Thus, it recommends personalized classroom activities as an effective means for engaging beginners in verbal practices.

Index Terms—personalized, learning, classroom, speaking, EFL beginners

I. INTRODUCTION

One-size-fits-all instruction does not work for the majority of students since every learner is unique. For this reason, it is important to create a classroom environment where each learner has a voice and a choice (Bray & McClaskey, 2013). In class, students have gained information about the course book's characters. The information that students require in exchange must be invented or assumed as a role. Although this type of activity is beneficial, students will often learn more if it is personalized by incorporating their own experiences, opinions, and feelings. Thus, it has been observed that most EFL Sudanese basic school students at the early stages exhibit inadequate communication skills in real social situations. That may be because they are not equipped to apply the knowledge they have learned in class to their own concerns. Because the ultimate goal of second language instruction is not to transmit knowledge about the language, but to cultivate the competence required to write or speak independently. In order to better engage EFL learners in classroom learning, this study will assess how well the personalization strategy works by contextualizing meaningful and realistic situations. The emphasis will be on contextualizing classroom situations by personalizing them for what students have learned in the class. Since, teaching a foreign language inevitably results in a lack of communicative situations outside of the classroom. Without contextualizing meaningful and realistic situations, classroom learning cannot be sufficient for communicative needs. Relevance in language learning is crucial for inspiring students to apply lessons in their own unique contexts, allowing for more effective and long-lasting learning (Kember et al., 2008). Thus, engaging students in classroom learning often depends on how appropriately the classroom learning situation is contextualized, which undoubtedly increases students' exposure to the language.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

At school and in university, test scores are the only way to determine a student's progress because knowledge is valued in and of itself. However, in corporate language training, actual usage of the target language in professional and everyday contexts rather than a final exam serves as the gold standard of competence. Grant and Basye (2014) suggest that the educational system must create relevant learning experiences to prepare students for the issues they will face in the future and reflect the realities of their everyday lives outside of the classroom. Classroom activities that are related to the students' daily lives bridge the gap between the inside and outside classroom contexts. Clark and Mayer (2011) propose that personalized contextual supports in classroom settings are the factors that increase students' motivation to take ownership of their learning. All the students need a reason to get involved in classroom activities; therefore, personalizing activities makes them more relevant as well as memorable. Personalized learning is defined as a method of customizing learning content to individuals' learning needs, interests, goals, and prior experiences in order to improve knowledge and skill acquisition while also supporting psychological need satisfaction and intrinsic motivation

(Alamri et al., 2020; Aberbach et al., 2021; Bray & McClaskey, 2013; McCombs, 2013; Watson & Watson, 2017; Garn & Jolly, 2014). It focuses on the needs and interests of the learner and enables customization and change to suit individual learning objectives. Learners cannot relate language course material to their own lives and experiences if it does not seem relevant to them. Such classroom activities do not prepare students to communicate effectively in real-life situations. Therefore, the majority of class time is spent on activities that present language that is out of context (Hatch 1992). Thus, teachers must be able to offer language activities in a way that allows students to relate them to their lives to some extent. Schneider (2005), for example, suggests incorporating community issues into the classroom because "it provides a chance to make learning more interesting and relevant because students have the opportunity to grasp new content in terms of their own lives and reality." Utilizing contextualization helps teachers make language learning more relevant for students by providing comprehensible input for their learners. Thus, the practice of making the content of a piece of content or a lesson relevant to students' interests and educational or professional needs is known as personalization and is one of the contextualization strategies. Personalization substitutes for the traditional, one-size-fits-all educational paradigm that depends on time, place, and speed with one that engages students to satisfy their individual needs, goals, and interests (Redding, 2014). Students are more likely to feel supported in terms of their relatedness and competence when a learning environment fosters learning interests (Chen et al., 2020; Matuk et al., 2020; Garn & Jolly, 2014). Therefore, personalization in the classroom is crucial for a variety of reasons. It makes language more relevant to learners, makes communication activities more engaging, and aids in memorizing because it can occur at any point in a course. Furthermore, students' interests and abilities are utilized in authentic, real-world activities.

III. METHODS

The study used both experimental and descriptive methods. For four weeks, data was collected using an oral achievement test with a pre- and post-test and a parent interview. The Cambridge Assessment English Pre-A1 Beginners Speaking Test 1 was used as a pre-test to assess the homogeneity of participants' speaking abilities (EFL starters), and a post-test was utilized to gauge how well they had improved. The test's reliability was determined using the test-and-retest method. In this regard, a pilot sample of 10 children was drawn from the population. The correlation coefficient of the two tests was determined to be 0.82, which is appropriate for the research. The interview data is to examine parents' perceptions and experiences of how personalized learning practices affect their children's verbal interaction and to identify any additional comments or suggestions for improved performance. The study's participants were divided into two groups: group A is the control group, and group B is the experimental group. Group A had 20 participants, while Group B had 20, ranging in age from 6 to 7. The participants were systematically and purposefully chosen based on the pre-test's results that showed the significance (P) value was higher than 0.05, and the statistical result indicated that there was no statistically significant difference in the mean scores between groups "A" (mean: 6.55) and "B" (mean: 6.65).

A. Procedure

Both groups were taught the same content by the same teacher, who has over 20 years of experience teaching English as a foreign language. The learning material is based on the content of the Cambridge English qualifications books, specifically the Pre-A1-staters, Pre-A1-stater classroom activities, and wordlist pictures, which have been bilingually adapted specifically for those who are just beginning to learn English. Group A (the control group) is taught in a separate class (class B1) using a traditional method based on one-size-fits-all instruction. In the class of group A, teachers serve as informants and prompters, and the participants practice what they have been exposed to without adapting the content of the course book to match their needs and interests. A personalized learning strategy and contextualized learning environments are used to teach the experimental group in class B2. The teacher in group B's class fills the positions of an organizer, participant, observer, and tutor. Due to their shared cultural backgrounds and nearly identical beginner-level language proficiency, all participants in Group B would benefit from any single personalized learning situation that was created. Both groups are provided with a language exercise as part of their home work to expand their language practice outside classroom contexts by engaging their parents. For effective involvement, two workshops were held with the experimental group's parents, and explainer videos were provided for the parents of both groups. The first workshop was held before collecting data to familiarize parents with how to play the role of interlocutor with their children by putting learning into action by personalizing learned items. Following the post-test, another workshop was organized to interview the parents and expose their observations, comments, clarifications, suggestions, and so on. The explainer videos were created to help parents in each group understand what to do with their children and how to do the language exercises that were provided. The parents of group A were trained just to assist their children in performing the course book's exercises as they are described in the workshop book. While the parents of Group B were trained to play the role of interlocutor in the exercises that purposefully teachers designed and adapted for personalizing what they had learned. Several processes were carried out during the treatment, including observation by the EFL teacher and the parents of the children in the experimental group, recording the children's progress in the classroom and at home, and receiving feedback from the parents.

B. Personalized Classroom Practices' Sample

Throughout the four weeks, group B participants' interactions were recorded, checked, and then the feedback was made to be taken into account for the next. Personalizing practices cover some areas of language (nouns, adjectives, action verbs, and prepositions), particularly those related to the everyday lives of the children. All personalizing activities began with yes/no questions and then progressed to "Wh-questions." Yes/no questions and wh-questions are intended to have answers that are interconnected. Thus, the answers to wh-questions are an expansion of the answers to yes/no questions. For example, in the first class, we discussed the expression "have" to express possession. Its purpose is to teach children how to tell what they have and don't have. Participants, for example, exchange questions that test positive and negative responses, such as "Do you have a tap?" "Do you have a red pen?" "Do you have a green book?" and then expanded by the questions to list what he or she has based on the answers they produced in the yes/no questions, e.g., "What do you have in your bag?" What do you have in your room? What do you have, and what do you lack? In the next classes, the participants were engaged to express the foods they liked and those they did not. To begin, we assessed their attitudes toward various foods by asking them questions such as, "Would you like an egg?" "Would you like chicken?" or "Would you like chips?." These questions are followed by the wh-questions: "What would you like to eat?" or "What would you like to eat for breakfast or lunch?". Questions like "Would you like milk?" and "Would you like orange juice?" were expanded by the question "What would you like to drink?". Thus, yes/no and wh-questions are extended to cover the area of prepositions and adjectives, for example (prepositions such as in, on, under, over, behind, in front of, next to, and adjectives such as short/tall, small/big, thin/fat, high/low, etc.).

Then the focus of the classes shifts from producing nouns to expressing or describing the activities that they could perform. In these classes, students engage in practicing possibilities and impossibilities to express the actions that children can do or the ones that they can not do. For example, positive expected answers include "Can you write?" "Can you paint?" "Can you read?" "Can you walk?" "Can you play video games?" "Can you run?" and negative expected answers include, "Can you swim?" "Can you drive a car?" And then there are wh-questions such as "What can you do?" and "What are the things you can't do?". The class of group A introduces the same lessons as group B's class, but mainly the practice depends on the original form of the language used in the course book texts. For example, the children of group A use the characters in the texts when engaging in practice of what they have learned (e.g., they indicate that Jane can write, John has a book, Khalid would like chicken, etc.) or what he/she can do, what does he or she have in your bag/room?, and what would he/she like? .....ect.

IV. FINDINGS ANALYSIS

The study aims to improve EFL beginners' ability to take action in speaking by personalizing learning activities both inside and outside of the classroom. The collected data is primarily used to determine whether the performance of the experimental group's participants has improved as a result of the treatment's personalization of classroom learning when compared to the control group's participants, who use a traditional method that relies on one-size-fits-all classroom instruction. EFL children from both groups are accustomed to practicing what they are taught in the classroom at home with their parents.

A. Pre- Test Analysis

TABLE 1

| Group	N	Average	Std Deviation	t	Sig(2-tailed)
Group A	20	6.55	1.352	.000	1.000
Group B	20	6.65	1.638	.000	1.000

Table 1 shows that there was no significant difference in the means of scores between the control and experimental groups in the pre-tests. The obtained result is due to the fact that both groups' participants are beginners who had only learned the English alphabet and a few basic English words prior to taking the test. They were teaching English to EFL beginners, with a strong emphasis on learning to speak English. All of the participants studied English as EFL beginners in the same class that was used to teach them speaking for the purposes of the study. Thus, the pre-tests produced roughly the same results in both groups that achieved homogeneity.

B. Post-Test Analysis

TABLE 2

Group	N	Mean	Std Deviation	t	Sig(2-tailed)
Control Group	15	9.53	1.34	.000	- 23.684-
Experimental Group	15	2.20	2.18	.000	-23.684-

The statistical analysis of the post-test data in Table 2 reveals a significant difference between the control and experimental groups' mean scores. There were significant differences favoring the experimental group. This is because by transforming traditional classroom instruction into personalized learning strategies, it empowers EFL beginners to put what they have learned into practice by adapting it to their own needs.

	Prepositions	Adjectives	Verbs	Nouns
Yes/no Qs	80%	89%	88%	84%
Wh-Qs	72%	60%	74%	77%

Group B
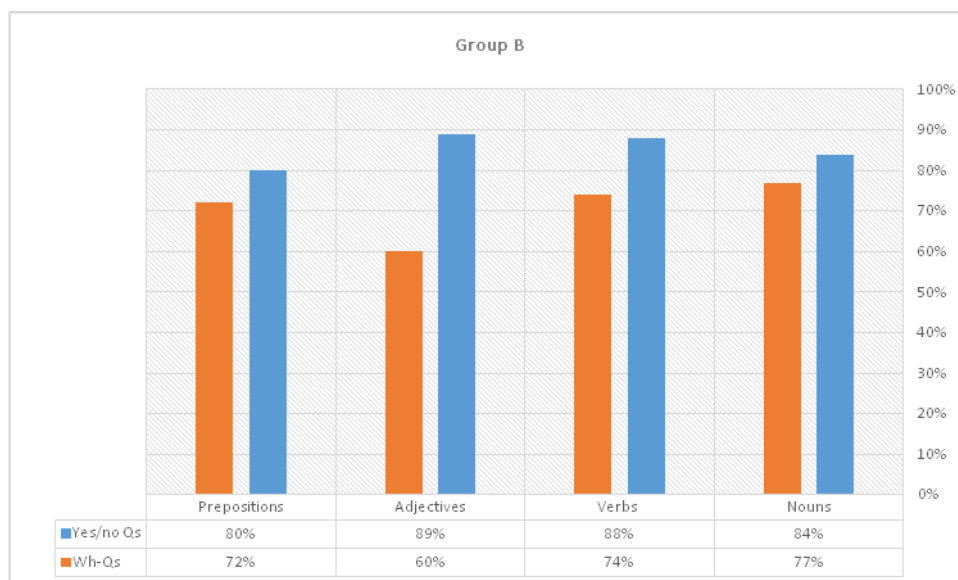
The statistical results clearly revealed that the majority of the participants were well aware of how to deal with yes/no questions as well as appropriately interact with wh-questions. Participants interact positively in all four areas of language and perform exceptionally well with yes/no questions. The results show that 84% of the participants were able to deal with questions with nouns as key words; 88% interacted positively with questions with verbs as key words; 89% of the participants answered questions with adjectives as key words; and 80% of the participants answered questions with propositions as key words. It means that yes-or-no questions that directly probe children's concerns are effective. It means that yes/no questions that directly address children's concerns are very effective and appropriate to be used as warm-up exercises before engaging learners in informative questions for the purpose of classroom interaction. The participants' performance in the wh-questions was admirable and courageous. It was found that participants responded to questions requiring key words as follows: 77% of participants provided answers that required nouns as key words; 74% provided answers that required action verbs; 60% dealt with questions that required descriptive language (adjectives); and 72% provided answers that required prepositions.

	Prepositions	Adjectives	Verbs	Nouns
Yes/No Q	69%	60%	64%	66%
Wh-Qs	17%	8%	9%	13%
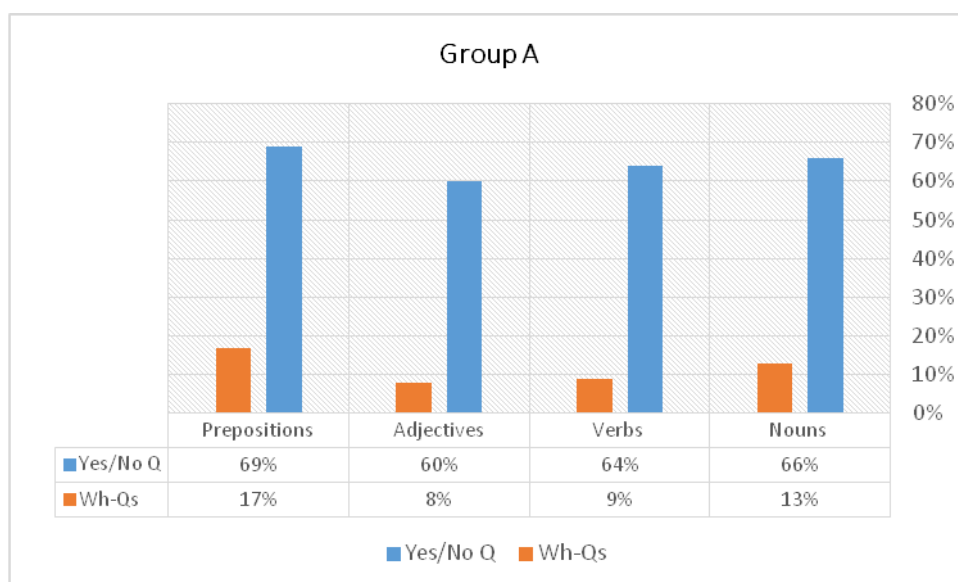
Group A

The results in the above figure 2 have shown that the majority of the control group's participants find no difficulties in dealing with yes/no questions. As it has been shown, the participants were aware of how to deal with yes/no questions in all the areas specified, as follows: nouns (66%), verbs (64%), adjectives (60%), and prepositions (69%). In spite of the adequate performance of the participants in group "A" in yes/no questions, that was not reflected in their performance in wh-questions. The participants do have poor performance in wh-questions, as in nouns: 13% of the participants could answer, 9% could answer the question's key word, action verbs, 8% for adjectives, and 17% of the participants did the adjectives. It is obviously the case that the participants were unable to use yes/no questions' answers for listing connected ideas all together, as it was done by the participants in group B.

C. Interview

The interview asked parents to reflect on their personal experiences and observations. Then, parents shared their perspectives on their child's progress over the past four weeks. The same classroom activities that children have already practiced and dealt with are customized to be homework exercises managed by their parents. It is the responsibility of parents to reinforce what their children have learned and practiced in the classroom, as well as to connect their children's learning experiences with actual everyday activities and actions. Furthermore, cooperative contexts between parents and their children maximize parent-child involvement in spoken activities, which increases children's confidence and interest in acting to speak freely. The interview was discussed from the parents' perspective of personalized learning's contribution to engaging children to speak outside of classroom contexts as a supportive means of verbal interaction. According to seventeen out of twenty parents, personalized learning fosters a friendly verbal communicative environment, allowing their children to initiate speaking in an interesting way. *Some different parents' feedback is as follows:*

Parents A:

"What facilitates the process of practicing and makes it interesting that all the items that intend to be learned are available as real objects in our surrounding environment."

Parent B

"I found it easy to point out things around us, and my child found no difficulties in responding to my suggestions. "I think because my child was interested in dealing with things that he already practices and is familiar with."

Parent **c**

"Personalized exercises create a vivid context that definitely relates to my child's environment. When I asked him what foods he liked, he eagerly listed every type of food he enjoyed.

Parent D

"My child enjoys telling me about things that he has and things that he does not have. He confidently describes the location of objects around us with prepositions like "my book on the table, my bag behind the TV, my shoes under the bed, and so on."

Parent E

"When I point to any object around us—I mean the ones that he has already learned—he immediately responds by telling me its name, color, and location. I enjoyed his interaction and responses to my questions".

Parent F

"I spent much time and effort to make sure that I accurately pronounce the items that I intended to review with my child."

Parent G

"When I try to expand discussion with my child, I intentionally stimulate him with things that he does not has or like. The purpose of this exercise is to see if my child can correct me. When I tell my child, "You have a black book," he responds, "I don't have a black book, I have a green book," and so on.

Parent H

"My child feels relaxed and spontaneously responds to my questions, such as by listing things he has or expressing actions that he can perform.

D. Discussion

One of the most important outcomes of the study was that it allowed the children to engage in verbal interaction as EFL beginners, which increased their confidence in their early stages of learning and helped them express themselves confidently. Furthermore, adequate and spontaneous practice in the classroom, with extension at home with their parents, prepares the children to feel relaxed during any verbal interaction. Parents came to the conclusion that the practice was enjoyable for both themselves and their children. It assisted their child in becoming more aware of their surroundings, associating objects with their names, and being more eager to verbally express their emotions to peers and teachers when needed. Furthermore, familiarity among the children with the simple vocabulary words enables them to make appropriate connections.

However, personalized areas of the language that can be interesting and fit spoken skills in the very early stages of development are extremely limited and difficult to customize. Personalizing learning materials is a difficult task for any teacher. Thus, personalizing processes necessitate a highly skilled teacher as well as a significant amount of effort to match individual differences. Furthermore, EFL parents must be continually trained on new learning material forms, structures, the correct pronunciation of some new language items, and so on. Maintaining consistent motivation is one of the most difficult challenges for EFL learners, which is difficult because children quickly lose motivation and interest.

V. CONCLUSIONS

Parents and EFL teachers undoubtedly provide ongoing support in a variety of ways for their children to advance in their language learning, but this motivational support won't be useful unless it's accompanied by technical assistance that shows them how to include their children. One of the best methods for assisting with the process of putting learning into practice is personalizing learning. Personalizing learning experiences and connecting them to daily activities and

actions are effective ways to pique EFL beginners' interest and encourage them to initiate conversations about their likes and dislikes. The study aims to empower EFL beginners to initiate speaking by personalizing their classroom learning experiences. Thus, the study's findings indicated that using personalized learning is an effective way of stimulating EFL beginners to begin speaking English as a foreign language. The statistical results show that the experimental group that employed personalized learning methods outperformed the control group that relied on traditional methods based on one-size-fits-all learning instruction. As a result of their regular practices of their learning experiences inside and outside of classroom contexts, the children's interaction inside classroom contexts increased significantly. Based on the findings, it is recommended that EFL teachers who teach EFL children as beginners use a personalized learning strategy to engage them in verbal classroom activities. The study suggests that instead of a four-week analysis, the study should last at least three to six months to confirm the significance of personalized learning methods in developing children's speaking skills.

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Amir A. Minalla obtained his PhD in English Language Teaching from Sudan University of Science and Technology in 2016. He earned his Master's degree (M.A.) in English Language Teaching in 2013 and his Bachelor's degree (B.A.) in English and literature in 2005.

He is currently associate professor and head of the Department of Languages and Translation at University College of Tayma, Faculty of Education and Arts, University of Tabuk, Saudi Arabia. He has several publications in Indexed Magazines. His main areas of interest are applied linguistics, teaching and learning, and problem-based learning.

The Effects of Online Production-Oriented Approach (POA) on Chinese Undergraduates' English Speaking Competence Development During COVID-19 Pandemic Era

Adelina Asmawi

Department of Language and Literacy Education, Faculty of Education, Universiti Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

Lixuan Sun[*]

Department of Language and Literacy Education, Faculty of Education, Universiti Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

Abstract—The Covid-19 pandemic has expedited Online Teaching and Learning (OTL) following a sudden closure of academic institutions. Although within the past years, POA was fully developed and expanded in various projects that yielded fruitful college English learning results (Matsuda, 2017), recently, in the learning and practice of Oral English by Chinese undergraduates, there are distinct drawbacks and issues affecting language learning. This paper attempts to apply POA to Chinese undergraduates' oral English classes based on OTL during the covid-19 pandemic, specifically focusing on whether POA can increase the effectiveness of oral English learning for undergraduates. Data analysis of both the pre and post-tests revealed significant improvement in the experimental class and minimal improvement in the controlled class. Students' pronunciation, vocabulary, and fluency improved in the experimental group. It is implied that the POA application was effective in enhancing Chinese undergraduates' speaking skills. Some suggestions are put forth to enhance the application of online POA during the covid-19 pandemic era.

Index Terms—oral English competence, online teaching, production-oriented approach, Chinese undergraduates

I. INTRODUCTION

With the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic, the world of education has faced a host of unprecedented challenges. Lecturers have shifted to online teaching to reduce the spread of COVID-19 at universities across China in early 2020. As a result, ESL instructors in China were required to adapt language instruction to a fully online format rapidly, and started searching for innovative techniques to teach students to use English in the production stage and foster collaboration among learners in online settings (Cao, 2020; Shrestha et al., 2020; Sun, 2022). In this new educational reform, EFL lecturers are expected to innovate and improve course delivery to enable learners to remotely engage in learning of productive skills such as writing and speaking.

In recent years, proficiency in speaking skills has become a particular concern raised by most Chinese employers. However, getting EFL Chinese students to speak can be a challenge, especially in online English classes. This is as such because most English teachers trapped in the current examination system focus mainly on the written examination to enhance students' English scores within a limited time. Given this fact, Chinese high school students have gained outstanding results in listening, reading, and writing but most cannot communicate effectively (Polio, 2017; Zhang, 2017; Kohn, 2018). Consequently, oral communication should not be overlooked and required a revisit. For Chinese first-year university students, English courses seem challenging due to several reasons: First, teacher-centred methods are still prevalent in some schools, thus most students have not had speaking practice. The conventional PPP (Presentation-Practice-Production) teaching mode is the most commonly used oral English teaching method in China (Vettorel, 2018). However, the PPP approach might work well for teaching vocabulary and grammar, but not speaking skills. This is made worse as Chinese learners are often typically silent and are inactive during speaking classes (Malik & Sang, 2017). In fact, many entering universities have had little experience on how to keep a conversation going despite six years of studying English at school. A series of criticism against PPP have consequently led to the introduction of new teaching methods enhancing learners' communicative competence, such as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) (Richards, 2006) and Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT). The latter is an approach that employs a range of interactive tasks to engage learners in meaningful communication (Richard, 2006; Santos, 2011).

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[*] Corresponding Author.

Similarly, one effective teaching approach recently integrated into face-to-face classes at colleges and universities in China is the Production-Oriented Approach (POA). It is based on the "output-driven hypothesis," where output motivates learners more than input and facilitates the application of English knowledge. The output-driven hypothesis is more suitable for productive skills such as speaking, communication, writing, and translation. In early 2014, this hypothesis was revised and called the "output-driven input facilitation hypothesis," before Professor Wen then, proposed the Production-Oriented Approach (Wen, 2016). Several scholars have reported significant progress in speaking, writing, and translating among university students (Wen, 2016, 2017; Deng, 2018). Some scholars found that POA was useful for improving speaking skills at vocational colleges, where students' English level was elementary (Deng, 2018; Lv et al., 2020; Zhang, 2017).

Nevertheless, POA effectiveness has never been implemented and investigated in online speaking classrooms. In other words, as there is currently no research focusing on classes implementing online POA, this research investigates if POA could improve students' English speaking skills and their fluency in an online synchronous English class.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. The Underlying Theory of Production-Oriented Approach

The underlying theory of the "Production-Oriented approach" (POA) is the "output-driven hypothesis," which illustrates that output often motivates learners more than input and facilitates the application of English knowledge, and also enhances their motivation to learn a foreign language. The output emphasizes both the process and results of production. The output-driven hypothesis is more suitable to improve productive skills such as writing, speaking, communication, and translation. In 2014, this hypothesis was revised and called the "output-driven input facilitation hypothesis," Consequently, Wen (2016) proposed the Production-Oriented Approach.

POA has three main principles: First, POA is learning-centered. Teachers ensure that every minute of instruction is effectively used, and employ techniques and activities to activate learning and engage learners. The learning-centered principle is in contrast with learner-centered instruction. The latter was initially suggested in reaction to the teacher-centered approach. Here, learning in the classroom needs cooperative efforts of both teacher and learners. Therefore, learning-centeredness may strike a balance between the roles of the teacher and the students.

Learning–using integration is the second principle that maintains that the acquired input must be used in consequent communicative tasks. POA tends to align input with output as processing input and acquired input are merged to lead to output. Once learners have learned new vocabulary, lexical chunks, and grammar by integrating input-based activities, they can link and integrate them into productive speaking and writing output.

The third principle is the whole-person education principle which explains that human beings have cognitive, affective, moral, and ethical needs. Teaching English is to achieve instrumental objectives such as enhancing communication skills and maintaining humanistic objectives, namely, inter-cultural competence, developing learners' critical thinking skills, and autonomous learning. Therefore, Chinese teachers tend to promote cultural exchange between China and other countries based on this principle. Three hypotheses explain the third element of the POA in the following section.

B. Output-Driven Hypothesis (ODH)

The output-driven hypothesis presumes that output is more effective than input in terms of learning outcomes. The reason is that if students start with an output activity to communicate, their preliminary trial may make them notice the gap in their language. Once they become aware of their deficiencies, students are eager to focus their attention on what needs to be learned instead of being 'force-fed'. Generally speaking, a communicative task needs the interlocuters to be supplied with relevant ideas, appropriate language, discourse markers, coherency, and a unified framework to present the ideas. This trial speaking task can help students realize their learning needs from the input given.

In the case of the Chinese students, they have accumulated a considerable amount of input through reading and listening. However, they still struggle with learning English despite being exposed to it from primary and secondary schools. Wen (2016) thus made an analogy about this input as having a full stomach without proper digestion. Output-driven instruction therefore may seem a more suited approach as it is about stimulating learners' appetite; as the saying goes, 'hunger is the best spice.' Thus, designing a speaking activity to get the learners to speak actively makes the learner motivated and eager, like a hungry person, to learn the relevant input (Sun, 2019).

C. Input-Enabled Hypothesis (IEH)

The input-enabled hypothesis verifies that all productive tasks which learners are asked to do need input-enabling materials. Teachers provide learners with newly enabling input, so the productive activity can develop the learner's grammatical and lexical competence. These input-enabling materials also increase learners' fluency and automaticity in using acquired input. Hence, input-enabled production can relate what has already been acquired with new knowledge and result in better learning outcomes compared to mere production practise through project-based or task-based instruction.

D. Selective-Learning Hypothesis (SLH)

The selective-learning hypothesis maintains that what is selected for input is expected to be aligned with the students' needs and enables them to perform the designated productive activities. Teachers have limited time for instruction, so they should selectively choose input based on varied student needs, discourse organization, and linguistic forms. Teachers also give freedom to students to search for something relevant to fulfil their purpose of learning. This hypothesis tends to disagree with bottom-up input instruction. The selective-learning hypothesis holds that classroom instruction should provide opportunities for university students to experience real-life learning. Moreover, learners' capacity to take in new things is limited, and their attention span is limited. According to this hypothesis, as teachers, we should enable students to focus their attention on important things rather than focusing on many new items to enhance learning efficiency (Wen, 2016).

E. POA Teaching Practice Procedure

The teacher goes through three stages in the POA teaching process: a) motivating learners, b) enabling or facilitation phase c) learners' assessment. The first is where lecturers design communicative scenarios which include cognitively challenging themes to motivate learners. Learners carry out these tasks stumbling upon language gaps in their existing knowledge. Such tasks encourage learners to utilize their present knowledge as they actively engage with learning new chunks (Wen, 2016).

In the second stage, the lecturer provides learners with additional input, language, and discourse structures to complete output tasks. Lecturers' enabling or scaffolding activities may start from words, chunks, sentences, and then to different texts. They may use a range of enabling activities such as role-play, monologue, jokes, debate, story-telling, and public speaking (Sun, 2021).

The assessment stage begins at the motivation stage and continues to the end of the assessment stage. Here lecturers evaluate learners in different aspects such as class participation, progress, and output. They usually assess learners' language use in grammar, collocations and critical thinking using different assessment methods such as observation, test papers, interviews, and verbal communication. POA has two types of assessment - instant assessment and delayed assessment. In the instant assessment, lecturers assess learners for selective learning, which means that they keep modifying the teaching materials to meet the lesson's objective. The delayed assessment, on the other hand, is where lecturers assess learners' final tasks. Over three stages of the POA teaching process, lecturers play the role of mediator and facilitator to guide, design and scaffold. The following diagram is the theoretical framework of POA.
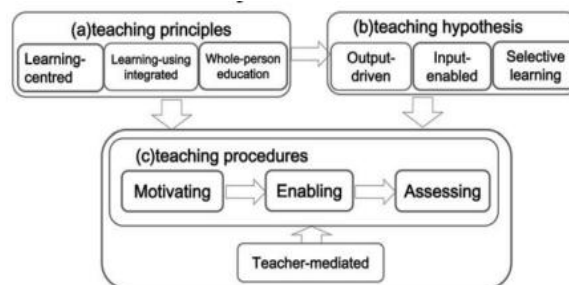

Figure 1. Theoretical Framework of POA (Wen, 2016)

As shown in Figure 1, the theoretical framework of POA is formed by three main components: teaching principles, teaching hypotheses, and teaching process. The first includes learning-using integrated principle, learning-centred principle, and whole-person education principle and is considered the theoretical framework. The teaching hypotheses are output-driven, input-enabled, and selective learning hypotheses. Teaching process is made up of three phases: motivating, enabling, and assessing. The POA teacher trainers carefully trialed the effectiveness of teaching materials. They share this approach with colleges by designing and implementing teacher training courses. In what follows, we will review empirical studies on the application of POA in developing speaking skills.

F. Past Studies

Several studies confirmed that POA is an innovative teaching approach in China, particularly for college learners (Wen, 2016; Vettorel, 2018; Zhang, 2017; Lv et al., 2020). Ellis (2017) believed that POA has a solid theoretical foundation and involve engaging teaching resources. However, he criticized the POA for ignoring the critical role of social interaction in language learning. He stated that the approach is primarily based on input and output without clearly declaring that communication usually happens within social interaction. He drew the POA team to this fact to clarify the extent to which the materials promote acquisition-rich interaction.

Ellis (2017) also questioned how this approach fosters the negotiation of meaning and form, and whether learners are engaged in language-related episodes when they perform activities. Over the recent years, there have been some studies conducted to examine the efficiency of the POA on productive skills, namely writing and speaking. Most (Zhang, 2017; Li & Li, 2020; Liu & Cao, 2021; Zhou, 2021; Wu & Wei, 2022) examined the effect of the POA on writing, summarized POA principles and teaching procedures as well as their effects. To date, few studies have investigated and reported the effects of POA on college students' speaking performance.

Li (2018) conducted a study to investigate the effects of the POA on college students' speaking ability. Results revealed that students' speaking scores improved in both POA and PPP groups. However, students in the POA group were more fluent and used more advanced vocabulary. In the same vein, Liu et al. (2020) divided college students into seven groups and got students to download the input materials related to each group's output task. The learners in each group found the answers to complete each output task. The teacher provided learners with language and content organization, and then, reviewed students' presentation slides. Students' motivation and enthusiasm for speaking increased after getting peer feedback on the POA. However, the effectiveness of the POA was not confirmed through conducting an experimental study or qualitative study.

Ren and Wang (2018) developed a questionnaire to investigate students' motivation levels. 45 first year students from different disciplines participated in a survey which lasted four months. Findings revealed that students started to express considerable interest in the POA approach, which led to an increase in their integrative motivation to learn English. In another study, Yin (2020) examined the application of the POA on pre-service EFL teachers at a college in Korea. This study on students' experience focused on the ways POA teaching procedure (motivating, enabling, and assessing) influenced the students' speaking processes over a semester. Data were collected from reflective journals, class observations, interviews, and group discussions. Findings showed that focused listening through the POA teaching procedure developed students' speaking performance and enabled them to develop strategies to use "input" in order to enhance "output."

To the best of our knowledge, no study has investigated the effect of POA on students' speaking performance in synchronous online classes. Applying the POA approach in an online class therefore, needs further research to ascertain their speaking competency particularly for collaborative tasks in such a context. The following research question was thus, formulated:

What are the effects of POA on Chinese undergraduates' speaking competency in an online learning environment?

III. METHOD

A. Research Design and Participants

This study aims to investigate if POA has any effect on first-year Chinese college students' speaking competence in an online class in 2020. The researchers conducted a quantitative study through pre and post-tests using repeated measure ANOVA to answer the research question. To maintain the reliability and validity of the results, the researcher used IELTS speaking tests extracted from Cambridge IELTS 15 published in 2020. The public version of IELTS speaking and its rubrics, including the accuracy of grammatical structures, coherence, fluency, pronunciation, and lexical resource, was used to assess the speaking performance in pre-and post-tests. The researcher taught English teaching lessons in both the experimental and controlled classes online on two different ways. The experimental class was taught using the POA model, while the controlled class was taught using the conventional teaching method. The course lasted for fifteen weeks. The pre-test and post-test scores were analyzed by SPSS software.

The participants were two parallel classes of 60 college students majoring in engineering at Harbin Normal University, at Harbin city in China. The researchers asked colleagues who work as IELTS examiners to conduct an online speaking IELTS test as a pre-test to ensure all students have the same level of speaking proficiency. The results of the test revealed that students had a similar level of speaking proficiency. The researcher randomly selected twenty-five learners in each experimental and control group using the fishbowl sampling technique.

B. Research Instruments

The instrument employed in this study was the IELTS speaking test (part 2 and part 3) to measure students' speaking competency. This test was used as a pre-test and post-test. It is worth mentioning that inter-rater reliability was used to ensure the extent to which two or more examiners agree with the given scores. To address the issue of consistency of the implementation of a rating system, one examiner conducted a speaking test online and recorded the session. Then the examiner scored each student's performance online, following which, the video was sent to the second examiner for scoring. The researcher then consolidated the students' scores based on two band scores given by two examiners.

C. Research Procedures

Initially, the researchers administered Oxford Placement Test Version 1.1 to ensure the participants are of the same language proficiency level. Ten students with extreme scores were removed from the experiments. Then, 25 students were randomly assigned to an experimental and control group. The researchers conducted a pre-test of the IELTS speaking competence among students in both the control and experimental groups to measure their speaking proficiency and any significant differences between their speaking scores. Two raters scored the IELTS speaking test results online using the Zoom meeting application. Then one researcher taught speaking by applying the POA approach online in both experimental and control classes over fifteen weeks. The researcher taught students in the control group using the conventional method (presentation, practice, production). The main reference materials for teaching speaking through the POA model were used for experimental group. The researchers included more input, such as videos and podcasts related to the topics to enhance students' output in experimental group.

D. A Sample of the Lesson Plan

The unit theme is "Discovering yourself." There were two reading texts: the first was used for in-class instruction, whereas the second was assigned for extended learning. The first reading text is about a university student who was about to graduate and described his concerns about his future career. He discussed his ideas with his father and was encouraged to contemplate and make the right choice. To guide him, his father took him to catch crabs. Guided by the Crab Bucket Syndrome, the father taught him about the crab mentality effect and advised him not to follow his peers, but instead to identify his strengths, how these strong points work for him and discover his interests (Greenall & Wen, 2016).

As for the objectives, learners are expected to develop narrative and descriptive skills, the language for advising how to get to know themselves, and for giving opinions by comparing and contrasting ideas. They are expected to learn lexis, lexical chunks, and new sentence structures. This lesson was designed based on POA principles to develop language knowledge, language skills, and cognitive skills. The researchers designed the classes based on the three phases of the POA teaching procedure; motivating, enabling, and accessing, as illustrated in Figure 2.
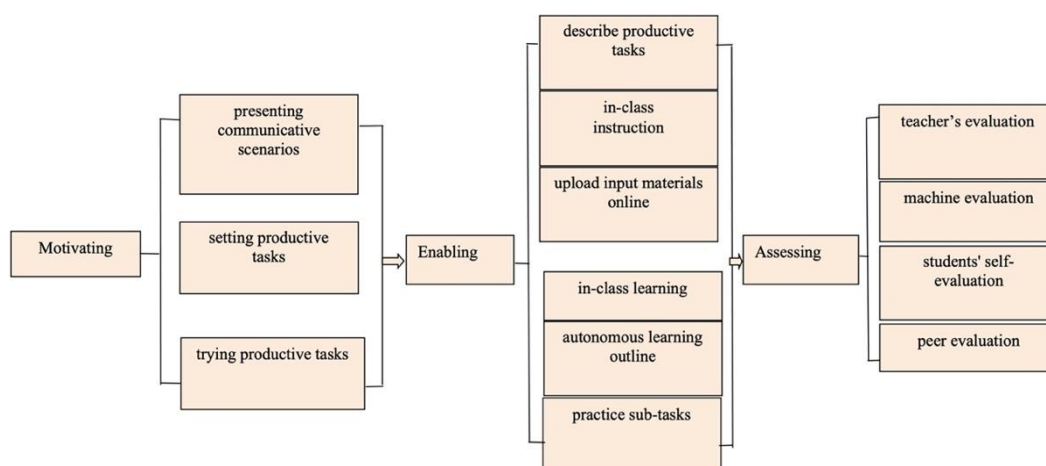

Figure 2. POA Teaching Procedure

(a). Theoretical Research on PAD Class

In the motivation phase, the teacher initially presented authentic situations that the students may face in the future. These situations motivated and improved students' enthusiasm to communicate using English and to complete productive tasks. Then, students started carrying out speaking tasks. At this point, they realized the gaps in using lexis and grammar knowledge and thus, became engaged in the productive tasks. These tasks are fundamentally speaking and writing tasks such as role-play, journal writing, survey report, and class presentation. In this research, we mostly focused on assigning speaking tasks to improve students' speaking skills. Students worked in groups of four and discussed career choices in breakout rooms. Table 1 presents the productive tasks and sub-tasks in the motivating phase:

TABLE 1
PRODUCTIVE TASKS AND SUB-TASKS IN THE MOTIVATING PHASE

Scenarios	Productive tasks	Sub-tasks
Situation 1	Imagine being at your graduation ceremony. You and your classmates are about to talk about career planning, anxieties, and ambitions in a seminar. At the end of the seminar, you are supposed to give some practical advice on making the right career choices and overcoming fears.	· Group work: develop a questionnaire on choosing a career and discuss. · Make a group presentation on collecting and analyzing the data related to your questionnaire. · Role-play the fears or concerns of graduates about future careers and include giving each other a piece of advice.
Situation 2	You are invited to give a speech in a virtual webinar named "Graduates' Employment Challenges: Issues and strategies." You will talk about the topic of 'discovering yourself', your perspectives and experience.	· Story-telling: narrate some inspiring anecdotes in your life that helped you discover yourself. · Watch relevant inspiring videos online and summarize the main ideas of each video.

(b). Enabling Phase

This phase plays a vital role in the POA teaching procedure closely related to input-enabled hypothesis and selective learning hypothesis (Wen, 2018). At the beginning of this stage, the researcher explained the productive tasks, provided scaffolding for learners, and guided them on how to complete them. The teacher gave enabling tasks - input materials and output tasks for students (Qiu, 2020). For instance, each productive task is divided into several output enabler

activities. The teacher designed scaffolding activities (Vygotsky, 1978), with students' progressive levels of English proficiency in mind.

For this study, this phase had four major stages. First, the teacher provided students with essential lexical items, namely vocabulary, useful expressions, and discourse structure, through reading a text on 'catching crabs.' Then, the teacher provided PowerPoint slides to teach useful language units. Meanwhile, students started to read and generate ideas from the reading text. The other text was assigned for extended reading at home to help learners become autonomous. Then, the teacher uploaded relevant input materials, like videos and speeches, to prepare students for each task. Following this, students selectively went through the online materials. They were also encouraged to look for other useful materials to fill the information gap and accomplish given tasks. In the last stage of enabling, students started to practise the output tasks. At the same time, the teacher prompted them to use what they had learned from the selective materials to ensure they could apply those inputs into completing the output tasks (Ren & Wang, 2018). Wen (2018) maintained that these stages might be rearranged and repeated based on students' levels until the students are able to complete the productive tasks successfully. Each productive sub-task was designed for a particular learning objective, as stated in Table 2.

TABLE 2
LEARNING GOALS

Sub-tasks	Learning goals
· Work in a group to develop and discus a survey on students' concerns and ambitions about future careers.	· To collect, analyze, present data. To learn the language for analyzing and presenting the data.
· Make a group presentation on the data collection and analysis.	· To use relevant language expressions.
· Role-play: 1. describe your fears about your future career and life, and 2. give advice based on the fears.	· To use sentence structures in describing and giving advice.
· Story-telling: narrate some anecdotes in your life where you were inspired to discover yourself.	· To narrate a story.
· Watch videos online and summarize the main ideas of each video in a speech.	· To use lexical chunks and expressions in giving the speech.

(c). Assessment Phase

There are two types of assessment: formative and achievement assessments in the POA. The teacher formatively assessed students in the enabling phase while students work on sub-tasks, and the second assessment was carried out once students submitted productive tasks (Zhang, 2017; Wen, 2016b). POA favours applying Teacher-Student Collaborative Assessment where teachers familiarized students with criteria or rubrics of speaking, such as coherence, lexical resources, pronunciation, and grammar. Then, they selected some students to comment and score each other's speaking performance. Following this, the teacher evaluated and discussed the students' common problems, and proposed recommendations (Wen, 2016b). Then, the teacher assigned the students to give a presentation or narrate their stories, and self and peer evaluate their performance.

IV. RESULTS

Initially, the researchers employed Shapiro–Wilk test to evaluate the normality of the data. As can be seen in Table 3, the probability values at the pre-test and the post-test in the experimental and control groups were greater than 0.05, indicating that the data were normally distributed.

TABLE 3.
NORMALITY TEST AT THE PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST IN THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

Time	Group	Shapiro-Wilk	df	Sig.
Pre-test	Control Group	0.938	25	0.132
	Experimental Group	0.935	25	0.110
Post-test	Control Group	0.840	25	0.001
	Experimental Group	0.966	25	0.535

Levene's test was used for the homogeneity test of variance between groups. If Levene's test is not significant (p>.05), there is homogeneity of variances between groups. The probability values of Levene's test for the pre-test (1,48) =12.7, p=0.66) and the post-test (1,48) =11.81, p=0.66) were greater than 0.05, indicating the homogeneity of variances between groups. The Greenhouse-Geisser was used for the homogeneity test of variance within groups. The Greenhouse-Geisser values for time (F (1,48) =1898.47, p<0.001) and the interaction of time and group (F (1,48) =226.82, p<0.001) were significant, indicating homogeneity of variance within groups.

Repeated measures ANOVA was used to determine the significant difference in outcome variable of the pre-test and post-test between the experimental group (N=25) and the control group (N=25). Results showed that there was a significant difference between groups (experimental group and control group; $F_{(1,48)} = 42.45$, p<0.001). The results also showed that there were significant differences in the time (pre-test and post-test; $F_{(1,48)} = 1898.47$, p<0.001) and the interaction of time and group ($F_{(1,48)} = 226.82$, p<0.001).

Table 4 shows the mean values for the pre-test and the post-test in the experimental group POA and the control group.

TABLE 4
MEAN VALUES FOR THE PRE-TEST AND THE POST-TEST IN TWO GROUPS

Group	Time	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Control Group	Pre-test	65.20	0.73	63.73	66.67
	Post-test	72.28	0.57	71.13	73.43
Experimental Group (POA)	Pre-test	67.28	0.73	65.81	68.75
	Post-test	81.84	0.57	80.69	82.99

The interaction between time and group is significant, so post tests should be performed to determine the source of the differences. Independent t-test showed that the mean values of students at the pre-test between the experimental group (M=67) and the control group (M=65) were not significant (t (48)= -2.012, p=0.051). However, there were significant differences (t (48) = -11.85, p=0.051) in the mean values of students `the post-test between the experimental group (M=81.84) and the control group (M=72.28).

Paired t-test showed that the mean values of students in the control group at the pre-test (M=65) and the post-test (M=72) were significant (t (24) =-21.70, p=0.001). Also, there were significant differences (t (24) =-38.87, p<0.001) in the mean values of students in the experimental group at the pre-test (M=67) and the post-test (M=81.84).

The present study was designed to determine the POA in online teaching of speaking skills through a comparison between the POA approach and the conventional method. The most prominent finding to emerge from the analysis is that students' speaking improved in both groups. However, there were significant differences in mean scores of pre-test and post-test among students in the POA group. This study revealed that POA could significantly influence the speaking proficiency of Chinese college students. It was also found that the grammatical accuracy, vocabulary knowledge, pronunciation, and students' fluency were enhanced.

V. DISCUSSION

In this study, the POA used in an online learning environment significantly and positively affected the pronunciation of EFL Chinese students. Students listened to native speakers' videos and audios to check their pronunciation, resulting in increased confidence in using new lexis. Siregar (2017) pointed out that the most critical factor in verbal communication is pronunciation which contributes to speaking proficiency. Othman et al. (2017) also maintained that one of the common problems of non-native contexts is lack of access to native-like communication which can influence the learners' speaking, particularly pronunciation. It was realized that exposure to native-like pronunciation in enabling and motivating stages for provision of input could positively affect the pronunciation of Chinese students. Apart from that, students' vocabulary repertoire is enhanced due to exposure to online reading and listening. They searched for new target vocabulary while developing the questionnaire, and preparing for role-playing and story-telling in the enabling stage. They could apply new vocabulary in their speech and use discourse markers to make their speech more coherent and fluent. Students found the materials and content engaging as the themes were related to their life.

The POA in an online learning environment was found to have a positive effect on students' overall speaking proficiency. This finding is consistent with that of Li's (2020) study on college students' speaking ability, particularly in terms of fluency and vocabulary. It also corroborates the findings by Yin (2020), who found that focused listening enabled preservice EFL teachers to develop strategies to use "input" to enhance their output, i.e., speaking. The findings from this study make several contributions to the current literature. First, the online POA approach has the potential to replace traditional teaching approach to enhance speaking proficiency. The POA model prepares students for required academic skills at university, such as developing the questionnaire, data collection, and presentation. In practice, students in the POA group were given more speaking opportunities in breakout rooms to accomplish the communicative tasks, embrace the challenges, and engage in active online learning. The POA pushes students beyond their comfort zone and changes their mindset on learning English.

VI. CONCLUSION

Over a semester, students were taught speaking through the online POA and conventional methods. Students' speaking performance improved in pre-test and post-test of both experimental POA and conventional control groups. However, students in the experimental class outperformed students in the control class, verifying the POA's effects on

teaching speaking. Findings revealed that the online teaching of speaking skills through the POA intervention had positively affected Chinese college students in terms of fluency, vocabulary, and pronunciation.

This research has implications for English teachers and material developers post Covid 19 pandemic. Teachers applying online POA might face some challenges as they need more time to prepare class materials and update their pedagogical practice. Secondly, teachers should take into account students' needs and English levels when customizing teaching materials and selecting teaching goals. They also need to familiarize students with assessment criteria and teach students to reflect on their speaking using self-evaluation and peer assessment.

Overall, this study strengthens the idea that the POA is useful to refine English instruction in China. The POA principles and hypothesis seem to resonate with social constructivism theory on language teaching and learning, such as collaborative assessment and creating authentic situations (Matsuda, 2017). This study has shown the applicability of the POA as other studies (Zhang, 2017; Ren, 2018), although the POA might not suit all learning situations. Therefore, teachers should make modifications in various contexts to make the POA work for their classrooms. This study has shown that the POA application in an online learning environment is feasible and may improve students' competence in speaking.

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Adelina Asmawi is Head, Department of Language and Literacy Education (2018-current). She was the Deputy Dean of Undergraduate Studies and the Quality Manager at the Faculty of Education, University of Malaya from 2014 to 2017. She holds a PhD in Professional Development of Teachers, TESOL, and Instructional Technology from Melbourne Graduate School of Education, University of Melbourne, Australia.

Lixuan Sun is a PhD candidate in Department of Language and Literacy Education, Faculty of Education, University of Malaya; a visiting scholar in College of Education, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, America. He is a university English teacher in Faculty of Foreign Languages in Harbin Institute of Petroleum, China. His research interests include Second Language Acquisition, Online Language Teaching, TESOL, etc.

The Potential of Using Content-Learning Tasks in Promoting Literacy Skills for EFL/ESL Bahraini Learners

Hasan M. Al-Wadi

Department of English Language Education, University of Bahrain, Kingdom of Bahrain

Abstract—This study responds to the international widespread application of content-based instruction in foreign/second language teaching as well as the recent calls in Bahrain to promote literacy skills within the learning of English as a foreign/second language (EFL/ESL). The study achieves this through exploring the effectiveness of using designed content-based tasks in developing 97 Bahraini students' literacy skills while learning EFL/ESL within a design-based research project as an initiative to support their school's attempt to improve the general performance in learning English and respond to the quality assurance standards required in this regard. The main findings indicate the efficiency of the designed content tasks in developing the students' literacy skills while learning EFL/ESL on different levels; development of cognitive and learning habits, language proficiency improvement and reinforcement of self-confidence as foreign/second language users. The study discusses these outcomes with their implications for the language learning as well as for possible future language policy in EFL/ESL instruction in Bahrain.

Index Terms—EFL/ESL teaching, content-learning tasks, literacy skills, designed-based research

I. INTRODUCTION

Globally, the implementation of content-based instruction (CBI) and later the content learning tasks (CLTs) in the EFL/ESL domain has been explored and examined in terms of its effectiveness in improving the EFL/ESL learners in definite aspects. The first aspect is utilizing the CLTs to improve the listening and speaking skills of the EFL/ESL learners. For instance, Pratama and Fitriani (2020) explored the teachers' and students' perceptions of the effectiveness of implementing the CBI in enhancing the students' speaking skills and their oral function of the target language. The researchers report that the implementation of CBI has enabled learners to learn speaking skill through a variety of activities that were based on the subject matter. In addition, Lai and Aksornjarung (2017) conducted their study through investigating the impact of implementing a 14-week CBI English course on Thai learners' listening and speaking skills. The obtained findings revealed the positive impact on the implemented CBI course in raising the learners' achievement in the speaking and listening tests.

Another aspect investigated with the CBI application in EFL/ESL teaching and learning is related to raising the EFL/ESL learners' motivation while learning the target language by enabling the learners to fulfill specific academic needs or purposes (ESP) related to the subject content which is offered in English. Some researchers like Bozdogan and Karlidag (2013) as well as Pinner (2013) and Huang (2011) report in their studies that applying CLI method with EFL/ESL learners positively impacts these learners' level of motivation and makes them more involved in the lesson activities particularly those related to their academic specializations.

In addition, the utilization of CLTs is also explored in terms of its influence on both the teacher's and the learners' roles in the EFL/ESL lesson. Several researchers (e.g. Brinton & Jensen, 2002; Snow & Brinton, 2008; Stoller, 2002) explain in this regard that using CBI and CLTs in particular can serve more than just a primary platform for language knowledge or skill function in the way it can enable both the EFL/ESL teachers and their learners establish a thematic learning, where they can integrate the different language skills, and develop some learning habits, such as collaboration, interpretation, and critical thinking.

However, it is noticeable from the review of these studies that the focus is on either the main four language skills or definite learning habits that EFL/ESL learners can develop while exercising the CLTs in their learning. This may emphasize a gap in the CBI-CLTs' research, where some other skills related to language learning, such as the literacy skills can be examined to determine more opportunities to improve the learning and teaching of English in foreign/second language contexts.

Consequently, the present study attempts to fill in this gap in research by linking it to the present study's context, where demands have been made to the Bahraini English language teachers to provide more efforts to develop the learning abilities as well as literacy skills of their EFL/ESL learners during their English lessons (BQA report, 2017). This challenge arises from the fact that although the official status of English teaching and learning in Bahrain is recognised as a foreign language, it can be claimed that it is shifting towards being a second language (Abdulmajeed, 2005). This is reflected in the Ministry of Education's (MOE) policies towards teaching English in Bahrain, such as a)

assigning English as a core subject to be taught from grade 1 in the elementary school side by side the mother tongue Arabic, b) offering intensive pre- and in-service teacher education programmes for ELTs, and c) allocating intensive teaching and learning of English in the secondary school through offering a number of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses (*n*=6) that are related to the students' specialisations in the secondary school (English Language Curriculum Document for Secondary Education, 2005). All these act as factors that require the English language teachers (ELTs) across the educational stages to equip their EFL/ESL students with various language abilities like proficiency, communication, and thinking abilities to enable them to respond to the demands and needs of their learning in their current educational stage (English Language Curriculum for Basic Education, 2004; English Language Curriculum Document for Secondary Education, 2005).

Several researchers have identified the importance of reinforcing key literacy skills in the EFL/ESL education. For instance, Kim (2016) explains that teaching literacy gives EFL/ESL learners space to examine books and articulate their voices on subjects related to cultural/rational diversity and equality. The study suggests that teaching literacy should be more reinforced in the early education stages of EFL/ESL learners to develop their language and learning skills. On the other hand, Gibbons (2008) reports that teaching literacy for EFL/ESL students not only advances the students' linguistic and learning skills but the ELT's teaching abilities as well. The researcher measured the influence of implementing a project titled 'challenging pedagogies' in teaching writing and reading materials to her elementary students and found that this project positively impacted the teacher's performance as well as the students which eventually created a supportive learning environment for the students to utilise the language in different situations away from the normal tasks assigned in the planned curriculum.

One possible approach to achieve this in the context of this study is through implementing the CBI method. Davis (2003) views CBI as a teaching method that focuses on integrating the use of the foreign/second language learning with the subject matter content learning to achieve specific language learning needs or purposes relevant to the learners. Munoz (2016) mentions that any teaching technique that reflects the CBI mode of instruction must adhere to the following principles: EFL/ESL learners receive content and language together, central exposure to texts and discourse while teaching and learning the language, interactional moves and focus is on the language academic use. In this regard, the CLTs are seen as a subdivision technique of CBI in teaching English to the EFL/ESL learners, where specific tasks are planned and developed from the core subject units in the subject to enable the students to reach the intended language level in shorter time and to achieve the required subject matter at the same time (Snow, 2001).

This was achieved through two steps. First, a design of an application cycle was carried out with some interventions of the target technique by the study participant teachers on their students then it was followed by a measurement of the improvement those learners managed to achieve after each intervention during their experiences of learning EFL/ESL using the CLTs. Second, the ELTs' perceptions of the potential of applying CLTs as a teaching technique in developing the Bahraini secondary students' literacy skills when learning English was also explored to identify issues related to possible challenges and obstacles that should be considered when applying the proposed technique in future. This is suggested by Weng et al. (2019) that providing opportunities to the EFL/ESL teachers in the bilingual contexts by equipping them with feasible techniques and materials to try directly in their actual context will emphasize and support their agency as foreign/second language teachers and participate in their professional growth since it will allow them to develop their personal theorization about the best ways to improve the learning and teaching of English in a non-native English speaking context.

II. RESEARCH METHOD

The study sought to answer the following questions:

RQ1. To what extent was using the content learning tasks effective in improving the Bahraini secondary EFL/ESL learners' literacy skills?

RQ2. What were the teachers' views on the literacy skills which their learners had improved during their learning of EFL/ESL using the content learning tasks?

These questions were approached by following a design-based research methodology through blending empirical research design with theory design of learning environments (The Design-Based Research Collective, 2002). Accordingly, the study followed the one independent group in data collection and analysis. The method for collecting data was twofold; both quantitative data as well as qualitative data were collected and analysed through using multiple tools. For the quantitative part as required in RQ1, data were gathered and analysed from tests and lesson observations while the interviews were conducted to answer RQ2. The rationale behind using these three instruments was to measure the "Instructional Dynamic" that should be investigated in a design-based research, such as this study where active processes occur on interpreting the teaching and learning experiences in which knowing about and understanding content, learners, teachers and environments or all of them constitute the core of the educational process due to the interventions of the proposed content learning tasks in the English language lessons in this regard (Ball & Forzani, 2007). This also corresponds to the instructional triangle suggested by Cohen et al. (2011) that should be addressed when carrying out a designed-based study. The following figure illustrates this triangle:
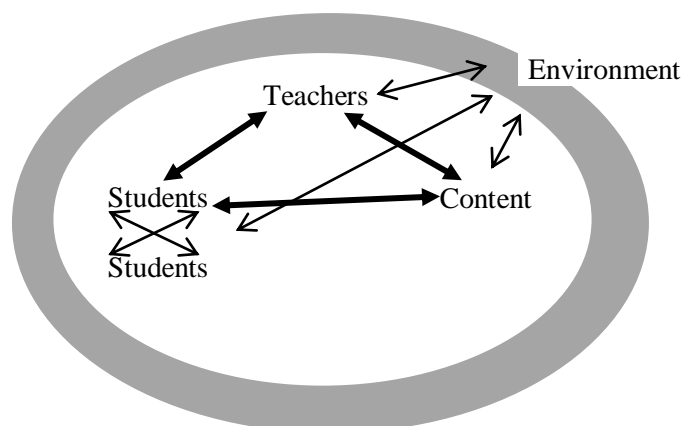
Figure 1. The Instructional Triangle (Cohen et al., 2003, p.124)

Therefore, a package of CLTs was developed and applied in light of Kroeker and Henrichs (1993) model, which focuses on practising four main types of tasks for improving literacy skills to foreign/second language learners, these are: *jigsaw, gallery tour, cloning the author* and *story board*. The developed tasks included texts for different proficiency levels, outlined purpose(s) and procedures to follow by the learners with their teacher. The nature of the Bahraini non-native English-speaking context was also considered when designing those CLTs. As well, a training session to the concerned teachers was also conducted to ensure familiarisation and awareness of the aspects of language learning that should be focused on while exercising the designed CLTs.

Then, the tests were developed by the participant teachers and supervised by the researcher to ensure the consistency and alignment of the tests with the literacy skills and language competencies that were aimed to improve the learners in this study. Similarly, a lesson observation card was also developed and discussed with the senior teacher who acted as the supervisor of the participant teachers. The aim was to ensure that the developed observation card was aligned with the official observation card used by the senior teacher in terms of the performance aspects that should be focused on during the observation visit to English language lesson in secondary schools so that it is found familiar to the teachers as well as their senior teacher that it will not require them to consider special preparations or additional requirements when performing their lessons. These two instruments served mainly to answer the quantitative part in this study as indicated in RQ1.

However, qualitative data were gathered and analyzed through conducting semi-structured interviews with the study participants to answer RQ2 of this study. The interview questions were shared and discussed with 2 faculty colleagues who were teaching literacy courses to teacher candidates at Bahrain Teachers College (BTC). The aim of this procedure was to ensure consistency and relevance of the developed questions to the problem under investigation. After arbitration and modification of the interview questions, the interview questions were piloted with 2 English language teachers who were taking their in-service training course at BTC. The piloted interviews were conducted in English, however, the use of mother tongue [Arabic in the context of this study] was also used during the actual conduction of the interviews with the study participants to a) ensure that the participants were able enough to express themselves clearly and confidently, and to b) make them feel free and comfortable during the interview as this would be useful to "avoid paying too much attention to answering the right answer in the right order of questions which might have resulted in a peculiar social dynamic which could be unsatisfactory for this type of data" (Mason, 1996, p.67). The gathered responses from the interviews were transcribed and analysed then shared with the concerned participants for validation to ensure a representative presentation of the participants' views regarding their experience in applying content-learning tasks in teaching EFL/ESL as well as their professional development after conducting the designed-based study. Then, final scripts were content analysed and categorised into thematic categories that were described, discussed and analysed with reference to the relevant literature.

Participants

The study was conducted on target sample English language teachers (n=4) who were teaching English in a secondary girls' school in Bahrain and their students (n=97). The teachers were graduates of the BTC and were classified as experienced teachers by the MOE in Bahrain as they have been teaching EFL/ESL in secondary education for more than 10 years.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The analysed data from the classroom observations of students work and their test results showed significant improvement throughout the stages of the study. The following section discusses these findings in relation to RQ1 to measure the effect of the proposed practice in developing the learners' literacy skills as well as identifying what particular literacy skill(s) that students managed to develop as a consequence of using the CLTs when learning EFL/ESL.

A. Results From Classroom Observations: Ample Opportunities With Different Learning Responses

Multiple class visits (n=16) were conducted along the two months of the application [1 visit every two weeks for the 4 classes] to observe the learners' performance during their practice of the proposed CLTs, namely *jigsaw, gallery tour, cloning the author* and *story board* tasks as shown in the following table:

TABLE 1
OBSERVATIONS DONE DURING THE CONDUCTION OF CLTS

Teacher	Class	1st Month	2nd Month	Total
Teacher A	Class 1	2	2	4
Teacher B	Class 2	2	2	4
Teacher C	Class 3	2	2	4
Teacher D	Class 4	2	2	4
Overall total		8	8	16

The notes registered from the observation visits were quantified considering; (a) the frequency of the observed actions and (b) the type of efforts done by the EFL/ESL learners during the observed lessons, and calculation of frequency to register the sum points for each criterion according to the allotted percentage. Table 1 below displays the overall mean scores calculated from the frequencies of the applied four tasks during the visits after quantifying the observation notes in this regard:

TABLE 2
OVERVIEW OF STUDENTS PERFORMANCE ACROSS THE APPLIED CLTS

Teaching technique	Criteria						Mean
	Integrating the 4 skills (20%)	*Collaborating actively (20%)*	*Accessing prior knowledge (10%)*	*Thinking on different levels (10%)*	*Making multiple passes through the text (20%)*	*Demonstrating understanding using different modes (20%)*	
Jigsaw	17	18	10	10	17	18	90
Gallery walk	20	17	7	10	15	16	86
Cloning the author	18	20	10	10	17	18	93
Story board	16	20	7	10	18	17	88
Overall Mean							91.4

The above results indicate a high level of performance done by the students during their practice of the different CLTs when learning ESL/EFL. This can be generally inferred from the averages [16 – 20 for the criteria with total of 20%] and [7 – 10 for the criteria with total of 10%] registered for each type of the 4 tasks. This performance was categorised and described more in detail below:

(a). Promoting Language Communication/Function

It was clear through the observations that CLTs represented a useful opportunity for the ESL/EFL learners to practice and improve their 4 language skills. The learners showed ample efforts to engage more content in their projects and express their thoughts fluently during the lesson. This fluency development was scaffolded with extensive use of vocabulary from the studied texts and other contents (e.g. poems & autobiographies) which revealed the learners' achievement in developing their ability to use different lexical complexities despite their inaccurate structure several times during the implementation of the study. The classroom observations showed that despite their inaccurate formations, the EFL/ESL learners didn't show any sort of frustration or demotivation towards practising the target language. On the contrary, it was noticeable how those learners were referring to the content to develop their thoughts or express their opinions toward a certain issue or problem especially during practising writing or listening, the two skills that require accuracy in the language features, such as spelling, expression of thoughts or correct grammatical structures. Zhang (2017) and Ewert (2014) explain this finding that literacy development in ESL/EFL learning normally encourages the learners to focus on fluency before accuracy due to the fact that the learners tend to engage with more content, which provides them with the basis and rationale for how they can better express their thoughts and ideas. However, the observation findings in this study showed that CLTs can enhance EFL/ESL learners' accuracy through associating it with their fluency by speaking about definite content ideas and topics.

(b). Learning ESL/EFL Collaboratively

Collaborative learning or group work is not a new practice in ESL/EFL pedagogy. Yet, the observations of the CLTs' conduction with the ESL/EFL learners revealed how those learners managed to go beyond the traditional reading strategies (e.g. identifying the main idea and supporting details) they had shown in the first two weeks of their CLTs' lessons to develop new learning strategies, such as discussing embedded meanings and exchanging opinions regarding such concepts in the studied content and utilising their schemata or prior knowledge about the defined content to produce a collective understanding of their group discussion to share with the other groups in the class. This was evident in the power-point presentations the learners made about some authors and the portraits they displayed in their

story boards in which they exchanged their thoughts and information with the other groups in the class without referring to the teacher for confirmation or contribution. This finding corroborates with Al-Mubireek (2021) that collaborative learning supports the EFL/ESL learners to express themselves with no fear as it they get the chance to review their ideas from peers before they provide their final production and this is required to ensure "active engagement" during the EFL/ESL class (p.53). Kosnik et al. (2017, p.3) assert this and specifies that learners' active collaboration in the ESL/EFL lesson is a key feature in the CLTs strategy as it provides the learners a "break" from regular teacher-centred activities in the way each learner practices a necessary role for task completion due to the different and complex prior knowledge each learner would have. In addition, Haung (2011) reports that collaboration among the learners resulted from implementing CLTs reinforces and develops their speech and writing abilities in the way they tend to use more complex and longer sentences and shift their focus from what they would regularly focus on, namely from form-focused, to meaning-focused. Yet, what the present study adds in this regard is the effect of the applied CLTs on motivating the participant students to develop their thinking and utilise the learnt language skills to express their ideas in this regard. This was noticed in the mid of the project conduction [after one month of the CLTs conduction] when the participants were attempting to give unpredicted information and express their opinions in addition to the predicted information when the teacher was asking them to provide unpredicted information.

(c). Practicing Multiple Level Thinking Language Tasks

The implemented CLTs enabled the EFL/ESL learners to study a range of texts at different levels and approach multiple resources as per their availability and accessibility to them during their learning of the foreign language. This has resulted in developing their literacy skills through combining both 'traditional' and 'contemporary' literacy practices to fulfil their assigned tasks across all the four applied CLTs. For instance, it was observed how the learners in the *jigsaw* tasks were working to summarise the text and represent it together through distributing roles and making the learners motivated by selecting the parts or tasks they find them suit their abilities or interest. Another observation also registered the multiple contributions which the learners were giving to their groups through either the intensive research or extensive research using the internet and presentation designs during the *gallery tour* and *cloning the author* tasks. In these two pedagogies, the majority of the learners were witnessed to be fully engaged and motivated to communicate and contribute using the target language regardless of the level or type of the text that was assigned to be studied. In the *story board* tasks, the learners were seen they were developing critical reviews and commentaries on the information and concepts represented in the given texts despite the low language proficiency made by some of them. This fact of enabling students to practice different levels of thinking while doing CLTs in the foreign/second language learning and teaching is corroborated by the literature. For instance, Cranitch (2010) reports that giving CLTs to the EFL/ESL learners usually acts as a scaffolding activity for these learners in the way it enables them to combine their analysis of the text features with the factual information it includes to better identify the purpose, audience, and recognise and use text conventions such as chapter headings and indexes to reproduce the text and its information in their own style and level using the target language. The classroom observations repeatedly reflected this action on the students' part and registered how this enabled the learners to get engaged with multi-model texts regardless its subject content or self-interest. Al Amrani (2019) asserts this as well and explains further that the nature of the CLTs' design engage the EFL/ESL learners to not only practice their different levels of language proficiency but also to enhance their ability in building a knowledge base in the one content area by moving beyond lower level thinking skills and begin to apply this knowledge base to problem solving, evaluating arguments or creating new meanings, which was indeed what was observed in the *cloning the author* and *story board* tasks where most of the learners were found giving their justifications and representations of the information/concepts included in the texts in a form of a story or critical review of the author. Ewert (2014, p.272) considers this as a "development cline" in thinking skills that is not contingent on language proficiency only but on how well they have understood the text and managed to break it down to its main features, which is considered an action of higher order thinking skills.

B. Results From the Tests: Progressive Improvement in Language Proficiency

Analysis was done for the learners' performance in the three tests; the pre-test, post-test 1, and post-test 2, that were given to them during the application cycles of the CLTs to compare results and identify areas of progress while learning EFL/ESL. The test consisted from 4 parts that represent the implemented CLTs with questions that reflect a major competency for each task and match at the same time with the nature of the test as a tool for measuring achievement. Generally, the overall analysis of the tests' results shows a progressive improvement in the learners' achievement as EFL/ESL test takers. Table 3 summarises this:

TABLE 3
LEARNERS' ACHIEVEMENT PROGRESS THROUGHOUT THE TESTS

Instrument	Mean	Std. Deviation	Number
Pre-test	10.7875	4.828779	97
Post-test 1	25.26563	4.387154	97
Post-test 2	30.14063	4.391201	97

The above table indicates a dramatic increase in students' performance using the target language from the pre-test to the post-test 1, which reflects the effectiveness of the applied CLTs in developing the EFL/ESL learners' level in the language proficiency. Furthermore, the level of increase in students' improvement registered in the post-test 2 reveals the impact the CLTs contributed to sustain a progressive development in learning the target language on the part of the EFL/ESL learners. A comparison between those learners' performance in the pre-test and post-test1indicates the development those learners have achieved in the quality of words they used to describe, explain or summarize the given texts and the degree of difference in the lexical complexity (content words/ total words) particularly in the *jigsaw* and *storyboard* tasks. As well, the obtained results from the learners' performance in the *cloning the author* tasks in both the pre-test and post-test1 reveal an improvement in the students' ability to construct a corpus-based frequency of the academic words and expressions when explaining or reporting the read texts.   A summary of this comparison is illustrated in the tables 4 and 5 below:

TABLE 4
DETAILED RESULTS OF LEARNERS' ACHIEVEMENT IN THE PRE-TEST

Pre-Test parts	Mean	Std. Deviation	Number
Cloning the author	1.56875	1.16079	
Jigsaw	2.84375	1.401714	
Storyboard	4.25	1.421637	97
Gallery walk	2.125	2.0068562	

TABLE 5
DETAILED RESULTS OF LEARNERS' ACHIEVEMENT IN THE POST-TEST 1

Post-Test 1 parts	Mean	Std. Deviation	Number
Cloning the author	5.75	1.704483	
Jigsaw	6.578125	1.117629	
Storyboard	6	1.123903	97
Gallery walk	6.9375	1.1093642	

Yang and Chen (2015) justify this finding that the type of CLT motivates EFL/ESL learners to go beyond just labelling or searching for specific information to challenge the studied content in the foreign/second language as they will use English as their main vehicle for acquiring the information and concepts they need to approach the studied text. According to the researchers, in this way the EFL/ESL learners' role goes beyond being simply language learners to be reflective thinkers and the target language will act as a tool for thinking not just means for communication. In this study, it was observed how the CLTs enhanced the EFL/ESL learners to reflect on their culture and interest as well as selecting their intelligent preferences when doing the specified tasks. This variety of learning activities were found to engage students for reproducing the learnt knowledge and probing it further using the target language. This finding implies the learners' success in developing good level of confidence while using the foreign/second language. Lazar (2007) asserts this result and mentions that the increased motivation and engagement of learners in the EFL/ESL class are resulted from the level of confidence and literacy potential that the language learners normally develop after their learning experience of the subject content in the foreign or second language.

Consequently, the learners appeared to continue more actively in the CLTs when learning EFL/ESL. This was registered in their scores in the post-test 2, particularly in the tasks related to the *jigsaw*, *storyboard*, and *galley walk*, where a constant progress in communicating complex ideas and functioning sophisticated linguistic input, which reflects an advanced level of the foreign/second language use. Table 6 illustrates this below:

TABLE 6
DETAILED RESULTS OF LEARNERS' ACHIEVEMENT IN THE POST-TEST 2

Post-Test 2 parts	Mean	Std. Deviation	Number
Cloning the author	7.90625	0.799054	
Jigsaw	8.515625	0.828611	
Storyboard	8.28125	0.721156	97
Gallery walk	8.15625	0.9929902	

However, the table above also displays that the learners continued to show lower level of achievement in the *cloning the author* tasks compared to the other three task types and similar to their results in the pre-test and post-test 1. According to Arshavskaya (2018), EFL/ESL learners often develop thinking skills when they are developing their literacy skills through their study of the subject-content texts in the target language. However, the researcher explains that development of the foreign/second language competencies are usually slower or lower than the thinking skills due to the fact that the learnt content knowledge can be repeatedly referred to and interpreted in different ways, such as diagrams and concept maps while it is limited in the language use in terms of the type of vocabulary, format of structure and the word amount required for each task. This corroborates with the obtained finding in this regard especially that the study design of the present study follows the one-independent group that acts both the control as well as the experimental roles in this case.

C. Results From the Interviews: Contextualising EFL/ESL Learning Experience

This part mainly responds to the RQ2 regarding the teachers' views of their EFL/ESL learners' learning during their study of the foreign/second language while using the CLTs. The interviews with the teachers confirmed that learners showed significant progress in their learning of EFL/ESL resulted from using the CLTs in their teaching. The aspects of improvement from those teachers' perspective are classified as in the following categories:

(a). Integrated Practice of the Main Language Skills

The amount and quality of vocabulary used by the students in the four methods was found an obvious improvement in the learners' practice of the target language by their teachers. Yet, the way which the learners managed to utilize this amount of vocabulary in their speaking was the change point in those learners' practice as perceived by their teachers. The teachers reported how their students' capability was noticeable for them that they were expressing their own interpretations of the studied texts as well as defending or justifying their opinions towards them:

"Students were capable of explaining their ideas and opinions using both specialized terms related to the content and link them with other words to express their views and feelings" (Teacher A)

In addition, the development of lexical meaning seemed to enable the learners to scaffold their approach to comprehend the text content at both macro and micro levels during their reading. One of the teachers explained this finding in detail:

"It's interesting to find the students utilizing the suitable concepts and terms and reproduce the supporting details to express their opinions using variety of technical and general vocabulary" (Teacher B)

The teachers also found that their learners achieved sufficient progress in the listening tasks and managed to utilize it to produce correct structured sentences. For instance, the learners showed recognition of the close sounds for the technical concepts and their different use:

"The reading text about global economy assisted my students to differentiate between the word 'practical' and 'economical' and when each can be used for" (Teacher C)

However, it seems that despite this developmental integration in the speaking, reading and listening skills witnessed by the teachers, the CLTs couldn't support the learners to achieve recognizable achievement in the writing skill. As it was reported by one of the teachers, the level of inaccuracy in the formed structures limited the students' performance in their written tasks. Teacher (A) justifies for this result:

"Academic essays are similar to the academic texts in the way they normally require complex structures due to the interrelated and complex concepts that need to be illustrated and expressed in the foreign/second language even if the students have sufficient amount of the required vocabulary" (Teacher A)

In fact, the above finding is asserted by some researchers. For instance, Lai and Aksornjarung (2017) and Huang (2011) report that using content-based instruction has remarkable effects in developing students' speaking and reading skills as well as listening to some extent. On the other hand, the researchers report that content instruction in EFL/ESL might limit the students' writing due to the accuracy of complex structures could be required when explaining or expressing definite technical concepts or themes.

(b). Developing Digital Literacy Skills Through the Use of Digital Technology

The three teachers informed how the utilized CLTs enabled their students to incorporate different ranges of texts and representational resources in their study of the assigned content tasks. The teachers clarified that they found their students more motivated to learn the EFL/ESL and develop their literacy skills in a multifaceted process in learning the foreign/second language. This motivation was seen in those learners' attempts to demonstrate an integrated development of the literacy skills through equal use of 'traditional' and 'contemporary' learning skills:

"Some of my students started using kindles which may reflect the high desire and confidence they'd developed while studying the subject-content texts"(Teacher A)

"I really got excited When my students searched for good quality texts from trusted sources like The Guardian" (Teacher C)

Developing extensive reading skills and motivation, diversifying resources for gathering information and gaining soft skills are not the only aspects of learning that can be implied from the teachers' testimonials above. Further, the above may reflect how the CLTs enabled those teachers as well as their students to change their lesson structure and culture while teaching and learning the foreign language. It seems that the teachers managed to make their lessons more flexible for their students to share with them their critical thoughts or interpretations about the studied texts. It may also show how the CLTs enabled both the teachers and their students develop motivation towards approaching different resources such as kindles and reading newspapers on the web. This increased passion for seeking 'extra' knowledge or information to do the required content task has had its positive impact on those teachers' practices while teaching their students. The following summarizes this conclusion:

"In fact, practicing the subject content tasks with my students helped me develop a collaborative-holistic learning approach where my students and I search and evaluate for the information needed through the different resources we can approach to do the assigned task(s) " (Teacher B)

As a consequent, the teachers expressed their surprise with the ways their students had followed to present their work in some tasks, which eventually reflects their development of their skills in utilizing digital technology in their learning:

"Most of my students have created their digital essays in different text forms and structures" (Teacher A)

"The students presented their words in a form of digital 'blogs gallery' which was interesting!" (Teacher B)

"what I liked the most was their [the students] way of referring to the wikis and films reviews to develop their critique" (Teacher C)

Kosnik et al. (2017) consider the use of diverse sources and utilization of digital technology facilities as the main elements of a 'pedagogy of literacy' that EFL/ESL teachers should develop. In their study, the researchers interviewed 28 literacy/English teacher educators in four countries three times regarding the concept of literacy as expanding in the EFL/ESL context and the approach those teachers should adopt to achieve successful language function on the part of their EFL/ESL learners. Their findings identify three elements as perceived by the interviewed teachers. They are: diversity of the text genres provided for reading, speaking, listening, or writing; creating authentic reflection activities; and show value to the learners' readings through acceptance of the different productions made by the learners.

(c). Enabling Learning of EFL/ESL Through Multiple Opportunities

Lakovos et al. (2011) report that studying the subject content in the foreign or second language requires the EFL/ESL learners to do more than one attempt to fulfill the given task(s) since learners in this regard need not only to memorize and answer but to develop new ways to express their thoughts and illustrate their comprehension of the studied content. The interviewed teachers asserted the influence of the applied approach in facilitating the learning of their EFL/ESL learners in this regard. One of them explained how the utilized CLTs assisted her learners to go beyond just memorizing the text content and start establishing a view point of they interpret the content and argue about some of its ideas:

"It was a great opportunity for the students to try using English in different ways.. they could read and write or listen to take notes of the information then write them in essay or speak what they have learnt about in English" (Teacher B)

In addition, these 'different ways' in learning the foreign language were found to accelerate the flaw of the learning process during the lesson instead of slowing it down:

"In the normal lesson students usually read the text then answer some questions which require them to memorize or refer to the text again for one time only to check up their answers which slows the lesson while it was the opposite in the CLTs lessons." (Teacher A)

The teachers also found that their application of the CLTs facilitated more their response to their students' learning styles in the way the nature of the task content was enabling the learners to display their use of the language in the way they prefer:

"What I like most about it [CLTs] is that I could see how my visual students were tending to show me their language ability through presentations and those verbal ones in the discussion panels while the other abstract ones were reflecting it in their writings and research papers" (Teacher C)

To conclude, those diverse opportunities imply reinforcement in the relationship between those teachers and their learners that have resulted in an increased level of confidence on the part of those learners as they are learners of EFL/ESL:

"Through these multiple attempts in the tasks I become more aware of and involved with my students" (Teacher A)

Al Amrani (2019) concurs the above finding in his study and explains that the different activity involvement of the students in the content-based tasks during the EFL/ESL lesson demands an interfering role between the teacher and learners through the group work activities and project tasks which require a shift in roles most of time between the teachers and their learners. In this study, the teachers and students cooperated with each other in the way the teachers acted as supervisors to their students during some tasks while they also acted as an audience or recipients of their students' presentations and galleries in other tasks.

IV. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the above findings in this designed-based study suggest that using the CLTs in the EFL/ESL classroom can positively influence the EFL/ESL learners' literacy skills from two perspectives. First, from a language acquisition perspective, the learners in this study showed improvement in the amount of the vocabulary used in the tasks, complexity of them, nature and style of structures, and the originality of the ideas developed by those learners and registered during the class observations and as well as their achievements in the given tests. The outcomes expected from any EFL/ESL learning suggests that EFL/ESL lessons should facilitate flexible use and usage of the target language on the part of the learners in order to contextualize their language use and usage to their actual reality (Shabani & Ghasemi, 2014). The findings above reflect this idea in the way how the learners in this study utilized the studied content texts to develop particular literacy skills such as text analysis, concepts definitions from a target cultural perspective and divergent range of ideas expression as per each learner's proficiency in the target language.

On the other hand, though these findings indicate a faster pace of language learning during the application of the CLTs as shown in the text analysis and reproduction, the number of participant learners in this study might limit the generalization of this finding since there are other factors that might play role if a wider application of the CLTs was done. However, results suggest that there is no necessary relationship between the length of time an EFL/ESL learner has been taking to practice the target language and the development of the literacy skills in it. Time in secondary school does not really represent a crucial or helpful factor as students at this stage are expected to have good foundation in the

target language but not necessarily good development of the literacy skills associated with their learning of the language in this regard (Kasper, 1997).

In addition, the second perspective is the development of the EFL/ESL learners' learning skills as an indirect consequent from the applied teaching methods; namely jigsaw, gallery walk, cloning the author and story board. The obtained findings reveal in this regard the change in the learners' attitudes and orientation towards learning EFL/ESL using CLTs, as it can be concluded that group work, collaborative and cooperative learning, and raising the confidence level to provide comprehensible ideas or conclusions, are the main aspects of learning habits that were witnessed during the study. This implies that for future application of the CLTs in the EFL/ESL teaching, more contextualization of the tasks and careful planning to consider wider scope of learners will assist in facilitating the EFL/ESL lesson to stimulate higher order thinking skills, such as problem solving and critical thinking which both will directly boost the learners' achievement in the linguistic competence and content areas. As mentioned by Crantich (2010), the development of the literacy skills in the foreign or second language contributes in enhancing the learning habits of its learners since this development creates a balance between the language needs and learning needs the EFL/ESL learners feel they have to achieve. And this is what is indicated in the data in this study that the learners made an integration between their emotional needs (represented in achieving the content task) and their language proficiency (shown in their language level to express ideas) while studying the CLTs.

Finally, the nature of its design as a design-based research, this study may act as an opportunity for EFL/ESL practitioner teachers in the Bahraini context or any other non-native English speaking context to pursue a contextualised professional development practice since this design assists them to create learning environments and establish "prototheories" about learning EFL/ESL in an intertwining way (Weng, 2019), where the EFL/ESL teachers can embrace their practice through cultivating their professional practice with published theories. Therefore, this study design and findings can contribute in assisting as well as supporting school leadership in their reform attempts to improve their organizational processes by documenting and connecting the reality of teaching and learning, particularly of teaching and learning EFL/ESL.

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Hasan Mohsen Al-Wadi was born in Manama, Kingdom of Bahrain On August 1976. He holds an Ed.D. in TESOL from the Graduate School of Education and Lifelong Learning, University of Exeter – United Kingdom, an M.A (Edu) in Curriculum Development & Instruction from the College of Education, University of Bahrain – Kingdom of Bahrain and a BA (Minoring in Edu) in English Language & Literature from the same university. He has lectured for over twenty years and is currently an associate professor in English language education, Bahrain Teachers College, University of Bahrain, Kingdom of Bahrain and a reviewer and researcher with outstanding publications that include: Al-Wadi, H.M. (2022). The Core of Professional Development for English Language Teachers: The Case of Bahrain. In O. Al-Mahdi & T. Purinton (Eds.), *Global Perspectives on Teacher Performance Improvement*. IGI Global, Al-Wadi, H.M. (2021). "Is it Training or Professional Development? Towards an Alternative Approach in Professional Growth for EFL/ESL Teacher." In O. Al-Mahdi (Ed.), *Innovations in Educational Leadership and Continuous Teachers' Professional Development*. CSMFL Publications, Alwadi, H.M., Mohamed, N. and Wilson, A. (2020), "From experienced to professional practitioners: a participatory lesson study approach to strengthen and sustain English language teaching and leadership", *International Journal for Lesson and Learning Studies*, Vol. ahead-of-print No. ahead-of-print. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJLLS-10-2019-0072, Al-Wadi, H. M. (2020). Bahrain's Secondary

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Language Learning Strategies and the Importance of Cultural Awareness in Indonesian Second Language Learners

Siti Masitoh
Faculty of Humanities, Universitas Islam Negeri Maulana Malik Ibrahim, Malang, Indonesia

Zakiyah Arifa
Faculty of Tarbiyah and Teacher Training, Universitas Islam Negeri Maulana Malik Ibrahim, Malang, Indonesia

Nur Ila Ifawati
Language Center, Universitas Islam Negeri Maulana Malik Ibrahim, Malang, Indonesia

Diana Nur Sholihah
Islamic Institute of Tribakti, Kediri, Indonesia

Abstract—**This study examined the foreign/second-language learning strategies employed by eight Indonesian learners learning different languages (English, Chinese, and Arabic) and the role cultural awareness played in determining these strategies. The strategy inventory for language learning was used to record the participants' learning strategies, and in-depth interviews were conducted to determine their cultural awareness acquisition when learning the foreign/second language and the effects this cultural awareness had on determining their language strategies. It was found that six main learning strategies were being used by the participants, and the interview data revealed that participants became more aware of the cultural aspects of their languages when reading authentic texts, communicating with native speakers, and attending their language courses. Cultural awareness was found to encourage participants to be selective learners when choosing learning materials and when using certain learning strategies. The results of this study broaden the insights of education practitioners and can guide foreign/second language teachers/lecturers in directing their students to use certain learning strategies.**

Index Terms—**cultural awareness, language learning strategies, language learning**

I. INTRODUCTION

Language and culture have an inextricable relationship. For example, Byram (1989) described language as a way to mark one's cultural identity, and Oxford (2018) claimed that the nexus of language and culture was pragmatic, that is, language appropriateness and situational contexts are inevitably linked. Research into cultural awareness and learning English as a second language (ESL) has found that effectively learning to use English in authentic situations requires an awareness of culture, with learners not having been immersed in an English language culture found to be weak English users (Omar & Altaieb, 2015). Therefore, it could be surmised that any trial that disassociates language and its cultural contexts would lead to language learning failure (Omar & Altaieb, 2015).

It has been proposed that language and its associated culture be taught together because learning a language requires more than just linguistics to assist and guide the teaching of syntax and phonology, and it also depends on pragmatics and sociolinguistics to understand the cultural relationships in language functions (Byram, 1989). The main language acquisition goal can be achieved by upgrading the learners' awareness of their own cultures and the language target culture and building sensitivity and empathy toward the target culture (Negoescu et al., 2017). By including culture in the foreign language learning process, learners can learn the target language culture, which can enable them to communicate more easily with native speakers (Abushihab, 2016). Consequently, research on significant foreign/second language teaching has examined approaches to methods that encourage language skills, cultural awareness (Agudelo, 2007; Cardona et al., 2015; Pateşan et al., 2017), intercultural understanding (Koro, 2018), intercultural competence (Karimboyevna, 2020), etc.

In this context, research has also investigated the learning strategies being used to accomplish these goals. Language learning strategies (LLSs) are conscious and deliberate learner actions that can assist them in learning the language (Wood, 2020). Balc and Üğüten (2018) examined the relationship between English language learner strategies and language learning achievements and concluded that effective LLSs had a positive impact on achievement. Habók & Magyar (2020) found that students who used LLSs had greater confidence in organizing their learning targets, more consciously planned their learning, and had better self-efficacy and motivation. Significant correlations have also been

found between LLSs and performance/achievement in grammar tests (Azizmohammadi & Barjesteh, 2020) and between metacognitive, social, cognitive, and compensation strategies and academic achievement (Ipek & Yesilbursa, 2017; Taheri & Bagheri, 2019).

Research on language, culture, and LLSs has also been conducted. For example, Oxford (2018) suggested that culture, language, and LLSs need to be integrated and key cultural topics explored, and Rachmawaty et al. (2018) investigated the relationships among cultural intelligence, LLSs, and English proficiency and found that the frequency and type of LLS were influenced by the learners' embedded culture.

Few studies have explored how cultural awareness influences the LLSs of English, Arabic, and Chinese language learners. However, a good understanding of the role cultural awareness plays in the LLSs used by learners could assist foreign/second language teachers in better embedding cultural awareness into their teaching and learning activities and better guiding the learners in directly or indirectly learning the language.

This study identified the LLSs used by Indonesian learners when learning English, Arabic, and Chinese as foreign languages, explored how the learners became aware of the target language culture, and assessed the contribution of cultural awareness to LLS selection.

II. METHOD

This research study was qualitative as the procedures used to collect the data were open-ended and involved non-numerical data, which were analyzed using non-statistical methods (Dornyei, 2011).

A. Participants

The participants of this study were university students with the age range from 19 to 23 years old. They had contacted with foreign languages for minimum 5 years. They were using Indonesian in their daily lives as it is their mother tongue. Purposive sampling technique was used to determine the participants. Participants were selected based on specific criteria: learning English, or Arabic, or Chinese as a second/foreign language; having good proficiency in the target language as evidenced by language proficiency tests (TOEFL/IELTS/IBT for English learners, TOAFL (Test of Arabic as Foreign Language) for Arabic language learners, and HSK (*Hanyu Shuiping Kaoshi*) for Chinese language learners); and having visited the native speaking country (optional). In addition, the participants were learning the target languages in various periods, either in formal education (as part of curriculum) or informal. The final participants were eight language learners, and their details are given in Table 1.

TABLE 1
INDONESIAN LANGUAGE LEARNER PARTICIPANTS

Participant	Gender	Target language	Visited country	Language proficiency test	Score
NIIW	Female	Arabic	Saudi Arabia	TOAFL	500
KRS	Female	Arabic	Saudi Arabia	TOAFL	550
DNS	Male	Arabic	-	TOAFL	530
ANL	Male	English	The United States	IBT	107
DF	Female	English	Singapore	IELTS	7
FADL	Female	English	The United States	IBT	87
FEB	Male	Chinese	China (mainland)	HSK 5	197
ML	Female	Chinese	China (mainland)	HSK 5	194

B. Data Collection and Analysis

The participants' LLS data were obtained using Oxford's (1990) strategy inventory for language learning (SILL) version 7.0, and several in-depth interviews were conducted to obtain an in-depth understanding of the participants' awareness of the cultural aspects of the learned language and the influence this awareness had on their choice of LLS.

The SILL instrument was used to assess the frequency of language learning strategies employed by learners of English as a second/foreign language. This instrument was designed by Oxford. The inventory comprised of 50 items. Each of described strategy used Likert-scale with five respond options i.e., never or almost never true of me, generally not true of me, somewhat true of me, generally true of me, and always or almost always true of me. SILL was organized in six strategy groups, namely, memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies. Moreover, Oxford also provided scoring worksheet, either for each of the strategies or overall average. The data gained was served in frequency of the used strategy by participants. The SILL has been reported to have high reliability as the Cronbach alpha scores gained from several times test done, either in English version or other languages (Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Puerto Rican Spanish). The showed scores were ranged from .91 to .95 (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995).

Furthermore, Oxford (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995) portrayed the ESL/EFL SILL validity based on content validity, criterion-related validity, and construct validity studies. The content validity by professional judgement reached the agreement at .99 against entries in a comprehensive language learning strategy taxonomy. Meanwhile, the criterion-

related validity, which was demonstrated by several studies, showed the significant relationships between the SILL and language performance. In addition, the construct validity has been performed by many studies. The results showed that the ESL/EFL SILL is valid as it is related to language performance in which the r values ranged from .21 to .73.

The interviews were conducted in Indonesian as it was the participants' native language and allowed them to easily express their views. The interviews were open-ended and flexible, that is, the proximate questions were determined by the responses given to the previous questions, which allowed for the gathering of additional information related to the research focus. All interviews were recorded and notes were also taken. The interviews were conducted in two ways either by direct meeting or online. The face-to-face interviews were conducted in certain place agreed by participants. These interviews were recorded using audio recorder. Meanwhile, the online interviews were recorded in video and audio using zoom application. Notes were made in both offline and online interviews. Each interview took approximately 60 minutes (depends on the data sufficiency). Semi-structured interviews were used to delve into the participants' cultural awareness deeply and to understand the given answers thoroughly. The interviews were arranged in three steps: introduction, explanation of ground rules, and asking core questions.

General introduction was given by the interviewer to the participants before the questions given. The introduction includes three kinds of information which were the identity of the researchers, the aim of the research, and the researchers' reason to request the participants to participate in the research. In the next step, researchers elucidated the basic rules of interview which consisted of the interview duration, guarantee of safeguard information about the participants that should not be disclosed, and the type of report would come from the interview data. The core questions came next. The questions were arranged by considering the sufficiency of required data and how the conversation might flow naturally.

To get an agreement from the research participants, the researchers provided consent form to be fulfilled by the candidate participants. The form involved several information as the consideration for them to decide whether or not they would participate in the research. The information consisted of research project details, personal contact of researchers, about information (collected information during research, information usage, and information ownership), participants' rights, compensation, and signature of participant candidate.

Descriptive quantitative analysis was used to assess the SILL data, which involved calculating the frequency of the strategies used by the participants when learning their foreign/second language. The collected interview data were analyzed using the three concurrent activities suggested by Miles and Hubberman (1994): data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing. The data reduction activity was done by selecting and transforming in transcription the obtained data from the interviews. The collected data of the reduction activity were displayed by classifying and organizing based on specific criteria from which the conclusion could be drawn. The last stream of analysis activity was drawing conclusion. The conclusion activity was done based on the prior analysis process.

III. FINDINGS

A. Language Learning Strategies

The data regarding the LLSs employed by the participants were collected from the SILL and categorized into six strategies: memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social. The data revealed that while all six strategies were used by participants, the usage frequencies varied, as shown in Figure 1. The metacognitive strategy was used most frequently (3.4), followed by the social (3.1), memory (2.9), cognitive (2.7), affective (2.6), and compensation (2.5) strategies; therefore, the usage frequencies were in a medium range.
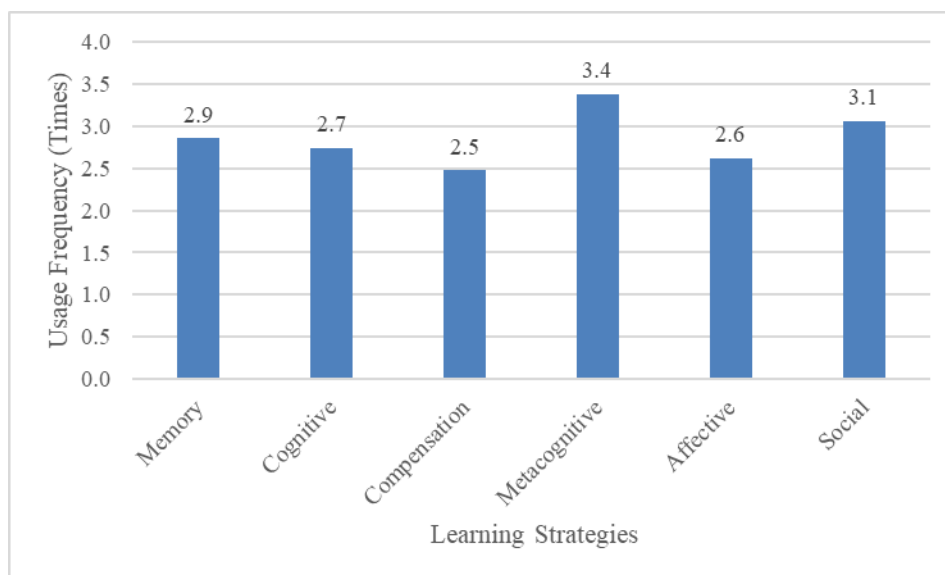
Figure 1. Language Learning Strategies Used by the Participants.

B. Cultural Awareness

The interview data revealed that various situations stimulated the learners' cultural awareness when learning their chosen language, such as when reading authentic texts, communicating with native speakers, and during class.

KRS revealed that reading Arabic authentic texts made her realize the culture inherent in Arabic, saying that reading Arabic authentic text required understanding the vocabulary and having a good knowledge of the grammar and culture.

"Waktu saya membaca sebuah percakapan di dalam buku Al Arabiyah li Annasyi'in, saya menemukan ada kata "قمر الدين" Karena saya tidak tahu artinya, saya mencoba cari di kamus. Tapi saya tidak menemukan arti yang pas dengan konteks kalimatnya. Setelah berusaha bertanya kepada beberapa teman juga tidak menemukan jawabannya, akhirnya saya iseng mengetik kalimat tersebut di Google. Saya tidak menyangka akan muncul gambar makanan. Dan di dalam artikel-artikel yang saya temukan di sana, saya menemukan penjelasan bahwa itu adalah nama salah satu makanan khas orang Arab yang mereka makan pada bulan Ramadhan. Pernah sih dulu mendapatkan penjelasan dari dosen, tapi gak paham maskudnya. Setelah mengalami sendiri, baru bener-bener sadar ada beneran." (S1)

(When I read a conversation in *Al-Arabiyah li Annasyi'in* (book's title), I found the phrase الدين قمر. I looked for the phrase in dictionaries, but I did not find a suitable meaning based on the context. I also tried to ask my friends, but they could not answer my *question* well. Then, I dabbled in typing the phrase in the internet browser, but I did not expect images of a beverage to appear. From the articles, I knew that الدين قمر was kind of juice from Arab cuisine that is typically consumed during the holy month of Ramadan. Well, I heard this (language phenomena) from my lecturer's explanation, but I did not understand it until I had experienced it myself.)

Different from KRS, FEB, DNS, and ML had similar experiences in the way they became aware of the cultural aspects in learning their languages. They were aware of the appropriateness needed when using the target language to communicate with native speakers. FEB recognized the inextricable link between the language and its culture when he had an unpleasant experience when communicating with a native speaker.

"Ketika saya bertemu dengan seorang penjaga masjid yang secara usia lebih tua dari pada saya. Kemudian saya menanyakan namanya dengan pertanyaan '你叫什么名字？'. Penjaga itu menyebutkan namanya. Tapi saya menyadari perubahan raut wajahnya setelah mendengarkan pertanyaan saya. Karena saya merasa bersalah, kemudian saya berusaha mengevaluasi perkataan saya. Kesalahan apa yang telah saya lakukan hingga menyinggung penjaga itu. Dari situ, saya baru ingat pernah mendengarkan penjelasan bahwa kalimat pertanyaan yang saya tanyakan bukan digunakan untuk orang yang lebih tua. Seharusnya waktu itu saya menggunakan adalah '您贵姓？'karena lebih sopan. Dari situ, saya percaya kalau belajar bahasa itu gak bisa cuma belajar kosa kata dan tata bahasanya aja." (S2)

(When I met a mosque keeper who was older than me, I asked her name by saying '你叫什么名字？'. The keeper answered my question by giving her name. However, I realized that her facial expression changed after listening to my question. I then tried to evaluate my sentence because I felt guilty. What mistake did I make to offend her? Then, I remembered that the question I asked was not intended for older people and that it was more appropriate to say '您贵姓？' as it is more polite (for older people).

From this experience, I believe that when learning a (foreign) language, it is not enough to (memorize) know the vocabulary and (learn) grammar.)

Rather than mentioning the precise time they became aware of culture when using their foreign/second language, NIIW, ANL, and FADL referred to their learning activities in the classroom, such as the teacher's explanation and the reading materials.

NIIW talked about learning *al-balāgha* (the science of rhetoric) and *fan al kalam* (the art of rhetoric) when learning Arabic.

> *"Saya pernah belajar ilmu balaghah dan fan al kalam. Dari penjelasan dosen tentang materi yang diajarkan, buku-buku yang saya baca kan ada penjelasan tentang ekspresi-ekspresi dalam bahasa Arab, kesantunan berbahasa, bagaimana kita menggunakan bahasa Arab dengan bagus dan indah. Dari sana saya jadi paham bahwa untuk menggunakan bahasa Arab, saya tidak bisa hanya menerjemahkan kata per kata dengan menggunakan kamus, akan tetapi juga perlu mengetahui rasa (bahasanya)." (S3)*

(I learned *'ilm al-balaghah* and *fun al-kalam*. From my teacher's explanations about the subject matter and from what I had read in several books, I found explanations about some expressions in Arabic, such as politeness and how to use the language nicely and beautifully. Through these materials, I came to understand that to use the Arabic language well, I could not just translate the language word by word using a dictionary, but also need to know its sense.)

Similarly, ANL referred to the learning activities to understand the cultural aspects when learning English.

> *"Gimana, ya. Aku gak yakin sih. Dulu sebelum ke Amerika, aku belajar di TBI. Di sana belajar hal-hal kayak gitu. Trus ada tutor yang asli British. Trus baca-baca tulisan diwebsite. Ya sudah."(S4)*

(Well, I am not sure. Before I went to America, I learned in TBI (name of the institution for the English language course). I learned that kind of thing (cultural aspects in using language) there. There was a native British tutor, and I also read some articles on the internet. That's it.)

DF mentioned that she became aware of the importance of cultural awareness when learning English when attending an IELTS (International English Language Testing System) preparation class.

> *"Waktu belajar IELTS. Soalnya di sana kan kita diajari macem-macem, ya. Kayak ekspresi-ekspresi, idiom, collocation, trus dosen juga kasih penjelasan..."(S5)*

(When I was learning IELTS, some materials were taught, such as expressions, idioms, and collocations, and the lecturer also gave explanations…)

C. Cultural Awareness and LLS

The role of cultural awareness in determining the LLSs used by the participants was investigated through the interviews. It was found that cultural awareness led the learners to assess their foreign/second language skills based on the learning materials and the strategies that native speakers used. Therefore, the participants tended to choose materials that broadened their knowledge about how the target language was used by native speakers (considering appropriateness in using language) and understanding the target language from the native user's point of view.

KRS commented on how having a cultural awareness of the target language affected her Arabic learning strategy.

> *"eemmm. Saya jadi lebih memilih untuk merujuk dari grup (WA) yang banyak native Arabnya dan orang-orang yang ada di situ orang-orang yang berpendidikan, sehingga bisa meniru ungkapan-ungkapan yang biasa mereka gunakan yang ada di dalam chat. Dengan begitu, saya juga bisa menggunakan ungkapan yang digunakan mayoritas penutur Arab yang bahkan mungkin berbeda dengan yang digunakan oleh kebanyakan orang Indonesia." (S6)*

(eemm. it made me prefer to choose a group (social media group) in which I could find some Arabic native speakers who were scholars so that I could imitate the expressions they commonly used when chatting in the group. By doing so, I was able to use the expressions commonly used by Arabic native speakers. Indeed, possibly, these expressions were totally different from the expressions used by Indonesian people.)

DF explained that the materials she used to learn English helped her understand the cultural aspects.

> *"...Setelah ngerti, kalau mau bilang sesuatu memastikan ketapatan kosa kata atau ekspresi yang mau dipake dulu. Makanya saya prefer baca atau nonton yang dari native gitu. Biar bisa belajar feel bahasa juga. Bahkan untuk pakai kamus, lebih suka pakai kamus inggris-inggris." (S7)*

(…once I understand, I want to ensure the appropriateness of the vocabulary or expressions I use in my sentences before saying something by considering the context, which is why I prefer to read or watch native speakers learn the sense of the language as well. Even when using a dictionary, I prefer to use an English-English dictionary).

ANL explained how he used the dictionary when composing English sentences or selecting words so that he could ensure that the sentences and the selected words fit the context.

> *"Pas mau ngomong trus keingat kosakata tertentu yang baru tau gitu kadang ragu apakah penggunaan kata ini konteksnya cocok gak ya. Trus untuk memastikan biasanya buka kamus yang di dalamnya ada penjelasan dan contoh kalimat buat setiap kosa katanya gitu, kaya Wiktionary atau*

Urban Dictionary. Soalnya sering juga salah pake ungkapan. Konteksnya gak pas, soalnya pakenya asal aja." (S8)

(Sometimes, when I want to say something and remember new vocabulary I want to use in my sentence, I have doubts as to whether the word fits the sentence context or not. To ensure (myself), I consult dictionaries in which I can find the explanation and usage of all vocabulary in the sentences, such as Wiktionary or Urban Dictionary. (I) have made mistakes when using expressions many times as they did not suit the context because I used them casually.)

ML noted that her awareness of the differences between Indonesian and Chinese affected her strategies when learning Chinese.

"Dulu saya membuat kalimat ya menerjemah dari bahasa Indonesia trus dialihbahasakan ke bahasa China. Tapi setelah mengerti kalimat yang kita buat dengan cara seperti itu tidak selalu bisa dipahami oleh native, akhirnya saya lebih banyak nonton film-nya orang sana atau sering coba ngobrol sama teman yang native biar saya tahu gimana sih mereka ngomong, apa yang lazim mereka gunakan dan bagaimana mereka melafalkannya. Setelah itu coba saya praktikkan di kalimat-kalimat saya."(S9)

(I used to make sentences by translating from Indonesian to Chinese. However, after knowing that the sentences were not always understandable by the native speakers, I watched more films from China or chatted with my Chinese friends to understand the way they talked, (the sentences) they commonly used, and how they pronounced them. Later on, I practiced these in my sentences.)

NIIW said she carefully used particular terms in Arabic because she understood that using words or particular terms or expressions inappropriately could affect the purpose of a sentence and cause misunderstandings.

"Saya tu hati-hati kalau mau make istilah atau kata tertentu yang saya belum saya ketahui dengan baik secara hati-hati. Biasanya saya konfirmasi dulu ke teman yang native. Kadang saya memastikan dengan mencari kata tersebut di dalam teks berbahasa Arab. Saya cari di Google dulu. Setelah saya yakin konteks penggunaannya tepat, baru saya gunakan. Soalnya kalau salah kan nanti orang bisa salah paham."(S10)

(I carefully use certain terms or words that I don't know well. Occasionally, I confirm (its usage) with my native (Arabic) friends. Sometimes, I look for the word in Arabic text or on Google. After I am sure about the suitability for the context, I use it because if it is wrong (not appropriate with the contexts), it can cause misunderstandings.)

DNS explained how her orientation in using learning strategies changed after she understood that using Arabic was affected by situations and conditions.

"Orientasi kayaknya. Jadi orientasi belajar itu jadi pengen bisa lebih mirip native. Makanya kalau mau nulis atau ngomong kadang niru-niru gaya bahasanya native. Biar bisa tahu gimana native ngomong, nonton film-film kartun berbahasa fushah gitu. Apalagi, ya. Kadang baca-baca artikel berbahasa Arab untuk memastikan ketepatan penggunaan istilah. Mungkin itu sih." (S11)

(I think about the (learning) orientation as I want to be able to speak Arabic more like a native. Therefore, sometimes I imitate the language style of Arabic speakers in my writing or speaking. To understand how native speakers speak, (I) watch Arabic cartoons, which use standard Arabic, and read Arabic articles to ensure the suitability of the term's usage.)

Cultural awareness also affected the strategies employed by the learners. The learner statements indicated how they employed LLSs after becoming aware of the cultural aspects of using the language. FEB exemplified how he used Chinese vocabulary after becoming aware that Chinese people pronounce their words using certain tones.

"Misalnya cara saya belajar kosa kata. Sebelum saya ke Tiongkok dan berkomunikasi dengan orang sana, saya menghafalkan kosa kata ya sekedar hafalan artinya saja. Tapi setelah saya mendapati orang-orang yang bingung bahkan salah paham dengan bahasa saya, jadi saya lebih memperhatikan pelafalan dan banyak melatihnya ketika menghafalkan kosakata." (S12)

(Such as my strategy to learn vocabulary. Before I went to China and communicated with people, I memorized vocabulary just for its meaning. However, after finding people were confused and even misunderstood me, I paid greater attention to (my) pronunciation and practiced a lot when memorizing vocabulary.)

KRS explained how her cultural awareness affected her strategies when reading Arabic texts.

"Sekarang kalau membaca teks berbahasa Arab dan ada kata yang tidak saya pahami, saya tidak hanya dengan menggunakan satu kamus untuk mencari artinya karena kan tidak selalu pas ya artinya. Apalagi kalau muncul asumsi bahwa itu idiom atau frase tertentu yang kalau digandeng dengan kata yang lain punya arti tertentu juga, saya bahkan membaca referensi lain juga untuk memastikan artinya. Jika asumsi saya benar, saya akan mencatatnya dan akan saya hafalkan. Makanya catatan-catatan yang saya buat itu bukan hanya daftar kosa-kata saja kayak dulu waktu saya belum ngerti, tapi juga frase, idiom, contoh-contoh kalimat, gitu." (S13)

(Now, if I read an Arabic text and there is an incomprehensible word, I don't use one dictionary to look for the meaning because it (the meaning from one dictionary) does not always have a suitable meaning (with the context). If I

assume that it is an idiom or a particular phrase that has a specific meaning if it is put together with another word, I even read other references to clarify the meaning. If my assumption is correct, I will write it (the idiom or phrase) down and memorize it. That is why my notes include a vocabulary list as before and also phrases, idioms, and example sentences).

IV. DISCUSSION

The study found that the eight participants used six main LLSs: memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social, at a medium frequency, with the most used being the metacognitive strategy (see Figure 1), which was consistent with the research results of Griffiths (2015) and Mitits and Gavriilidou (2016). Griffiths (2015) reported that successful language learners used LSSs frequently, and Mitits and Gavriilidou (2016) found that the metacognitive strategy was the most frequently used by the learners of Greek as a second language and English as a foreign language and that these learners used LSSs at a medium frequency.

The higher use of the metacognitive strategy was possibly because the participants wished to communicate as naturally as native speakers, which was also commented on by the participants. For instance, KRS revealed that she wished to be able to use Arabic expressions as well as Arabic native speakers (see S6). By reading or watching authentic resources, DF sought to emulate English native speakers and the situations in which the language was being used (see S7), which allowed her to rearrange and re-plan her learning to gain a better performance. It has been noted that the new elements of a language can overwhelm learners (Oxford, 1990), such as new vocabulary, bewildering rules, unfamiliar writing systems, and inexplicable social customs; therefore, the participants employed the metacognitive strategy a little more often than the other strategies.

The interview data revealed the efforts made to increase the awareness of the cultural aspects associated with using a second/foreign language. For example, KRS realized the correlations between language and culture after having difficulty in understanding a phrase when reading an Arabic text even though the phrase had been mentioned by the teacher (see S1). FEB had also heard an explanation regarding the appropriate context of a sentence but had not been able to apply it until he used a sentence inappropriately (see S2). These findings indicated that both KRS and FEB required a process to gain a full awareness of the cultural contexts, that is, while they were aware of the cultural language aspects during their language classes, the awareness was awakened through two communication processes; when they were in particular situations, such as when communicating with native speakers, when they were reading an authentic text, as experienced by FEB, DNS, ML, and KRS (see S1 and S2), and during the foreign/second language learning process in the classroom, as experienced by NIIW, ANL, FADL, and DF (see S3, S4, S5).

Gaining cultural awareness through communication with native speakers when learning a foreign/second language aligns with a suggestion from Byram (1989), who claimed that learning a foreign language within the language society is recommended as the affective aspect is available and more multiplex and ties the culture and language aspects together. This finding was also in line with Sumbayak's (2013) interview project with English native speakers, who claimed that the project had illuminated the differences between Indonesian culture and English native speaker culture. Using authentic aids, as was done by KRS, was also suggested by Abdalla and Mohammed (2020) as one of the techniques to develop cultural awareness.

Several studies have examined the promotion of cultural aspects in foreign/second language classrooms (Barany, 2016; Irwandi, 2017; Karimboyevna, 2020; Yu & Maele, 2018). For example, Liu (2016) found that 23.35% of the participants claimed they had gained their cultural knowledge from their teachers and 21.57% claimed they had gained this awareness from the interactive activities in class. Several participants in this study also claimed to have gained some cultural awareness from their foreign/second language class, such as *al-Balāgha* (the science of rhetoric) and *fan al-kalam* (the art of rhetoric) (learned by NIIW), IELTS (learned by DF), and English for young learners (learned by ANL and FADL).

There are three main parts discussed in the science/art of rhetoric (Badruddin, 1989): *'Ilm al-ma'ani* (the science of meanings), which discusses the rules and principles associated with speech delivery so that it conforms to the situation; *'Ilm al-bayan* (the science of metaphor/delivery), which is associated with metaphor and simile; and *'Ilm al-badi'* (the science of eloquence), which examines the techniques and methods needed to embellish the language. As Arabic rhetoric lightens the bridge of syntax, exhibits an overlap among linguistics, pragmatics, and aesthetics, and reveals a genuine intercultural penetration paradigm, Arabic scholars recognize this as a linguistic means to a pragmatic end (Albitar, 2012). The IELTS preparation and English classes in which DF, ANL, and FADL learned English also introduced them to the cultural aspects associated with the language; therefore, it is reasonable to assume that NIIW, DF, ANL, and FADL also gained some cultural awareness through their foreign language classes.

The data revealed that cultural awareness assisted the participants in navigating the LLSs they used to achieve linguistic and cultural comprehension when using the target language. This was evident in the methods used by participants to detail, itemize, sharpen, and transform their strategies to learn all aspects of the language (see S12 and S13). It was evident also that the participants' efforts to gain cultural awareness assisted them in better understanding the need to gain cultural knowledge when learning a foreign/second language. Therefore, the learners' orientations and LLS use widened as they gained more cultural knowledge regarding the target language, which enabled them to use the target language as naturally as native speakers. This finding supported the recommendations by Jawas (2020) that

materials and classroom activity selections that focus on pragmatic functions can increase non-native student cultural knowledge and awareness

This learning orientation (language and culture) to determine learning strategies aligns with the suggestions of Oxford (2018) and Irwandi (2017). Oxford (2018) proposed that the LLSs used by language teachers in foreign language classrooms can promote both linguistic and cultural awareness growth, and Irwandi (2017) suggested that English speaking skills could be taught by integrating intercultural communicative competence into the materials and activities to activate cultural awareness, such as considering the context, the specific intercultural communication obstacles to understanding, and the verbal and nonverbal issues. In other words, as learning a second/foreign language involves learning the language and learning the culture, certain learning strategies that promote both linguistic and cultural aspects are needed.

V. Conclusion

This study was conducted to examine the specific LLSs being employed by Indonesian learners of three foreign/second languages (English/Arabic/Chinese) and understand the methods used to gain cultural awareness of learned language and the effects this cultural awareness had on the LLSs they used. It was found that the participants used six main LLSs: memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social, at a medium frequency. The interview data indicated that the learners' cultural awareness toward their respective foreign/second language uses was triggered by reading authentic texts, by communicating with native speakers, and from their language classes. The data also showed that the increased cultural awareness altered their learning orientations so that they could focus their language use on gaining native speaker proficiency, which in turn affected their learning material and LLS selection.

Acknowledgements

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Siti Masitoh was born on October 20th, 1968. She graduated from Universitas Negeri Jember, Jember, Indonesia in Language and English Literature in 1992. She took American Studies (literature) in Universitas Gadjahmada Yogyakarta, Indonesia where she earned her Master's degree in 2002. She obtained a Doctoral degree in the previous university in humanities (literature) in 2016. Her current position is an English lecturer in the Faculty of Humanities, Universitas Islam Negeri Maulana Malik Ibrahim Malang, Malang, Indonesia. She is interested in foreign/second language learning research, English education, and English literature. She is the author of several works, such as: Improving Students' Ability in Writing Descriptive Text Using a Genre Based Approach (GBA) At the Eighth Grade Students of SMP Islam Terpadu Fitrah Insani (2015), The Effect of Emotional Intelligence and Spiritual Intelligence on Work Satisfaction with Employee Performance as Intervening Variables (2019), and Buku ajar Mandarin (Basic Chinese): Integrasi Nilai-Nilai Silam dalam Pengembangan Bahan Ajar Mandarin di Lembaga Pendidikan Islam (2021).

Dr. Masitoh was a member of ADIA (Association of Literature Lecturer) from 2012 to 2016. She has been active as a member of Himpunan Sarjana Sastra Indonesia (Association of Literature Scholars) since 2012.

Zakiyah Arifa was born in Jember, East Java, Indonesia on April 16th, 1980. She received her undergraduate degree in Sekolah Tinggi Agama Islam Negeri Jember, Indonesia in Arabic Language Education in 2003. She gained both of her Master's and Doctoral degrees in Arabic Education from Universitas Islam Negeri Maulana Malik Ibrahim Malang in 2007 and 2017, respectively. Currently, she is a lecturer in the Department of Arabic Language Education, the Faculty of Tarbiyah and Teacher Training, Universitas Islam Negeri Maulana Malik Ibrahim Malang. She focuses her research on foreign language education and the Arabic language. She has published several articles in national and international indexed journals, such as Classroom Management and Arabic Learning Process Based on Multiple Intelligences in Elementary School (2019), How Come Self-Regulated Learning Overcome Speaking Anxiety in Arabic Students? (2022), and Source-Based Arabic Language Learning: A Corpus Linguistic Approach (2020).

Dr. Arifa has been an active member of IMLA (Association of Arabic Language Teachers) Indonesia since 2010 and is a member of ALTI (Association of Applied Linguistics) since 2018.

Nur Ila Ifawati was born in Bojonegoro, East Java, Indonesia on December 11th, 1984. She obtained a Bachelor's degree in Arabic literature, and Master's and Doctoral degrees in Arabic Education. These degrees were achieved at Universitas Islam Negeri Maulana Malik Ibrahim Malang. Currently, she is an Arabic lecturer in the Language Center, Universitas Islam Negeri Maulana Malik Ibrahim Malang. She is also head of the Chinese Language and Culture Centre (CLCC) UIN Maulana Malik Ibrahim Malang. Her research is focused on foreign/second language teaching and learning, Arabic education, and the Arabic language.

Dr. Ifawati is a member of IMLA (Association of Arabic Language Teachers) Indonesia.

Diana Nur Sholihah was born in Kediri, East Java, Indonesia on June 6th, 1987. She earned Bachelor's (Arabic literature), Master's (Arabic Education), and Doctoral (Arabic Education) degrees at Universitas Islam Negeri Maulana Malik Ibrahim Malang. She is currently a lecturer at the Graduate School of Islamic Institute of Tribakti Kediri. Her passionate research interest is on foreign/second language teaching and learning, Arabic education, and the Arabic language.

Dr. Sholihah is currently a member of IMLA (Association of Arabic Language Teachers) Indonesia.

Native Language Transfer in Vocabulary Acquisition: An Empirical Study From Connectionist Perspective

Li Zhang

School of Foreign Languages, Southwest University of Political Science and Law, Chongqing, China

Abstract—Since the 1940s, the behaviorist paradigm, contrast analysis hypothesis and mentalist model have focused much attention on explaining the L1 - L2 relationship and how it works in second language acquisition. These studies support that different linguistic features of L1 and L2 would lead to language transfer. Nevertheless, there are still some questions being asked: How does native language transfer occur? What are the effective teaching methods to help L2 learners overcome the challenges of native language transfer? This study investigates native language transfer among Chinese university students in second language vocabulary acquisition. The results show that the connectionist model can explain the cognitive process of native language transfer through a dynamic approach, and adequate language input with timely grammar correction can enhance learning efficiency. The connectionist teaching method is effective in second language vocabulary acquisition.

Index Terms—native language transfer, second language vocabulary acquisition, the connectionist model

I. INTRODUCTION

Native language transfer is always an exciting topic in second language acquisition research, and relevant theories have been coming forth, from behaviorist, mentalist, and cognitive views to the connectionist paradigm (PDP model). The Connectionist, or PDP model, developed by David Rumelhart and James McClelland (1986), recently has become a new theoretical framework under the interdisciplinary umbrella of cognitive, psychological, and neural science. They believe that, at the beginning stage of second acquisition, if the native language system is firmly established, it will strongly influence the learner's language use (O'Reilly & Rudy, 2001; Williams, 2003; Wang, 2009; Römer et al., 2014). All these studies and experiments either explicitly or implicitly support that the existed language system (native language patterns) will influence learners' second language vocabulary acquisition. Unlike Universal Grammar (UG), which studies static language ability, the connectionist model focuses on the dynamic language acquisition process, so it is much closer to language acquisition and application in reality (Tabor, 1997; Rohde & Plaut, 2003). Based on connectionist cognition, the learner constantly compares the second language acquisition (SLA) task with previous language experience, which will activate native language patterns spontaneously. Therefore, second language structure is mainly built upon native language construction and would be possibly influenced by the native language patterns (Kohnert et al., 1999; Luk & Bialystok, 2003; Moro et al., 2017).

Nevertheless, few researches studied the process of Chinese learners of the English language in the connectionist framework, and how connectionist teaching methods contribute to developing Chinese ESL learners' ability in vocabulary acquisition. The aim of this empirical study is twofold: (a) to verify the explanatory power of the connectionist model on language transfer; and (b) to figure out particular implications for EFL teaching and learning.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. The Behaviorist View and Contrastive Studies: 1940s-1960s

Fries' and Robert Lado's language transfer studies focused on the factors that significantly influenced the L1 - L2 relationship and their roles in SLA. Fries (1945) formulated the need for contrastive analysis (CA). He proposed that the most efficient materials were based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, and carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner. Harris (1954) developed a "transfer grammar" model based on Fries' contrastive analysis theory. Thereafter, the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH), in its strong form, claimed to be able to make predictions about the difficulties which L2 learners of a particular L2 would experience, based on the language distance between L1 and L2. As Ellis put it: the degree of difficulty depended primarily on the extent to which the target language was similar to or different from a native language pattern (Ellis, 1994).

B. The Mentalist View: Late 1960s-1970s

By the 1970s, although some scholars questioned that contrastive analysis had no predictive power on the fact that learners would make language errors in an actual learning context, it cannot be simply denied that certain kinds of CA

had the predictive ability with empirical evidence (Schachter, 1974). But how much a contrastive analysis can or should predict has remained a controversial question. Subsequently, language transfer studies were based on the idea developed by Dulay and Burt (1974) that, for children, second language acquisition was similar to first language acquisition, known as the "L2 = L1 hypothesis". Then, the morpheme order studies emerged, and there was justification in positing a "natural order" to acquire English morphemes. SLA was essentially no different from child native language acquisition, which basically conformed to the UG theory in language acquisition (Dulay et al., 1982; Anthony et al., 2017; Holzen et al., 2018).

C. The Cognitive Views: Late 1970s and Early 1980s – to Date

During the mid to late 1970s, the emphases of SLA were on determining how and when learners used their native language and explaining the language phenomenon. Thus, the study of language transfer has gradually come into the cognitive period. There were researches on language transfer in terms of linguistic universals and markedness theory, which inherited and developed the mentalist view in the cognitive framework.

Hyltenstam (1984) related the markedness theory to language transfer and believed unmarked categories from the native language were substituted for corresponding marked categories in the target language. Transferability was a relative motion depending on the psychotypology and prototypicality (Kellerman, 2008). The significance of these works is an attempt to place the study of transfer or cross-linguistic influence within a cognitive domain, and try to crack the code of neurolinguistic programming (Gooskens, 2007; Islam & Inkpen, 2008; Conneau & Guillaume, 2019; Kutsuki, 2021).

D. Summary

As for the language transfer studies, CA, morpheme order study, markedness theory, and Kellennan's prototypicality and psychotypology were the leading theories back then. By reviewing the development of studies on language transfer, we can see a series of substantial improvements; namely, the research in the cognitive view has provided various approaches to exploring why adult learners have particular troubles in L2 learning. They seem to be able to explain some problems that the behaviorist and mentalist domains failed to. Nonetheless, some questions are still being asked:

(1) How does language transfer occur?

(2) What are the effective teaching methods to help L2 learners overcome the challenges of language transfer?

This study is designed to apply the connectionist model in teaching Chinese university students of English, through which the mechanism, reason, and influence of native language transfer are expected to be explained from a new perspective.

III. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF CONNECTIONISM AND CONNECTIONIST VIEWS ON LANGUAGE TRANSFER

A. Theoretical Basis of Connectionism

(a). The Notions of Neural Networks and Activation

A neural network consists of many units joined together in a pattern of connections. It is a feed-forward net, as demonstrated in Figure 1.

input units   hidden units   output units
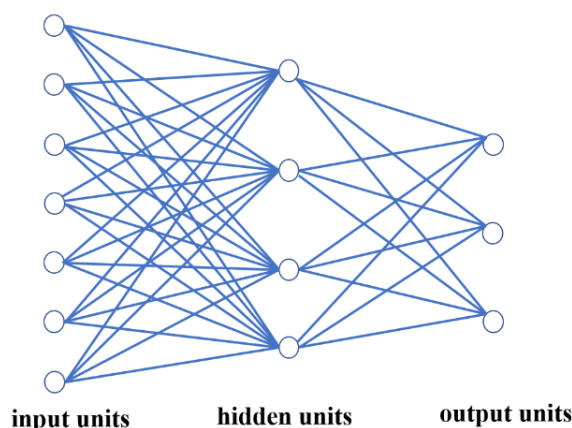
Figure 1 A Simple Neural Net

Outside stimulus flows from inputs to hidden units and then on to the output units. Each input unit has an activation value that represents a specific feature. An input unit transmits the value to the connected hidden units, and this signal is then transferred to output units or another layer of hidden units, and in the same way, those hidden units process their values similarly and send them along to their neighbors. Eventually, the signal at the input units expands through the net to determine the output units' values. Therefore, the weight of value represents the complexity of linguistic information processing.

(b). The Rumelhart-McClelland Model

In standard PDP mechanisms, this model learns to map representations of present tense forms of English verbs onto past tense versions. It handles regular (talk/talked) and irregular (wear/wore) verbs, productively yielding past forms for novel verbs not in its training set. Besides, it distinguishes the variants of the past tense morpheme conditioned by the final consonant of the verb (walked versus jogged versus sweated). Furthermore, in doing so, it displays behaviors resembling children's cognition (Rumelhart & McClelland, 1986, 1987).

B. Connectionist Views on Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition

(a). On Learning

How word recognition occurs has been a critical issue for which the connectionist models try to account. In McClelland and Rumelhart's "interactive activation" model of word recognition, the network is entirely prespecified (i.e., it does not learn). It consists of a sequence of "layers" of units, as illustrated in the figure below.
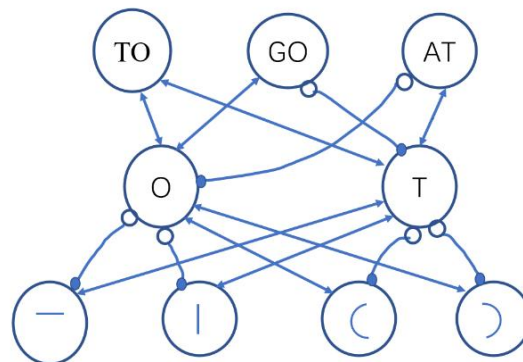

Figure 2 Connectionist Model of Word Recognition
(Excitatory connections are shown as arrows, whereas inhibitory connections have circular ends)
From Chater & Christiansen, 1999

Figure 2 shows that units in the first layer are specific to a particular visual feature of letters (in particular positions within the word). Units in the second layer stand for particular letters (also in particular positions within the word). Units in the third layer stand for words. Word recognition occurs as follows. Connectionists maintain that in language learning, one is not just learning a collection of unrelated items. Instead, the learning leads to a whole network of new connections (McClelland, 1989). In other words, the better connected the knowledge structure is, the more readily accessible it will be.

(b). On Language Transfer

Speakers of Chinese and English share a little in common culture, which results in differences in conceptual and grammatical organization. Furthermore, Chinese learners of English are more likely to feel confused about the differences in the beginning stage. According to Gass and Selinker (2000), there is a hierarchy of learning difficulties for second language learners, which also explains the challenges English language learners have been facing in China.

TABLE 1
HIERARCHY OF VOCABULARY ACQUISITION DIFFICULTY

Hierarchy of Vocabulary Acquisition Difficulty (Chinese as L1, English as L2)		
	Category	**Example**
1	Differentiation	山-mountain/hill, kinship words
2	New Category	article system
3	Absent Category	classifier system
4	Coalescing	addressing words
5	Correspondence	the definition of concrete nouns and scientific terminology, syntactic location of nouns (as subject or object)

As illustrated in the table above, we classified the vocabulary acquisition difficulty for Chinese learners of English into five categories, which were through a continuum from comparatively easy to extremely difficult.

IV. THE EMPIRICAL STUDY

A. Research Questions and Hypothesis

(a). Research Questions

Connectionists believe that adult learners of a second language have different acquisition mechanisms from children in native language acquisition, because second language learners start to acquire the target language after native language patterns are firmly established in the brain. Hence, they will inevitably encounter native language influence and language transfer.

The purpose of this study is to address the following questions:

RQ1: Can the connectionist model explain the language transfer process in Chinese learners' English vocabulary acquisition?

RQ2: Can enough frequency of input and timely correction facilitate learners' second language acquisition more efficiently?

The questions are worth answering with particular regard to Chinese university students, who comprise considerable Chinese ESL learners and have been struggling with English learning since elementary school.

(b). Hypothesis

It is hypothesized that enough frequency of language input and timely correction can facilitate learners' second language vocabulary acquisition more effectively.

The English teacher will vary the teaching methods with the classes. In the Experimental Group, the teacher will use the connectionist teaching method (as hypothesized). In contrast, in the Control Group, the teacher will continue to apply the traditional teaching method as before (mainly based on the Grammar Translation Method).

B. Research Design

(a). Subjects

The subjects of the study were first year non-English major university students from two natural classes (one for Experimental Group, the other for Control Group) in Business School and Criminal Investigation School. All students participated in 15-week classroom-based research. The subjects of the two classes were randomly from 31 provinces of China, aged 18 to 21. Before the experiment, they were in the same learning background of the English language: the same learning period, the same beginning book, and the same teacher. None had been informed that they would be selected for a teaching experiment.

(b). Materials

According to the university teaching program, non-English major students had three periods (2 hours) of English class per week this semester.

In the Experimental Group: as the connectionist teaching method suggests, the teacher designed teaching plans and collected specific materials to create a rich, contextualized, and naturally-occurring language environment. The teaching materials were mainly from the current English textbook, in which the passages cover the six hierarchical aspects in proper difficulty. Additionally, the teacher added necessarily relative complementary language materials from *A Course of New English Grammar* (Zhang & Dai，2016) and *Language and Culture* (Deng & Liu，2018).

In the Control Group: in this class, the teacher still adopted the same English textbook and traditional teaching method, *A Course of New English Grammar* (Zhang & Dai，2016), for reference.

(c). Method

1. Stages of the Experiment

The teaching experiment started from March 2nd to June 8th, 2022, for fifteen weeks, which consisted of three stages that both the Experimental Group and the Control Group experienced: (1) pre-test at the beginning of the experiment, (2) teaching activities in the whole experiment, (3) post-test at the end of the experiment.

2. Between-Group Design

All the students in the two classes were scored on two vocabulary tests: pre-test (before experimental teaching activities) and post-test (after experimental teaching activities). This study focused on three data pairs, so they were abbreviated respectively for convenience: 1. E (the pre-test scores of the original 40 students), C (the pre-test scores of the original 39 students); 2. E1 (the pre-test scores of 30 subjects in the Experimental Group), C1 (the pre-test scores of 30 subjects in the Control Group); 3. E2 (the post-test scores of 30 subjects in the Experimental Group), C2 (the post-test scores of 30 subjects in the Control Group). Between-group comparisons showed that E1 and C1 were at nearly the same level. Provided E1 and C1 do not differ significantly but E2 and C2 differ significantly, we can conclude that the connectionist teaching method is notably more effective than the traditional one in promoting Chinese ESL learners' second language vocabulary acquisition. Moreover, the Connectionist view has explanatory power on language transfer.

3. Statistic Analysis Methods

First, subjects for the empirical study were selected. Although all the students in EG and CG participated in the whole

experiment process, including the pre-test, teaching procedure, and post-test, some were trimmed out of the further experiment list. When we obtained the data in the pre-test, we chose the intermediate-level students with the same number in both classes. The scoring was reliable because the vocabulary test topics were chosen randomly from CET4 papers and grammar books. We applied the Cronbach's Alpha test in SPSS 26.0 to the scores of the subjects in the Experimental Group and the Control Group to ensure reliability. Moreover, the two vocabulary tests should be at the same difficulty level, so we randomly selected ten students from other schools of the university to complete the pre-test and the post-test within 80 minutes. Then we used the scores to conduct a paired-sample T-test to ensure that the difficulty of both pre-test and post-test were at the same level.

Independent-samples T-tests were used to make a between-group study (EG vs. CG in the pre-test and the post-test) to see if there was any difference between the EG and the CG in the pre-test and post-test. Exactly, there should be seven times T-tests separately for the six different sections and the total scores. We hypothesize that seven times T-tests demonstrate that subjects' scores in the Experimental Group and Control Group do not significantly differ in the pre-test but in the post-test.

(d). Procedure

1. Teaching Activities

The connectionist teaching method was applied to teaching English vocabulary in the Experimental Group. In contrast, the traditional way of teaching vocabulary (presentation and production) was applied in the Control Group by the same teacher and using the same teaching time frame (2 hours of English lesson per week for each class).

(1). Teaching Activities in the EG:

According to the connectionist teaching model, the classroom procedure for the Experiment Group was composed of three stages: training preparation phase, training phase, and consolidation phase. In the training preparation phase, it was necessary to raise students' consciousness of the general rules of the target language and to activate the schematic knowledge. To achieve the pre-training goal, we asked students to collect materials comparing Chinese and English vocabulary before class. The teacher guided them to present their findings through designed activities, such as group discussion, class reports, and presentations.

In the second phase, after the preparation in the first step, students gained a general understanding and awareness of the differences between Chinese and English vocabulary rules, so the teacher encouraged them to optimize their previous vocabulary learning methods. The training process comprised the following steps: firstly, students were asked to preview the learning materials and figure out difficult language points, because self-preparation would help them pay more attention to the languages phenomena (e.g., vocabulary rules); secondly, after the teacher briefly introduced the background information, learning points were presented, and those materials related to vocabulary acquisition became the target of specific drills. The vocabulary acquisition practice was organized in the following steps respectively:

Figure 3 Training Model for New Category
(not influenced by native language)

If the knowledge is a new category in a second language, students have no such pre-learning experience, which means there is no similar pattern in the native language. The teacher would keep enough input frequency to help students foster relative networks and patterns of the second language (as shown in Figure 3).
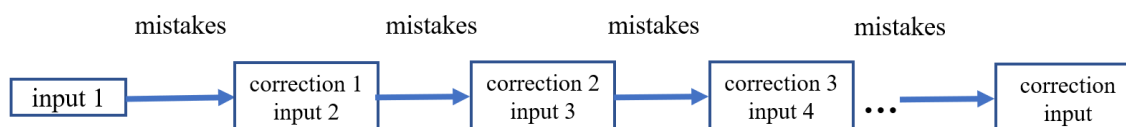
Figure 4 Training Model for Differentiation Category
(influenced by native language)

When the knowledge is a differentiation category including one-many, many-one, absent, and coalescing categories, the students will inevitably be interfered with by the previous firmly established native language patterns and thus make mistakes. In addition to the input frequency, the teacher should then pay attention to correcting language errors timely (as shown in Figure 4).

The last stage was the reflection and consolidation stage. Students were directed to reflect upon their performances. The activities in this stage included the teacher's explanation, exercises, tests, and assignments. Therefore, according to the research goal, the teacher should predict the difficulty levels of language materials in advance and design specific

and appropriate teaching plans and activities.

The study covered all the language materials (Unit 1 to Unit 5) in the fifteen experimental weeks. We take "Unit 1 How I got smart?" as an example to explain the experimental group's teaching procedures.

(1) At the beginning, two or three students were asked to share views on their teachers and list the differences in interpersonal relationships between "students – students" and "students – teachers" in both the Chinese and English cultures.

(2) Then, the teacher briefly introduced the background information, analyzed the organization of the text, and outlined the main language points.

(3) After students were more familiar with the text and language points, a set of exercises were designed for practicing (focusing on vocabulary acquisition), such as making dialogues with given words and drawing a vocabulary tree with relative Chinese and English expressions. Throughout the process, the teacher did not teach vocabulary rules but instead provided enough language materials for students to practice and find rules on their own.

(4) Debate was arranged at the end of the class after students could handle most of the language problems. The topic was "Self-driven force is more helpful than external encouragement for a person to face challenges." At this stage, the teacher was mainly an observer who would only offer a few suggestions in the process of debate. Afterward, the teacher commented on the students' performance, pointed out the language errors, and promptly corrected these mistakes.

(5) Students were assigned an after-class project to go further and do self-study on the relationship between "talent, hard work and success". They were asked to write an essay covering these vocabulary rules and main ideas they had just learned as a consolidation exercise.

(2). Teaching Activities in the CG:

The Control Group received the traditional Grammar Translation approach in English class. The teaching plan was illustrated as presentation, practice, and production. In the first stage, the teacher explained language points (e.g., grammar rules and vocabulary rules) in the native language to maximize the chances that the underlying rule would be understood and internalized. Secondly, students were asked to memorize language rules arranged by the teacher and do translation work. Finally, specific assignment based on vocabulary rules was given to students both in or after class, and the teacher collected the feedback from students' works.

"Unit 1 How I got smart?" was still an example of teaching activities in the Control Group.

(1). Check students' preview works. Students were also required to collect related information about the relationship between "talent, hard work and success"; then, the teacher asked several students to share their views, such as experiences of overcoming troubles and ways to stay optimistic and set up life goals.

(2). The teacher gave a background introduction and guided students through the text. Vocabulary rules in the text were marked out and explained in the native language, and students were asked to take the notes as the reciting materials later. For example, there was a word "hated" in "On the contrary, I hated compulsory education with a passion. …" Teacher listed the spelling rules of regular and irregular verbs: (1) "want" + "ed" (common verbs), (2) "invite" + "d" (verbs ended with letter "e"), (3) "study"→"stud" + "ied" (verb ended with "consonant + y"), (4) "thin" →"thinn" + "ed" (verbs ended with stress syllable and consonant letter), and then students were asked to memorize the rules.

(3). After the teacher presented these language rules in the class, relevant practices were incorporated to reinforce what they had learned. Translating English (Chinese) sentences into Chinese (English) has been the primary method for students to practice and apply language rules in formal situations, so students were required to do a set of English – Chinese translation works. Additionally, students were asked to do pair works such as making dialogues with given words to internalize the newly grasped vocabulary rules. These translation exercises were designed both in and after class.

2. Pre-Test and Post-Test

The EG and CG learning hours of English classes were guaranteed per week. Besides, each test was given at the beginning and end of the teaching experiment. The pre-test was designed to assess students' language level of second language vocabulary acquisition before the teaching experiment. The post-test was conducted at the end of the study to measure the subjects' final language level after the teaching experiment. Each test consisted of six sections representing the five difficulty levels in the hierarchy (Table 1). The duration of each test was forty minutes.

(1). Pre-Test

In the beginning, the pre-tests were conducted in the experimental and control classes. All the students in these two classes were required to finish the test of six sections in the same test environment.

No student was absent from this test, so it was possible to select 60 subjects from 79 students. These students (30 in each class) were selected as subjects according to the intermediate level of the scores for the Experimental Group and the Control Group.

(2). Post-Test

Approximately 75.95% of students were chosen as the subjects of the intermediate level of the experiment according

to their scores. At the end of the teaching experiment, another test was conducted in the same test environment, which also consisted of six sections of vocabulary rules. All 79 students participated in the test, but only the 60 subjects' scores were recorded for further analysis.

C. Results and Data Analysis

(a). Results of Pre-Test

The total score of both pre-test and post-test was 100 points, composed of six sections. In detail, section I 20 points, section II 20 points, section III 10 points, section IV 20 points, section V 20 points, and section VI 10 points.

Although all the students from the two classes participated in the whole experiment process, not all of them were selected as the subjects. That is to say, only the intermediate-level students were marked as subjects to ensure that the levels of subjects in the Experimental Group and the Control Group were not significantly different in language use before the teaching experiment. The average score of the two classes in the pre-test was 49.62069, so 15 students above and 15 below the average score were selected out of each class. Thus these 60 students were the subjects of this experiment.

Before the experiment, a paired samples T-test was conducted to testify the two test papers, to ensure the pre-test and post-test were at the same difficulty level and the six sections were respectively at the same level. We selected ten students with the same English background, age, and grade as the subjects to do the pre-test and the post-test within 40 minutes. Scores, including the total and these of the respective sections, were taken out to have a paired sample T-test to ensure that the two test papers and the six sections were at the same difficulty level. In Table 2 below, for Pair 1, the analysis of the total scores from pre-test and post-test shows that df = 9, t = .000, P = 1.000 which means the ten students' total scores of pre-test were the same as in the post-test by coincidence, so the two items of total scores did not differ at all; for Pair 2 to Pair 7, df are all "9" and $t_2 = .279$, $p_2 = .782$; $t_3 = .320$, $p_3 = .761$; $t_4 = -.316$, $p_4 = .726$; $t_5 = -1.5000$, $p_5 = .168$, $t_6 = .176$, $p_6 = .864$, $t_7 = 1.5000$, $p_7 = .168$. The results show that the ten students did not significantly differ in performance and vocabulary competence in the pre-test and post-test. Accordingly, we concluded that the two test papers and the six sections of vocabulary categories were at the same level in difficulty.

TABLE 2
PAIRED SAMPLES TEST ON THE DIFFICULTY LEVEL OF PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST PAPERS
PAIRED SAMPLES TEST

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 total 1-total2	.00000	2.47199	.81650	-1.84704	1.84704	.000	9	1.000
Pair 2 S(one)-S1	.10000	1.10060	.34801	-.68725	.88725	.279	9	.782
Pair 3 S(two)-S2	.10000	.99433	.31447	-.61137	.81137	.320	9	.761
Pair 4 S(three)-S3	-.10000	.87561	.27689	-.72636	.52636	-.361	9	.726
Pair 5 S(four)-S4	-.40000	.84319	.26667	-1.00324	.20324	-1.500	9	.168
Pair 6 S(five)-S5	-.10000	1.79173	.56667	-1.38189	1.18189	-.176	9	.864
Pair 7 S(six)-S6	.40000	.84281	.26667	-.20324	1.00324	1.500	9	.168

Then, a Cronbach Alpha test in SPSS 26.0 was applied to the scoring of the 60 subjects' proficiency in second language vocabulary to see if the scoring was reliable or not. As shown in Table 3, the test was reliable with Cronbach's Alpha .821.

TABLE 3
RELIABILITY ANALYSIS OF PRE-TEST
RELIABILITY STATISTICS

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.821	8

Afterward, an independent samples T-test at the .05 level was employed to compare the scores of subjects assigned to the Experimental Group and those of subjects assigned to the Control Group, to see whether the two groups differ significantly. In Table 4, the Experimental Group and Control Group did not differ in their variances, for $P_{total} = .301$, $P_{S1} = .720$, $P_{S2} = .911$, $P_{S3} = .451$, $P_{S4} = .931$, $P_{S5} = .443$, $P_{S6} = .957$. Moreover, the two groups did not differ in their means of scores:

t_{total} (58) 0.05 = -.242 (two-tailed), $P_{total} = .810$;

t_{s1} (58) 0.05 = .273 (two-tailed), $P_{S1} = .784$;

t_{s2} (58) 0.05 = .250 (two-tailed), P_{S2} = .802;
t_{s3} (58) 0.05 = .320 (two-tailed), P_{s3} = .748;
t_{s4}(58) 0.05 = -.291 (two-tailed), P_{s4} = .770;
t_{s5} (58) 0.05 = .660 (two-tailed), P_{s5} = .512;
t_{s6} (58) 0.05 = -.551 (two-tailed), P_{s6} = .583.

Moreover, the mean difference was very slight, as demonstrated in Table 4. The results indicated that the 30 students selected for the Experimental Group were at the same level of vocabulary competence as the other 30 students in the Control Group at the beginning of the experiment.

TABLE 4
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST ON PRE-TEST SCORES OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP AND CONTROL GROUP
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-test Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-dtailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper
total	Equal variances assumed	1.087	.301	-.242	58	.810	-.36667	1.51656	-3.40240	2.66906
	Equal variances not assumed			-.242	56.162	.810	-.36667	1.51656	-3.40451	2.67118
section 1	Equal variances assumed	.128	.720	.273	58	.784	.13333	.48597	.83944	1.10611
	Equal variances not assumed			.273	57.656	.784	.13333	.48597	.83957	1.10624
section 2	Equal variances assumed	.013	.911	.250	58	.802	.26667	1.06152	-1.85819	2.39153
	Equal variances not assumed			.250	57.675	.802	.26667	1.06152	-1.85845	2.39178
section 3	Equal variances assumed	.576	.451	-.320	58	.748	-.13333	.41477	-.96358	.69691
	Equal variances not assumed			-.320	57.366	.748	-.13333	.41477	-.96377	.69711
section 4	Equal variances assumed	.007	.931	-.291	58	.770	-.13333	.45654	-1.04720	.78053
	Equal variances not assumed			-.291	57.838	.770	-.13333	.45654	-1.04725	.78059
section 5	Equal variances assumed	.598	.443	-.660	58	.512	-.33333	.50393	-1.34206	-.67539
	Equal variances not assumed			-.660	57.768	.512	-.33333	.50393	-1.34215	-.67548
section 6	Equal variances assumed	.003	.957	-.551	58	-.583	-.16667	.30280	-.77278	.43945
	Equal variances not assumed			-.551	57.909	-.583	-.16667	.30280	-.77280	.43947

(b). Results of Post-Test

Similarly, a Cronbach Alpha test was also made on the post-test scoring of the 60 subjects' proficiency in second language vocabulary. The result shows that the scoring was reliable, with Cronbach's Alpha as high as .878.

TABLE 5
RELIABILITY ANALYSIS OF POST-TEST
RELIABILITY STATISTICS

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.878	8

In addition, an independent samples T-test at the .05 level was made on the scores of subjects in the Experimental Group and the Control Group, and the significance was considered by single-tailed. Table 6 shows that subjects in the Experimental Group and Control group significantly differed from each other in total scores, section 2, section 3, section 4, section 5, and section 6, for P_{total}, P_{s2}, P_{s3}, P_{s4}, and P_{s6} = .000 < .05, P_{s5} = .0174 < .05, except P_{s1} = .216 > .05. The results strongly supported the hypothesis: section I was a test of correspondence category which could be easily acquired and native language had little adverse influence on it, so subjects from the two groups did not differ from each other in their performance of this part, but section 2 to section 6 were differentiation categories, as hypothesized, the teacher should guarantee enough frequency of input and timely correct students' language errors to promote students' learning outcomes in second language vocabulary acquisition. Therefore, the Experimental Group subjects were significantly better than the Control Group subjects.

TABLE 6
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST ON POST-TEST SCORES OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP AND CONTROL GROUP
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-test Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-dtailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
total	Equal variances assumed	5.387	.024	6.094	58	.000	14.56667	2.39044	9.78168	19.35166
	Equal variances not assumed			6.094	51.148	.000	14.56667	2.39044	9.76799	19.36534
section 1	Equal variances assumed	.094	.762	-.795	58	.216	-.36667	.46109	-1.28964	.55631
	Equal variances not assumed			-.795	57.901	.216	-.36667	.46109	-1.28968	.55634
section 2	Equal variances assumed	.000	.983	9.227	58	.000	8.10000	.87785	6.34280	9.85720
	Equal variances not assumed			9.227	56.939	.000	8.10000	.87785	6.34210	9.85790
section 3	Equal variances assumed	1.512	.224	4.932	58	.000	1.66667	.33790	.99029	2.34305
	Equal variances not assumed			4.932	56.156	.000	1.66667	.33790	.98981	2.34305
section 4	Equal variances assumed	.904	.345	3.911	58	.000	2.20000	.56256	1.07391	3.32609
	Equal variances not assumed			3.911	55.664	.000	2.20000	.56256	1.07290	3.32710
section 5	Equal variances assumed	1.395	.242	2.162	58	.0174	1.53333	.70911	.11390	2.95277
	Equal variances not assumed			2.162	57.306	.0174	1.53333	.70911	.11353	2.95313
section 6	Equal variances assumed	9.714	.003	4.911	58	.000	1.43333	.28721	.85842	2.00825
	Equal variances not assumed			4.911	45.387	.000	1.43333	.28721	.85500	2.01167

The above analysis found that by applying the connectionist teaching method to the Experimental Group for fifteen weeks, the 30 subjects made considerable progress in second language vocabulary acquisition. Other things being equal, except for the teaching approach, the mean score of the EG in the post-test was significantly higher than the one of the CG, which supported the hypothesis that enough input and appropriate correction would facilitate the students' competence in second language vocabulary acquisition.

D. Discussion

The connectionist model focuses on the dynamic process of second language acquisition rather than language rules learning. It believes previous learning experience has influences on the later learning input; that is to say, before acquiring a second language, learners have stored native language forms in their brain with fixed probabilistic patterns; the longer the native language is used, the more chances its probabilistic patterns will be activated, and the weight of native language knowledge will gradually increase. In learning a second language, the fixed native language pattern is probably activated if the second language has similar elements, and then language transfer occurs. If the transfer

patterns are different, the difference will hinder both learners' learning speed and accuracy in using the second language.

According to connectionist views on native language transfer in second language acquisition, our empirical study aims to answer two questions: whether the connectionist model has explanatory power on native language transfer in a natural teaching environment for Chinese ESL university students? And can the connectionist teaching methods enhance students' learning efficiency? The data demonstrated that subjects of EG significantly differed from the other 30 students of CG in vocabulary tests. In EG, the teacher adopted a connectionist teaching method to promote students' competence in second language vocabulary acquisition. Language materials were classified into different vocabulary categories based on the relative hierarchy of difficulty; specific teaching plans and practice organization were designed to facilitate students' vocabulary acquisition. During the teaching process, language materials were frequently and repeatedly presented to the students, who were required to practice in various forms.

Meanwhile, the teacher had timely correction of students' language mistakes. The teacher continued the traditional teaching method in the CG through presentation, practice, and consolidation. Apparently, and most importantly, the different ways of practice in EG and CG directly resulted in the subjects' divergence of vocabulary competence.

V. CONCLUSION

A. Findings and Implications

The empirical study conducted in the Experimental Group and Control Group found that no matter whether L2 words were introduced directly or indirectly, learners began acquiring words by processing those words as input, focusing on how and when target words were presented. Learners could not use a new word unless they had opportunities to perceive and process the form of the word and to activate at least some component of the word's meaning. Before learners can use target words, they need to process the new words as input in one way or another.

Unless alternative methods of processing new words were provided, students often looked up new L2 language points on vocabulary lists in textbooks as an initial learning way. In fact, many other approaches to presenting new L2 vocabulary as input are available. For example, by direct instruction, vocabulary can be introduced by pictures or drawings, pointing to and discussing real-world items, or providing definitions of target words and expressions. By indirect context-based instruction, vocabulary can be presented during topic discussions, while telling stories, or within reading passages. In addition to the basic need for new words to be presented as the input, presenting them frequently and regularly is also quite critical. We believe that all other things being equal, the memory for information will depend on the number of times learners have encountered or studied it. It has precisely illustrated connectionist views on language transfer: native language does influence second language acquisition, and enough frequency of input and corrections can help learners to overcome it. Positive effects of increased exposure to L2 words have been demonstrated in text-based and direct vocabulary learning (Hulstijn et al., 1996; Wu & Dredze, 2019).

B. Limitations

(a). Limitations of the Connectionist Model

The connectionist model cannot account for all areas of human cognition, although many try to resist external explanations. The connectionist model is good at the lower level of cognition, such as content addressability, low-level perception, and spontaneous generalization. However, there has been little success in discovering such examples at higher levels of cognition. We should not be trying to explain all things at all levels. Nevertheless, we could fall back on the idea of levels: capturing syntactic structure, developmental sequences, non-human behavior, and differences from symbolic processing.

(b). Limitations of the Empirical Study

Admittedly, with subjective and objective constraints during the experiment and as tentative and small-scale research, this study has some limitations.

This empirical research dealt with a minimal English learning population; that is, the samples were not large enough. Therefore, the results of the present study might not apply to students with different learning backgrounds. Furthermore, this drawback may affect the generalization of the teaching experimentation. Besides, the duration of the experiment was merely fifteen weeks, so it might be doubted whether the same results would still emerge in a longitudinal study. Also, the teaching object in the present study only focused on the English vocabulary rules. We still need to explore and answer whether the results apply to other types of language rules, such as phonologic, semantic, and syntactic rules.

We sincerely hope that, rather than being seen simply as a drawback in the present study, these limitations will be used as the ground for future research.

C. Further Research Suggestions

Since the present study is not perfect, using the connectionist teaching method remains an intriguing proposal that needs further study. The following are some suggestions. Firstly, we should conduct a longitudinal study to test the effectiveness of the connectionist teaching method in the language teaching field. Secondly, we should try to include a larger population with different backgrounds to find shreds of evidence for or against the applicability of the

connectionist teaching method. Finally, the present study involves university students who have learned English for several years and have reached the intermediate level. Attempts might be made to see whether the connectionist teaching method can also be applied to students at elementary levels.

So far, the short-term effects of the connectionist teaching method in teaching vocabulary rules have been recognized in this study. However, deciding which mode is more suitable for a particular group of students is sophisticated. Efforts should be made to prove the application or combination of different modes of instruction.

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Li Zhang, born in Chongqing, China in 1981, received her master's degree in Applied Linguistics in 2006 from Southwest University, China.

She is currently a lecturer at the Foreign Languages School at Southwest University of Political Science and Law, Chongqing, China.

Her research interests include second language acquisition, discourse analysis, and legal English translation. Her publications include:

On Application of Flipped Classroom in Engineering Professional English Teaching. Journal of Southwest China Normal University, *43*(8), 2018.

On Application of Corpus-Based Method in Engineering Professional English Teaching, Journal of Southwest China Normal University, *42*(10), 2017.

The Velar-Lips in *jafʕal* Form of Arabic Present Tense

Abdul Azim Mohamad Isa
Universiti Teknologi Mara, Malaysia

Zawawi Ismail
Universiti Malaya, Malaysia

Muhammad Arsyad Abdul Majid
Universiti Teknologi Mara, Malaysia

Muhamad Zaidi Zakaria
Universiti Teknologi Mara, Malaysia

Syazwan Naim Ibrahim
Universiti Malaya, Malaysia

Muhammad Hatta Shafri
Universiti Teknologi Mara, Malaysia

Abstract—**Arabic has three main vowels, which are the vowel /a/ (*fathah*), the vowel /i/ (*kasrah*), and the vowel /u/ (*dˤammah*). This study analyses the vowels of the Arabic Present Tense in *jafʕal* form which is related to the arrangement of letters. This study aims at helping Arabic language students who have difficulty determining the correct vowel of the three vowel fractions. In addition, this study can help linguists in general and Arabic linguists in particular to determine the vowel reading of the letter *ʕayn* (ع) on the active verb pattern of modern Arabic *jafʕal* which is divided into vowels /a/ (*fathah*), vowel /i/ (*kasrah*), and the vowel /u/ (*dˤammah*). This study applies a qualitative method. Al-Khali:l dictionary and al-Maʔaniy online dictionary were referred for data collection. Three syllable active verbs were analyzed as vowels for these three syllable active verbs in Arabic will change to three different vowels in the Present Tense of the verb. Based on the phonological method proposed by El-Wadi (2005), the analysis focused on the arrangement of the letters *ʕayn* (ع) in the Past Tense verb which is processed from the phonological method pioneered by Chomsky and Halle (1968). Clearly, the findings of the study have shown that there are effects on the vowel on the *ʕayn* (ع) active verb of the Arabic Present Tense caused by the arrangement of *ʕayn* (ع) on the active Arabic verb of the past. At the same time, this study provides an alternative that shows that the vowels at the position of the letter *ʕayn* (ع) of the active Arabic verb of the present time are non-random.**

Index Terms—**vowels, Arabic, active verbs, phonological rule, present tense**

I. INTRODUCTION

One of the key components of learning the Arabic language is to learn and master its phonological rules. Yet, the students tend to struggle with Arabic language reading skills accurately despite having undergone intensive Arabic lessons for years ever since their early primary school days. Thus, they have for instance, a rather unsatisfying performance in Arabic writing. Nurazan et al (2020) argued that reading is a very crucial process that needs to be grasped and students of the Arabic language often have issues with their Arabic reading. Students of the Arabic language mostly come from religious schools and learned *tajweed* since primary school. *Tajweed* is a set of rules for the correct pronunciation of the letters with all their qualities and applying the various traditional methods of *Quran's* recitation. Yet they are unable to make use of *tajweed* knowledge in reading Arabic language texts. Studies on skills in reading Arabic texts pay attention to the ending vowels of each word such that they neglect the vowels on verbs that are also important elements in Arabic texts. This study focuses on the use of existing *tajweed* principles known to Arabic language students so that this knowledge can help them develop skills in reading active verbs in the Arabic language based on *tajweed* principles of topic articulation *ʕayn* (ع).

A. Categories of Verbs

Three syllable active verbs in the Arabic language are divided into three categories, namely *faʕala*, *faʕila*, and *faʕula* (Hamdani, 2010). Then, these categories change when in Present Tense (Al-Asbahy & Aleemudin, 2016). Category

faʕala changes into three types of Present Tense, namely *jafʕal*, *jafʕil*, and *jafʕul*. The category *faʕila* can change into two possible types, namely *jafʕal* and *jafʕil*. While the category *faʕula* can only change into one Present Tense type, namely *jafʕul*. These changes are not based on certain rules and were determined by the following usage by previous speakers (Al-Hilwani, 2008; Taha & Haddad, 2017). The following Table 1 gives examples of changes in category from Past Tense to Present Tense:

TABLE 1

Past Tense	Example of verb	Present Tense	Example of verb
faʕala	*samaħa*	*jafʕal*	*Jasmaħu*
faʕala	*ħaðifa*	*jafʕil*	*Jaħðifu*
faʕala	*kataba*	*jafʕul*	*Jaktubu*
faʕila	*samiʕa*	*jafʕal*	*jasmaʕu*
faʕila	*ħasiba*	*jafʕil*	*Jaħsibu*
faʕula	*ħasuna*	*jafʕul*	*Jaħsunu*

This study offers a solution to the problem of determining the vowels for the letters in ʕayn (ع) for the active verb in the Arabic language jafʕal Present Tense among non-native speakers of Arabic in general, and also helps the students of Arabic in particular. This is because there is one principle in the Arabic language saying that shaping morphology and vowel on the Arabic language words is based on the usage of listening to (sima:ijj) speakers in the past (Al-Hilwani, 2008). This principle helps in reading the vowel at the place of the letter ʕayn (ع) correctly if they memorize certain verbs and often use these verbs in sentence construction or speech (Issa, 2022). Difficulty in reading the vowel at the place of the letter ʕayn (ع) occurs in rarely used active verbs and confusion happens in determining the correct vowel.

This study focuses on changes from category faʕala and faʕila only because the category faʕula will change to only one namely jafʕul in the Present Tense. The faʕala category may change into three possible categories in the Present Tense, namely jafʕal, jafʕil, and jafʕul. The faʕila category may change into two categories namely jafʕal and jafʕil in Present Tense. These two mentioned categories need analysis to determine the vowel for placement of ʕayn (ع) in the Present Tense.

B. Articulation

An articulation tool is a speech tool or tool involved in producing language sounds. Articulation tools are divided into two parts, namely articulator and area of articulation (Al-Bahansawi, 2005). The articulator is a part of the articulation tool that can be moved such as the tongue, lips, and lower teeth placed the lower part of the oral cavity (Al-Solami, 2013; Al-Ghamdi, 2015). Areas of articulation include the upper teeth, gums, hard and soft palate (Archangeli & Pulleyblank, 2022). These areas of speech tools are found in the upper oral cavity that cannot be moved and can only be approached or touched in the process of producing language sounds (Hasmadi, 2011).

Lip articulation is a component of the articulator. Lip articulation is placed outside the oral cavity and can obstruct the airflow and is divided into two parts namely lower and upper lips (Kkese, 2022). The lips function as the gatekeepers of the oral cavity. The upper lip (passive) cooperates with the lower lip (active) and top teeth, in generating sounds, for example: phonemes [p], [b], [w], [m], [f], and [v]. The lower lip can be lifted to close the oral cavity with the upper lip. The widening and rounding produce different language sounds. The lips also can block airflow out of the oral cavity (Dixon, 2002).

The back part of the tongue is going up and touching the soft palate is velar. The English sounds [k], [g], [ŋ] are velar sounds (Rahman, 2020), and the additional sound for Arabic velar is sound [q]. The tongue's ability to do the motions associated with trills or taps is severely constrained when it is in the velar position, and the body of the tongue lacks the mobility to move swiftly enough to produce a velar trill or flap. Because the soft palate area of the palate is relatively large and the movement of the back is not very accurate, the soft palate is easily absorbed and shifts the joint back and forth depending on the quality of the adjacent vowels (Dixon, 2002). Before a subsequent front vowel, they frequently automatically become fronted, which means partially or totally palatal, and retracted, which means partially or entirely uvular, before back vowels. This aligns with the division of articulation suggested by El-Wadi (2005) who placed the sounds dʒim, qaf, and kaf (ج, ق, ك) in specific articulation different from other articulations, namely the dorsals.

Hence, this study outlines three clear objectives. First, analyz e the percentage of vowels in Present Tense Arabic verbs jafʕal based on the arrangement of the place of articulation. Second, to analyze the vowels in the Arabic verbs based on the arrangement of articulation patterns. Third, producing the method of reading vowels correctly for Present Tense Arabic verbs. The Arabic grammar restricted by principles of usage by past speakers will now be explained more systematically with the modern phonological approach and linguistic theory. These objectives are designed to answer these three questions: 1- How is the vowel frequency of Arabic Present Tense in jafʕal form based on the arrangement of the place of articulation? 2- What types of vowels in Arabic Present Tense in jafʕal form are produced from the arrangement of articulation pattern? And 3- What is the correct method of producing the correct vowel for Arabic Present Tense in jafʕal form?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Although both phonetics and phonology are concerned with the study of language, linguists have traditionally considered them separate fields of study (Levis & Munro, 2012). Phonetics covers the physical aspects of speech production and its relationship to speech recognition, while phonology deals with the functional and systematic properties of sounds in a particular language (Zahid, 2021). Understanding phonological rules and their purposes can help us comprehend our languages more clearly because they are a necessary component of all language communication, whether it be spoken or written. (Qadoury, 2022) Understanding the Arabic phoneme is essential to comprehending the function of phonological rules. A phoneme, in accordance with conventional phonological theories, is the smallest unit of a language's sound system (Naifah, 2018).

Yusuf et al. (2015) found that a concerted effort is needed for determining the vowel in the letter ʕayn (ع) position besides having to memorize the vowel for all letters occupying the letter ʕayn (ع) position in the Present Tense verb of form yafʔal. Assignment of vowels can also be done through the approach of similarity if the verb built from letters is almost similar, such as the arrangement of the letter dal (د) and qaf (ق) with ðal (ذ) and qaf (ق). The vowel /u/ (dhommah) in the letter ʕayn (ع) position occurs more frequently than the vowel /i/ (kasrah).

Dollah and Azlina (2014) support the opinion of Ibn Jinni (2000) in line with modern phonology that the vowel ʕayn (ع) Past Tense differs from the vowel Present Tense, unless other factors exist, such as the placement of letter ʕayn (ع) such as the letter is built from letters arising from uvular articulation that produces the vowel /a/ (fathah) in the place of letter ʕayn (ع) in Present Tense. They also support the opinion of Ibn Jinni that the function of a verb in speech influences the vowel in Past Tense whether vowel /a/ (fathah), vowel /i/ (kasrah, or vowel /u/ (dˤammah). Dialect also influences the vowel for the letter placed in the ʕayn (ع) Present Tense position. They also stated that many past and modern language experts concluded that these verbs have six patterns determined by language experts in the past. Because the patterns were not fixed, the vowel of the letter ʕayn (ع) Present Tense was seen as determined only by the usage of past speakers.

Idris (2014) clarified that vowels /a/, /i/, and /u/ when in active verb Present Tense jafʕal are based on the function and meaning of the verb. Vowel /a/ is for verbs having the meaning or related to fear, obstacles, hurting, cutting, giving, caring, leaving, and hating. The vowel /i/ is used when the verb means demanding, determining, journeying, voice, thirst, cutting, and giving. Whereas vowel /u/ is for tranquillity, nutrition, work, fear, sound, movement, height, and ending/finishing. His study shows that sameness occurs in several verb meanings such as cutting, giving, fearing, and some other words (Anis, 1999). This poses problems for students since the vowel only depends on, or is determined by, the meaning of the verb. The findings could not effectively help students because they had limited vocabulary and so they could not put the correct vowelization for the letter ʕayn (ع) unless they knew the verb meaning.

Skill in reading the Arabic language involves skill in determining the vowel for each letter, whether for verb, noun, or adjective. Because of this, students face problems in reading Arabic texts correctly (Syazri, 2021). Many studies related to skills in reading Arabic texts have been carried out from various aspects (Ilmiani & Delima, 2021).

Abdul et al. (2017) found that teachers rarely vary their teaching activities when teaching reading skills such as using authentic objects in explaining word meanings. Similarly with the use of synonyms, antonyms, and matching words with pictures. In essence, using real objects in explaining word meaning can reinforce students' memory when they memorize the Arabic language vocabulary (Syahri, 2020). The drawback of this approach is that it is only suited to words involving nouns in the Arabic language and is limited to certain words only.

Through the researcher's experience, among the other aspects often neglected is the method of determining vowels in verbs when reading Arabic language texts. Verbs in Arabic language have many shapes and are made of three main vowels (Abdelgadir, 2021), namely /a/ (fathah), /i/ (kasrah) and /u/ (dˤammah). Problems often arise when students fail to determine the right vowel for the verb encountered in the text. Various studies and suggestions have been presented and offered to overcome this problem. Nevertheless, students still fail to assign the right vowel when reading Arabic texts. Past studies focused on grammar for individual words by taking varied approaches (Maziyah, 2018). Yet until today students still are burdened by failure to assign the right vowels when reading Arabic texts. The current study is thus focused on tajweed rules (tajweed rules) that can be used by students to overcome the problem of determining vowels for verbs in reading Arabic texts without vowel signs. The tajweed rules learned during primary school can be used as a guideline for determining vowels when reading Arabic language texts. Problems in reading Arabic texts are related to a lack of knowledge in relating tajweed rules and techniques reading Arabic texts. This is a great loss because tajweed rules learned in the past are not applied when reading unvowelled Arabic texts hence causing errors (wrong vowels) when reading Arabic texts.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study was done using qualitative methodology, using the generative phonetic theory (Chomsky & Halle, 1968) and based on the framework adopted by Ibn Jinni (2000) and adapted by El-Wadi (2005) in producing an approach or method of phonetics for determining the vowel in the letter ʕayn (ع) place in Present Tense jafʕal for Arabic verbs. The qualitative method was used because all three syllable verbs in a dictionary that relate to the research problem can be collected holistically. This was aimed at facilitating data analysis with correct data. Next, the identified data were analyzed guided by the theoretical framework. This qualitative study is a literature study based on documentary sources.

For data collection, the appropriate method used is document analysis rather than field study. Document analysis involves data and information collected by previous researchers. The researcher carried out documentary research by searching through existing data from al-xalīl dictionary as the sample for this study. The data only focused on consonant verbs without involving glide verbs because most of the Arabic glide verbs apply the deletion rule. The researcher needed to identify the arrangement of letters shaping the data. Subsequently, the data were classified according to articulation.

For data analysis, the researcher divided articulation into ten parts, namely lips (L) for the letters *faʔ, baʔ,* and *mim* (ف, ب, م) Coronal one (CR1) for letters *dal, taʔ,* and *tˁaʔ* (د، ت، ط ,), Coronal two (CR2) for letters *sin, sˁad,* and *zai* (س، ص، ز), Coronal three (CR3) for the letters *θaʔ, dzal,* and *Zhoʔ* (ث، ذ، ظ), Uvular one (U1) for letters *hamzah, Haʔ, ʕayn,* and *ħaʔ* (ء،هـ, ع , ح,) Uvular two (U2) for letters *xaʔ* and *ɣaʔ* ,((خ, غ.) velar (VR) for the letters *jim, qaf,* and *kaf* (ج, ق, كُ) Middle of tongue (MT) for the letter *tʃin* (,(ش Side of the tongue (ST) for the letter *dˁad* (ض) and Sonorant tongue tip (STT) for the letters *raʔ, lam,* and *nun* (.(ن , ل, ر (Al-Bahansawi, 2005). A summary of the categorization of articulation by the researcher is given in Table 2:

TABLE 2
ARTICULATION, CODE FOR EACH ARTICULATION, AND LETTER

Articulations	Code	Letters of the Alphabet	Articulations	Code	Letters of the Alphabet
Lips	L	*faʔ, baʔ* and *mim* (م، ب، ف)	Uvular two	U2	*xaʔ* and *ɣaʔ* (خ, غ.)
Coronal one	CR1	*dal, taʔ,* and *tˁaʔ* (د، ت، ط)	Velar	VR	*dʒim, qaf,* and *kaf* (ج, ق, كُ)
Coronal two	CR 2	*sin, sˁad,* and *zai* (س، ص، ز)	Middle of tongue	MT	*tʃin* (ش)
Coronal three	CR 3	*θaʔ, ðal,* dan *ðˁoʔ* (ث، ذ، ظ)	Side of tongue	ST	*dˁad* (ض)
Uvular one	U1	*hamzah, Haʔ, ʕayn,* and *ħaʔ* (ء، هـ, ع , ح)	Sonorant tongue tip	STT	*raʔ, lam,* and *nun* (ر, ل, ن)

Then, the data were arranged based on the arrangement of letters. The researcher used second letter placement as the main arrangement, placement of the third letter as the second arrangement, and placement of the first letter as the third arrangement category. This is in line with the findings of Ibn Jinni (2000), El-Wadi (2005), Dollah and Azlina (2014), and Yusuf et al. (2015) who explained the position of the second and the third letters constructed from the epiglottis (Uvular one (U1)) articulation will produce the vowel /a/ for the letter in the second position. Then, the researcher categorized data into three categories, first vowel /a/ (*fathah*), second the vowel /i/ (*kasrah*), and third the vowel /u/ (*dˁammah*).

Subsequently, the phonological approach introduced by Chomsky and Halle (1968) based on the concept of generative linguistics was used for data analysis. Chomsky and Halle (1968) clarified that the phonological components contain a system rule relating the surface structure to phonetic representation. The phonology rule has the characteristic of permanence and specific arrangement. The phonological rule is as follows:

$$A \longrightarrow B / X \underline{\quad} Y]_k$$

This rule shows that element A will change to element B if A occurs between X and Y in the class of verbs. The arrow symbol means to change or transforms, while the underscore means the place of change occurs in the phonological rule.

El-Wadi (2005) revised this rule for the approach of Arabic language phonology that forms the basis of this study (Alotaibi, 2020). Based on Ibn Jinni (2000) stated that the vowel in a letter placed in *ʕayn* (ع) position in the Present Tense will be read with the vowel /a/ (*fathah*) if the letter that shapes the placement of *ʕayn* (ع) and *lam* (ل) is made up of a velar letter. The rule derived by El-Wadi is as in the following:

$$[+ \text{high}] \longrightarrow [+ \text{low}] / \underline{\quad} [+ \text{epiglottis}]$$

Isa (2019) refined the rule derived by El-Wadi (2005) as it only detailed the place of the vowel before the letter with the feature [+ epiglottis] (uvular) whereas the vowel after the letter [+ epiglottis] also takes the vowel /a/. The revised rule is:

$$[+ \text{Vowel}] \longrightarrow /a/ \quad / \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \underline{\quad} [+ \text{epiglottis}] \\ [+ \text{epiglottis}] \underline{\quad} \end{array} \right\}$$

Through this rule, the researcher produced other rules in determining the reading of vowel for the letter *ʕayn* (ع) in Present Tense verb *jafʕal* that is divided into vowels /a/, /i/, and /u/, considering that the rule of El-Wadi (2005) and Isa (2019) only involved vowel /a/ for the letter [+ epiglottis]. Determining this vowel was a research problem because there was no specific rule in the Arabic language for determining the change in vowel from Past Tense to Present Tense. The application of the phonological approach will be shown in the data analysis section which will focus on velar and lip articulation (*mim* (م) only).

IV. ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

Out of 3521 verbs involving consonants in Past Tense from *al-xali:l* dictionary, a table of three syllable verbs was arranged based on the arrangement of articulation that shaped each verb. Articulation found on the second syllable was the first focus of study followed by articulation on the third syllable position, ending with articulation for the first syllable position. This was the arrangement recommended by Ibn Jinni (2000) based on his observation of vowel /a/ that is positioned in the letter *ʕayn* (ع) in Present Tense verbs when the place of letter *ʕayn* (ع) and *lam* (ل) is shaped by letters arising from uvular (epiglottis) articulation, as in *hamzah, HaʔʕaynÎ,* and *ħaʔ* (ء, هـ, ع, ح).

Letters formed by velar articulation, namely *dʒim*, *qaf,* and *kaf* (ج, ق, ك) are placed in position *ʕayn* (ع) at three syllables consonant verbs numbered in total 417 data points. The category verb *faʕala* changes to *jafʕal* for 56 data points (13.43%), the change to verb *jafʕil* numbers 57 data points (13.67%), and the category verb *jafʕul* numbers 191 data points (45.8%). Meanwhile, for the verb type *faʕila*, some 113 data points (27.1%) showed a change to the type *jafʕal* without any change to the type *jafʕil*.

Past Tense		Present Tense Form	Frequency	Percentage (%)
faʕala	⟶	*jafʕal*	56	13.43
faʕala	⟶	*jafʕil*	57	13.67
faʕala	⟶	*jafʕul*	191	45.8
faʕila	⟶	*jafʕal*	113	27.1
faʕila	⟶	*jafʕil*	0	0
Total			**417**	**100**

Figure 1. Frequency Distribution for Change in Vowel for Second Syllable Lip Articulation
in Second Placed Letter *ʕayn* (ع) in the Second Syllable for Ttype *faʕala*

Out of 417 data points, 87 involve verb Past Tense three syllable consonants constructed from letters arising from velar articulation on the second syllable and letters from lip articulation as in *faʔ, baʔ* and *mim* (ف, ب, م) on the third syllable. The data were analyzed based on the articulation the second and third syllables.

Second syllable (Velar (VR))	Third syllable (Lips (L))	Vowel /a/	Vowel /i/	Vowel /u/	Total
dʒim (ج)	*faʔ* (ف)	2	1	4	7
qaf (ق)	*faʔ* (ف)	5	2	2	9
kaf (ك)	*faʔ* (ف)	3	0	1	4
dʒim (ج)	*baʔ* (ب)	2	0	4	6
qaf (ق)	*baʔ* (ب)	6	0	7	13
kaf (ك)	*baʔ* (ب)	3	1	4	8
dʒim (ج)	*mim* (م)	4	2	8	14
qaf (ق)	*mim* (م)	6	2	6	14
kaf (ك)	*mim* (م)	1	2	9	12
Total					87

Figure 2. Frequency Distribution of Vowel Involving Velar Articulation on Second Syllable and
Lips Articulation (L) in the Third Syllable in Present Tense.

Because of time constraints, this study only focuses on the letter *mim* (م) in the third syllable because it shows the highest frequency of 40 data points (45.98%) compared to the letter *baʔ* (ب) with 27 data points (31.03%) and *faʔ* (ف) with 20 data points (22.99%).

V. DISCUSSION

A. Letter dʒim (ج) in Second Syllable and Letter mim (م) in Third Syllable

For the verbs constructed from the letter *dʒim* (ج) in the second syllable and letter *mim* (م) in the third syllable, two data points show that *dʒim* (ج) is read with vowel /i/. The first data point is when the first syllable of the verb is constructed from Uvular one (U1) articulation, as in the letter *hamzah* (ء), in the Past Tense *ʔa/dʒa/ma* that changes into the Present Tense form *ja ʔ/dʒi/mu,* while the second data point involves Lip (L) articulation as in the letter *baʔ* (ب) in Past Tense *ba/dʒa/ma* that changes into the Present Tense form *jab/dʒi/mu,* as illustrated in the following Table 3:

TABLE 3
VOWEL /i/ FOR THE LETTER *dʒim* IN THE SECOND SYLLABLE AND LETTER *mim* IN THIRD SYLLABLE PRESENT TENSE

Past Tense		Present Tense		Past Tense		Present Tense
1- *ʔadʒama*	⟶	*jaʔdʒimu*		2- *badʒama*	⟶	*jabdʒimu*
أَجَمَ	⟶	يَأْجُمُ		بَجَمَ	⟶	يَبْجُمُ

Vowel /a/ is read in the second syllable a total of four times for the letter *dʒim* (ج) in the second syllable for Present Tense form. The first data point involves a first syllable built from Coronal one (CR1) articulation as in the letter *dal* (د) in the Past Tense *da/dʒi/ma* that changes into the Present Tense form *jad/dʒa/mu*. The second involves the Side of tongue (ST) articulation as in the letter *dˤad* (ض) in Past Tense *dˤa/dʒi/ma* that changes to the Present Tense form *jadˤ/dʒa/mu*. The third data point is the Coronal three (CR3) as in the letter *θaʔ* (ث) in the Past Tense *θa/dʒi/ma* that changes into the Present Tense form *jaθ/dʒa/mu*, while the fourth data involves Lip (L) articulation namely in the letter *faʔ* (ف) in the Past Tense *fa/dʒi/ma* that changes to the Present Tense form *jaf/dʒa/mu*. The vowel change is explained in the following Table 4.

TABLE 4
VOWEL /i/ FOR LETTER *dʒim* IN SECOND SYLLABLE AND LETTER *mim* IN THIRD SYLLABLE PRESENT TENSE.

Past Tense		Present Tense		Past Tense		Present Tense
1- *dadʒima*	⟶	*jaddʒamu*		2- *θadʒima*	⟶	*jaθdʒamu*
دَجَمَ	⟶	يَدْجَمُ		ثَجَمَ	⟶	يَثْجَمُ
3- *dˤadʒima*	⟶	*jadˤdʒamu*		4- *fadʒima*	⟶	*jafdʒamu*
ضَجَمَ	⟶	يَضْجَمُ		فَجَمَ	⟶	يُفْجَمُ

Vowel /u/ is read in the second syllable in eight data points for the letter *dʒim* (ج) in second syllable Present Tense form. The first, second, and third data points involve the first syllable constructed from Uvular one (U1) as in the letter *haʔ* (ه) in the Past Tense *ha/dʒa/ma* that changes into the Present Tense form *jah/dʒu/mu*, the letter *ħaʔ* (ح) in the Past Tense *ħa/dʒa/ma* that changes into the Present Tense form *jaħ/dʒu/mu*, and the letter *ʕayn* (ع) in the Past Tense *ʕa/dʒa/ma* that changes into the Present Tense form *jaʕ/dʒu/mu*. The fourth data point involves Coronal one (CR1) articulation as in the letter *dal* (د) in the Past Tense *da/dʒa/ma* that changes into the Present Tense form *jad/dʒu/mu*. The vowel change is explained in the following Table 5:

TABLE 5
VOWEL /u/ FOR THE LETTER *dʒim* IN SECOND SYLLABLE AND
LETTER *mim* IN THIRD SYLLABLE PRESENT TENSE.

Past Tense		Present Tense		Past Tense		Present Tense
1- *ħadʒama*	⟶	*jaħdʒumu*		2- *ʕadʒama*	⟶	*jaʕdʒumu*
حَجَمَ	⟶	يَحْجُمُ		عَجَمَ	⟶	يَعْجُمُ
3- *dadʒama*	⟶	*jaddʒumu*		4- *sadʒama*	⟶	*jasdʒumu*
دَجَمَ	⟶	يَدْجُمُ		سَجَمَ	⟶	يَسْجُمُ
5- *sadʒama*	⟶	*jasdʒumu*		6- *zadʒama*	⟶	*jazdʒumu*
سَجَمَ	⟶	يَسْجُمُ		زَجَمَ	⟶	يَزْجُمُ
7- *radʒama*	⟶	*jardʒumu*		8- *θadʒama*	⟶	*jaθdʒumu*
رَجَمَ	⟶	يَرْجُمُ		ثَجَمَ	⟶	يَثْجُمُ

The fifth and sixth data points involve Coronal two (CR2) articulation as in the letter *sin* (س) in the Past Tense *sa/dʒa/ma* that changes to the Present Tense form *jas/dʒu/mu*, and the letter *zai* (ز) in the Past Tense *za/dʒa/ma* that changes to the Present Tense form *jaz/dʒu/mu*. The seventh data point involved Sonorant tongue tip (STT) articulation as in the letter *raʔ* (ر) in the verb *ra/dʒa/ma* that changes to the Present Tense form *jar/dʒu/mu* and eight data points involving Coronal three (CR3) articulation, namely the letter *θaʔ* (ث) in the Past Tense *θa/dʒa/ma* that changes into the Present Tense form *jaθ/dʒu/mu*. From the findings as shown in Tables 4, 5, and 6, three phonological rules can be

proposed as pioneered by Chomsky and Halle (1968) and later revised by El-Wadi (2005) and refined by Isa (2019), as in the following:

R1: [+ vowel]   ⟶   /a/ / {U1, L} _dӡim_ __ _mim_ [faʕila Past Tense form]

Rule one (R1) shows that the letter _dӡim_ placed on the second syllable will be read with the vowel /a/ if the first syllable is built by Uvular one (U1) articulation as in the letter _hamzah_ (ء) and Lip (L) articulation as in the letter _baʔ_ (ب) from the Past Tense form _faʕila_.

R2: [+ vowel]   ⟶   /i/ / {U1, L} _dӡim_ __ _mim_ [faʕala Past Tense form]

Rule two (R2) shows that the letter _dӡim_ placed in the second syllable will be read with the vowel /i/ if the first syllable is constructed from Coronal one (CR1) articulation, as in letter _dal_ (د), Coronal three (CR3) articulation, namely letter _θaʔ_ (ث), Side of tongue (ST) articulation as in the letter _dˤad_ (ض), and Lip (L) articulation as in the letter _baʔ_ (ب) from Past Tense form _faʕala_.

R3: [+ vowel]   ⟶   /u/ / {U1, CR1} _dӡim_ __ _mim_

Rule three (R3) says that the letter _dӡim_ placed on the second syllable will be read with the vowel /u/ if the first syllable is built from Uvular one (U1) articulation as in the letter _haʔ_ (ه), _ħaʔ_ (ح), and _ʕayn_ (ع), Coronal one (CR1), namely the letter _dal_ (د), Coronal two (CR2) articulation as in the letter _sin_ (س) and letter _zai_ (ز), Sonorant tongue tip (STT) articulation as in letter _raʔ_ (ر), and Coronal three (CR3) articulation as in the letter _θaʔ_ (ث).

Based on findings displayed in Tables 4, 5, and 6, there are 14 data points related to the letter _dӡim_ (ج) in the second syllable and letter _mim_ (م) in the third syllable. If the student reads a text or encounters a Present Tense verb constructed by the letter _dӡim_ (ج) in the second syllable and letter _mim_ (م) in the third syllable, eight (8) data points (57.14%) show that the letter _dӡim_ (ج) in the second syllable is read with the vowel /u/ (dˤammah), four (4) data points (28.57%) read with vowel /a/ (fatħah) and two (2) data points (14.29%) read with vowel /i/ (kasrah) as explained in the following Figure 3:

Second syllable (Velar (VR))	Third syllable (Lips (L))	Vowel /a/	Vowel /i/	Vowel /u/
dӡim (ج)	_mim_ (م)	4	2	8

Figure 3. Frequency Distribution of Vowel Involving Letter _dӡim_ in the Second Syllable
Lips Articulation in Present Tense Third Syllable.

B. Letter qaf (ق) in Second Syllable and Letter mim (م) in Third Syllable

For a verb constructed from _qaf_ (ق) in the second syllable and letter _mim_ (م) in the third, two data points show that the second syllable Present Tense is read with vowel /i/, which means _jafʕil_ for the verb in Present Tense. The first data point involves the first syllable shaped by Uvular One (U1) articulation as in the letter _ʕayn_ (ع) in the Past Tense verb _ʕa/qa/ma_ which changes to the Present Tense form _jaʕ/qi/mu_. The second data involves Sonorant tongue tip (STT) articulation namely the letter _nun_ (ن) in Past Tense _na/qa/ma_ that changes to the Present Tense _jan/qi/mu_. The verbs are in the following in Table 6.

TABLE 6.
VOWEL /i/ FOR LETTER _qaf_ IN THE SECOND SYLLABLE AND
LETTER _mim_ IN THIRD SYLLABLE PRESENT TENSE

Past Tense	Present Tense		Past Tense	Present Tense
1- _ʕaqama_ ⟶	_jaʕqimu_	2-	_naqama_ ⟶	_janqimu_
عَقَمَ ⟶	يَعْقِمُ		نَقَمَ ⟶	يَنْقِمُ

For the second syllable that is read with vowel /a/, there are six data points from the Present Tense form _jafʕal_. The first and second data points involve the first syllable built from Uvular One (U1) articulation as in the letter _ʕayn_ (ع) in the Past Tense verb _ʕa/qi/ma_ that changes into the Present Tense form _jaʕ/qa/mu_ and the letter _haʔ_ (ه) in the Past Tense verb _ha/qi/ma_ that changes into the Present Tense form which is _jah/qa/mu_. The third and fourth data points involve Sonorant tongue tip (STT) articulation as in the letter _nun_ (ن) in the Past Tense _na/qi/ma_ that changes into the Present Tense _jan/qa/mu_ and letter _raʔ_ (ر) in the Past Tense _ra/qi/ma_ that changes into the Present Tense _jar/qa/mu_. The fifth data point involves Coronal one (CR1) articulation namely for the letter _dal_ (د) in Past Tense _da/qi/ma_ that changes to the Present Tense _jad/qa/mu_. The sixth data point involves Lip (L) articulation as in the letter _faʔ_ (ف) in Past Tense _fa/qi/ma_ that becomes the Present Tense _jaf/qa/mu_. The form change is shown in the following in Table 7:

TABLE 7
VOWEL /a/ FOR LETTER *qaf* IN THE SECOND SYLLABLE
AND LETTER *mim* IN THE THIRD SYLLABLE PRESENT TENSE.

Past Tense	Present Tense	Past Tense	Present Tense	Past Tense	Present Tense
1- ʕaqima ⟶	*jaʕqamu*	*2- haqima* ⟶	*jahqamu*	*3- raqima* ⟶	*jarqamu*
عَقِمَ ⟶	يَعْقَمُ	هَقِمَ ⟶	يَهْقَمُ	رَقِمَ ⟶	يَرْقَمُ
4- naqima ⟶	*janqamu*	*5- daqima* ⟶	*jadqamu*	*6- faqima* ⟶	*jafqamu*
نَقِمَ ⟶	يَنْقَمُ	دَقِمَ ⟶	يَدْقَمُ	فَقِمَ ⟶	يَفْقَمُ

For the second syllable read with vowel /u/, there are six data points in the Present Tense form *jafʕul*. The first one involves the first syllable constructed from Uvular One (U1) articulation as in the letter *ʕayn* (ع) in the Past Tense verb *ʕa/qa/ma* that changes into the Present Tense form which is *jaʕ/qu/mu.* The second data point involves Coronal one (CR1) articulation as in the letter *dal* (د) in the Past Tense *da/qa/ma* that changes into the Present Tense form *jad/qu/mu.* The third data relates to Coronal two (CR2) articulation as in the letter *zai* (ز) in the Past Tense *za/qa/ma* that changes into the Present Tense form which is *jaz/qu/mu.* The fourth and fifth data points involve Sonorant tongue tip (STT) articulation namely the letter *raʔ* (ر) in the Past Tense *ra/qa/ma* that changes into the Present Tense *jar/qu/mu*, and letter *lam* (ل) in the Past Tense *la/qa/ma* that morphs into the Present Tense *jal/qu/mu.* The sixth data point involves Lip (L) articulation as in the letter *faʔ* (ف) in the Past Tense *fa/qa/ma* that changes into the Present Tense *jaf/qu/mu.* The form changes are shown in the following in Table 8:

TABLE 8
VOWEL /u/ FOR LETTER *qaf* IN SECOND SYLLABLE AND LETTER *mim*
IN THIRD SYLLABLE VERB PRESENT TENSE

Past Tense	Present Tense	Past Tense	Present Tense	Past Tense	Present Tense
1- ʕaqama ⟶	*jaʕqumu*	*2- daqama* ⟶	*jadqumu*	*3- zaqama* ⟶	*jazqumu*
عَقَمَ ⟶	يَعْقُمُ	دَقَمَ ⟶	يَدْقُمُ	زَقَمَ ⟶	يَزْقُمُ
4- raqama ⟶	*jarqumu*	*5- laqama* ⟶	*jalqumu*	*6- faqama* ⟶	*jafqumu*
رَقَمَ ⟶	يَرْقُمُ	لَقَمَ ⟶	يَلْقُمُ	فَقَمَ ⟶	يَفْقُمُ

As shown in the findings in Tables 6, 7, and 8, three phonological rules can be proposed using the framework pioneered by Chomsky and Halle (1968) and revised by El-Wadi (2005) and refined by Isa (2019); the rules are:

R4: [+ vowel] ⟶ /a/ / {U1, CR1, STT, L} *qaf __ mim* [*faʕila* Past Tense form]

Rule four (R4) shows that the letter *qaf* placed on the second syllable will be read with vowel /a/ if the first syllable is built from Uvular one (U1) articulation, namely the letter *ħaʔ* (ح) and *ʕayn* (ع)*,* Coronal one (CR1) articulation, as in letter *dal* (د), Sonorant tongue tip (STT) articulation as in the letter *raʔ* (ر) and *nun* (ن), and Lips (L) articulation as in letter *faʔ* (ف) from Past Tense form *faʕila.*

R5: [+ vowel] ⟶ /i/ / {U1, STT} *qaf __ mim* [*faʕala* Past Tense form]

Rule five (R5) states that the letter *qaf* placed in the second syllable will be read with vowel /i/ if the first syllable was constructed from Uvular one (U1) articulation, as in the letter *ʕayn* (ع) and Sonorant tongue tip (STT) articulation as in the letter *nun* (ن) from Past Tense form *faʕala.*

R6: [+ vowel] ⟶ /u/ / {U1, CR1, CR2, STT, L} *qaf __ mim*

Rule six (R6) shows that the letter *qaf* placed in the second syllable will be read with the vowel /u/ if the first syllable was constructed from Uvular one (U1) articulation as in the letter *ʕayn* (ع,) Coronal one (CR1) as in *dal* (د,) Coronal two (CR2) as in letter *zai* (ز,) Snorant tongue tip (STT) articulation as in the letter *raʔ* (ر) and *lam* (ل,) and Lip (L) articulation as in the letter *faʔ* (ف).

Based on findings displayed in Tables 6, 7, and 8, there are 14 data points related to the letter *qaf* (ق) in the second syllable and the letter *mim* (م) the third syllable. If the student reads text or encounters a Present Tense active verb constructed from the letter *qaf* (ق) in the second syllable and letter *mim* (م) the third syllable, six (6) data points (42.86%) show that the letter *qaf* (ق) in the second syllable is read with the vowel /a/ (*fatħah*) if built from the *faʕila* form, six (6)

data points (42.86%) are read with vowel /u/ (*dˤammah*), and two (2) data points (14.27%) are read with the vowel /i/ (*kasrah*) in the following in Figure 4:

Second syllable (Velar (VR))	Third syllable (Lips (L))	Vowel /a/	Vowel /i/	Vowel /u/
qaf (ق)	*mim* (م)	6	2	6

Figure 4. Frequency Distribution for Vowels Involving Letter *qaf* on the Second Syllable
and Letters From Lip Articulation on the Third Syllable

C. Letter kaf (ك) in the Second Syllable and Letter mim (م) in the Third Syllable

For verbs constructed from *kaf* (ك) in the second syllable and letter *mim* (م)in third syllable, only one data point shows the second syllable Present Tense is read with the vowel /a/, namely the category *jafˤal* for the verb in Present Tense, that involves Lip (L) articulation as in the letter *baʔ* (ب) in the Past Tense verb *ba/ka/ma* that changes into the Present Tense form which is *jab/ka/mu,* in the following in Table 9.

TABLE 9
VOWEL /a/ FOR A WORD WITH THE LETTER *kaf* IN THE SECOND SYLLABLE
AND LETTER *mim* IN THE THIRD SYLLABLE PRESENT TENSE

Past Tense		Present Tense
1- bakima	⟶	jabkamu
بَكِمَ	⟶	يَبْكَمُ

Two data points show that the letter *kaf* (ك) in the second syllable is read with the vowel /i/ in the present tense. The first data point involves Uvular one (U1) articulation as in the letter *ʕayn* (ع) in Past Tense *ʕa/ka/ma* that changes into the Present Tense *jaʕ/ki/mu.* The second data point involves Sonorant tongue tip (STT) articulation, namely the letter *raʔ* (ر) in Past Tense *ra/ka/ma* that changes to the Present Tense *jar/ki/mu.* The change in vowel in the Present Tense for the second syllable from the Past Tense is clarified in the following Table 10:

TABLE 10
VOWEL /I/ FOR THE LETTER *KAF* IN THE SECOND SYLLABLE AND LETTER *mim*
IN THIRD SYLLABLE PRESENT TENSE

Past Tense		Present Tense	Past Tense		Present Tense
1- ʕakama	⟶	jaʕkamu	2- rakama	⟶	jarkimu
عَكَمَ	⟶	يَعْكِمُ	رَكَمَ	⟶	يَزْكُمَ

Nine data points show that the letter *kaf* (ك) in the second syllable is read with the vowel /u/ in the Present Tense. The first data point involves Uvular one (U1) articulation as in the letter *ʕayn* (ع) in Past Tense *ʕa/ka/ma* that changes to the Present Tense *jaʕ/ku/mu.* The second data point involves Middle of tongue (MT) articulation as in the letter *tʃin* (ش) in the Past Tense verb *tʃa/ka/ma* that changes into the Present Tense *jatʃ/ku/mu.* The third data point involves Coronal one (CR1) articulation as in the letter *dal* (د) in the Past Tense *da/ka/ma* that changes into the Present Tense *jad/ku/mu.*

The fourth, fifth, and sixth data points are related to Coronal two (CR2) articulation, namely the letter *sin* (س) in the Past Tense *sa/ka/ma* that changes into the Present Tense *jas/ku/mu,* the letter *zai* (ز) in the Past Tense *za/ka/ma* that changes into the Present Tense *jaz/ku/mu,* and letter *sˤad* (ص) in Past Tense *sˤa/ka/ma* that changes into the Present Tense *jasˤ/ku/mu.* The seventh and eighth data points involve the Sonorant tongue tip (STT) articulation, namely the letter *raʔ* (ر) in the Past Tense *ra/ka/ma* that changed to the present tense *jar/ku/mu* and the letter *lam* (ل) in Past Tense *la/ka/ma* that can change into the Present Tense *jal/ku/mu.* The ninth data point involved Lip (L) articulation for the letter *baʔ* (ب) in Past Tense *ba/ka/ma* that changed to Present Tense *jab/ku/mu.* The change in a vowel in the present tense in the second syllable of the Past Tense is explained in the following Table 11:

TABLE 11
VOWEL /u/ FOR *kaf* IN SECOND SYLLABLE AND *mim* IN THIRD SYLLABLE PRESENT TENSE

Past Tense		Present Tense	Past Tense		Present Tense	Past Tense		Present Tense
1- ʕakama	⟶	jaʕkumu	2- tʃakama	⟶	jatʃkumu	3- dakama	⟶	jadkumu
عَكَمَ	⟶	يَعُكُمَ	شَكَمَ	⟶	يَشْكُمَ	دَكَمَ	⟶	يَدْكُمَ
4- sakama	⟶	jaskumu	5- zakama	⟶	jazkumu	6- sˤakama	⟶	jasˤkumu
سَكَمَ	⟶	يَسْكُمَ	زَكَمَ	⟶	يَزُكُمَ	صَكَمَ	⟶	يَصْكُمَ
7- rakama	⟶	jarkumu	8- lakama	⟶	jalkumu	9- bakama	⟶	jabkumu
رَكَمَ	⟶	يَزُكُمَ	لَكَمَ	⟶	يَلُكُمَ	بَكَمَ	⟶	يَبْكُمَ

From the findings in Tables 9, 10, and 11, three phonological rules can be proposed as pioneered by Chomsky and Halle (1968) and later revised by El-Wadi (2005), and refined by Isa (2019) as follows:

R7: [+ vowel] ⟶ /a/ **/** {U1} *kaf* __ *mim* [*faʕila* Past Tense form]

Rule seven (R7) shows that the letter *kaf* occupying the second syllable place will be read with vowel /a/ if the first syllable is constructed from Uvular one (U1) articulation, namely the letter *ʕayn* (ع) from Past Tense *faʕila* form.

R8: [+ vowel] ⟶ /i/ **/** {U1, STT} *kaf* __ *mim* [*faʕala* Past Tense form]

Rule eight (R8) shows that the letter *kaf* placed on the second syllable will take the vowel /i/ if the first syllable is constructed from Uvular one (U1) articulation namely the letter *ʕayn* (ع), and Sonorant tongue tip (STT) articulation, namely the letter *raʔ* (ر) from Past Tense *faʕala* form.

R9: [+ vowel] ⟶ /u/ **/** {U1, MT, L, CR1, CR2, STT} *kaf* __ *mim*

Rule nine (R9) says that the letter *kaf* placed on the second syllable will be read with the vowel /u/ if the first syllable was constructed from Uvular one (U1) articulation as in the letter *ʕayn* (ع), lip (L) articulation, namely letter *baʔ* (ب), Middle of tongue (MT) articulation as in letter *ʃin* (ش), Coronal one (CR1) articulation as in *dal* (د), Coronal two (CR2), as in letter *zai* (ز) and *sin* (س) and *sˤad* (ص), and Sonorant tongue tip (STT) articulation, namely the letters *raʔ* (ر) and *lam* (ل).

Based on Tables 9, 10, and 11, there are 12 data points related to the letter *kaf* (ك) in the second syllable and the letters from lip articulation in the third syllable. If the student reads text or finds active verbs in Present Tense constructed from the letter *kaf* (ك) on the second syllable and letter *mim* (م) for the third syllable, 9 data points (75%) show the letter *kaf* (ك) in the second syllable is read with vowel /u/ (*dˤammah*), two (2) data points (16.67%) are read with vowel /a/ (*fatħah*), and only one (1) data point (8.3%) is read with vowel /i/ (*kasrah*) as explained in the following in Figure 5:

Second syllable (Velar (VR))	Third syllable (Lips (L))	Vowel /a/	Vowel /i/	Vowel /u/
kaf (ك)	*mim* (م)	1	2	9

Figure 5. Frequency Distribution for Vowels Involving the Letter *kaf* in the Second Syllable
and *mim* (م) in the Third Syllable.

From the findings shown in Figures 3, 4, and 5, it is clear that letters arising from velar articulation are most often read with vowel /u/, corresponding to 23 data points (57.5%), followed by 11 data points (27.5%) for vowel /a/, and only 6 data points (15%) for vowel /i/ if the third syllable is built from letter *mim* (م), as explained in the following in Figure 6:

Second syllable (Velar (VR))	Third syllable (Lips (L))	Vowel /a/	Vowel /i/	Vowel /u/
dʒim (ج)	*mim* (م)	4	2	8
qaf (ق)	*mim* (م)	6	2	6
kaf (ك)	*mim* (م)	1	2	9

Figure 6. Frequency Distribution of Vowels Involving Velar Articulation for the Second Syllable
and the Letter *mim* (م) for the Third Syllable

VI. Conclusion

The arrangement of articulation that builds each three-syllable verb in the Arabic language will influence the vowel in the second syllable of the Present Tense verb, whether it takes the vowel /a/, /i/, or /u/. This proves that the opinion saying the vowels are random and only follow the speakers of the past (Al-Hilwani, 2008) and Yusuf (2019) is not definitive and can still be researched. This is because there exist patterns or certain rules for every verb made up of letters from articulations that produce different vowels, as aligned with the findings by Ibn Jinni (2000), El-Wadi (2005), Dollah and Azlina (2014), Yusuf et al. (2015), and Bu'nani (2011) who found that verbs constructed from epiglottis articulation on the second and third syllables will produce vowel /a/ in the second syllable of the Present Tense verb.

The phonological approach by Chomsky and Halle (1968) as revised by El-Wadi (2005) and refined by Isa (2019) can produce phonological rules that can tease out the construction of vowels for the second syllable in Arabic Present Tense verbs and offer an alternative for producing vowels based on the arrangement of articulation found in three-syllable verbs. What is important is that further research on features must be carried out using phonological approaches and these might be able to resolve the problematic issue of vowel assignment that puzzles learners of the Arabic language.

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Abdul Azim Mohamad Isa (PhD), is a lecturer at Academy of Language Studies, University Technology of MARA from Arabic Language Department. His research interests are Arabic Phonology, Morphology and Linguistics.

Zawawi Ismail (PhD), is an Associate Professor at Department of Language and Literacy Education and currently the Dean of Faculty of Education, University of Malaya. He is appointed as Adjunct Professor at Universitas Negeri Malang, Indonesia. His research interests include Arabic & Islamic Education Curriculum, Teacher Education, Muslim Minority Education, and Quranic Language Education.

Muhammad Arsyad Abdul Majid (PhD), is a lecturer at Academy of Language Studies, University Technology of MARA from Arabic Language Department. His research interests are Translation, Writing Skills and Intercultural Contrastive.

Muhamad Zaidi Zakaria (PhD), is a lecturer at Academy of Language Studies, University Technology of MARA from Arabic Language Department. His research interests are Pragmatics and Semantics, and Second Language Teaching.

Syazwan Naim Ibrahim is a Language Teacher at the Department of Arabic and Middle Eastern Languages, Faculty of Languages and Linguistics, University of Malaya. His interest also revolves around the field of Semantics, Translation, and learning Arabic as a second language.

Muhammad Hatta Shafri, is a lecturer at Academy of Language Studies, University Technology of MARA from Arabic Language Department. His research interests are Arabic phonotactics, morphophonology, lexicology.

The Syntactic Formulas Used in Food and Eating Proverbs in Jordanian Arabic: A Linguistic Analysis

Hamzah Faleh Migdadi[*]
English Language Department, Al-Hussan Group for Education and Training, Saudi Arabia

Mohammad Fayyad M. Alqasem
English Language Department, Prince Sattam Bin Abdulaziz University, Saudi Arabia

Shadi Majed Alshraah
English Language Department, Prince Sattam Bin Abdulaziz University, Saudi Arabia

Mustafa Mohammad Alqudah
Department of English, University of Hail, Saudi Arabia

Bowroj Sameh Taany
English Language Department, Al-Hussan Group for Education and Training, Saudi Arabia

Abstract—**The present study focuses on studying colloquial Jordanian proverbs and sayings, particularly food and saying proverbs. It employs a descriptive research design to examine the syntactic aspects of those proverbs and sayings. Semi-structured interviews were conducted to gather the data from the informants. The current study came up with a set of conclusions. Proverbs related to food and eating are similar to other kinds of proverbs regarding the utilization of syntactic aspects. Furthermore, it appears that these proverbs are limited to specific syntactic structures, namely, imperative, interrogative and verbless clauses in terms of their syntactic structures. To be more accurate, the verbless clause is the most 51 prominent structure (11 proverbs), then the imperative form (8 proverbs) and the interrogative (5 proverbs) one respectively.**

Index Terms—**proverb, syntactic formulas, saying, colloquial proverbs**

I. INTRODUCTION

The proverb is a brief, memorable traditional saying or statement that expresses a general truth or advice about life (Winick, 2003). They are, in fact, short statements that do not consist of long parts; they cannot be a paragraph. Due to their brevity; they can be memorable. Proverbs express a general truth about our life. Their usages in our life provide us with a pearl of wisdom about a certain issue. In addition to that, people use proverbs to deal with general issues, for instance, they use them to deliver their long messages with short utterances.

Proverbs are so popular due to their nature and role; this suggests that there are a lot of topics covered by proverbs. Based on the researcher's observation, proverbs cover a wide range of themes associated with human beings and their social roles in communities. It is safe to say that proverbs discuss issues ranging from the most trivial to the most complicated.

Regarding the Arabic language, some studies examine proverbs from different dialects, and they show that Arabic proverbs are identical in the case of the messages delivered; most, if not all, Arabic proverbs share similar topics, views and attitudes. Such a situation stems from the fact that all dialects have mutual cultural, social and religious backgrounds.

Regarding their formal properties, they are fixed utterances i.e. none of their parts can be omitted or replaced. In other words, if there is any change in their content or form, they are no longer proverbs. According to Norrick (1985), proverbs have a fixed form. There was a consensus among some scholars (see, for example, Russo, 1983 and Abrahams, 1968) that proverbs are to be complete sentences. In fact, such a claim cannot be generalized. For instance, there are many incomplete-sentence proverbs in terms of formality such as *like father like son.*

The popularity of acceptance of proverbs among people is a reason to show their important role in language and culture. They are generally in most spheres of social life, if not at all. It is safe to say that proverbs constitute part and

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[*] Corresponding Author.

parcel of languages whether in verbal or written forms. Such a position is not restricted to specific groups of people featured with certain characteristics such as educational, social, financial or regional backgrounds.

This study is significant to the domain of linguistics as it extended the knowledge base that currently exists in the field. However, the specific significance of the study stems from several factors. First of all, it deals with a new category of proverbs that is related to the food and eating theme. Such a topic has not been investigated by other researchers from the perspective of their syntactic patterns. Therefore, the researchers select the proverbs related to food and eating as they have not been investigated comprehensively. There was only one study conducted by Faycel (2012) in which he listed proverbs in Tunisian societies. The researcher classified them and clarified their metaphorical meaning. In this study, the researchers investigate proverbs of food and eating used in Jordanian society with regard to their syntactic aspects.

As aforementioned, there are very few studies conducted on food proverbs. To be more precise, there are no previous studies on Jordanian proverbs containing reference to food and eating in terms of their syntactic aspects. They, in fact, had received little attention from researchers. Consequently, the current study is intended to study Jordanian food proverbs and sayings in terms of their syntactic formulas. To conclude, the overarching purpose of conducting this study is to analyze the syntactic patterns of Jordanian proverbs related to food and eating.

II. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Taking into consideration the previous problems related to the study of proverbs with reference to food and eating, this study is hoped to lead to a great understanding of the topic since it is conducted on the Arabic-speaking community, namely, Jordanian society. It also intends to examine food proverbs from their structural aspects. The researchers attempt to prove that food proverbs are systematic and rule-governed due to the existence of syntactic patterns.

III. RELATED STUDIES

Proverbs, in fact, have been the interest of many researchers. Those researchers (see, for example, Migdadi & Bader, 2015, Almomani & Al-Ajlouny, 2015) attempted to examine and investigate them from different perspectives. They attempted to investigate their linguistic features such as their stylistic and syntactic aspects. Others attempted to investigate their content (see, for example, Migdadi & Bader, 2015, Almomani & Al-Ajlouny, 2015). Giang (2013) conducted a study to analyze the general syntactic, semantic and cultural properties of marriage proverbs. The study showed that marriage proverbs in English and Vietnamese languages are expressed in sentences or phrases. Regarding the sentence-type proverbs, English proverbs take the form of simple sentences. On the other hand, Vietnamese language prefers the use of compound sentence. Regarding phrasal proverbs, English proverbs are mainly noun phrases, on the contrary, Vietnamese takes mainly the form of both noun and verb phrases. The study also showed that marriage proverbs in both languages employ similar stylistic devices such as simile, metaphor and hyperbole.

Proverbs are structurally systematic in the sense that they have two basic constituents, a topic and a comment. According to that, proverbs are binary in nature at the deep level. Moreover, their duality can also be seen in their content. Dundes and Bronner (2007) stated that the majority of proverbs are oppositional or contrastive in which either the topics can be in opposition, or the comments can be in opposition, or both topics and comments can be in opposition. Examples of the latter case would be "Here today, gone tomorrow," "Last hired, first fired," and "the spirit is willing but the flesh is weak" (p. 128).

On the other hand, proverbs can be non-oppositional or identificational in which both of topic and comment are in equal and equivalent terms. This type can be found in proverbs like "time is money" (one descriptive element) or "like father, like son" (two descriptive elements). However, Dundes (1962) showed that the binary nature of proverbs is applicable not only to English but also to other languages such as Lithuanian, North American Indian (Dundes, 1964) and some African languages (Dundes, 1971).

Moreover, syntactic studies showed that proverbs follow a limited number of grammatical structures. For instance, Škara (1995) conducted a study entitled *Comparative Analysis of Proverbs: Universals and Specifics* that revealed the similarities in grammatical structures of proverbs regarding three languages: Italian, English and Croatian. It also confirmed that proverbs in these languages are the same concerning the following syntactic issues: the first is that the smallest linguistic frame used in proverbs is the sentence, and its structure is fixed and frozen with no redundant elements. (E.g. Time flies). The second is that the most frequent tense is the simple present, for example, *the cowl does not make the monk* and *He lives long who lives well*. Whereas, if the past tense is used, it refers to an action that may happen at any time. The third is that most proverbs are verbalized impersonally, that is to say, proverbs utilize neutral statements with the third person singular and metaphorical techniques in order to make the message more objective and universal, for example, *one swallow does not make summer* and *Homer sometimes nods*. The fourth is that most proverbs use indicative form and abstract or omitted subject, for example, *Hope springs eternal* and *out of sight, out of mind*. Finally, most proverbs have a balanced form of two parts (or four minor segments), and these parts or segments are in a balanced and organized relationship to one another both in their form and content, for example, *New brooms, sweep clean; soon ripe, soon rotten; A fair exchange, is no robbery*.

With reference to this discussion, it appears that Italian, English and Croatian proverbial language is characterized by a set of syntactic markers. However, what is valid in the aforementioned languages can also be seen and verified in other languages such as Irish (Coinnigh, 2012), Welsh (Agozzino, 2007), Igbo (Ezejideaku & Okeke, 2008), Russian (Levin, 1968), Cairene Arabic (Mahgoub, 1968), Yiddish (Silverman-Weinreich, 1981) and Philippine (Lopez, 2006).

IV. METHODS

The data of the current study were gathered randomly. This is due to the nature of the study, in other words, it is concerned with the qualitative approach. The researchers interviewed the informants separately. Those informants were Jordanian people aged from 40 to 60 years old. The reason for selecting them at this age was due to their experience in using such proverbs and idiomatic expressions. The researchers also audio-taped the interviews in order to extract the Jordanian proverbs related to food and eating. As a result, the gathered data reflect genuine occurrences of such linguistic expressions. Food proverbs are concluded from dialogues and explications that provide the context. All food proverbs were classified and analyzed syntactically.

V. RESULTS

A. Syntactic Aspects

The morphological and syntactic features of proverbs related to food and eating are examined. In fact, proverbs have some morphosyntactic constructions, different from other linguistic expressions. In order to reach a better insight into the syntactic aspects, an examination of the internal structure needs to be done. Admittedly, the proverbs under discussion reveal that they are divided into three divisions, and that gives rise to the fact that they are limited to a set of specific sentence types, they are imperative sentences, interrogative sentences and verbless sentences.

(a). Imperative Sentences/Clauses

The type of sentences or clauses does not have a subject, however, it is understood to be the second person singular *you*. Imperative sentences or clauses are used to command or advise the addressee to do some righteous acts or to prevent him/her/them from doing evil deeds, or simply they are used to highlight and encourage some healthy habits, the proverbs below illustrate the imperative form.

Proverb	Literal Translation	Equivalence/ Figurative meaning	Function
iSbir 9al-Hisrim ibtuklu 9inab	Give time to sour grapes, so you can eat them when fully grown	Desires are nourished by delays	Giving advice
laQini wla ittaTmini	Welcome me and do not feed me	warm and friendly reception is better than alimentation.	Giving advice
Ta9mi iƟum ibtistahi al-9ain	Feed the mouth, the eye becomes bashful	get their loyalties by money, meals, gifts …etc.	Giving advice
itɣada witmadda witaša witmaša	Lunch and stretch, dine and walk	After dinner sit (sleep) a while, after supper walk a mile	Giving advice
itɣadda fiih Qabil ma yit9aša fiik	Lunch on him before he dines on you	steal a march on someone (to gain an advantage over someone by doing some earlier action than expected)	Giving advice
uQ9ud juu9an wla tmid ?iidak la mannaan	Sit hungry and not stretch your hand to a maleficent giver	to endure hard circumstances is better than losing one's dignity	Giving advice
i9Ti il-xubiz la xabbaazuh	Give the bread to its baker	put the saddle on the right horse	Giving advice
la ituHuT kul beiDak ibsallah waHadeh	Do not put all of your eggs in one basket	don't have too many irons in the fire	Giving advice

These types of sentences/clauses are used to target the statement to the addressee since he/she is the receiver of the command or advice. Based on the table above, all proverbs were used to give advice not commands. Based on the previous proverbs mentioned in the table, the second person singular 'you' is related to males not females, that is, this may be misleading in the sense that such proverbs are directed to males only. In fact, such a supposition is completely wrong since these proverbs are targeted to the addressee regardless of gender.

To conclude, the typical form of an English imperative sentence uses the base verb without a subject. Those sentences can be either positive or negative form. The main functions of imperative sentences are to give advice, command or instruction. Regarding the aforementioned proverbs in the table above, the function of using them was to give advice.

(b). Interrogative Sentences/Clauses

This type of sentence is used when asking a question to know about something. It is used also to gather information about something. Generally, it is the sentence that asks a question or makes a request for information. To be more precise, it has the form or force of a question.

In the following table, the researchers found that Jordanian proverbs related to food and eating have the form of interrogative sentences/clauses.

Proverb	Literal Translation	Equivalence / Figurative meaning
Šuu inta ma ibtiŠba9iiŠ	Cannot you get satiated?	do you want jam on it? (what more do you want? used to a person who has just got an advantage and then asks for more)
maŠi 9ala beiD	Are you walking on eggs?	why are you so slow?
Šuu ya9ni ixyar wa faQuus	What does it mean? Cucumber and another cheaper kind of cucumber?	why do you discriminate depending on nonstandard criteria
Šuu hii il Šaɣlih Šuurabah	Is it a soup?	this issue is not that simple (you cannot do whatever you like)
Qamhah walla iŠi9iireh	A wheat or a barley?	what is the result? Is it good or bad?

As aforementioned, this type of sentence is usually used to elicit some information from the addressee. The expected purpose of such a structure is not applicable in the case of proverbs of food and eating since proverbs with the interrogative construction are not utilized to get information, but in sharp contrast, to give information. They are used to express the speaker's frustration, anger and other negative feelings (except in the last case, the proverb is used to elicit information, in the typical usage of interrogative sentences).

(c). Verbless Sentences/Clauses

A verbless clause is a clause-like construction in which a verb element is implied but not present. They are comprised, semantically, of a predicand, expressed or not, and a verbless predicate. In this study, the researchers classified proverbs related to food and eating into three main syntactic categories concerning the predicate, namely, prepositional phrases, adjectival phrases and noun phrases.

B. Prepositional Phrases

The table below illustrates the proverbs in terms of their literal translation and their equivalent/figurative meaning.

Proverb	Literal Translation	Equivalence / Figurative meaning
aHla 9ala Qalbi min al9asal	It's sweeter to my heart than honey	gladly accepted or receive
fi beinna xubz wa miliH	Bread and salt are between us	we lived together and had shared experiences / we have strong bonds
Dammuh zai il-9asal	His blood is like honey	he is fun / he has a sense of humor
il-jiizih miΘil al-baTiixah , intah wa HaDDak	Marriage is like a watermelon, it depends on your luck	in marriage luck plays a major role (what must be must be)
ilTariiq la Qalb ilzalamih min mi9dituh	The way to a man's heart is through his stomach	The way to a man's heart is through his stomach
Sar 9ilkah ibΘum innaas	He became a chewing gum in people's mouth	he has been disgraced by doing dishonorable deeds, so he became the subject of people's gossip

The underlined words in the table above revealed the prepositional phrases used in the proverbs related to food and eating. In such clauses, the verb is omitted, and the main components are the subject and the predicate.

C. Adjectival Phrases

The table below illustrates the proverbs in terms of their literal translation and their equivalent/figurative meaning.

Proverb	Literal Translation	Equivalence / Figurative meaning
9admuh Tari / Qasi	His bones are soft/solid	he is a naïve/ an experienced person
laHmuh mur	His flesh is bitter	he is an unforgiving person

The underlined words in the table above show the adjectival phrases used in the proverbs and sayings in Jordanian Arabic. The main components of those phrases are the subject and the predicate.

D. Noun Phrases

The proverbs below include the noun phrases. The table illustrates the literal translation of proverbs and their equivalent/figurative meanings.

Proverb	Literal Translation	Equivalence / Figurative meaning
akil wa mar9a wa Qillit San9ah	Eating, grazing and lack of workmanship	the life of Riley [a comfortable and happy life]
iddinya yuum 9asal wa yuum baSal	Life includes a honey day and an onion day	take the rough with the sweet (life is not easy)
Darb il-Habib zbiib	a beating from one's beloved is as sweet as raisins	accepting everything a lover does, a posy from the beloved is a ruby (Love is blind)

The underlined words above are the noun phrases used in the colloquial Jordanian Arabic proverbs with reference to food and eating.

VI. Discussion

As a final point, it seems that proverbs with the verbless clause construction have the prepositional phrase as the prominent part since it prevails in most cases in this category. Actually, proverbs and sayings related to food and eating are similar to other kinds of proverbs regarding the utilization of syntactic aspects. Furthermore, it appears that these proverbs and sayings are limited to specific syntactic structures, namely, imperative, interrogative and verbless clauses in terms of their syntactic structures. To be more accurate, the verbless clause is the most 51 prominent structure (11 proverbs), then the imperative form (8 proverbs) and the interrogative (5 proverbs) one respectively.

VII. Conclusion

The present study intends to study the colloquial Jordanian food proverbs and sayings in terms of their syntactic formulas. Analyzing the syntactic patterns of Jordanian proverbs and sayings with reference to food and eating is the overarching purpose of conducting this study. This study hoped to fill a gap and lead to a great understanding of the topic since it is conducted on the Arabic-speaking community, namely, Jordanian society. The researchers attempt to prove that food proverbs are systematic and rule-governed due to the existence of syntactic patterns. Finally, the study findings revealed that these proverbs are limited to specific syntactic structures, namely, imperative, interrogative and verbless clauses in terms of their syntactic structures.

APPENDIX

List of Phonetic Symbols
1. Consonants:

Symbol	Description	Arabic Consonant
?	Glottal stop	أ
b	Voiced bilabial stop	ب
t	Voiceless dento-alveolar stop	ت
Ө	Voiceless interdental fricative	ث
j	Voiced post-alveolar affricate	ج
H	Voiceless pharyngeal fricative	ح
X	Voiceless velar fricative	خ
d	Voiced dento-alveolar stop	د
Đ	Voiced interdental fricative	ذ
r	Voiced alveo-palatal trill	ر
z	Voiced alveolar fricative	ز
s	Voiceless alveolar fricative	س
Š	Voiceless alveo-palatal fricative	ش
S	Voiceless alveolar emphatic fricative	ص
D	Voiced alveolar emphatic stop	ض
T	Voiceless dento-alveolar emphatic fricative	ط
ţ	Voiced interdental emphatic fricative	ظ
9	Voiced pharyngeal fricative	ع
γ	Voiced velar fricative	غ
f	Voiceless labio-dental fricative	ف
k	Voiceless velar stop	ك
l	Voiced alveolar lateral	ل
m	Voiced bilabial nasal	م
n	Voiced alveolar nasal	ن
h	Voiceless glottal fricative	ه
w	Voiced labiovelar glide	و
y	Voiced palatal glide	ي
Q	Voiced velar stop	ق (العامية)

2. Vowels:

Vowel	Description	Symbol
◌َ fatHah	Short low vowel	a
◌ُ Dammah	Short high back vowel	u
◌ِ kasrah	Short high front vowel	i

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Hamzah Faleh Migdadi is an assistant professor of English. He specializes in applied linguistics. His research interests mainly focus on general linguistics, varieties of English, socio-linguistics, Second Language Research, Language Learning Strategies and Corpus Linguistics. He currently works as a supervisor of English at Al-Hussan Group for Education and Training, Saudi Arabia. He works also at the department of English and translation at Islamic University of Minnesota, USA (Part-time). He has several publications in Indexed Journals. ORCiD: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4683-0416

Mohammad Fayyad M. Alqasem is an assistant professor of English. He specializes in linguistics. His research interests mainly focus on general linguistics, varieties of English, socio-linguistics, Second Language Research, Language Learning Strategies. He currently works as an assistant professor at the department of English language, Prince Sattam University, Saudi Arabia.

Shadi Majed Alshraah is a lecturer of English at Prince Sattam University. He is also a Ph.D candidate at USM. His research interests focus on linguistics, teaching English as a foreign language and pragmatics. He currently works as a lecturer of English at the department of English language, Prince Sattam University, Saudi Arabia.

Mustafa Mohammad Alqudah is a full-time lecturer of English and linguistics at the University of Hail, Saudi Arabia. He is mainly specialized in descriptive linguistics, which includes syntax, semantics and pragmatics, phonetics and phonology, and contrastive linguistics. He is chiefly interested in pragmatics, sociolinguistics, and discourse analysis; as per the courses he teaches in the department.

Bowroj Sameh Taany is a teacher of English at Al-Hussan group for education and training. She has a master's degree of linguistics. Her research interests mainly focus on linguistics, socio-linguistics, Second Language Research and Language Learning Strategies.

The Utilization of Balinese Cultural Terms by EFL Students in Their English Writing

I Gusti Agung Sri Rwa Jayantini
Faculty of Foreign Languages, Universitas Mahasaraswati Denpasar, Denpasar, Indonesia

Sang Putu Kaler Surata
Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Universitas Mahasaraswati Denpasar, Denpasar, Indonesia

Putu Desi Anggerina Hikmaharyanti
Faculty of Foreign Languages, Universitas Mahasaraswati Denpasar, Denpasar, Indonesia

Ni Nyoman Deni Ariyaningsih
Faculty of Foreign Languages, Universitas Mahasaraswati Denpasar, Denpasar, Indonesia

Abstract—This study investigates the utilization of Balinese cultural terms in the writing of English as a foreign language (EFL) students. It is intended to identify how the lexicons containing local values are used considering the translation procedures in the student's mind. This qualitative research was conducted with ATLAS.ti software to visually present the connectedness of each lexicon with one another and to report the procedures of translation the students chose. When inserting the Balinese lexicons into their writing, the students involved in this study were still influenced by the concept of translation. With the translation procedures in mind, they applied transference, literal translation, functional equivalent, descriptive equivalent, and the combination of two and three procedures, namely, couplet and triplet, to be able to communicate their ideas involving the Balinese lexicons in their English writing. This study sheds some light on the application of translation procedures when students use local language terms in their foreign language writing. The students borrowed the local lexicons and gave an additional explanation to clarify their values. This finding indicates that having the concept of translation, and particularly the procedures of translation, can assist EFL students in broadening their knowledge of the existence of Balinese cultural terms as well as utilizing them by applying translation procedures to clarify the meaning of the terms in their writing to create communicative writing.

Index Terms—Balinese cultural terms, procedures of translation, EFL writing

I. INTRODUCTION

As a productive skill, writing in English as a foreign language (EFL) is considered a challenging task for both students and teachers. For significant improvement, this skill requires students to be able to develop their cognitive analysis and linguistic mastery (Ridha, 2012; Marue & Pantas, 2019). With these strengths, it is believed that students will be able to confidently present interesting and communicative writing. For their future career, language skills, including writing, are beneficial not only in the academic field but also for any kind of job (Alharbi, 2017). In the Indonesian context, teachers can obviously perceive that writing has its own challenges (Widiati & Cahyono, 2006; Megawati & Anugerahwati, 2012; Ariyanti, 2016; Napitupulu, 2017; Hidayati, 2018). EFL writing activity involves the issues of accuracy and fluency demonstrated in the students' writing (Widiati & Cahyono, 2006), the external factor including the learning environment, the internal factor coming from the learners themselves (Hidayati, 2018) and the patience of teachers to give appropriate time for every writing instruction. The two skills in writing covering technical aspects and idea presentation might challenge the students to develop their writing ability, since the thoughts expressed in their works not only reflect academic skill but also can be used by their readers as a means of gaining information about many different issues, such as the economy and globalization of intercultural interaction (Alharbi, 2017).

This study discusses a fascinating phenomenon that takes place when EFL students must use cultural terms in their writing. Here, cultural terms refer to the local and religious values found in the students' native language, i.e., Balinese. The "what and how" aspects are explored regarding the types of cultural terms the students use and how they adopt the procedures of translation when inserting the local terms into their English writing. The participants involved in this study were undergraduate students. They are English department students at one private university in Bali, Indonesia. In the context of English teaching and learning in Bali, the process and results of writing activity in the classroom can be prospectively used to promote the richness of Balinese culture.

The presentation of cultural issues in writing may reflect the values that one can explore to create meaning in people's lives. This study intends to identify how such lexicons are used considering the translation procedures in the student's mind. This study assumes that while the students are expressing their ideas, they are applying translation

procedures to make the terms acceptable and do not ruin the readability of the text, particularly when the readers do not understand the cultural concepts reflected by the terms used in the students' writing. Writing can be utilized to explore the students' experiences and feelings on how they must promote their local culture. In their English writing, the native language may influence the students when they must introduce and utilize the cultural terms in their native language. Such a phenomenon is the hidden influence in the process of language mastery (Budiharto, 2019).

Many studies have investigated EFL classroom teaching and learning activities that focus on writing and how the student–teachers are struggling to gain improvement. As far as this is concerned, however, there has not been a specific discussion to explore the mapping of strategies that the students apply when they must use cultural terms of a local language in their writing. This study attempts to investigate the application of the translation procedures used by students whenever local terms must be utilized in their writing. By mapping and discussing each of the translation procedures used to explain the concepts of the terms, it is expected that the study could contribute to two benefits, i.e., development of the EFL writing model and contextual application of cultural terms translation.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Prior to developing the present study as well as to enrich the presentation of the results, this section reviews several related studies that are considered fundamental to the validity of the research. The closest related topics are (1) the interference of the first language (L1) in English writing, (2) translation in EFL classroom management, and (3) translation procedures of cultural terms.

A. The Interference of L1 in EFL Writing

Dealing with the efforts of EFL students in developing their writing skills, previous studies reported that learners' first language (L1) influenced their mastery of foreign language. The findings demonstrated that first language comprehension and understanding impacted foreign language learning, including writing (Ridha, 2012; Budiharto, 2019: Mohammed, 2021; Rubab & Zaidi, 2022). When assigned to write in English, it was found that the learners were interfered with by their first language, ranging from the lexical to the grammatical level (Ridha, 2012). Within the design of error analysis research, several studies found the influences of L1 in EFL writing, as for example found in Ridha's research (2012), which reports that the grammatical errors made by EFL learners involve tenses, articles, pronouns, singular and plural forms, and prepositions. Similar results were also found by Mohammed (2021). The errors from the lexical and grammatical levels, such as articles, tenses, pronouns, and prepositions, are completed with the misunderstanding of negative and interrogative constructions. All of these grammatical features are found to be problems in writing (Mohammed, 2021). Such findings indicate that the interference of L1 may not be irrefutable in writing.

In the Arabic context, both positive and negative influences were identified in EFL writing activities. The influences were considered general conditions, while the application of grammatical structures was the particular aspect that could be narrowed down into several items for the learners' and teachers' attention (Mohammed, 2021). Tense errors became the major aspects in grammar that influenced the process of mastering the language, especially English (Ridha, 2012). Ridha (2012) emphasized that EFL learners were still influenced by their mother tongue in producing their writing to share ideas. Grammatical errors and mechanical errors were the most frequent conditions leading to recommendations for teachers and students to gain better writing skills. With similar findings in the case of learning English for students whose mother language is Arabic, Mohammed (2021) also found that Arabic influences students' EFL writing in terms of grammatical aspects such as articles, tenses, pronouns, prepositions, and negative and interrogative constructions.

In the Indonesian context, writing is also a very challenging activity in EFL classrooms (Budiharto, 2019; Marue & Pantas, 2019). Indonesian EFL students depend greatly on their native language when they have to make a composition in English (Budiharto, 2019). He conducted exploratory research aimed at investigating the interference of the learners' native language on their writing and identifying frequent errors from the grammatical point of view. The study was also conducted to report whether the Indonesian language, as the students' mother tongue, influenced them to write the assigned topics. As seen from Budiharto's research finding (2019), the grammar and meaning of lexical items are the major problems. This finding is in line with the typical difficulties that Indonesian EFL students usually encounter, i.e., mastering grammar, enhancing vocabulary, presenting appropriate diction, correcting spelling and developing ideas (Marue & Pantas, 2019).

B. Translation in EFL Class

As first reviewed by Calis and Dikilitas (2012) before presenting their research results on the role of translation in EFL class, the process of learning translation tasks can promote learners' receptive skills and productive skills. Translation may play a role as a means of delivering a pedagogical task that occurs in the EFL environment. As a medium of learning, translation can be utilized and explored. Meanwhile, writing can be used as a means of widening the scope of learning. This trend is not only for language knowledge but also for learning strategies in China (You, 2004). Translation may help students convey the meaning of their writing with particular accuracy in their writing. It is interesting to dive deeper on the research of how translation is used as a learning strategy. Translation is still adopted as a learning strategy in writing class (Kuluşakh et al., 2018). Teachers are challenged to connect translation and the

enhancement of writing as a gained skill in EFL classes (Mbeudeu, 2017). Motivated to determine the role of translation in EFL learning, Calis and Dikilitas (2012) conducted research and concluded that translation can be utilized as part of learning activities. Translation activity is believed to be a means of developing their skills.

Calis and Dikilitas (2012) analysed elementary learners' reaction to the application of translation in the process of second language (L2) learning practice. With the idea to investigate the role of translation in EFL classrooms, the study involved English learners who learned grammar with exercises based on the principles of translation that were used to support the L2 learning technique. The perception of the students was gained through a questionnaire as well as interview questions. Positive ideas were given by the participants to support the use of translation as a practice. More specifically, they believed that the use of translation could help the students improve their reading ability and memorize various vocabularies. They also reported that translation assisted them in their learning process by applying translation as a strategy supported by bilingual dictionaries. Little has been said about the methodology in which translation practice can be turned into a systematic pedagogical tool. This study attempts to apply translation teaching and learning practice in the classroom and reveals how this application can influence learners' views about the use of translation for this purpose (Calis & Dikilitas, 2012).

Meanwhile, Mbeudeu (2017) investigated how English as a foreign language (EFL) teaching and learning process, particularly in Cameroon, ultimately must be aimed at acquiring a linguistic skill, including sociolinguistic competence, and a communicative skill through the appropriate methods and learning strategies. Despite the debates on the most suitable methodology in the classroom, Mbeudeu (2017) tried to deepen the understanding of the application of the much-criticized grammar translation method for the teaching and learning of EFL in Cameroon. It focused on the use of translation-based activities to improve the accuracy of learners' writing practices and how the Anglophone and Francophone teachers of EFL in Cameroon felt about the method. The method was believed to help the students improve their accuracy in writing as well as achieve another skill, that is, translation. However, the study also found that the application of the translation method must be controlled by the teachers themselves. There were steps of gradual discard when the students were starting their higher level, that is, when they gained their progress in the lower level.

Another relevant study to the present research was conducted by Kuluşaklı et al. (2018). The research was undertaken to explore the contribution of translation as a learning strategy in EFL learning. The investigation involved Turkish EFL learners to identify the type of translation-related strategies utilized by the learners and to report the effects of the application of translation as a part of the learners' learning process. Several methods can be used in EFL learning activities involving cognitive strategies to help students improve their English language skills. Translation was believed to be one of the cognitive strategies in foreign language learning. Despite the negative attitudes towards the use of translation in teaching a language, there was still optimism about the significant role of translation in developing language teaching and learning activities.

C. Translation of Cultural Terms

With regard to the translation of cultural terms and how translation activities challenge the translators, Newmark (1988) identified the categories of cultural terms, namely, ecology, material culture, social culture, social organization including political and administrative, and gestures and habits. Newmark's concept of cultural terms is specifically adopted in this study, focusing on ecology and social culture since the terms used by the students under investigation are plants for ceremonies and how they are related to people's lives. The application of Newmark's categories on cultural terms and the procedures of translation have been adopted in many studies on translation (Daghoughi & Hashemian, 2016; Sembiring & Panggabean, 2018; Halim & Asmarani, 2019; Istiqomah & Gunawan, 2019; Aljabri, 2020). Since this study relates to how EFL students present Balinese cultural terms in their English writing, mapping of translation strategies on cultural terms translation is needed.

Adopting Newmark's classification of cultural terms and procedures of translation, Halim and Asmarani (2019) found that several categories of cultural terms can have different translation procedures. The applied procedures of translation are borrowing, calque, literal translation, equivalence, modulation, transposition, and adaptation, following Vinay and Dalbernet (in Venuti, 2000). Halim and Asmarani (2019) found that borrowing is one of the predominant procedures applied for the translation of cultural terms that leads to a sense of foreignizing the terms, as reported in Istiqomah and Gunawan (2019). Foreignization in the translation of cultural terms used for literary works is considered the translator's way of taking the readers closer to the cultural atmosphere of the original story. The adoption of several procedures in translating cultural terms was also discovered by Sembiring and Panggabean (2018). It was found that several procedures may be adopted to overcome the problem of translation. Functional equivalent was frequently applied to bridge the gap when no exact concept of culture was found in different languages; thus, the translation of cultural words ended up neutralizing or generalizing the SL word by applying the functional equivalent. Furthermore, Sembiring and Panggabean (2018) gave an insight that if the equivalent is not found, the creation of a new procedure is possible that adds a familiar culture-bound term.

Simply put, Aljabri (2020) preferred to define the process of translating cultural terms in a literary work as conservation that leads to the tendency of recreating the SL culture in the context of English–Arabic translation. The conservation strategy realized through orthographic translation and linguistic translation dominates the translation that leads readers to recognize the SL culture while reading the result of the translation. Meanwhile, in the case of Persian–English translation, Daghoughi and Hashemian (2016) found that the functional equivalent is the most predominant

procedure over fourteen other Newmark procedures of translation. Daghoughi's analysis indicated that in translating cultural terms, the functional equivalent can be considered the strategy that is effective to reach the comprehensibility of the translation result by the choice of nonculture-specific items in the translation.

III. METHODS

This study employed a qualitative descriptive method that is formally presented by ATLAS.ti mapping, with the classified data processed by the software. Sixteen English department students in the second semester of the 2020-2021 academic year in the Faculty of Foreign Languages, Universitas Mahasaraswati Denpasar, Bali, Indonesia, were involved in this study. The involved students were first selected based on their writing skill showing the range of good to excellent performance. As one of the focuses in the Writing for Social Discourse course, the students were expected to be able to improve their writing, particularly to write a descriptive writing as one text genre with the specific topic on culture and environmental issues. To be able to discuss the topic cohesively and develop the issues comprehensively, the students were taken to a field study activity. They went to Demulih, a village in one of the regencies in Bali. Considering that the village has many potential cultural capitals, including the landscape and natural resources of plants for ceremonies, the customary rules about the sacred hill surrounding the village, the temples and ceremonies, and the cultural and art activities, the site was chosen for the students to look for the fascinating themes and cultural terms they must use in their writing. In addition, this village was actually the researchers' research site to implement the current Indonesian government policy of freedom learning activities outside of the classroom, which is virally known as *Kampus Merdeka* (this term can be literally translated as campus for *kampus* and freedom for *merdeka*).

In line with the focus of this study, which is to identify how the students cope with difficulties in the utilization of the Balinese terms in their writing, this study digs deeper into the qualitative analysis of the translation procedures that are believed to exist in the students' minds. In mapping the terms, several steps are taken following the steps of the interactive model in analysing data from Miles et al. (2013). ATLAS.ti, which is software used for qualitative data analysis, was chosen to assist the researchers in mapping the connectedness of the local terms mentioned by the students in their writing. Following Miles et al.'s procedures of qualitative data analysis, this study designed the phases in analysing data as follows:

1. Data Reduction

The identification started with reading the students' work. The task of writing was given after considering the characteristics of the course that enabled them to write about social phenomena in English. They had to be able to express their ideas in the form of writing an English descriptive text about a village named Demulih, which was located in the eastern part of the Bali island. Data reduction was conducted to meet the validity of the analysed data. It was done to anticipate double data input in the classification.

2. Data Display

This step was realized by highlighting the terms inputted in ATLAS.ti, as shown in Figure 1. This was the step of classifying the terms found in the students' writing. The mapping of the cultural terms was done first, and that was followed by the classification of the procedures of translation. The terms and their translations were carefully classified. All students' writings were thoroughly observed to map the types of translation procedures applied by the students.

Figure 1 Word Cloud of the Data Gathered From ATLAS.ti

3. Conclusions: Drawing/Verifying

Verification was performed by drawing a conclusion about the applied translation procedures. After identifying the translation procedures, the conclusion was made to show that when the students were assigned to write a composition in English with cultural terms in their writing, translation procedures were utilized. They were helped by this utilization.

The strategies that the students applied involved the procedures of translation that were intended to make the readers recognize the values and concepts of the cultural terms.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This study assumes that when it comes to writing a particular theme on cultural issues, EFL students usually face difficulties in utilizing the cultural terms. They have to decide whether they borrow the terms, give a literal translation, or provide an explanation to clarify the meaning and values of the terms they utilize. Given the application of translation procedures in the process of writing, the EFL students choose different types of cultural terms that need to be included in their writing. Thus, it is clear that this study is not intended to specifically discuss the grammar-translation methods in EFL teaching activities, nor is it intended to specifically discuss the quality of the translation work. Instead, it is to report the translation procedures included in the process of their writing. Whether the students realize it or not, what the students have in mind is actually the translation procedures. They usually apply them to translate the specific terms used in their writing.

As it has been posed earlier, this study found that when writing texts about a particular culture, the EFL students applied translation procedures to clarify the meaning of the cultural terms used in their writing. The translation procedures were applied to make the meaning of the cultural concepts clear. Students must be able to transfer the meaning contained in the terms that represent local and cultural values. When the students were asked to write in English with the specific topic of religious events and a lot of cultural terms had to be used, they applied translation procedures to explain the meaning of the terms. They gave explanation in their writing, as well as made their writing meaningful and the existence of the cultural terms understandable. To achieve all these objectives, the students chose many ways of making their writing communicative and effective. In this case, translation played its role. Then it was worthwhile work to come to the investigation. By conducting this study, how the EFL students present the terms to make the readers understand their writing becomes clear. Furthermore, this investigation can be used as a model of analysis to explain how EFL students incorporate cultural terms from their native language into their English writing. The results are reported in Table 1.

TABLE 1
TRANSLATION PROCEDURES USED IN THE EFL STUDENTS' WRITING

Translation Procedure	Occurrence	Percentage
Transference	103	36.27
Literal translation	16	5.63
Functional equivalent	9	3.17
Descriptive equivalent	52	18.31
Couplet	18	6.34
Triplet	86	30.28
Total	284	100.00

Table 1 presents the total number of terms utilized by the students. The sixteen involved students utilized the cultural terms to show events and activities, plants for ceremony, sacred places, and other related environmental issues. Transference takes the highest applied procedure percentage, that is 103 terms (36,27%); literal translation is applied to translate 16 terms (5,63%); functional equivalent is applied to translate 9 terms (3,17%); descriptive equivalent is used to transfer the meaning of 52 terms (18,31%); couplet shows the use of two procedures at the same time, which is found in 18 terms (6,34%); and triplet is applied to translate 86 terms (30,28%). The presentation of the finding and its interpretation is given in the next section to show the examples of the cultural terms that the students use in their writing. A specific discussion is given to the translation procedures. The discussion includes transference, literal translation, functional equivalence, descriptive equivalent, couplet, and triplet.

To map how the translation procedures like, for example, transference that dominates the transfer of meaning, as shown in table 1, this study tries to map the density of the terms that result in the application of translation procedures. The mapping is done by means of ATLAS.ti to visually show what terms are translated and the number of their occurrences. The application of translation procedures shows that translation helps students when they have to use local terms in their English writing. The highest frequency of transference indicates that the local terms are irreplaceable and their originality needs to be presented.

Translation of Cultural Terms in EFL Writing

A. Transference

Transference is the process of transferring an SL word to a TL text (Newmark, 1988). It is the way the translator transfers the meaning by borrowing the source language's lexicon into the target language context. This study recorded 103 data of transference procedure to render the meaning of Balinese cultural terms. The students applied transference to the very specific term whose equivalent or more general term in English is not found. Take, for example, the term *daksina*, which means one of the most important kinds of offerings, consisting of a bucket-shaped basket (*kakul* or *wakul*) made of coconut or *lontar* leaves, into which is put a whole shaved coconut, uncooked rice, egg, decorative leaves (*plawa*), fruit, ingredients of the betel chew, and other foods. "The *daksina* represents the world and all of the

foods available in it. The water of the world is in the coconut. The container of a *daksina* is called a *wakul*. In some areas, the terms wakul and kakul are used interchangeably" (https://dictionary.basabali.org/Daksina).

An interesting phenomenon to note is that if students cannot find the terms in English, they will directly translate them. The word *daksina* is rendered as *daksina* itself in the students' writing because they may not be able to figure out the equivalent meaning of *daksina. Furthermore*, there is no equivalent word to represent *daksina* in English unless it is borrowed and explained with the elements contained in the *daksina* to make the reader imagine the figure and understand the meaning of this ritual lexicon. Another example is the word *caru*. They did not translate the word into the English equivalent. As explained in https://dictionary.basabali.org/Caru, *caru* is "a purification ceremony for land with the blood sacrifice of one or more animals." In other words, *caru* is a Hindu sacrifice ceremony. *The term "caru"* was borrowed into the target language, English, because the students used the word "caru" for specific terminology in Hindu ritual and did not translate it. Students used the word "caru" in their sentences. The two examples show that the transference procedure is applied in order to stay with the originality of the ritual lexicon as well as to promote the word to the readers so they have a new word in ritual terminology.
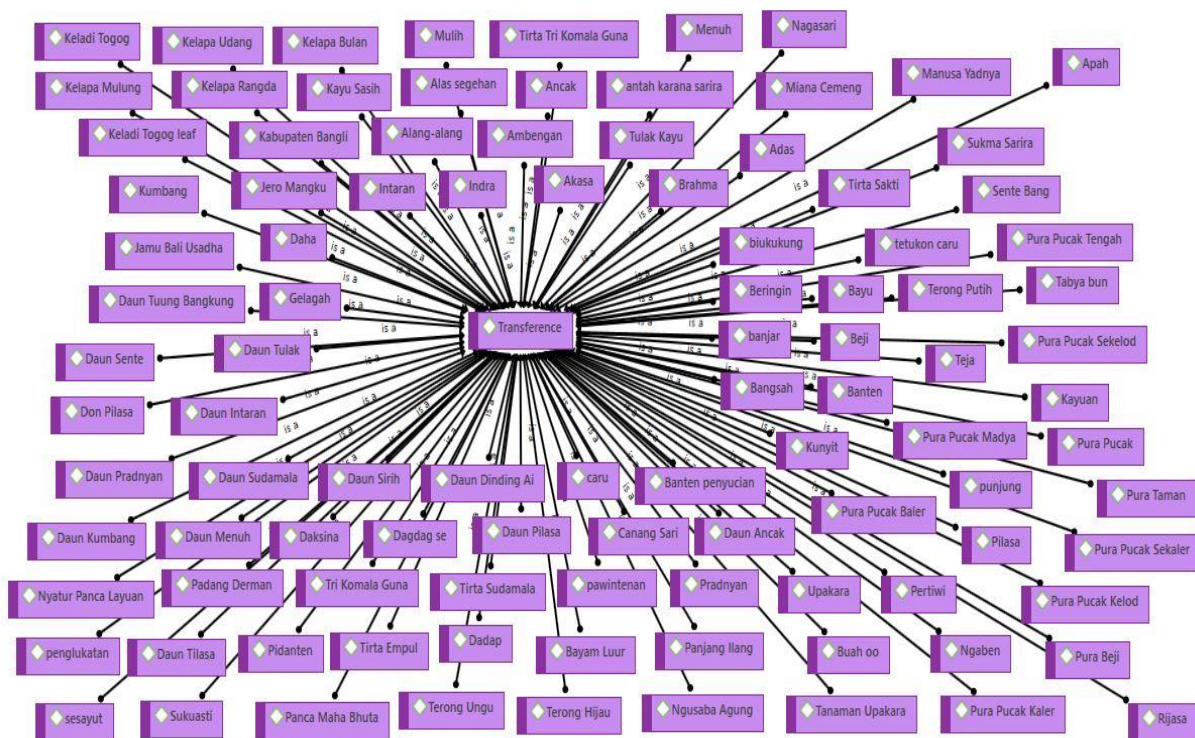
Figure 2 ATLAS.ti' s Mapping of Transference Applied by the Students

Figure 2 indicates that the transference procedure is shown in a dense connection. Compared to others, transference occurs most frequently when the students need to mention the name of the leaves for ceremony and have the tendency to mention the name of the plants. The application of transference as one strategy makes the students maintain the meaning. The interference of the local language, which is the students' first language, that occurs through the application of the translation procedures is part of the transfer of meaning from the local language into English. This shows the supportive role of translation in learning a language, especially in writing activities. The present study gives an understanding that translation is a substantial way during the language learning process, particularly to deal with the use of local language terms in the learners' writing.

B. Literal Translation

Literal translation in the students' writing is found to be applied when the students utilize cultural terms that they think are familiar and have a general meaning, or not too specific. Of the 285 data, thirteen data show the application of literal translation when the students use the terms in their writing. This transfer is categorized as literal translation when there is a tendency to find "the nearest TL equivalent," although the clear concept of Newmark's literal translation is that "SL grammatical constructions are converted to their nearest TL equivalents." The concept of having the closest equivalent is adopted in the translation of the cultural term and does not merely focus on the grammatical construction of both SL and TL terms. It is because the translation is seen from the semantic point of view, which is more concerned with the lexical equivalent. The classification and the specific features of the terms focus on the effort of trying to explain the SL meaning literally, since most of the terms classified in this translation procedure are general terms whose equivalents in English are very obvious.

The application of literal translation is shown in figure 3. It shows that the number of terms translated through literal translation is not as many as the terms transferred into the target language using literal transference. Figure 3 demonstrates the literal translation is applied to several plants needed for religious ceremonies, like *alang-alang*, which is variously called cogon grass or reed by different students. The students tried to guess the equivalent of the plants needed for the ceremony. The other examples are *gelagah* (wild cane)*, banana (*pisang*), *beringin (*banyan leaf)*, *kelapa (*coconut*), *enau* (palm leaf), *kunyit (*turmeric*), and frangipani, which is meant for the equivalent of *kamboja*. In the translation of the plants typically needed for ceremonies, the students use literal translation and do not choose to directly transfer the terms because they are mostly the plants found in many areas and they have their equivalent in different languages. The students translate the word *gelagah* with the English translation of "*wild cane"* and put the equivalent in parentheses to introduce the meaning in English. They did it differently. Some students use the English word followed by the Indonesian equivalent inside the parentheses or vice versa.
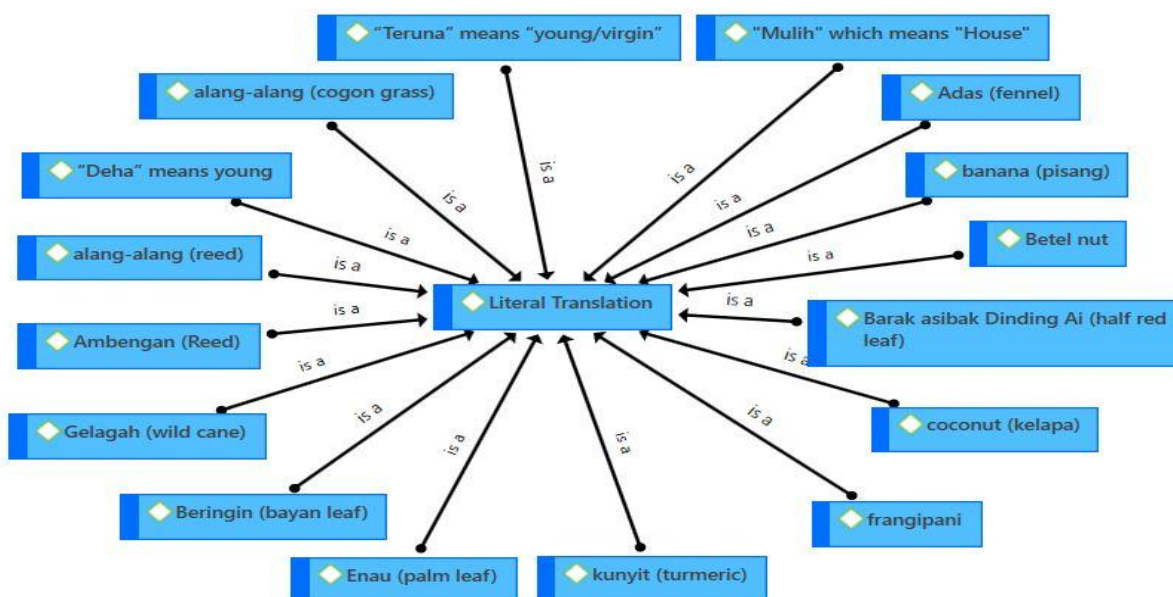
Figure 3 ATLAS.ti' s Mapping of Literal Translation Applied by the Students

Figure 3 also shows the translation of other classes of cultural terms to explain the meaning of very specific concepts found in the site research. The terms *teruna* and *daha* are also shown in Figure 3 to add to the utilization of the terms presenting the concept of culture. To explain the terms, the students have their own way of writing the terms: *teruna*, meaning young or virgin, and *daha*, which means young. The two terms having the same concept of "young" are transferred using the closest natural equivalent. Both terms refer to the same association to explain the terms that are used in the students' writing. The application of literal translation is chosen by the students to translate the terms that are not too specific and function as the identity of the local names for plants used in the religious ceremony.

C. Functional Equivalence

Functional equivalence means using a referent in the TL culture whose function is similar to that of the source language (SL) referent. A functional equivalent is a common procedure applied to cultural words that requires the use of a culture-free word, sometimes with a new specific word. Thus, the equivalent neutralizes or generalizes the SL word. This study found only nine data related to words and phrases rendered by using the functional equivalence procedure. For example, the word *banten* (offering) in Bali means a symbol of the implementation of Hindu rituals as a form of gratitude before Ida Sang Hyang Widhi Wasa (God Almighty). *Banten* as *Yadnya* in the implementation of ritual ceremonies of Hinduism is classified into their respective functions called *Panca Yadnya*, which consists of *Dewa Yadnya, Pitra Yadnya, Rsi Yadnya, Manusa Yadnya,* and *Bhuta Yadnya.* Thus, based on the function of the word *banten*, the students use the word to represent a Balinese offering.

The second example showing the application of functional equivalent is the word *Jro Mangku*. The students present the term as "saint" to refer to the *temple priest*. *Jro Mangku* is "the one who leads the ceremony." He/she has the responsibility to purify certain ceremonies and to carry out ceremonies in holy places or temples "(https://dictionary.basabali.org/Mangku). The term "saint" seems to neutralize the term to promote the values of the Hindu cultural term and the leader in the social organization related to the ceremony.
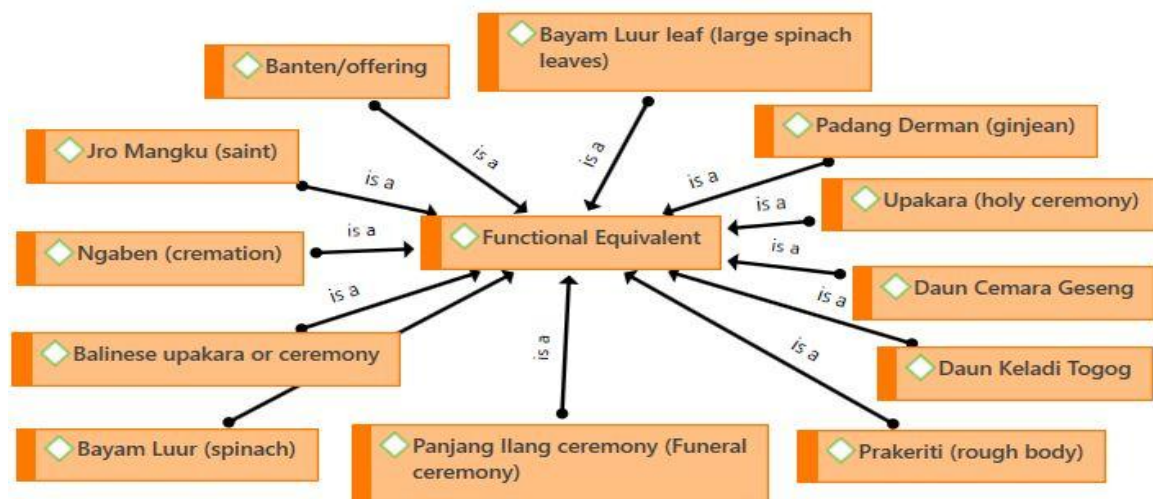
Figure 4 ATLAS.ti's Mapping of Functional Equivalent Applied by the Students

Figure 4 demonstrates that a functional equivalent is used to neutralize the Balinese term *upakara*. It is translated into a ceremony. The term *upakara* is translated into two terms like "only" ceremony and "holy" ceremony, the term *ngaben* with cremation. Here, the application of the translation procedure is very clear and shows the concept of functional equivalent to be applied when the use of a culturally free word, sometimes with a new specific word, is made. It indicates one way of neutralizing or generalizing the SL terms. Basically, the phrase "*holy ceremony"* represents the word *upakara*, yet it is not specific because many holy ceremonies are conducted by Balinese Hindu people. When the students choose to give the translation like a *holy Hindu ceremony*, it would be more natural in meaning. The students may interpret the word *upakara* as a holy ceremony because the context of their writing presents information and descriptions about the cultural values of Balinese life. The application of functional equivalent helps the student to easily get the equivalent, and the students tend to choose it.

D. Descriptive Equivalence

In the application of descriptive procedure, the meaning of the cultural terms is explained in several words (Newmark, 1988). There are 52 data shown as the application of the descriptive equivalence procedure. This procedure is used by the students to explain the cultural terms that have no equivalent words in English and may be difficult for them to find the exact translation of those terms. For instance, *mebanten saiban* is translated by giving the essential meaning of the words, like a small *upakara* (ceremony) that Balinese do after cooking. The students use their descriptions to render the meaning of *mebanten saiban*. Another descriptive procedure is in the ters *Manusa Yadnya*. For non-Balinese natives, they will have no idea of this term unless there is an equivalent word to represent the meaning. Unfortunately, the students, who are natives, also found difficulty in translating *Manusa Yadnya*. Then, by describing the meaning of *Manusa Yadnya* based on their understanding since they were born as Balinese, and from their reference, *Manusa Yadnya* is rendered into a holy sacrifice offered for the perfection of human life.
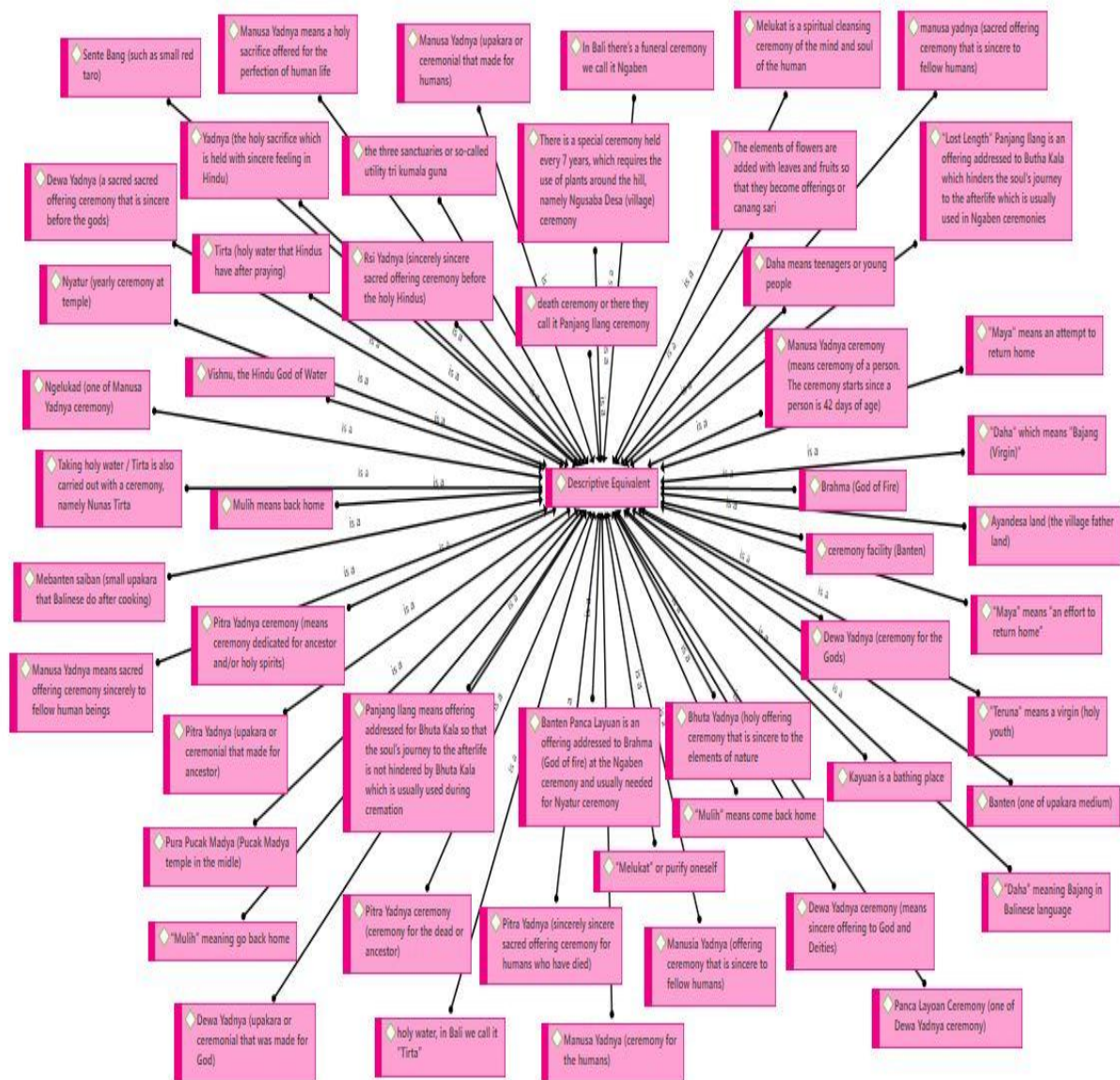
Figure 5 ATLAS.ti's Mapping of Descriptive Equivalent

Figure 5 shows the mapping of the descriptive equivalent procedure in which 52 terms are descriptively explained by the English students. In the boxes of ATLAS.ti's mapping, the typical way of describing the terms is demonstrated. Several other examples that show the application of descriptive equivalence indicate the tendency that students need to explain the concept contained in the terms. For instance, the term *nunas tirta* refers to a cultural activity explained by the student as taking holy water or *tirta*, which is also carried out with a ceremony. The rendering of information is not perfectly done by the students since the sense of *nunas tirta* is not just "to take." It is more appropriate to say it with the phrase "to ask for." As part of a holy ceremony in Bali, Balinese people usually do *nunas tirta* (*nunas* means ask for, *tirta* is holy water) to make every ceremony successfully conducted, and the people involved in every ritual blessed by God. Another example that demonstrates the application of descriptive equivalents to a cultural activity conducted by Balinese people is the *Pitra Yadnya* ceremony, which refers to a ceremony dedicated to ancestors and/or holy spirits. The examples show that the translation of certain rituals having specific concepts and intentions is realized through descriptive equivalence.

E. Couplet

The application of the couplet is shown in Figure 6 to help the EFL students use the cultural terms in their writing without leaving any questions for the readers concerning the existence of the terms. A couplet is the combination of two different procedures. Take one example found in Figure 6: holy water, which is the translation of *air suci* (Indonesian) that refers to *tirta* (Balinese, the local language). Here, literal translation is applied to the translation of the terms in the

phrase, like "holy" in Indonesian is *suci, and* "water" in Indonesian is *air*. The students understand the concept of *tirta* in Balinese, then they try to transfer it based on the concept in Indonesian. Another example of couplet's application in the students' writing is the term "temple environment," which is derived from what the students think of as "lingkungan pura." In this term, "temple" is *pura* and "environment" is *lingkungan*. In this case, the couplet occurs through the combination of literal translation and shift. Literal translation is used to translate the words in the source language literally. In Indonesian, shift is applied because there is a change in the head of the noun phrase, which is usually modified with post-modifiers. The head is followed by its modifying elements.
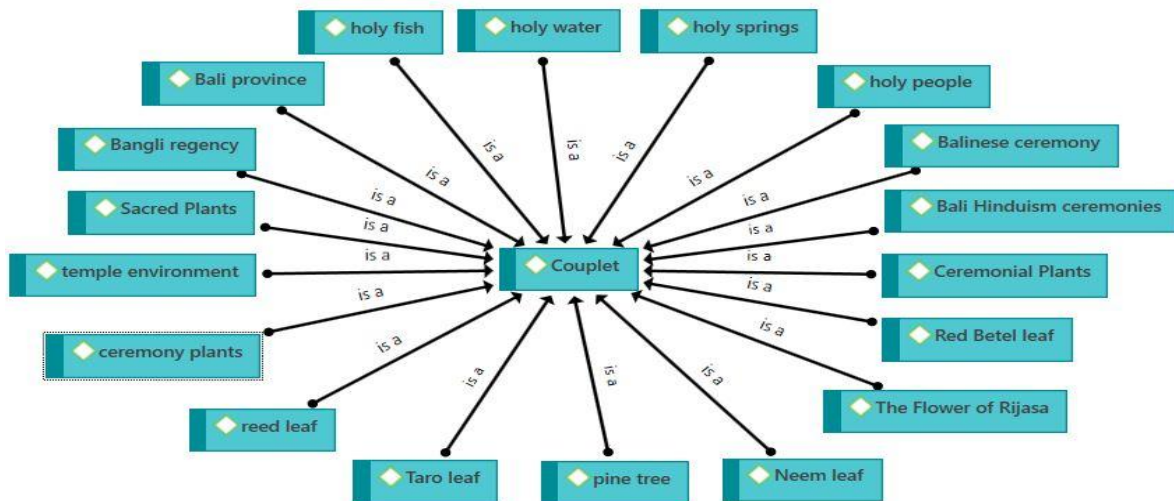
Figure 6 ATLAS.ti' s Mapping of Couplet Applied by the Students

As can be seen in Figure 6, couplet, which is the combination of two translation procedures, is adopted by the students who need to use them to translate phrases like *tanaman upakara* (literally, this term means plants for ceremony) that become ceremony plants and *ceremonial plants (the inappropriate translation is also found when the students think of functioning the word "ceremony" as the adjective). Here, the translation procedure for a couplet consists of literal translation and shift. This means that in a phrase, for example, if the term has two words, each of the words is translated literally. However, shifts also occur because there is a change in the construction of the term concerning the different construction of English and Indonesian phrases. In most cases in this study, the noun phrases containing Balinese local terms are constructed by nouns plus modifying elements, which are translated into English noun phrases that have the construction of modifier + noun. In the translation of phrases, the students combine literal translation with a shift that shows the different constructions of noun phrases in Indonesian, particularly the position of the head of the phrase and its modifier.

F. Triplet

This procedure occurs when the translator combines three different procedures (Newmark, 1988). The students applied triplet in translating cultural terms, specifically the names of ritual Hindu lexicons, several plants for ceremony, names of villages, specific places, and holy places. In this case, the name of the place, plant for ceremony or event is directly transferred. Then, the other elements in the phrases are translated through literal translation. The difference in construction between English and Indonesian phrases also caused a shift. For the application of triplets in this study, the students mostly utilized transference, literal translation, and shift. It can be seen in the translation of the term *rijasa leaf* from *daun riasa*. This phrase is included in the triplet because it combines three translation procedures. *Rijasa* is borrowed by the application of transference. It includes a transference procedure because it is a Balinese word for a certain leaf for a certain ceremony, named *Rijasa*. The term "leaf" is a literal translation of *daun*, and the construction changes involve translation procedure and shift. As it happens, the change of head and modifier in Indonesian and English phrases show the application of shift.
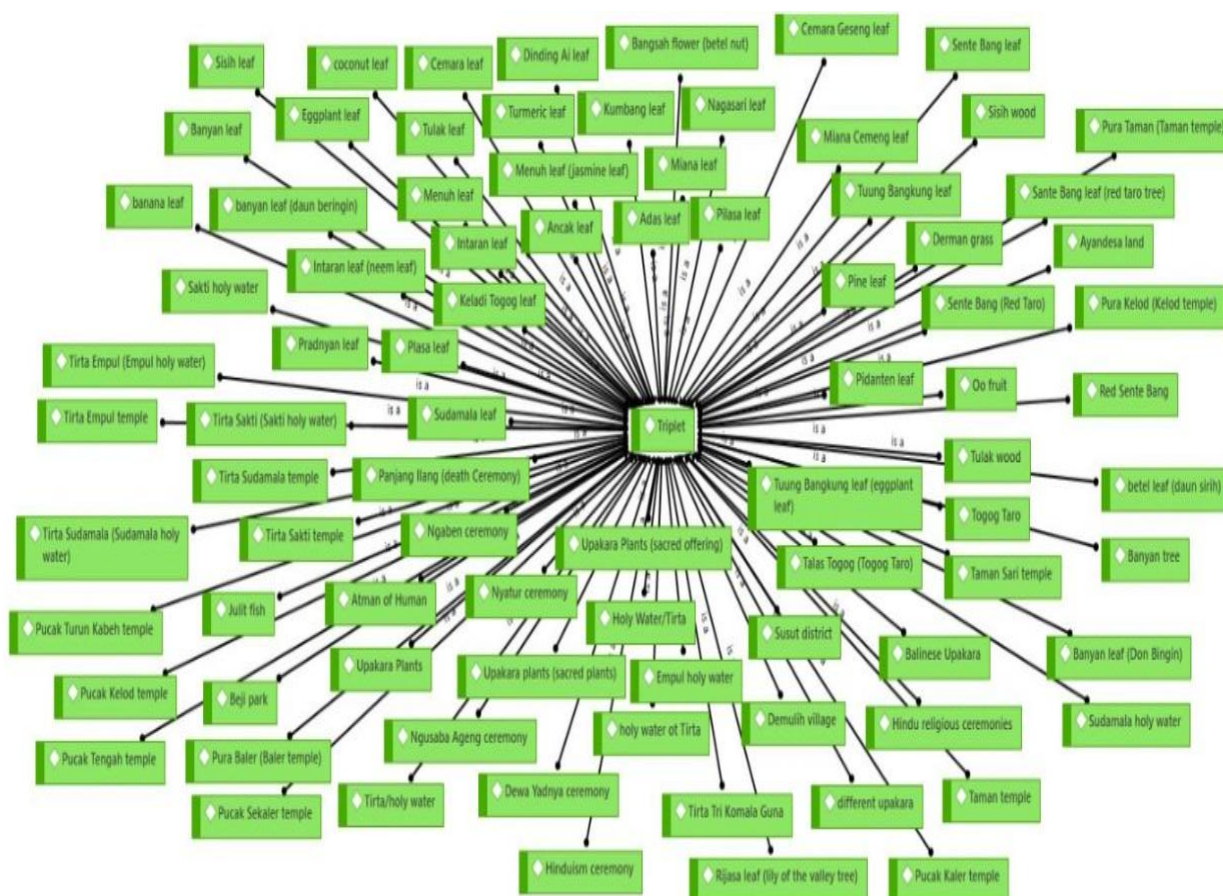
Figure 7 ATLAS.ti' s Mapping of Triplet Applied by the Students

Figure 7 presents the mapping of triplets as the procedure of translation. Observing the utilization of triplets as the procedure of translation shows that triplets are applied when the students deal with the cultural terms in the form of phrases. Triplet is the combination of three procedures of translation that is mostly used to translate the terms showing names of ceremonies, names of places with their identification, and names of plants with their classification. The examples of these three categories are the insertion of several terms related to ceremony, namely *Ngusaba Ageng ceremony*, *Tirta Empul* (Empul holy water), *Tirta Sakti* (Sakti holy water), and it happens in literally translated as it is. In Indonesian, a leaf is *daun*. Here, *daun rijasa* is translated into *rijasa leaf*. The other example is the *Ngaben ceremony*, which also combines transference, literal translation, and shift showing the change of syntactic construction from Indonesian to English phrases.

In their writing for social discourse, the EFL students involved in this research are expected to be able to create comprehensive works on different themes, including a piece of creative text about the cultural events, activities, and values that they relate to environmental issues related to the preservation of culture. When inserting the Balinese lexicons into their writing, the students involved in this study were still influenced by the concept of translation. With the translation procedures in mind, they apply borrowing, literal translation, and additional information to be able to communicate their ideas involving the Balinese lexicons in their English writing. This study sheds some light on the application of translation procedures when the students use the terms in the local language for their foreign language writing. The students borrow the local lexicons and give additional explanations to clarify their values. This finding suggests that understanding translation, particularly translation methods, can help EFL students broaden their knowledge of the existence of Balinese cultural terms and create communicative writing.

V. CONCLUSION

The utilization of cultural terms in the English writing of EFL students involves the application of translation strategies to give a clear understanding of what the terms mean. The use of lexicons representing cultural concepts and local names related to cultural activities involves the application of translation procedures in the student's mind. By applying qualitative research assisted by ATLAS.ti software, this study is able to more obviously present the connectedness of each lexicon translated in the same procedure that the students chose to complete their English writing. This study offers a new way of presenting the result of translation analysis with different texts that connect to the practical setting that is English language learning. In completing their writing assignments, the EFL students were still influenced by the concept of translation when they had to insert the Balinese lexicons into their writing. With the

translation procedures in mind, they apply transference, literal translation, functional equivalent, descriptive equivalent, and the other two combinations with the so-called couplet and triplet. A couplet is the combination of two procedures of translation, while a triplet is the application of three strategies used to translate cultural terms.

The students chose the translation procedures to be able to communicate their ideas involving the Balinese lexicons in their English writing. This study concludes that the application of translation procedures is needed when the students use the terms in the local language for their foreign language writing. The most predominant way to deal with specific cultural terms related to the names of plants for ceremonies is through transference. While introducing the concept of ceremonies and activities, they can give a more general and neutral explanation as well as describe them by adopting functional and descriptive equivalents. This result shows that having the concept of translation, particularly translation methods, helps the EFL students to enhance their knowledge of Balinese cultural terms as well as to create communicative writing.

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I Gusti Agung Sri Rwa Jayantini is an Associate Professor at the English Department, Faculty of Foreign Languages, Universitas Mahasaraswati Denpasar, Bali, Indonesia. Through her research and teaching activities, Jayantini deepens translation and interpreting studies, applied linguistics, as well as ecolinguistics. As she loves literature, she has also published several articles on literary studies.

Sang Putu Kaler Surata is a Professor in Biology Education at Universitas Mahasaraswati Denpasar, but he is concerned with many environmental issues and how to integrate the issues with a teaching model in the classroom. He has been involved in a series of research on the local values and concepts as well as sustainable practices of the *subak* (irrigation system) cultural landscape system in Bali. Many of his research focuses on integrating *Subak*'s values into formal education as an effort to make the local wisdom of the sustainable living model an inspiration in education.

Putu Desi Anggerina Hikmaharyanti is currently working as a lecturer at Universitas Mahasaraswati Denpasar, Bali, Indonesia. She obtained her bachelor's degree in English studies from Universitas Widya Mandala University, Madiun, Indonesia, and a master's degree in linguistics from Universitas Udayana, Denpasar, Indonesia. She is interested in linguistics, literature, translation, and educational management.

Ni Nyoman Deni Ariyaningsih Ariyaningsih is one of the lecturers in the English Department, the Faculty of Foreign Languages, Universitas Mahasaraswati Denpasar. As a graduate of the Faculty of Letters of Udayana University and a master's program in tourism, she is interested in English for Specific Purposes, particularly English for tourism.

Exploring the Usage of Afaan Oromoo (L1) in English as a Foreign Language Classroom: The Case of Primary Schools, Oromia, Ethiopia

Gemechu Bane

Department of Foreign Languages and Literature, Addis Ababa University, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

Tamene Kitila

Department of Foreign Languages and Literature, Addis Ababa University, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

Abstract—Although there have been various claims and counter-claims about the use of L1 in EFL learning, much still remains to be known about what is going on in English classrooms, particularly in primary schools. The current study attempted to shed light on L1 usage in EFL primary school classrooms. The purpose of this paper is to determine why, how, and the extent of L1 in EFL classroom. A descriptive qualitative research, which embraced in-depth interviews and classroom observations, was utilized in the study. The participants were three EFL teachers chosen through purposive sampling. Twelve English language classes were audio-recorded. The data were analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively. The findings reported that Afaan Oromoo was a helpful teaching-learning tool, particularly in clarifying grammatical items and explaining word meanings. The participants not only just welcomed students' L1 in English classes, but they also adopted it as the default language to be used without seeking to utilize any other strategy for English learning and teaching. Therefore, the study advised EFL teachers to develop principles for the judicious and deliberate use of L1 in English classes to improve students' English learning capacities.

Index Terms—L1 (Afaan Oromoo), L2 (English), EFL teachers, judicious use, extent

I. INTRODUCTION

Language usage in the classroom has long been a source of contention in English as a foreign or second language (EFL/ESL) instruction, with frequent shifts between the English-only approach and the use of learners' mother tongue. This concept is generally built around two key components. On the one hand, it advocates that English is best studied and acquired when the target language should be the only medium of communication in the classroom (Tang, 2002). On the other hand, in situations where the student and the teacher share the same L1 in EFL classes, the use of L1 in English classrooms is an unavoidable aspect and sees learners' mother tongue (MT) as a beneficial tool that may facilitate and contribute to learning the target language. These conflicting ideas have been the subject of much research by many scholars. As a result, language-learning classrooms and the use of languages in EFL classrooms have become more contentious and challenging.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. L1 Use in EFL Classes

The use of the first language (L1) in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom has long been a point of contention in second language acquisition (SLA) research, with both proponents and detractors arguing their respective cases. Monolingual advocate (Miles, 2004) believes that the use of L1 in EFL classrooms is detrimental, interfering, and debilitating, and that L1 use diminishes the EFL learning process and limits students' ability to use L2 in the classroom. According to Littlewood (1981), teachers should utilize the target language in all settings to be good role models for students. In addition, the monolingual approach supporters believe that the L1 has no important function in the EFL/ESL classroom and that it may deprive students of valuable input in the L2 and hinder development (Ellis, 1985; Auerbach, 1993).

Nevertheless, numerous studies in the literature demonstrate the significance of L1 use in L2 classes (Campa & Nassaji, 2009). Proponents of L1 use in the L2 classroom claim that L1 helps pupils learn L2 more efficiently (Atkinson, 1987; Sharma, 2006; Tang, 2002). In today's academic circles, at least, a bilingual vision of language classrooms dominates, and the use of both L1 and L2 is acceptable, if not promoted. Advocates of L1 usage in EFL classroom claim that L1 can be beneficial. There has not still been adequate research on the usage of L1 to identify what is going on in EFL classes and whether or not its use facilitates or hinders EFL learning in Ethiopian primary schools. The need for the present study arose from this felt gap.

B. The Amount and Functions of L1 Use

The quantity of overall L1 usage by language teachers is also connected to the varied roles of L1 use in foreign language lessons. While the primary purpose in the classroom is to optimize EFL instruction, there is no consensus on the amount of L1 used in English classrooms, despite the fact that most study results have stressed the L1's facilitative effect and judged it a helpful tool for increasing English learning (Cummins, 2007; Butzkamm, 2003).

Previous researches have indicated that teachers employed L1 for a variety of purposes and in varying quantities in FL teaching. Duff and Polio (1990), for example, discovered that teachers' usage of L1 was consistent across different lessons. Despite the ongoing discussions about the L1's role, empirical studies have shown that it is probably inevitable in SL/FL classes, especially when students share the same L1 and when teachers are familiar with their students' L1. However, it is controversial whether teachers should find a balance whatsoever between employing the L2 and the L1. Previous research has shown that not only does the amount of L1 use in the classroom vary, but so do teachers' actual practices and perceptions (Turnbull & Arnett, 2002).

Demir (2012) further asserted that the present issue is not whether or not to employ L1 in L2 classrooms, but rather how much, when, and how to use it. The study stressed the value of L1 in EFL lessons and reported that excessive and inappropriate L1 use should be avoided because it impedes students' opportunity to learn English. Similarly, according to Ellis (2008), excessive L1 use can impede FL learning and does not play a significant role in EFL classes. According to Kim and Elder (2005), target language instruction in EFL classes should only be done to help students acquire language like that of L2 native speakers.

Moreover, advocating the use of L1, most investigators have also warned about the misuse of L1 in L2 classes. Cole (1998) claims that teachers will determine for themselves whether L1 is truly necessary and valuable. They may establish a secure and exciting atmosphere for language learning by examining when and how to use it, as well as conditions under which it will assist student learning without becoming exhausting practice (p.95).

Researchers, like (Hall & Cook, 2013; Macaro, 2001; Marsella, 2020; Perdani, 2021), discovered that learners' L1 can be used as a resource in the foreign language classroom to provide explanations of unclear English concepts. In addition, L1's contribution is recognized in explaining vocabulary and grammar items, in maintaining student discipline, and in creating a positive, inclusive classroom atmosphere. Giving instructions, correcting language errors, assessing students' work, and giving them feedback, are further areas in L1 use has proved useful.

Teachers utilize L1 mostly for instruction, classroom management, explaining aspects of the English language, and establishing rapport (Krkgöz, 2018, cited in Tanrseven & Yasemin, 2021). Hanáková and Metruk (2017, p. 387) found that teachers thought L1 could be used to prevent misunderstandings, visualize L1 and target language differences, and save time in their study of the use of L1 in the foreign language classroom. Teachers thought that English should be the primary medium of communication, but they also thought that the use of L1 can be used as a teaching tool when necessary.

Finally, given these contemporary perspectives on L1 usage, the present pedagogical approaches must be reconsidered. Cummins (2007) contends that the monolingual approach to L2 teaching is not only unsubstantiated by objective research but it also contradicts contemporary cognitive psychology theories with instructional consequences. Cummins, for example, claims that learners frequently organize and interpret new information by activating past knowledge, skills, and experiences. Although the L1 is part of that body of prior experience, monolingual instructional techniques see the L1 as a barrier to L2 learning and hence disregard it as a resource.

A substantial body of evidence supports the belief that a reasonable utilization of the Mother tongue can improve the process of learning and teaching L2 (El-dali, 2012; Kelleher, 2013; Voicu, 2012). Yet, there is not much agreement on what the word reasonable utilization of the L1 truly means. Reasonable use of L1 is not precise and differs from using L1 to reduce learners' anxiety, to explain complicated grammar or vocabulary, to assess understanding, or to offer instructions (Auerbach, 1993; Meyer, 2008). L1 may facilitate L2 learning when used appropriately and disrupt when used incautiously (Prodromou, 2002, cited in Celik, 2008). However, what an appropriate use means remains unclear. Despite the exponential growth in English instruction at the secondary and tertiary levels, there is a paucity of research on L1 use in primary school English classrooms.

Many studies, however, tend to reveal that the student's L1 helps to learn English better if used carefully. In addition, the practical reason for an English-only classroom is problematic as students and teachers share the same language. Primary school students in Ethiopia (like in many other countries) expect their English teacher to teach them, supported with, the student's own language. In such a situation, the question that should draw attention should be settling how a teacher could teach English well without ignoring the language the children bring to the classroom. As it is impossible to stop students from using their L1 during the English learning process, why not make use of it in a way that benefits the classroom? Answering this question requires an intelligent decision based on the principles of effective language pedagogy.

On the one hand, excessive usage of L1 could encourage pupils to transfer L1 traits to L2. In this sense, minimizing students' L2 exposure through L1 use might end in major issues for L2 learners. On the other hand, if used reasonably, L1 will assist L2 students in developing their L2 skills. In addition, teachers have questioned whether or not they should employ the learners' native language in the EFL classroom. Though studies acknowledge the importance of L1, the question of whether language teachers should employ L1 in ESL/EFL schools has long been contentious. Despite vocal

appeals for the correct use of learners' L1, several teachers claim that L1 use is troublesome in EFL classrooms. Therefore, exploring what is really going on in EFL lessons in terms of the usage of L1 in EFL classes is a critical issue right now.

The researcher has observed the approach to teaching the English language in the Ethiopian primary school education setting, particularly where both teachers and learners have a similar L1 (in the Afaan Oromoo context). Based on the observations, the students' L1 is being used practically in EFL sessions. Both the teacher and the learner use L1 in the English classroom. The extent of L1 that EFL teachers should utilize to assist their pupils acquire English is a key problem that must be addressed. The curiosity to find out the rationale that underlies the use of L1 in L2 classes in selected primary schools in Ethiopia is partly what initiated the present study. As can be recalled, it has been noted in this paper earlier that unsystematic and excessive use of L1 in L2 classes may result in the student's reliance on L1, and this will lead to learners' low performance in the TL.

Despite its prevalence, the issue of L1 use has received insufficient attention in the Ethiopian educational context. Studies carried out by (Kenenisa, 2003; Abiy, 2012; Jemal, 2012) can be mentioned as a few examples of the related works in the local context. None of these previous related studies has raised issues of the reasons for L1 use, the amount and the frequency of its use in L2 classes.

C. Objective of the Study

The general purpose of this study was to investigate the use of L1 (Afaan Oromoo) in English as a foreign language classroom in Ethiopian primary schools. The present study was, therefore designed to address the following basic questions:

1) To what extent is Afaan Oromoo used in English classes?
2) What are the functions of Afaan Oromoo as used in the English classes?
3) How do teachers and students use Afaan Oromoo in the English classes?

III. MATERIALS AND METHODS

A. Design of the Study

This study explored how L1 is used in EFL classrooms. A description of the methodology and design used by the researcher is provided in this section. To answer the research question, the qualitative approach was used to determine the amount and function of L1 utterances in an EFL classroom. To extract meaning from raw data, a descriptive research design was employed. Before the beginning of the data collection, all participants verbally agreed before the observations began, and every effort was made to protect confidentiality and anonymity throughout the procedure.

B. Participants

The study was conducted in public primary schools in Shambu town, located in Horro Guduru Wallaga Zone, Oromia, Ethiopia. In this study, the participants were selected through purposive sampling. Three EFL teachers participated in the study. In addition, three sections of students taught by the three teachers were chosen for classroom observations. Six students (two from each observed classroom) were chosen for the interviews. Student interviews were needed to get data on reasons for using L1 in their L2 classes. Teacher interview was also carried out to obtain data from the teachers on their reasons for using L1 in L2 lessons.

C. Instruments

As explained elsewhere, two data gathering instruments: classroom observations and in-depth interviews were used for data gathering in this study. Classroom observations were carried out to collect data on how, when, and on what occasion teachers and students employed L1 in English lesson classes. Two observation checklists were used in this regard: one for the teachers and the other for the students. The observation schemes were employed to capture instances and frequencies of L1 usage in the English classroom. Lessons were audio-recorded, and observations were documented using field notes. Each class was observed four times with each session lasting 45 minutes. Accordingly, twelve classroom observations were carried out to seek data for the study.

In addition to observation, interviews were employed to gather further information. Interviews were used to get data on the participants' experiences and understanding of L1 use in EFL classrooms. The teacher and two students from each class provided the interview data. Moreover, employing interviews in this study was needed to acquire more in-depth information, free and flexible replies, and information on participants' ideas, feelings, attitudes, or emotions in response to specific questions. Obtaining such data is a rather difficult job through classroom observation and questionnaires (Selinger & Shohamy, 1989). Three teachers and six students from each class participated in the interviews.

D. Data Collection

First, permission to visit the school was obtained from Shambu Town Education Office. Next, the researcher visited the school and met with the school directors. The directors introduced him to the English teachers. He worked with the teachers until the end of the data collection sessions.

In this study, the first method of data collection was classroom observation. The students and the teacher were observed to gather information about L1 usage, and teachers and students' actual practice of L1 use in EFL classes. Furthermore, observing the classes aided the researchers in selecting students for the interview based on their classroom talk, behavior, and participation during lessons. Each observed class was audio taped four times. Three teachers and six students were interviewed one week after classroom observation. One week was needed to transcribe observation data that later served as the source of information for the interviews. The interview was conducted in Afaan Oromoo.

E. Data Analysis

Data for this study was gathered using classroom observations and interviews. The audio-recorded data were carefully studied before their transcription. The transcriptions were then carefully reviewed, and coded for instances of L1 use. The focus of classroom observation was to gather data on the amount and purposes for which teachers and students used L1 in EFL courses.

Teachers' talks were broken down into utterances and analyzed to determine the amount and functions of L1 usage. Then, all occurrences of L1 use were labeled in order to restructure data into groups that allow for better comparison of data within the same categories. Following that, instances were counted (throughout the twelve classroom observation sessions) using a word count processor. A word count processor was needed to extract the number of L1 words from the total number of words uttered during the observed lessons. Finally, the percentages of L1 usage in each session and in the total sessions observed were reported after certain mathematical calculations. Then, the percentage of L1 use was calculated for each teacher. The number of L1 words, L2 words used and their percentages are presented in a table. As a result, the analysis was finer-grained than in earlier studies, offering a more precise and in-depth understanding of teachers' L1 practices. Moreover, Nvivo 12 was used to do a thematic analysis of the interviews and field notes (Nowell et al., 2017). Interviews and field notes assisted in understanding the underlying causes for L1 usage as well as teachers' sentiments and opinions regarding L1 use. This cannot always be reached simply through observing and recording classes.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The findings in this section are based on a mix of qualitative and quantitative analysis of classroom audio-recorded data to answer the research questions related to the amount and purposes of L1 utilized by teachers and students in EFL classrooms.

A. Findings From Classroom Observation

The word count from the class audio transcription revealed that teachers and students utilized 25,667 words in 12 sessions (four sessions for each teacher) in EFL classes. Out of the total words counted in all the twelve English teaching sessions, 4605 words were in L1 (Afaan Oromoo). This is equal to the overall use of 17.48% Afaan Oromoo words. All the other words (21,063), spoken were in English, which is equal to 82.52% of English words.

TABLE 1
THE NUMBER OF ALL WORDS SPOKEN IN THE OBSERVED LESSONS

EFL Teachers	Sessions	No of Afaan Oromoo words	% of Afaan Oromoo words	No of English words	% of English words
	1	95	5.57%	1611	94.43%
T1	2	113	6.15%	1724	93.85%
	3	156	7.44%	1941	92.56%
	4	312	13.51%	1998	86.49%
T2	1	405	17.63%	1892	82.37%
	2	398	16.51%	2013	83.49%
	3	172	7.99%	1980	92.01%
	4	195	9.45%	1869	90.55%
T3	1	689	31.2%	1520	68.8%
	2	671	30.9%	1499	69.1%
	3	697	31.5%	1517	68.5%
	4	702	31.9%	1498	68.1%
Average		384	17.48%	1755	82.52%

The presence of L1 words (17.48%) in the data indicates minimal use when compared to L2 utterances (English) which represent 82.52%. All of the teachers used L1 in their classes, but the extent to which they employed it varied substantially between their lessons. As indicated in Table 1 above, the teacher's L1 use ranged from a low average of 5.57% to a high use of 31.9%. A similar amount of variation was seen across various lessons presented by the same teachers. From these L2 words, it can be concluded that the teachers considered in this study predominantly use English.

B. Purposes of L1 Use in EFL

Overall, in the sampled classrooms, Afaan Oromoo was used 793 times for various purposes and occasions. A grammar explanation is a most frequently used category (266 times), which is equivalent to 33.54%. Several instructions on grammar topics that occurred during the observations were done in Afaan Oromoo. The degree of

grammar explanation occurrences is higher than in any other category, and more explanation was given in Afaan Oromoo, compared to the other functions for which L1 was used during the observed lessons.

TABLE 2
FUNCTIONAL AND FREQUENCY OF AFAAN OROMOO USE BY TEACHERS

Description of Teachers' Use of Afaan Oromoo	Occurrences	
	Frequencies	Percentages
Comprehension check	20	2.51%
Instruction	53	6.69%
Class management	99	12.48%
Grammar explanation	266	33.54%
New vocabulary translation	235	29.64%
Response to students' question	43	5.41%
Motivating students	21	2.66%
Talking about tests, quizzes and other assignments	39	4.92%
Others	17	2.15%
Total	793	100%

The second most common use of Afaan Oromoo was the translation of new terminology from L2 to L1. The teachers used Afaan Oromoo 235 times or 29.64% of the time to do this. Classroom management was the third most common application of Afaan Oromoo. This counted for 99 times the use of L1 and equals 12.48% usage. It has been used for warning pupils, keeping the class silent, directing them on how to go from one activity to another, organizing seats, controlling time, and performing other similar classroom procedures.

From the total of ten observed categories, the sampled teachers in all of the categories used Afaan Oromoo. Specifically, three of these categories, namely, grammar explanation, translating new vocabulary, and classroom management are the categories in which the most common occurrences of Afaan Oromoo were observed. These three categories constituted 75.66% of instances of L1 use in the present study.

C. Students' Use of Afaan Oromo

In total, students in the observed classes used Afaan Oromoo 231 times in various situations. They used it 97 times in class to do things like raising their hands and asking the teacher to do things like reading or writing an answer on the board. Students also utilized L1 when they expressed confusion about anything or when they wanted to ensure that they understood what was going on in class.

TABLE 3
FREQUENCY OF AFAAN OROMOO USE BY STUDENTS

Description of students' use of Afaan Oromoo	Occurrences	
	Frequencies	Percentages
Talking with each other	15	6.5 %
Asking and answering questions	49	21.21%
In pair work or group work	0	0%
Dealing with classroom activities	97	42%
New word translation	51	22.08%
Talking about tests, quizzes and other assignments	16	6.93%
Other issues: table talk,	3	1.3%
Total	231	100%

Students used Afaan Oromoo 51 times to translate English words into Afaan Oromoo. Likewise, they switched to Afaan Oromoo 32 times to ask questions, and 17 times to answer teachers' questions. They conjointly used Afaan Oromoo 16 times to speak about tests, quizzes, and assignments. Students in their L1 typically asked a question about tests in L1 in the observed classes.

Generally, the analysis of students' L1 use in L2 classrooms showed three main functions of L1 use: dealing with classroom activities, translating new words, and asking and answering questions. These accounted for 85.28% of Afaan Oromoo use by the students considered in this study.

D. Findings From Interviews

The interviewed teachers noted that when whole English is utilized as a medium of communication, students could not understand lessons. When learners fail to understand, the teachers reported using, different mechanisms to help the learners to understand the material. If that fails, they reported resorting to utilizing Afaan Oromoo. In addition, the data indicated that the teachers use Afaan Oromoo because students have restricted exposure to learning English, particularly students' poor English performance results from their lack of practice outside the classroom. As a result, teachers believed that unless students used Afaan Oromoo, they would completely lack vocabulary and grammar points. Moreover, teachers held the view that Afaan Oromoo needed to be used for grammar rule explanation. Translating new vocabulary, simplifying instruction, and inspiring and supporting the students to participate in lessons can also best be done when L1 is used during lessons. Yet again, they said they used Afaan Oromoo to clarify and show variations

between L1 and L2. Teachers think that allowing Afaan Oromoo in English classes can be a valuable teaching technique that encourages learners to engage in class activities. Teachers also expressed their belief that their students would feel more at ease and confident when L1 is used in English classes. Students' L1 in L2 class acts as a mediator, and therefore, reduces their communication apprehension.

The interviewed teachers perceived that using Afaan Oromoo particularly helps students who find participating in lessons difficult when whole English is used. As a result, students' English competence appears to be an important consideration in the decision to be made regarding the use of Afaan Oromoo in schools. On the other hand, students want L1 to be used, as this will enable them to be certain and assured of what they have studied. Students also believed that using Afaan Oromoo clarified their misunderstanding.

During the first interviews, participants demonstrated that they were mainly aware of the estimated quantity of their L1 usage. Data indicated that teachers do not believe in the total exclusion of L1. For example, T1 stated that Afaan Oromoo might be used for up to 20% of EFL sessions. When students understand the subject readily, they utilize a smaller quantity; when the issue is complex, more Afaan Oromoo use is required to clarify and minimize misunderstandings.

T2 claimed that the use of Afaan Oromoo ranges between 15-20%. He was concerned that exceeding this restriction might limit the student's English learning prospects. This teacher believed that there is no consistent use of L1 because it relies on the nature of the lesson or topic as well as the students' comprehension.

Another interviewed teacher pointed out that, Afaan Oromoo should not be excluded from EFL lessons since it is utilized for different reasons. This indicates that prohibiting the use of Afaan Oromoo in elementary school English classes would be a frustrating move for both teachers and their students. The interviewed teachers confirmed that Afaan Oromoo serves as a teaching tool. They added that utilizing English only with such low-level learners is pointless. Similarly, they remarked that employing Afaan Oromoo is a way of assisting and encouraging learners to learn well.

E. Reasons for Afaan Oromoo Use in EFL Classes

The interviewed students noted that Afaan Oromoo served them to grasp the meaning of words. They reported that their lack of appropriate English vocabulary often drives them to switch to Afaan Oromoo in English sessions. This acknowledges the students' recognition of the beneficial impacts of the use of Afaan Oromoo in English classes. When their teachers use Afaan Oromoo to explain grammar, the students said they establish mental comparisons of English and Afaan Oromoo grammar. This, they reported, h helps them, comprehend English grammar. When the teachers use Afaan Oromo repeatedly, the students reported recalling and remembering lessons, they have learned. They also said if their teachers give Afaan Oromoo examples while explaining the difficult meanings, they learn better.

However, classroom observation data indicates that teachers used a combination of Afaan Oromoo and English without regard for students' obvious needs for L1. It appears to be possible to assume that even without the students' expressed the need for L1; teachers can understand their student's need by working with them in the preceding months. The teachers seemed to expect the learners to utilize English in many of the observed cases, but the teachers themselves were observed using a combination of L1 and L2 frequently. Establishing guidelines for L1 use in class may put an end to the spontaneous use of the students' own language during lessons.

F. How L1 Was Used in EFL Classes

Although there are several ways for a teacher to focus on teaching a TL without utilizing students' native language, an occasional and fair addition of L1 can aid to increase student understanding and reinforce language learning. In the interview data, teachers described using L1 as a facilitating tool for teaching difficult grammar and vocabulary items, providing instruction, checking comprehension, and creating a conducive educational atmosphere. They stated that employing L1 as a last option after attempting to convey the topic in English repeatedly. They stressed that students should first attempt to grasp English since English is the medium of instruction. The teachers' interview shows that if the students' attempts to grasp English fail; L1 can be employed as a last option to clarify a few difficult concepts. However, classroom observation result showed that teachers' integration of L1 was not systematic since it prioritized utilizing L1 to attempting to use L2 in EFL classes.

The teachers were not role models in speaking English at every opportunity during any activity. They were seen directly shifting to students' L1 even at the beginning session of the classroom lesson. For example, T2 started the lesson in the following ways:

T2: *Kaleessa waa'ee maalii baranne? (What did we learn yesterday?)*
Ss: *Letter baranne. (We learned about letters)*
T2: *Letter maaliidha jenne? (What did we say a letter is?)*
T2: *Kana kaleessa baranne. (We learned this yesterday)*
T2: *Category letterii maal faati? (What are the categories of letters?)*

It is apparent from the extract that the teacher started the lesson focusing on L1 use. He asked the classroom in Afaan Oromoo "Kaleessa waa'ee maalii baranne?" When translated into L1, means 'What did we learn yesterday?' Here the teacher opened the lesson using the students' own language without checking whether or not the students would find it difficult to understand the question if L2 was used to ask the question about the lesson of the previous day.

V. Discussion

It can be understood from the classroom data that L1 is always present in EFL classes. Participants agree that using students' L1 can help the teaching of the English language. Both students and teachers have positive views regarding utilizing L1, especially when teaching grammar or when confronted with difficult vocabulary that cannot be named in the target language. The result of the study is similar with a study conducted by Varshney and Rolin-Ianziti (2006) that compared students and instructors' opinions of L1 use in the classroom and discovered that both students and teachers perceived it as a helpful tool in teaching lower-level students. In addition, the finding of this study also supported Macaro's (2001) optimal position of judicious usage of L1. In addition, Cook (2001) states that by employing L1 in the classroom, teachers may express meaning and arrange the class.

A. The Extent of L1 Use in English Classrooms

The findings revealed that Afaan Oromoo was used in all of the observed classes. There was not a lesson that was conducted exclusively in the TL (English). This demonstrates that English teachers use Afaan Oromoo for a wide range of activities. The data demonstrate that L1 words (17.48%) were compared to L2 words (82.52%). As seen in Table 1, the sampled teachers in this study were employing relatively little L1 in English classrooms. In comparison to other research that anticipated context, relatively little use of Afaan Oromoo was observed across all teacher types. For example, Tang (2002) demonstrated that "limited and judicious use of L1 in the English classroom does not reduce students' exposure to English, but rather can assist in the teaching and learning processes" (p.41).

Teachers believed that the volume and frequency of Afaan Oromoo were related to the learners' English competency. This finding is consistent with Kavaliauskiene's (2009) conclusion that L1 is required in English lessons, but the extent of L1 relies on the learner's English proficiency. Teachers' use of Afaan Oromoo was low, maybe due to fear of being observed and because the frequency of Afaan Oromoo usage was influenced by a variety of circumstances. The degree of competency of the pupils did not appear to be a factor to decide the amount of L1 use based on the observations. This contradicts the conclusions of the interviews. Teachers were encouraged to employ L1 in a variety of contexts when teaching English, even if the amounts used were low.

B. Reasons for L1 Use

In terms of the most common uses of L1, it was discovered that the most prevalent examples were translating new vocabulary, explaining grammar, classroom management, and comprehension check. It was clear from the reasons given for the overall use of L1 that participants were aiming to bring attention to various variables, such as pupils' level of understanding. When pupils were unable to express their ideas, or fail to answer or ask questions, they were observed switching to L1 use. Teachers were also observed allowing themselves and their students to utilize L1 without stimulating the pupils too, for example, say certain words again in English, or without attempting any other tactics.

Another significant finding from the data is that there is a positive association between teachers' usage of Afaan Oromoo and pupils' low affective filter. Teachers, for example, claimed that when Afaan Oromoo is used in the classroom, students' affective filters are lower. Another explanation given by pupils was that they felt more at ease when their teacher utilized Afaan Oromoo in the English classroom. Contrary to the findings reported in many other studies, in the present study, the students' L2 proficiency did not affect the teachers' use or non-use of L1 during lessons. Hall and Cook (2012) discovered that "teachers working with lower-level pupils report much more frequent use of the learners' L1 across all functions" (p. 23).

C. The Occasions of L1

Teachers welcomed the usage of L1 in the English classroom. They believe that using L1 was critical for learners with limited skills. One might also argue that the learners are using L1 in this setting because they have a good learning relationship with it. The interviewees suggested using L1 to give directions and clarify problematic grammar topics. However, during the observations, teachers used L1 in situations that were not described in the interview, such as disciplining students and managing the class. Furthermore, study findings demonstrate that employing L1 gives cognitive support, improves understanding, and helps to create a positive, conducive learning environment. Using the L1 helps learners negotiate meaning for successful L2 communication (Brooks & Donato, 1994).

Based on the data presented above, participants agree that using Afaan Oromoo contributes much to the student's learning of the target language. The most typical reason for both the teachers and students to employ L1 is to explain word meanings. Teachers explain complicated vocabulary, difficult topics, and new grammatical rules in L1. Teachers frequently encountered topics that are difficult to discuss using only the TL; as a result, they found L1 to be a beneficial tool for conveying the meanings of these concepts to their pupils. According to the teacher and the students, using L1 helps students comprehend grammar more quickly than speaking exclusively in L2. Furthermore, the findings suggest that both primary school teachers and students have positive views toward the adoption of Afaan Oromoo in EFL classrooms. L1 is used as a simplifying tool for a variety of instructional goals. Afaan Oromoo has seemed to be successful in clarifying teachers' instructions and communicating the aims of the lessons and activities, interpreting challenging tasks, boosting learners' understanding, and helping the L2 learning process in general. Teaching English in primary school implies that children seek assistance by using L1. The study participants agreed that L1 may be useful in

the appropriate settings at the right time and should be utilized in emergencies. According to the data from classroom observation, L1 is a default technique that the EFL teachers use to support L2 teaching.

VI. IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

When students' English language proficiency level is insufficient to grasp English or when misconceptions arise, EFL teachers utilize Afaan Oromoo because these misconceptions may limit students' ability to follow their teacher's instructions. Teachers believed that Afaan Oromoo aids students in understanding and learning; it helps students in comprehending complex grammatical points and abstract concepts, and it supports the teaching of new vocabulary and difficult contents. In terms of student functions, students utilized Afaan Oromoo to ask questions for clarification, acquire grammar and vocabulary items. The study also indicated that when teachers employ Afaan Oromoo in English classrooms, pupils feel comfortable and the benefits of L1 come to mind.

Furthermore, the study confirms that L1 could provide cognitive assistance by scaffolding students' practice to accomplish learning objectives, boost students' understanding, and assist in the establishment of an appropriate learning environment. Although using L1 helps to improve English teaching and learning, misuse may cause students to become too reliant on it, which would contradict the fundamental purpose of L2 teaching. Keeping a balance between L1 and L2 is thus one of the most efficient ways to learn and teach a foreign language.

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Gemechu B. Jeba is a Lecturer in the Department of English Language and Literature at Wallaga University, Ethiopia. He was born in Shambu, Ethiopia in 19785. He received his Bachelor's degree and Master of Education Degree in English language teaching from Haramaya University, Ethiopia on July 09, 2008 and on July 12, 2011 respectively. His research interests are EFL teaching and pedagogy, Language use strategies, classroom interactions, and teacher education. Currently, he is pursuing his PhD in English Language Teaching (ELT) at Addis Ababa University, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4359-2299

Tamene Kitila is an instructor and a researcher at Addis Ababa University. He did his PhD in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) in the joint PhD program that once existed between Addis Ababa University and the Lancaster University (UK). He has been involved in teaching various courses in both the undergraduate and the graduate programs at Addis Ababa University over the last 30 years. Classroom interaction, learning styles, needs analysis; classroom verbal behavior and language teachers' professional development are just a few of Dr. Tamene's research interests.

Examining Cultural Words Translation in Tourism Texts: A Systematic Review

Shiyue Chen

Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Serdang, Malaysia

Nor Shahila Mansor [*]

Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Serdang, Malaysia

Chin Mooisan

Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Serdang, Malaysia

Muhammad Alif Redzuan Abdullah

Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Serdang, Malaysia

Abstract—The steady growth of tourism is increasing the demand for tourism translation. Cultural words (CWs) translation is challenging since they are absent from target cultures. This systematic review examines studies on CWs translation in tourism texts to comprehend the literature and explore future research tendencies. Following the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses, researchers did a comprehensive literature review. Twenty-one articles met the inclusion criteria after the protocol-required data selection and screening. The findings reveal that scholars are increasingly concerned with CWs translation in tourism texts. Moreover, all the included articles used varied theories. Most of them focused on applying various taxonomies of translation strategies to compensate for the losses of cultural connotations in cultural words' rendition. Besides, other researchers focused on CWs translation from different perspectives, such as translation quality assessment, Eco-translatology, meaning equivalence, cultural manipulation, and relevance theory.

Index Terms—cultural words, tourism texts, systematic literature review, cultural losses, translation strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

The tourism industry has grown significantly due to globalization, transportation advancements, and significant economic ranking (Wang, 2017). The prosperity of tourism has motivated a great need, massive increase, as well as zeal for tourism texts' translation (Tan et al., 2021). Translation of tourism-related words and phrases is referred to as tourism texts' translation (Liang, 2021). It is also a cross-regional, cross-cultural, and cross-language communicative practice. The transmission, interchange, recognition, and appreciation of aesthetics and morals of the nation's culture are now the main components of tourist translation rather than only language conversion. Tourism translation has piqued the interest of both translators and visitors, and tourism translation research has made significant advancements.

Despite these advancements in translation, the translation of tourism texts' still faces challenges. One of the most complicated aspects is translating cultural words (Rezaei & Kuhi, 2014) since these words may be absent in specific target cultures, which poses significant difficulties for translators. Cultural words (CWs) refer to certain expressions whose meanings are difficult to translate since CWs have no equivalents or counterparts in the target audience's cultural system (Pratama et al., 2021). CWs translation in tourism texts has aroused the interest of researchers such as Narváez and Zambrana (2014), Wang (2017), and Turzynski-Azimi (2021). This trend is supported by the possibility that these CWs can reflect the patterns and values of a specific culture. CW is a significant factor when dealing with difficulties in cross-cultural translation.

These words and expressions in the source language constitute cultural gaps in the target language, and the uniqueness of CWs creates problems for interpreters during translation (Mraček, 2018). Various research examined CWs translation in tourism texts to address these issues and to compensate for the cultural losses, for instance, Rezaei and Kuhi (2014), Ajtony (2016), Zheng (2021), and Charlston (2022). However, for the target readers' reference, the intricate and inaccurate translation may confuse potential tourists (Woodward-Smith, 2019). According to Chapman et al. (2020), although CWs translation taxonomies have been established, several overlapped categories could lead to some uncertainty. This view is consistent with Peña's (2007) argument that to protect against validity hazards, the establishment of linguistic equivalence through translation procedures is frequently insufficient. Since translating into

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[*] Corresponding Author.

other languages, aspects such as functional equivalence and cultural equivalent must also be considered. These aspects put the translators and academicians in hot water when determining the procedures for translating CWs.

Consequently, it is necessary to clarify how these translation studies have dealt with the CWs in tourism texts and minimized the cultural connotations losses. Few papers have covered CWs translation in tourism texts. For example, what are the general trends of CWs translation in tourism texts? What are the cores of these studies? What kinds of taxonomies have been adopted in this field of study? What theories have been applied? Besides, since the CWs are complex and belong to a specific culture, translators must do their best to minimize the losses of cultural connotations and how they treat CWs that deviate from equivalents in connotative meaning. Therefore, we believe a detailed mastery of CWs translation in tourism texts is required.

This comprehensive literature review aims to understand the status of the study on CWs translation in tourism texts and the potential for further investigation in this area. The objectives of this research are as follows: 1) to investigate the general trends of CWs translation in tourist texts; 2) to evaluate the cores and theories utilized in earlier research on CWs translation in tourism texts; and 3) to explore the compensation strategies for the losses of cultural connotations in CWs translation in tourism texts.

II. METHODOLOGY

Following the guidelines established by PRISMA, a comprehensive search of the relevant literature was done for this investigation (Page et al., 2021).

A. Databases

Since bibliometric indicators and publication metadata are now the primary sources used for both research evaluation and research, the significance of bibliographic databases has substantially expanded (Mart ń-Mart ń et al., 2018). This research obtained data from Scopus as their primary database to thoroughly analyze how CWs are rendered in tourism texts. With a global and regional focus on social scientific publications, Scopus is one of the largest abstract and citation databases available (Singh et al., 2021). In addition to Scopus, there are two other databases: WoS (Web of Science) and Google Scholar since, in comparison to other databases, WoS and Google Scholar are the largest and most comprehensive sources of publication metadata and impact indicators (Chertow et al., 2021). For more in-depth multidisciplinary comparisons, all three databases offer enough coverage robustness.

B. Data Eligibility Criteria

The selection and screening criteria for the data, including which data would be included and which would be excluded, were supported by a protocol designed beforehand. In this study, the final papers or articles that were published between 2010 and August 15, 2022, are reviewed. Therefore, earlier review articles, books, and theses were not included. The study falls under social science or the arts and humanities, especially CWs translation and tourism. As a result, literature from subjects such as masses consumer psychology, business including hotel accommodation, ticket ordering, literary works, and others was omitted. The included publications or papers should also be written in English. The non-English-language articles were removed. When records were screened, those without "cultural words" and "tourism translation" in the titles, abstracts, or keywords were disregarded since they had no relevance to the research. The whole articles were removed if they just dealt with cultural words translation or tourism translation or if they did not incorporate the two integrated features. Finally, all duplicate records were eliminated from each level of the screening process.

C. Data Search

According to Chertow et al. (2021), Scopus, WoS, and Google Scholar are neither comprehensive but instead complement each other. This review aims to investigate the CWs translation in tourism texts. "Culture-specific item" is a term that some scholars employ, for example, Aixela (1997) and Davies (2003), while some commonly use "cultural words" (Newmark, 1988) or "culture-bound phenomena/concepts" (Baker, 2017) or "realia" (Toro, 2021). In this present study, cultural words are parallel with the above synonyms. Therefore, the keywords for searching were "cultural words, cultural references, culture-specific items, culturemes or realia" and "tourism, tourists, travel, scenic spots, sights, scenes, or landscapes." The authors conducted a more in-depth document search using the TITLE-ABS-KEY index, as followed in Figure 1. After receiving the search results, the researchers did a priority filter in the database system by protocol. The findings were stored as CSV Excel files containing the bibliography, abstract, affiliations, and keywords. WoS and Google Scholar were used in the second phase of the investigation. Even though their search engine differs from Scopus, they must still adhere to the eligibility standards; when the findings were presented, RIS files were generated from them and distributed for additional screening.
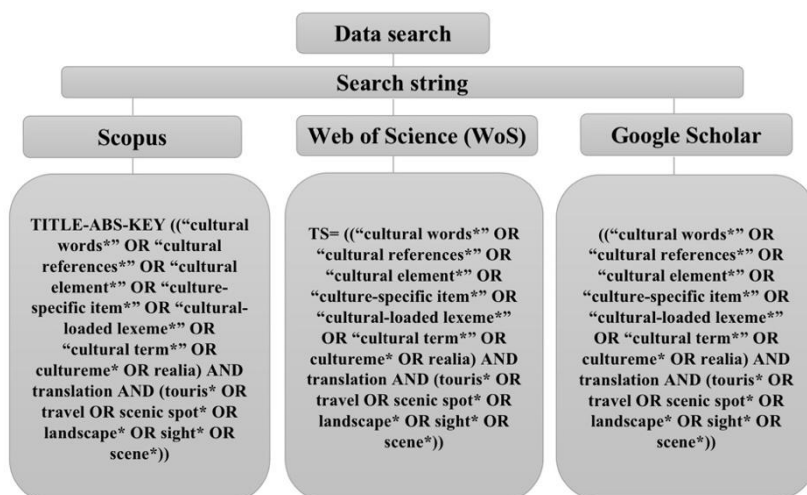
Figure 1. Search String Used in Databases Research

D. Data Screening and Extraction

All data were manually reviewed during the screening process to avoid employing an automated screening tool occurring unforeseen mistakes. In the first stage, two researchers went through each of the recovered records in Excel and RIS files manually using the titles, keywords, and abstracts from the records as their guidance. The papers had been retrieved from both Excel and RIS files. Articles that were ruled invalid will be flagged. When they finished screening, they reviewed their reasons for marking them and agreed on the outcomes. A third researcher would make the ultimate choice if they couldn't decide. Then, they looked for any records that were left over and retrieved the whole article. The researchers could get the complete text of the data using the subscription database. The screening criteria from step one must also be followed for the full reports. The final stage consisted of extracting the relevant information from the reports that were included to answer the research questions posed by this review. Data were retrieved initially by one researcher, who then had the data reviewed by another researcher to reduce the danger of bias in the current study.

E. Data Results of Data Extraction

Figure 2 illustrates the results of data screening and data collection. The authors obtained 411 records from three databases, Scopus (n = 223), Web of Science (WoS) (n = 108), and Google Scholar (n = 80). 117 records remain for screening after 234 records are eliminated during the duplication screening. Afterward, 62 records were disqualified because their TITLE-ABS-KEY did not adhere to the requirements, leaving 55 records that needed retrieval. The writers were able to obtain 46 complete articles to determine their eligibility. Consequently, 25 articles were disregarded due to irrelevant information, critical comments, and other factors. Additionally, this study contained 21 papers altogether. A rigorous content analysis was performed on all (21) full articles to fulfill the aims of this study. Afterward, a thorough examination and discussion of the study's findings are conducted.
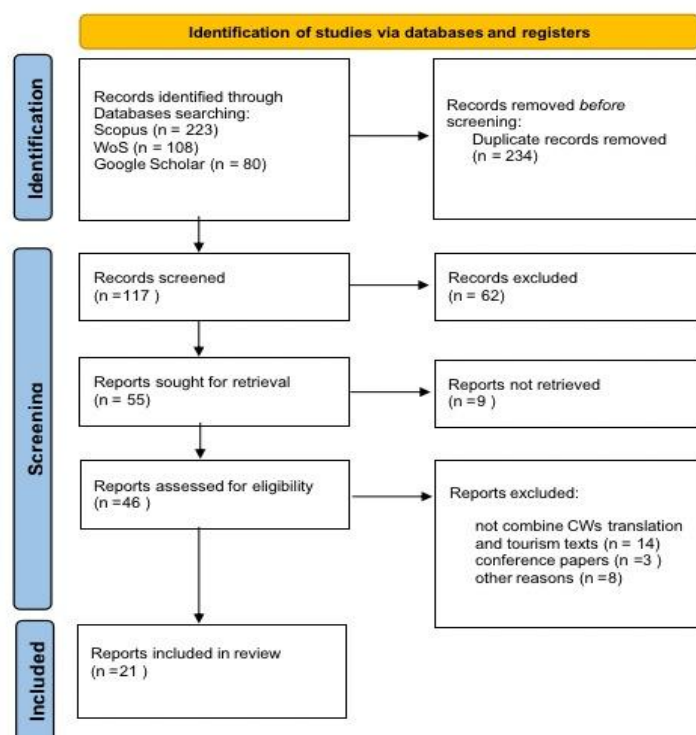
Figure 2 PRISMA Diagram of the Selected Studies (Page et al., 2021)

III. FINDINGS

The researchers discovered that the primary study emphasis of CWs translation studies in tourism texts published in the last 13 years was sorting out and synthesizing diverse debate topics and theoretical applications. The following are the specific outcomes.

A. General Trends of CWs Translation in Tourism Texts

Since Bassnett and Lefevere proposed the "Cultural Turn" in the 1990s (Liu, 2010), translation studies have increasingly evolved from linguistics and toward approaches to culture, society, and rights. As previously stated, academics have long been interested in translating CWs in tourism texts. A broad study of Figure 3 below shows continual growth in scholarly attention to the translation of CWs in tourism texts in the academic community during 2010-2014, with a matching increase in publications. However, research publications decreased somewhat in 2015 but steadily rose from 2016 to 2018, which also saw a rise and decline in quantity. CWs translation received more attention throughout the final period of publications on the topic (2019–2022) and increased to the peak in 2021. Quang et al. (2022) assert that the increase in the translation of CWs in tourism texts during this phase results from the coronavirus disease (COVID-19). According to their study, the epidemic stimulated consumers' desire to travel. When travel is impeded by contagious diseases, compensating consumption might favorably influence travel intentions. In conclusion, trend analysis shows that CWs translation in tourism texts has piqued the interest of scholars, and the overall number of articles has been continuously climbing.
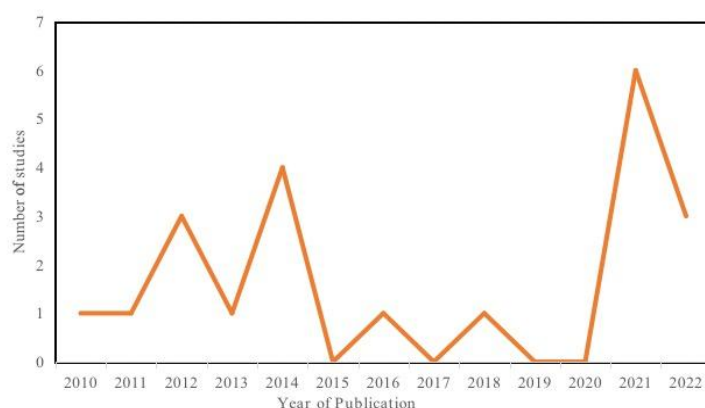
Figure 3 General Trends of CWs Translation in Tourism Texts

B. The Cores of Reviewed Studies

All translation study's theoretical underpinnings impact the general direction of translation and the approaches employed to address existing problems. Table 1 shows the cores in these studies.

TABLE 1
THE CORES OF REVIEW STUDIES

The cores of reviewed studies	21
Domestication and Foreignization (Venuti, 1995,2008)	9
Translation strategies	4
Eco-translatology (Hu,1991)	2
Translation quality assessment	2
Cognitive psychology	1
Cultural manipulation theory (Lefevere & Bassnett's 2001)	1
Meaning equivalence (Bell, 1991)	1
Relevance theory (Wilson & Sperber, 2004)	1

(a). Debate Over Venuti's (1995) Duality

Many translators struggle with maintaining culturally distinct aspects while ensuring maximum intelligibility in the CWs translation. Out of 21 articles, the researchers found that 61.9% (13) articles investigated dominant translation strategies in CWs translation in various tourism texts. And the widely utilized theory in 9 articles is Venuti's (1995) dichotomy of domestication and foreignization. Schleimacher initially proposed domestication and foreignization in 1963 and further refined by Venuti in 1995 (Birdwood-Hedger, 2007). Domestication is "a transparent, fluent, and invisible style to decrease the foreignness of the target language and lead the text to be familiar and recognized" (Munday, 2008, p. 144). Domesticating strategy, as a result, places a greater emphasis on aliens' capacity to grasp a particular meaning rather than an item, location, or person's description (Chung, 2021). On the contrary, Venuti (1995, p. 242) asserted that selecting foreign content and devising a translation strategy along lines that are disapproved by the language's mainstream cultural norms is known as "foreignization." In translation studies, domesticating and foreignizing approaches are frequently used, and each has benefits and drawbacks when translating CWs in tourism texts. The benefits of domesticating include retaining the text's brevity, ensuring that the reader comprehends the translated content, and piquing their attention. The translation's main flaw is the potential loss of the original's cultural and historical components. One of the benefits of foreignizing a language is that it allows one to transmit the traditions and practices of the language's native culture while also stressing the historical and cultural characteristics of the source language. Its downsides include ignoring the reader's comprehension and losing the purpose of luring tourists. The researchers reviewed the literature and found that many scholars have disputed Venuti's (1995) duality in CWs translation in tourist writings and concluded different findings. The results can be divided into three types: neutralization, single domestication or single foreignization, and a combination of domestication and foreignization.

1. Neutralization

In 2010, Sanning investigated the domesticating and foreignizing approaches in translating culture-bounded tourism texts from Chinese to English. The researcher proposed neutralizing, a new strategy. To satisfy the reader's needs and create correlative equivalents between the source language and the target language, it defines the process of continually altering the translator's comprehension of the content being rendered. There are three steps to neutralization. For translators, the first step is to adjust their conception of what constitutes a tourist text. The translator should also continuously assess the type of content being translated and any variances and commonalities between the source and target languages. The reader's needs must be met in the next phase. The translator should use a tourist-oriented method to grasp the reader's expectations and then strive to satisfy those demands. The final step is to produce various equivalents between the source language and the target language, including informational, conceptual, and aesthetical counterparts based on the features of the source language.

2. Single Domestication or Single Foreignization

Some theorists and academics believe foreignizing approaches cannot coexist in the exact text. According to Lefevere (1992), the domesticating and foreignizing translation processes are separate and cannot be employed in a single translation. In 2012, Mansor discussed how the Arabic travel writing of *Rihlat Ibn Battutah* was managed to turn into Malay. The review investigated how acceptable it is to translate cultural words like those for food and drink, clothing, and religious expressions. Acceptability demonstrates that the translation complies with cultural norms in the target language. The study was based on Vinay and Darbelnet's (1995) translation strategies. The result suggested seven approaches of acceptability, such as standard borrowings, generalization, explicitation, nativized borrowings, borrowing with explicitation, functional equivalent through literal translation, and allocation of an established and well-known equivalent through literal translation. This concept is in the same vein as domestication. Likewise, Turzynski-Azimi (2021) investigated translation strategies utilized for CWs in Japanese tourism texts. The results suggested a higher tendency toward domesticating method in the CWs' renditions in Japanese tourism-related texts, which tended to

minimize the strangeness of the original language. The author adopted Nedergaard-Larsen's (1993) CWs classification, and CWs classification also influences which translation strategies are prioritized.

While other scholars, for example, AmirDabbaghian (2014), conducted a study to reduce the incomprehensibility and misleading in the English tourism translations of Iranian menus. Since Iranian culture is distinct, specialties can be found in Iranian cuisine. As a cuisine component, dish names are vital for transmitting culture and knowledge. The researcher concluded that foreignization is a primary tactic, and domestication is a secondary option. Rezaei and Kuhi (2014) examined the translation of two Iran travel guidebooks from Persian into English by *Oksana Beheshti* and *Amir Hassan Hakimian*. They investigated the strategies the translators used to translate CWs using Newmark's (1988) taxonomy and determine if the majority of these CWs have been domesticated or have been exposed to foreign cultures. The results revealed that the most common strategies utilized in translating these two guidebooks are transference and adding specific notes. In light of this, even though domesticating and foreignizing tactics have been employed, foreignization has been utilized the most frequently.

The contradiction in translation studies is between domesticating and foreignizing tactics, which cannot be combined in the exact translation. It's thought that the combination is impossible. Translating tourist literature entails further than only rendering the source language into the target language; its translation also involves interpreting the source language's exotic characteristics.

3. *Combination of Domestication and Foreignization*

The tourist texts cannot be entirely solved by either the domesticating or foreignizing strategy. Therefore, some scholars contributed to the combination of the two strategies. Zhang (2012) sought to investigate translations of tourism scenic spots' names in the Macau Historic Centre. The names of scenic spots tell stories about the historic sites and buildings they symbolize. The author summarized some site names were translated in the source orientation, while others were translated in the target orientation. Four possible reasons for the translations were explored: keeping western and Chinese religious cultures alive, local people's preference for names that are easy to remember, different cultures and ways of seeing things, and honoring history by keeping "non-equivalent names."

Fuadi (2016) investigated the interaction between CWs translation and Venuti's (1995) dichotomy in the cultural words' translation of an Indonesian tourism brochure. According to the findings, the translation process affects the strategies employed. Translations frequently use domestication strategies and take the target material into account when the cultural words are well-known. The translator adopts the domestication method to provide conversational translation while helping tourists grasp the message. Conversely, a translator will use a foreignization method and consider the original content while translating words from another culture. When employing the foreignization approach, the translator frequently introduces traditional cultural terms.

Zheng (2021) focused on CWs translation in Guangzhou's intangible cultural heritage and agreed that domestication and foreignization could be integrated to ensure the translation conveys the original language's cultural words and provides understandability in target language. The researcher suggested seven tentative strategies to achieve effective cultural communication and minimize losses, for example, literal translation, literal translation plus transliteration, literal translation plus explanation, transliteration plus explanation, transliteration plus category words, transliteration plus intra-text explanation, and transliteration plus free translation.

Chung (2021) examined the dispute around the translation of cultural building names in Hong Kong. The translation of 戏曲 (Pinyin: xiqu) is the case. Adapting Chinese opera into Western languages is an excellent illustration of domestication. While xiqu serves as an excellent illustration of the process of foreignization. To increase literacy rates in the recently established People's Republic of China, Hanyu Pinyin was formally adopted and promoted by the government in 1958. This system gained popularity after the People's Republic of China joined the United Nations in 1971, marking China's entry into the world political arena (Shang & Zhao, 2017).

The above 9 studies are conducted from Venuti's (1995, 2008) dichotomy to investigate the CWs translation tendency and bridge the cultural gaps between the source language and target language. The rest 4 studies adopted other theories: Terestyányi (2011) adopted Newmark's (1988) and Klaudy's (2003) taxonomies; Narváez and Zambrana (2014) used Kwieciński's methodology (2001); while Newmark (1988a), Aixelá (1996), Davies (2003), Olk (2013), Liang (2007, 2016), and Marco (2004, 2018), their translation strategies were utilized by Lin (2021). Arifin (2014) resorted to in-depth interviews and questionnaires to analyze the dominant translation strategies.

(b). *Hu's (2008, 2011) Eco-Translatology*

Only one of these theories used by the various research is a Chinese-proposed theory: Hu Gengshen's (2008, 2011) Eco-translatology. This theory leads translators to reflect on the remarkable awareness in focus toward an ecologically oriented translation. Hu Gengshen's (2008, 2011) underscores interpreter's selection and adaptation and their contexts across the linguistic, cultural, and communicative dimensions as they pertain to the rendering process evaluating CWs.

Geotourism is a sort of natural region tourism that leverages geology and landscapes to promote an area's geographical identity (Duarte et al., 2020). Based on eco-translatology, Liu and Meng (2018) investigated the English translation of CWs found in tourism-related texts and demonstrated the critical necessity of translators adopting translation strategies from the cultural, linguistic, and communicative dimensions. Similarly, Li et al. (2022) examined the three fundamental types of geotourism: geological features (GFs), geological processes (GPs), and cultural words

(CWs). They centered on their translation strategies from Chinese into English. They stated that language style variances, technical jargon, and cultural differences are obstacles to translation. Hu's (2011) Eco-translatology was analyzed and applied to reduce translation difficulties. Future translators working in geotourism translation will have access to these new theoretical guidelines as a resource.

(c). Hu's (2008, 2011) Eco-Translatology

Researchers have realized the quality of CWs translation may affect potential tourists' expectations and destination selection. Therefore, Pratama et al. (2021) and Wahidi et al. (2021) conducted a translation quality assessment in CWs translation of tourism texts. Pratama et al. (2021) selected Nababan's translation quality assessment theory (2012) to explore the accuracy of CWs translation and subdivided accuracy into accurate, less accurate, and inaccurate. The results revealed most of CWs translations are less accurate. Wahidi et al. (2021) resorted to questionnaires and in-depth interviews to analyze translation strategies and assess the accuracy level in the translation of CWs. They concluded accurate translations account for 89.26%.

(d). Other Studies

Translators face significant challenges in CWs translation. Some other studies try to explore these challenges from different perspectives. In 2012, Zhang adopted Lefevere's and Bassnett's (2002) cultural manipulation theory. In this article, the author summarized different manipulation strategies that can be used while translating Chinese tourism texts into English, including addition, omission, use of explanatory notes, and rewriting. But translators need to exercise caution while attempting to use them. Improper use of them could result in adding unnecessary information to the translation or omitting specific cultural characteristics in the source language, which would hinder cross-cultural conversation and contact.

Zhang et al. (2013) discussed the relationship between the CWs translation of tourism texts and relevance theory (Wilson & Sperber, 2004). This study concentrated on gloss translation, particularly transliteration with internal gloss, which is more helpful to arrive at an accurate "equivalent" in understanding the relevant content and disseminating the cultural identity. It covers the cognitive principle of relevance and the communicative principle of relevance and translation.

For their study, Jiang et al. (2022) focused on the English translation of Chinese CWs for intangible cultural assets from the perspective of cognitive psychology to determine how metonymy is used to convey meaning. This research argued that metonymy unifies the link between similar items in the source and target languages, making it a fundamental psychological driver and cognitive mechanism for translation strategies like substitution.

Rizalmi et al. (2022) attempted to identify the degree of Bell's (1991) meaning equivalence employed in translating CWs in tourism brochures. Literal and word-for-word translations were frequently used in translations. According to the findings of this study, the translator utilized more expressive words to translate the CWs from a source language into a target language. Fully, partially, and different meaning equivalence are the three levels of equivalence. The most frequent level of meaning equivalence is full equivalence.

C. Compensating for the Cultural Losses

Tourism text is highly significant in exhibiting to potential readers the gorgeous local scenery and excellent cultural attractions (Wu, 2018). In light of this, its translation can serve the same purpose for possible overseas readers. After reading the tourism translation, they will learn about the gorgeous sites and culture. "The more cultural (the more local, the more remote in time and space) a text, the less equivalent effect is conceivable unless the reader is imaginative, sensitive, and steeped in the SL culture" (Newmark, 2001, p. 49). Additionally, contrasting the source and target languages can disclose the cultural variances and voids that may make it challenging for international audiences to appreciate this culture-loaded content properly.

On the other hand, qualified translators can adapt their translation strategies to accommodate the elements of a wide variety of cultural variables. Because of this, they can accomplish the maximum degree of cultural interaction while simultaneously lowering the amount of loss. Reviewed studies have suggested that the cultural aspects of tourism texts should be considered and emphasized in CWs translation to compensate for cultural differences, cultural gaps, and cultural losses. As seen from Fig.2, 13 studies focused on the dominant translation strategies' taxonomies proposed by different scholars, which accounts for the most significant proportion (Sanning, 2010; Terestyényi, 2011; Mansor, 2012; Zhang, 2012; AmirDabbaghian, 2014; Arifin, 2014; Narváez & Zambrana, 2014; Rezaei & Kuhi, 2014; Fuadi, 2016; Chung, 2021; Lin, 2021; Turzynski-Azimi, 2021; Zheng, 2021). However, their studies are still not comprehensive since the cultural losses were not explored from an overall perspective. For example, what are the types of cultural losses in CWs translation in tourism texts, why are they deemed as losses, and how to overcome every kind of cultural losses in a practical way?

IV. DISCUSSION

This study focuses on the CWs translation in tourism texts, as seen in the data from Figure 1. The general trend of CWs translation in tourism texts has piqued the interest of scholars; there are increasingly more papers being published.

And the cores of these articles are various. Thirteen papers examined the translation strategies of CWs translation compensate for cultural losses. Sanning (2010) suggested a new approach, namely neutralizing, as the benchmark for the Chinese-to-English translation of tourist texts, which can encourage cultural interaction. It describes the act of continuously adjusting the translator's perception of what is being translated to meet the needs of the reader and produce corresponding equivalents. The author proposed the concept-based principle for CWs translation. Since the translations of Chinese tourist materials are replete with transliteration and Pinyin. Pinyin or transliteration, however, is not always sufficient for the English reader to understand tourist texts. If Pinyin were widely employed in translating Chinese tourist texts, essential historical and cultural elements would be lost.

Mansor (2012) investigated the concept of acceptability in the translation of CWs in its modern Malay translation Pengembaraan Ibn Battutah. Toury (1995, p.57) introduced the concept of "acceptability" in translation when discussing the norms of translation behavior. Acceptability in practice demonstrates that the translator complies with cultural norms in the target culture. This idea is also connected to domestication, which was put forth by Venuti in 1995. However, in his "initial norm," Toury (1995, p. 56) developed a fundamental standard for translation. The translator can decide whether to subject themselves to the target culture (acceptability) or the source text (adequacy) following this standard. The adequacy of Arabic-Malay translations of cultural words is neglected. Likewise, according to Turzynski-Azimi's (2021) study, there is a predominant tendency for domesticating method in the renditions of CWs in Japanese travel texts, which lessens the impact of unfamiliarity. The source culture may be weakened to some extent.

In 2014, however, AmirDabbaghian concluded that it is best to use the domestication as little as possible when translating menus. Since menus are meant to introduce readers to alien cultures, the translator should introduce the original culture to readers. The researcher asserted that foreignization is a primary tactic and domestication is a secondary option. This suggestion also supports Rezaei's and Kuhi's (2014) research. Considering this, both domesticating and foreignizing tactics have been employed, foreignization has been utilized the most frequently in the CWs translation, which contributes to the preservation of the source languages and cultures. However, foreignization may bring confusion to potential readers due to the non-equivalent of CWs translation.

We still have articles that combine domestication and foreignization. Such as Zhang Meifang (2012) asserted the names of scenic spots and their translations each have their own stories about the history of Macau, regardless of the translation methodologies used or whether the translation is source culture orientation or the target culture orientation. This assertion is in line with Fuadi (2016)'s, Chung's (2021), and Zheng's (2021) studies. They all support the combination of Venuti's (1995) domestication and foreignization.

Terestyényi (2011) found geographical elements mentioned in CWs translation from Hungarian to English do not cause issues since nature is segmented similarly in the two languages. She used Newmark's (1988) transference and componential analysis and Klaudy's (2003) generalization, additions, circumlocations, and omission. The results indicated that transcription/transference, circumlocation, and addition are the most common translation procedures used in the tourism brochures of the Hungarian National Tourist Office. It defies Klaudy's (2003) judgment that circumlocation occurs when a culturally unique item serves an educational purpose or communicates cultural information. Since the primary purpose of these brochures is to pique potential tourists' interests, the author concluded that transcription/transference could be used to achieve the strangeness that draws us to our goals while we're traveling. A certain amount of meaning is unavoidably lost, but if there were extensive explanations or additions, the language's stream would be disrupted, and its primary purpose would be obscured.

On the other hand, Arifin (2014) proposed the problem of non-equivalence in CWs translation and analyzed that translators should use translation strategies to provide accurate, understandable translations. The study results indicate that translation strategies such as translation by cultural substitution, translation by loanword with explanation, and translation by loanword with definition are used to translate the CWs, concepts, and expressions. Similarly, it is discovered that the translator treats some terms with an explanation or definition rather than being translated. It implies that the translator wishes to expose foreign tourists to some native cultural words while preventing these local terms from becoming extinct. Similarly, Narváez and Zambrana (2014) adopted Kwieciński's methodology (2001) exoticisation, explanation, and assimilation to deal with CWs translation. They demonstrated pure exoticisation is the most frequent procedure. Their findings lead them to conclude that, rather than moving towards one pole or the other, exoticisation or assimilation, CWs translation techniques exhibit a general tendency towards merging each other, suggesting a balance between the informative and appellative functions of tourist materials. Finally, Lin (2021) identified a noticeable phenomenon in that, in cases where the TL (target language) culture is without an equivalent, a variety of approaches might be employed to fill the "lacuna" in the culture. Applying intercultural adaptation, modulation, a literal translation, or a functional equivalent is possible.

Other scholars, Pratama et al. (2021) and Wahidi et al. (2021) conducted translation quality assessments; however, the study of Wahidi et al. (2021) assessed the translation quality through interviews and questionaries. In another two studies, Liu and Meng (2018) and Li et al. (2022) investigated Hu's Eco-translatology theory. They suggested that CW translation should involve "multi-dimensional adaptation and adaption selection" from the linguistic, cultural, and communicative dimensions, with the best translation being the one that integrates and adapts the most thoroughly. Finally, some studies explored CWs translation from different perspectives, such as Lefevere's and Bassnett's 2001

cultural manipulation theory (Zhang, 2012); Wilson and Sperber's (2004) relevance theory (Zhang et al., 2013); cognitive psychology (Jiang et al., 2022); Bell's (1991) meaning equivalence (Rizalmi et al., 2022).

V. LIMITATION

Finally, only about 21 publications best satisfy the requirements for literature screening in the field of research on the analysis of CWs translation in tourism texts, which remains a relatively tiny body of research. This suggests that the study of CWs translation in tourism texts has not yet piqued the interest of academics. Although these articles stress the translation of CWs in tourism texts, they always concentrate on examining translation tendency (domestication or foreignization) and dominant translation strategies, and many of them are still in the exploration and discovery stages. How the translation of CWs in tourism texts compensates for cultural losses and why there are losses have not yet been studied. Therefore, there is still much to learn about the study of CWs translation in tourism texts. Further research is required to identify the variables influencing cultural losses in CWs translation in tourism discourses.

However, the study's weaknesses must also be considered. Even though the researchers made every effort to assemble all pertinent papers for review, some papers may be neglected. Additionally, this systematic review only incorporated papers from three databases. Only articles published in English are considered for review; all other language-based publications are not included. It's important to note that there are still limitations in these areas of the study. These limitations can be overcome with further research that integrates data from a wide range of sources and languages.

The current study adds to the study of CWs translation in tourism texts by shedding light on the compensation for cultural gaps in renditions. In addition, this study provided a resource for future scholars interested in culture-related translation. The relationship between CWs translation and tourism texts has not received much attention in research, and many cultural losses have not been examined. Linguists could investigate the cultural losses of CWs translation in tourism discourses, such as the loss of religion, the loss of rhetorical strategies, etc. A comprehensive examination of the cultural losses of CWs translation in tourism discourses is another option for academics to consider.

VI. CONCLUSION

The authors reviewed the previous studies and systematically reviewed the CWs translation in tourism texts. They have thoroughly explored the general trends of CWs translation in tourism texts, the theoretical framework, and the cultural differences and losses in CWs translation of tourism texts. The results reveal that the CWs translation in tourism texts has driven scholars' enthusiasm, and the number of articles is generally increasing. Besides, several theoretical frameworks have been dissected in a range of tourism-related texts. The analysis of translation tendency towards domestication and foreignization is the most dominant. Additionally, researchers also investigated CWs translation from different perspectives. Furthermore, cultural differences and cultural losses are also considered.

The present study's findings also suggest that cultural gaps and differences are ubiquitous in the CWs' translation of tourism texts. In other words, cultural losses in tourist texts' translation are inevitable. It is essential to investigate the cultural losses in CWs' translation of tourism texts and how to minimize them to assist scholars in better grasping the CWs in cross-cultural communication.

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Shiyue Chen is a Ph.D. candidate at Universiti Putra Malaysia. Her main research interests are cultural words translation and tourism translation. ORCID ID: 0000-0003-1170-1948

Nor Shahila Mansor earned her doctorate from the University of Valladolid in Spain. She is currently a senior lecturer in the Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication, Universiti Putra Malaysia. She has published articles in indexed research journals in the area of her studies. Her research interests include (but are not limited to) sociolinguistics, Spanish language, and translation. ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6744-0065 SCOPUS ID: 57203027022

Chin Mooisan is a senior lecturer in Universiti Putra Malaysia, she obtained her PhD degree in Peking University, China. Her research interest is on Pre-modern Chinese Literature, Mythology and Folklore. ORCID ID: 0000-0003-1186-0164

Muhammad Alif Redzuan Abdullah is a senior lecturer at University Putra Malaysia. His main research interests are in the areas of Comparative Applied Linguistics, Translation, and Interpretation Studies. He has published many papers in international journals and conferences. He has 20 years of teaching and research experience. He was awarded gold and silver medals in the International and local Invention, Innovation, and Design Competition from 2014 to the present. ORCID ID: 0000-0002-8684-0769

A Content Analysis of Research Articles on English Micro-Teaching

Haoran Chen

South China Business College, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, Guangzhou, China

Abstract—**In the era of Internet development, teaching methods are constantly updated. As an important part of English teaching methods, micro-teaching has been studied deeply by many scholars. Even though people are currently in an era when English micro-teaching is becoming more and more popular, there are not many articles about research on English micro-teaching research. Thus, this paper applies qualitative content analysis to study the academic articles on English micro-teaching from 2008 to 2020, and focuses on the issues related to English micro-teaching. The results show that: (1) The most commonly used method for conducting the research on English micro-class teaching is a questionnaire survey, followed by interviews. (2) The main advantage of English micro-teaching is that it is beneficial to teacher education, but the main disadvantage is the lack of real classroom features.**

Index Terms—**English micro-teaching, qualitative content analysis, research articles**

I. INTRODUCTION

Recently, micro-teaching, as a new teaching tool, is becoming more and more pervasive, especially in the COVID-19 pandemic situation. Micro-teaching, also known as micro-course, is a new type of online video course designed and developed for contextualizing and supporting multiple learning methods based on satellite teaching videos as the carrier (Gao, 2017). As a result of education reform, micro-teaching began to emerge in the 1960s (Shi, 2020). As a tool for training teachers, micro-teaching can also be applied during any period whenever the teacher is in pre-service or teaching time (Ryan & Kevin, 1969). In micro-teaching, the course size, time, task, and content should be minimized to provide the best training situation (He & Yan, 2011). Teachers in many schools use micro-teaching for relevant teaching activities. Seidman (1968) proposes a different definition of micro-teaching, i.e., teaching under a microscope because a class is minified. Wallace (1993) thinks that micro-teaching can be seen as a reflective technology, not just a technology to shape teaching. For Ghanaguru et al. (2013), micro-teaching, as an art of teaching, that is, highlights the methods of micro-teaching through the continuous practice of producing high-quality instructional plans that can provide guidance for pre-service teachers in planning and implementing courses.

Nowadays, within an English teaching context, many teachers choose the micro-teaching style to transfer English knowledge to students around the world. In China, thousands of college English teachers have been encouraged to take part in the Star Teacher Competition, an annual micro-lecture competition organized by Higher Education Press and Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press (FLTRP) (Cao, 2017). In Turkey, the fourth year of teacher education is devoted to school observation and teaching practice to prepare pre-service teachers and put into practice the theories they have learned so far, and the first step in teaching practice is that teachers need to attend the School Observation Course in the fall semester (İlknur & Ümit, 2019). While some English language teaching (ELT) systems limit the purpose of the course to observing school life, mentoring and teaching, some require students to take a 20-minute mini-course as a teaching practice and another compulsory course for the next semester.

Many researchers choose topics on English micro-teaching while few scholars specialize in the relationship between teaching discourse and teaching effect through micro-class teaching. More related attention has been paid to online learning, which "has been on the increase in the last two decades" (Martin et al., 2020, p. 1). Thus, it is very significant to research the discourse in journal articles relating to English micro-teaching. Specifically, this study addresses two research questions: (1) What are the major methodological approaches to English micro-teaching? (2) What are the strengths and weaknesses of English micro-teaching? It is hoped that this study will provide implications for future research on English micro-teaching.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. The English Micro-Teaching

The application of micro-teaching in English language teaching is also very common. For example, Ma (2014) points out that if micro-teaching is introduced into English course teaching in higher vocational colleges in China, it will get a good teaching effect. The students in Chinese vocational colleges generally have a weak English foundation, most of them still maintain the middle school level and "often have low efficiency when learning boring knowledge" (Ma, 2014, p. 354). However, micro-teaching is carried out after teachers' careful design, and it should have the teaching content

and be designed through teachers' serious consideration. Although the class time is short, teachers put a lot of energy into the preparation stage before class. In the process of micro-teaching, students can easily inspire their interest in learning English. Yogi (2013) considers that pre-service teachers need to acquire rich background knowledge of the subject and micro-teaching is an important part of preparing trainee teachers for the complexity and reality of teaching. Micro-lecture is an important part of the flipped classroom, which combines the multiple advantages of the multi-mode symbol system, provides a breakthrough for college English teaching reform, and infuses new vitality (Han, 2019). Micro-teaching education for an English as foreign language (EFL) teacher is also important because it allows the participant to observe native speakers, and learn the culture-related non-verbal language (Savas, 2012). For example, the annual English Micro-Teaching Competition is held in China, and the sixth session was held in 2020 (Liu, 2020).

B. The Significance of Micro-Teaching and English Micro-Teaching Study

Firstly, micro-teaching itself is very meaningful for teacher education. It is of great significance to help teachers in teaching and training. The main advantage of micro-teaching is that it provides a supportive environment in which novice teachers can practice their teaching skills within a manageable range, get feedback about their performance, reflect on that feedback, and then use that information to improve their teaching (Benton-Kupper, 2001). What's more, micro-teaching is a good way for teachers to develop and strengthen teaching skills and confidence, to "experience a range of lecturing/tutoring styles and to learn and practice giving constructive feedback" (Otsupius, 2014, p. 185). Micro-teaching is a good plat to train English teachers and "it employs real teaching situation for developing pedagogical content, knowledge of student-teachers and helps them to get adequate knowledge regarding the art of teaching" (Darmayenti et al., 2019, p. 24).

Secondly, micro-teaching is also useful for the students of prospective teachers. Because it is best to involve students actively, and meaningful materials and tasks are required to achieve the best results for learning, micro-teaching settings allow students to perfect certain skills that will then be used in the regular classroom (Otsupius, 2014). What's more, micro-teaching is a situation with low threat, which is more conducive to learning than the high levels of anxiety that many novice teachers exhibit when practicing in the actual classroom (Otsupius, 2014). Megawati and Astutik (2019) point out that the collaborative theories and mini-classes system of micro-teaching can reduce pre-service teachers' tensions and fears, and build up their confidence in the teaching process. In China, many English teachers in private colleges think using micro-teaching is a good reflective practice, which "has become the major instrument for teacher training" (Liu & Li, 2016). Therefore, micro-teaching reduces pre-service teachers' tension in real classrooms and provides them with a process of teaching reflection.

Thirdly, Micro-teaching can also help English teacher education. The videos of micro-teaching can be applied by EFL teachers to get the effect of monitoring and self-correcting the English language use in their classes (Savas, 2012). In Singh's article (2015), he points out that micro-teaching focuses on introducing learners to new language materials, the practice of the new language content, and the use of acquired language materials as learners' communication skills. Kilic (2010) highlights that microteaching offers opportunities to develop teaching skills, such as attracting attention or asking questions to improve teaching ability. These are very helpful for EFL teacher teaching. What's more, English micro-teaching can provide good chances for EFL pre-service teachers to relieve their pressure of teaching and improve their teaching skills. Micro-teaching reduces the heavy workload of practice by providing a fairly stress-free environment for student teachers to plan, teach and reflect on their teaching (Amobi, 2005). Micro-teaching in teacher training programs has a positive impact on EFL student teachers' awareness and understanding of their teaching skills as well as the development of operational teaching strategies (Ismail, 2011). Moreover, English micro-teaching is conducive to the reform of English teaching. The advantage of English micro-courses is that they are easy to spread and combine a variety of teaching methods (Lv et al., 2020). Therefore, English micro-teaching is very helpful to improve teachers' ability and English curriculum reform.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Constructivist Worldview

A constructivist worldview was used in conducting this research. Constructivists believe that what is considered knowledge is always informed by a particular point of view and determined by a particular ideological position (Gordon, 2008). Richardson (1997) points out that individuals build new understandings based on the interaction between what they already know and believe the phenomena or ideas that they meet. My background knowledge of English micro-teaching will affect my value in the research of English micro-teaching. Because everyone has a different understanding and views of the world, the role of the researcher is to analyze and interpret the data with his insights (Creswell, 2017). Therefore, it can be assumed that my understanding of English micro-class teaching and my definition in this field will affect the results of this research.

B. Content Analysis

In this research, the method of qualitative content analysis is selected. The purpose of content analysis is to obtain a concise description of the phenomenon, and the result of the analysis is to describe the concept or category of the phenomenon (Elo & Kyngas, 2007). And the purpose and function of qualitative research are to understand the meaning

of human behavior by describing the intrinsic or essential features of social objects or human experience (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008). Therefore, through learning about the aims of content analysis and qualitative research we can know that qualitative content analysis is suitable for the leading mode of English micro-course teaching research. This process can prove that the qualitative content analysis is reasonable by summarizing the knowledge points proposed by the author in all the suitable corpus found.

C. Data Selection

To identify academic articles relevant to this research, a series of online databases are searched. In the process of searching for a suitable corpus, I have mainly searched for academic journals in Google Scholar, academic literature from Deakin University Library, and academic papers on CNKI. By setting the following inclusion criteria, the appropriate corpus is selected.

(1) The keywords of the corpus have English micro-teaching.

(2) All of the corpora are academic articles from the three databases mentioned in the full text.

(3) The publication time of the corpus is from 2008 to now.

The inclusion criteria help narrow down the scope of literature searches. Further study the corpus initially included in the study, conduct research objectives, data, main findings or conclusions, and read the research methods.

See Appendix 1 for a complete list of selected articles.

D. Analytical Process

Content analysis has been applied to answer research questions because it is the most suitable for researchers to analyze research problems in a short time (Krippendorff, 1980).

Thematic analysis is used to be the analytical process as it is the first qualitative analysis method that researchers should learn, and it provides a core skill that is useful for conducting many other forms of qualitative analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). And Holloway and Todres (2003) point out that thematic analysis should be regarded as the fundamental method of qualitative analysis. Therefore, thematic analysis can be applied to the content analysis of English micro-teaching.

Using Braun and Clarke's (2006) six steps can help me to select suitable data, carry on the analysis discussion processes and get final research results.

(1) Knowing your data

When starting to analyze, the data should be understood unquestionably in advance. Nonetheless, it is vital to immerse researchers themselves in the data to the extent of familiarity with the depth and breadth of the content. It is best to read the full text. Whether the collected data are holistic or partial, whether the underlying themes will be defined or not, and whether the themes are data-driven or theoretically-driven, a reading process is in great need. This step requires researchers to read each article many times, especially abstracts, introductions, findings, and conclusions, to discover the key ideas of each text.

(2) Performing the initial coding

This stage involves generating initial code from the data. The code identifies the data features (semantic content or potential) that the analyst is interested in, and points to the most basic part or element of the original data or information, which can help evaluate the phenomenon in a meaningful way. Coding depends to some extent on whether the subject is more data-driven or theory-driven. In the former, the subject matter will depend on the data, but in the latter, you may code with the specific questions you consider surrounding while processing the data. This will also depend on whether your goal is to encode the content of the entire data set, or whether your encoding is to identify specific (possibly limited) characteristics of the data set.

(3) Searching for your themes (categories)

At this stage, the researchers analyze broader-level topics instead of coding, including sorting different codes into potential topics and sorting out all relevant coding data to extract the identified topics. Essentially, the researcher should begin to analyze the codes and consider how different codes can be combined to form an overall theme.

(4) Reviewing your themes

This stage includes improvements to themes. Appendix 2 outlines initial themes, related article examples and evidence. Under the core findings of each text, a final review of each topic is also demonstrated.

(5) Defining and naming your themes

This stage is to define and refine the topic to achieve a clear understanding of the selected articles (see Appendix 3).

(6) Producing your report

In doing so, the connection between the theme and articles was discussed, and this was proved by specific examples from articles (see 4 results and discussion).

E. Data Analysis

The analyzed resources are specifically for the study of English micro-teaching. In this data analysis, six key themes from 25 selected articles constitute the main topics of the study of English micro-teaching, and they will be discussed below.

(1) Micro-Teaching for Teacher Education

The analysis of the data shows that English teachers' education is an important topic for English micro-teaching. At Stanford University in the 1960s (Cruickshank, 1996), the structure of planning, teaching, observing, and criticizing was introduced (Bell, 2007), and it was pointed out that the purpose of micro-teaching was to bridge the gap between teacher training targets. Micro-teaching is carried out in the teacher education plan, and the knowledge must be adapted to the actual classroom situation (Karlsson, 2020). In other words, the implementation of micro-teaching will help to establish a link between the teaching content knowledge acquired by teachers in their teaching and the teaching content knowledge required by learners at all levels in a specific context. Therefore, micro-teaching will provide an opportunity for teacher trainees to reflect on different teaching methods for different topics and groups of students (Fernandez, 2010). And based on these responses and feedback from peers and teachers, micro-teaching can help improve the teaching skills of pre-service teachers (Grossman & McDonald, 2008).

(2) Micro-Teaching for Teaching Reform

Another important theme of these articles is English micro-teaching for teaching reform. How to improve the students' English learning efficiency has always been the focus of educators (Lv et al., 2020). With the rapid development of education, traditional teaching methods cannot meet students' needs, so it is urgent to reform and implement modern teaching methods. The articles with the second theme demonstrate that students' cognitive proficiency, academic achievements and learning motivation, and teachers' teaching effectiveness have been developed and improved in English micro-teaching. Thus, a micro-course is a beneficial supplement and improvement to traditional teaching methods (Lv et al., 2020). Meanwhile, in the "Internet+" era, micro-teaching has been deeply integrated with a flipped classroom for English teaching reform, and the quality and efficiency of the classroom have improved. Therefore, micro-teaching is essential for English teaching reform.

(3) English Micro-Teaching Itself

The third theme is to investigate English micro-teaching itself. The prototype of micro-teaching appeared in 1960 when a college at the University of Iowa in the United States proposed a short course, which showed the early history of dividing knowledge into smaller course units (Cao, 2017). "Micro-lecture alternates with mini-course, micro-course, mini-lecture was proposed by David Penrose in 2008" (Cao, 2017, p. 34). The research topics for English micro-teaching include: the application of micro-lecture into college English, Micro-lecture content selection, teaching mode based on micro-lecture, change to college English teachers' role, quantitative research, and other topics. The results show that mini-lecture has been applied in college English teaching, which is the key to choosing the lecture content. At the same time, with the emergence of micro university lectures, the teacher's role has changed in English teaching. The research with the theme of micro-teaching itself provides the implications for further improvement of college English teaching. The practical application of micro-classes in college English is relatively small, and the large amount of work done in making micro-classes may hinder the implementation of micro-classes in the teaching of most overloaded college English.

(4) Micro-Teaching Contest

The fourth theme concentrates on an English micro-teaching contest. Micro-course Contest of Foreign Languages (MCFL) has been in China for 5 years, and in the past years, MCFL has increasingly matured (Liu, 2020). Although many teachers have gained a lot from the preparation of micro-classes, there are still some problems with MCFL. And the relevant study of micro-teaching points out some problems and shortcomings related to micro-teaching processes, i.e. contestants' problems and solutions, and judges' problems and solutions. For example, some micro-classes take too much time, some lack focuses, some give facts and simple content, and others are shown for prizes.

(5) Teachers' Views on Micro-Teaching

The fifth theme is teachers' views on English micro-teaching.

Pre-serve teachers appreciate the experience of micro-teaching and think that it will become a helpful and effective preparation for their future teaching. Most pre-serve teachers agree that micro-teaching is a good opportunity to prepare them for further teaching practice and that it has developed their certain teaching skills. What's more, the vast majority of teachers believe that micro-teaching videos can improve teachers' English proficiency and teaching skills. Meanwhile, pre-serve teachers believe that the micro-teaching method provides them with an opportunity to evaluate their strengths and weaknesses in teaching. Student teachers believe that learning objectives, course stages, and type of course activities are three important factors in the micro-course plan. Teachers from private institutions hold different views on English micro-teaching in that the function and influence of micro-teaching are not performed sufficiently. In addition, the relationship between micro-teaching, teacher comfort, and teacher responsibility has also been studied.

(6) Using Micro-Teaching to Study Other Aspects

The last theme of English micro-teaching research is related to the anxiety of teachers in micro-teaching processes. In the research, the author has investigated the sources of foreign language anxiety experienced by non-native speakers of pre-service English teachers. The author has conducted a questionnaire survey on pre-service teachers who teach English micro-classes. It is found that students feel anxious when they do not understand English. Meanwhile, the interview has been made, with the result that most of the interviewees are prone to anxiety when they make mistakes in their English micro-classes (Yoon, 2012).

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Subject Proportions

Table 1 lists the proportion of each topic and the topics to which each article belongs. The results show that the theme of English teacher education occupies the largest space among all the articles, accounting for 48%. The theme of teachers' views on micro-teaching ranks second, taking up 24%, and the theme of micro-teaching for teaching reform the third, 16%. However, the proportion of English micro-teaching contests, English micro-teaching itself, and English micro-teaching on other aspects only hold 4% respectively.

TABLE 1
THE FREQUENCY AND PROPORTION OF EACH THEME

Theme	Article	Amount of article	Proportion %
Micro-Teaching for Teacher Education	Articles 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12.	12	48
Micro-Teaching for Teaching Reform	Articles 13, 14, 15, 16, 17.	4	16
Micro-teaching Itself	Article 17	1	4
Micro-teaching Contest	Article 18	1	4
Teachers' Views on Micro-Teaching	Article 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24.	6	24
Using Micro-Teaching to Study Other Aspects	Article 25	1	4

These proportions show that English teacher education is a very important research direction. "The quality in teacher education is believed to be the key to the quality in education in any country" (YÜksel & Özkanl, 2019, p. 2379). This means English teacher education is a very essential part of an educational circle, and it makes sense to study the subject. In the age of the Internet, modern education is completely different from traditional one (Tang & Chen, 2016). Initially, micro-teaching has been regarded as the placement of traditional teacher training mode. Subsequently, researchers from China have proved that the effectiveness of micro-teaching can help English teachers equip themselves with efficient teaching skills (Shi, 2020). Therefore, many scholars regard micro-teaching research on English teacher education as the key theme.

What's more, teachers' views on English micro-teaching can influence in teaching reform. It is found that micro-courses positively promote teaching reform, "which could improve teaching methods" (Lv et al., 2020, p. 2). And the method of improving the effectiveness of micro-courses is exploring the "course structure, design methods, problems, improvement measures" (Lv et al., 2020, p. 2), which are mainly from teachers' views on English micro-teaching. Thus, the two themes of micro-teaching for teacher education and teachers' views on micro-teaching have also drawn many scholars' attention. The research on the other three themes comes last in that they mainly serve teaching reform, and teacher development and education.

B. Major Methodological Approaches to English Micro-Teaching

The methodological Approach is an indispensable component in research articles, and different research themes usually employ different methodological approaches. Table 2 demonstrates the result of major research methods in each collected article.

TABLE 2
MAJOR METHODOLOGICAL APPROACHES IN ARTICLES

Methodological Approach	Article
Questionnaire survey research	Article 2, 3, 5, 6, 9, 10, 14, 19, 20, 22, 23, 24, 25.
Interview approach	Article 6, 9, 21, 24.
Comparative study approach	Article 2, 15, 16.
Feedback analysis approach	Article 3
Case study approach	Article 4, 5.
Descriptive analysis approach	Article 7
Refection analysis approach	Article 8, 20.
Experimental analysis approach	Article 11
Statistical analysis approach	Article 14
Content analysis approach	Article 17
Document analysis approach	Article 23

It can be seen from Table 2 that the questionnaire survey is the most used method in the selected articles and a total of 13 articles have applied it. A questionnaire survey refers to sociological research mainly using the questionnaire survey method (Deng & Feng, 2000). At present, as a method, questionnaire survey not only occupies an indispensable and important position in sociological research, but also gradually expands to various fields and industries such as administration, economy, news, education, etc., becoming people's recognition and understanding of social phenomena and an important tool for social life (Deng & Feng, 2000). For example, in Jing's article (2020), a questionnaire approach is used to investigate the teaching confidence of novice English teachers, and the results of the questionnaire provide readers with more information about the implementation of the micro-teaching program. In another example, Liu and Li (2016) apply a questionnaire to collect more data on the views of micro-teaching in private universities, and

the survey may provide a broader perspective. Meanwhile, it is also found that two or more research methods are used concurrently in some articles. For example, Article 2 applies both questionnaire survey and comparative research methods, and Article 3 employs a combination of questionnaire survey and feedback analysis approach. This means that when researchers choose methodological approaches to research based on actual conditions and research topics.

C. Strengths and Weaknesses of English Micro-Teaching

It is found that the authors of all 25 selected articles have made comments (see Table 3) on the English micro-teaching. Although it is found in the selected articles that different authors have different evaluation methods of commenting on the advantages and disadvantages of English micro-teaching, the detailed comments can be divided into strengths and weaknesses as follows.

TABLE 3
STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES OF ENGLISH MICRO-TEACHING

Article	Strengths	Weaknesses
Article 1	(1) Clear and prominent subjects (2) Rich and diversified resources (3) Convenient interaction and sharing	
Article 2	(1) Controllability (2) The best model for teacher training	
Article 3	Helping teachers in teaching and training.	
Article 4	Improving the effectiveness of teacher education.	
Article 5	An important constituent for trainee teachers	Lack of features of actual classrooms
Article 6	Helping teachers to get adequate knowledge regarding the art of teaching.	Inadequately prepared students and teachers' actual classroom teaching
Article 7	It helps to ensure that the transcription relating to the content of English lessons is detailed and accurate.	
Article 8	(1) It helps to develop skills such as improving teaching competence. (2) It can help to develop reflective practices.	It is easy for teachers to ignore the role and function of reflection.
Article 9	(1) It provides a pressure-free environment to practice teaching. (2) It has a positive influence on student teachers' consciousness and perceptions about their teaching skills.	(1) Administrators' information gap about the practice process. (2) Inauthenticity of the practicum. (3) Assessment procedures challenges.
Article 10	Helping teachers in teaching and training.	
Article 11	It helps student teachers to examine their roles in the teaching process, thereby discovering the advantages and disadvantages of this process.	
Article 12	It is an important and necessary supplement to traditional classrooms.	
Article 13	It is an important and necessary supplement to traditional classrooms.	(1) The teaching materials in different stages of micro-teaching are unclear. (2) The mechanism of evaluating the teaching effect of micro-teaching is not perfect.
Article 14	Let students consolidate their knowledge anytime and anywhere.	
Article 15	(1) It can increase students' interest in learning. (2) It provides effective learning resources for students to learn independently. (3) The development of microteaching is conducive to improving the teaching level and self-critical ability.	
Article 16	(1) It conveys comprehensive knowledge. (2) It has a small resource capacity. (3) Its teaching content is more refined than traditional classes.	
Article 17	Teachers decompose and reconstruct the teaching content according to the internal connection of knowledge through micro-class teaching.	
Article 18		Many contestants in English micro-teaching competitions tend to provide students with facts and lack creativity and originality.
Article 19	It improves pre-service teachers' understanding and knowledge of teaching skills.	
Article 20	The videos of micro-teaching can help English teachers to learn a nonverbal language.	
Article 21	(1) It provides feedback to training teachers so that teacher behavior can be corrected. (2) It provides new and different opportunities for pre-service teachers to formulate and implement new teaching strategies.	
Article 22	It is an effective method used in the pre-service and in-service stages of teacher professional development.	
Article 23	It prepares teachers for the real school experience.	
Article 24	It is a way to promote teaching reflective practice.	
Article 25	It provides a pressure-free environment to practice teaching.	

(1) Strengths

The advantages of English micro-teaching mentioned in these articles are beneficial to English teachers' education and English teaching reform.

On the one hand, micro-teaching can provide teacher trainees with the opportunity to reflect on different teaching methods for different topics and groups of students (Putnam & Borko, 2000) and help improve the teaching skills of pre-service teachers. Karlsson (2020) points out that the implementation of micro-teaching will help the teacher's teaching in the Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK). As a way to improve the quality of teacher education (Koc & Ilya, 2016), micro-teaching is considered to be an effective way to provide pre-service English teachers with the opportunity to plan and implement new teaching strategies and to establish a link between theory and practice.

On the other hand, micro-teaching is regarded as an important trigger to carry out English teaching reform. Under the new situation of 'Internet+', all educational concepts tend to have micro-feature. Micro-teaching and flipped classrooms are introduced to facilitate teaching reform in many schools. In Lu's research (2016), the application of micro-teaching in English reading classes can improve students' English reading ability and promote English teaching reform through its "fragmented" teaching system. What's more, the supplement of micro-teaching can meet the requirement of improving traditional teaching methods (Lv et al., 2020).

(2) Weaknesses

In the selected articles, weaknesses of micro-teaching have been pointed out although some articles do not mention the shortcomings. It is the highlighted weakness that English micro-teaching cannot have performed all the functions of the actual classroom, which leads to insufficient preparation of students and teachers, and reduces the effectiveness of English micro-teaching. Yogi (2013) considers that micro-teaching is an important part of practice teachers' learning, but its classroom activities and simulation lack the functions of the real classroom, such as enabling them to see real classroom feedback. Micro-teaching practice still faces many challenges, because it cannot fully provide students and teachers with actual classroom teaching preparation (Darmayenti et al., 2019).

D. Discussion

Through the analysis of selected articles, it is found that the most used research method for these articles is a questionnaire survey. People can be investigated by the questionnaire survey method because it is very convenient to be determined by themselves. For example, in the article *Measuring beliefs about orthodontic treatment: a questionnaire approach*, researchers hold this view (Bennett et al., 1997). Another example, in the two British Child and Adolescent Mental Health Surveys, a total of 26,544 children were selected and their main caregivers (parents) were contacted, of which 18,415 (69%) participated in the survey (Goodman & Goodman, 2009). As long as the researcher makes the corresponding questionnaire, the questioned person can be found in the applicable population. However, questionnaire surveys also have limitations. Firstly, the integration with theory is not close enough. Some research reports are still satisfied with superficial empirical argumentation, lacking corresponding theoretical sources and background, which directly affects the academic value of questionnaire survey research (Deng & Feng, 2000). Secondly, in the questionnaire survey itself, the methods used in some stages are not strict enough (Deng & Feng, 2000). Specifically, the operating variables of some reports do not fully cover the connotation and extension of the concepts studied, and there are some large technical errors in some studies due to the unscientific sampling method and the "convenience orientation" of the actual survey. Therefore, if researchers want to apply a questionnaire survey to study English micro-teaching, they need to strive to integrate theory and empirical investigations. What's more, researchers should strictly control the application of empirical methods at this stage to improve the reliability and validity of the research.

To make full use of the advantages and to avoid the disadvantages of English micro-teaching, the implications for micro-teaching design can be summarized as follows. On the one hand, English teachers should study the course structure and design methods in advance in that the previous studies have provided references for designing micro-teaching. Many scholars are contributing to the innovation of micro-teaching. Take the following research articles as examples. Tang and Chen (2016) take advantage of the combination of micro-courses and teaching strategies to develop a variety of teaching models to improve open communication between teachers and students. Cai et al. (2016) find that micro-teaching can be used for intensive teaching, and when using the micro-course methods, the teacher becomes the guide and collaborator, promoting the students' learning. On the other hand, before designing micro-teaching, English teachers should determine a set of suitable evaluation standards and evaluation methods, as relevant studies have shown that an evaluation system is also important to micro-teaching design. Twelve interviews are conducted to gather learners' views on the assessment of Massive Open Online Courses (MOOC) learning, and it has been found that learners agree with the peer review method, while automated assessment remains the most popular method (Papathoma et al., 2015). Shi et al. (2016) evaluate the teaching mode and determine the corresponding evaluation indexes of the English micro-course through fuzzy clustering analysis, and confirm that the fuzzy clustering algorithm has good applicability.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper applies content analysis to explore the proposed research questions: the main research methods of English micro-teaching are studied and the advantages and disadvantages of English micro-teaching. It summarizes the six

research themes of English micro-teaching, i.e., micro-teaching for English teacher education, micro-teaching for English teaching reform, micro-teaching itself, micro-teaching contest, English teachers' views on micro-teaching, and using English micro-teaching to study other aspects. It also concludes the major methodological approaches in English micro-teaching. The most used method is a questionnaire survey, and two or more methods are applied in one article. Meanwhile, it discusses the strengths and weaknesses of English micro-teaching. The most compelling advantage is that micro-teaching can improve English teacher education and facilitate teaching reform. The most important drawback is that micro-teaching lacks the characteristics of real classrooms, which makes it difficult to utilize the functions of micro-teaching. In the future, I will expand the number of samples and make a deeper content analysis of the topic.

APPENDIX 1. SELECTED ARTICLES

(1) Article 1: Ma, Q. (2014). *Higher vocational English micro teaching in the information environment*, 2nd International Conference on Education Technology and Information System, 353-357. https://doi.org/10.2991/icetis-14.2014.79

(2) Article 2: Shi, J. (2020). A critical analysis of the assessment for micro-teaching program for English language teachers in the secondary education in Mainland China, *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 10*(2), 168-175. http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1002.04

(3) Article 3: Karlsson, K. (2020). Can micro-teaching, teacher feedback/feedforward and reflective writing enhance pre-service teachers' pedagogical content knowledge of grammar in English as a second language? *Journal of Language Teaching and Research,* 11(2), 145-156. http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/jltr.1102.02

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(5) Article 5: Yogi, M. (2013). Developing language and teaching skills through videoconferencing and collaborative projects: a case study of English teacher training programs in Japan. *International Journal of Arts & Sciences, 6*(4), 347-362.

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APPENDIX 2.   THEMATIC ANALYSIS OF CODING WITH EVIDENCE RELATED TO SELECTED ARTICLES

Initial Theme	Related article example	Evidence
Improving English teachers' teaching processes	Article 1	In the abstract, the author points out that micro-teaching can improve Teacher professional development (Ma, 2014).
Improving English teachers' reform	Article 13	Efficiency model of micro-course study
Learning about English micro-teaching	Article 17	An Overview of Micro-Lecture
About the English micro-teaching competition	Article 18	Micro-course contest's problems and solutions
Ideas from English teachers	Article 19	Teachers' views on micro-teaching
Others fields	Article 25	Micro-teaching can be used in other fields

APPENDIX 3.   THEMES AND DEFINITION

Theme	Definition
Micro-Teaching for Teacher Education.	Micro-teaching involves research on English teacher education.
Micro-Teaching for Teaching Reform	Micro-teaching involves research on English teaching reform.
Micro-Teaching Itself	The research involves micro-teaching itself.
Micro-teaching contests	Research involving the English micro-teaching contests.
Teachers' Views on Micro-Teaching	The research on English teachers' views on micro-teaching.
Using Micro-Teaching to Study Other Aspects	

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Haoran Chen is currently a college English teacher at South China Business College, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies. She obtained the degree of Master of TESOL from Deakin University. She has published several research papers on Linguistics and English Language teaching. Her main research interests are Linguistics and English Language teaching.

A Bibliometric Analysis of the Five-Decade Publications on Metaphor

Ni Made Suryati[*]
Faculty of Humanities, Udayana University, Denpasar, Indonesia

I Ketut Jirnaya
Faculty of Humanities, Udayana University, Denpasar, Indonesia

I Nyoman Kardana
Faculty of Letters, Warmadewa University, Denpasar, Indonesia

Made Sri Satyawati
Faculty of Humanities, Udayana University, Denpasar, Indonesia

Abstract—**This study is focused on analyzing the publication trends on metaphor in the last five decades with the assistance of bibliometric analysis. The data used were 620 studies classified into several types of publication: 440 articles, 74 reviews, 39 book chapters, 33 books, 24 conference papers, two short surveys, three notes, two editorials, two conference reviews, and one press article. The data analysis used VOSviewer 1.6.5 and Tableau to form the data visualization. The results of this study show that the highest number of publications in 2018 was 66, while the keywords co-occurrence aspect in the metaphor study was dominated by human, metaphor, young adult, humans, figurative language and so on. Furthermore, the highest source trend analysis was 'Neuropsychologia' with 397 citations and Mashal's author-based citation analysis with 292 citations. In contrast, the countries-based citation analysis was dominated by two countries: the United States at 2358 and United Kingdom at 1113. Then, the highest organizational trend was University College London, United Kingdom, with four documents and 77 citations.**

Index Terms—**bibliometric analysis, metaphor analysis, figurative language, language, data visualization**

I. INTRODUCTION

Research on metaphor has been conducted since some years ago (see Figure 2). Metaphor has become an exciting topic worldwide as metaphor has a comprehensive relationship with other aspects of human life. Metaphorical language, a language that contains metaphorical speech, is a language that cannot be understood literally. The ability to articulate ideas that are difficult to convey with literal language alone is a key function of metaphorical language. Additionally, it has been found that descriptions of experiencing states involving high emotions were more frequently metaphorized than those involving mild emotions, but not descriptions of emotional acts (Fainsilber & Ortony, 1987).

A metaphor is a way of conveying something unusual. A metaphor is anything that exists outside of conventional language and requires specific forms for listeners to understand. According to Haugen (1972), the environment of a language is the community that utilizes that language. Language exists simply in the mind of the speaker, and it functions only to connect speakers with other speakers and their natural social surroundings (see also Gaho et al., 2022). In addition, metaphor is a figure of speech that may be avoided; we employ it for special effects, and it is not an unavoidable component of regular human communication, much alone everyday human intellect and reasoning (Ritchie, 2013; Kövecses, 2010). In this sense, figurative language is artistic, and metaphor is used as a communication style for a specific purpose (Dancygier & Sweetser, 2014). The result of our figurative cognition, which arises from the constant link between our physical experience and the relationship we establish with the cultural framework in which we live, is figurative language, which includes metaphor (Gibbs & Colston, 2012). Conceptual metaphors are always culturally and socially determined (Marugina, 2014). Thus, understanding metaphor never separates from culture because it has been mostly used in daily communication; it is similar to a simile (Saeed, 1993).

An example of a cross-domain conceptual mapping is a metaphor, which uses one mental domain to explain another. Metaphor is inherently a component of mind that can only be expressed externally through language, art, gesture, or other means (Baicchi, 2020). Likewise, Piata (2016), metaphor and humor both serve the specific rhetorical aims of election campaign advertising and political satire. Metaphor does this through the evaluative frameworks it invokes, while humor does this through its targets and its function as a tool for critique. Based on this definition, metaphors are well-known as a means for hiding information, usually for secrets. In line with deliberate metaphor is a conscious

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[*] Corresponding author. Email: md_suryati@unud.ac.id

discourse strategy aiming to elicit particular rhetorical effects (Steen, 2008; Rashidin & Jalaluddin, 2014). In other words, metaphors seem like idioms whose meaning differs from a literal reading of the words they include. For instance, the English translation of the phrase "not to breathe a word" implies to keep it a secret; it does not mean not to be inspired (Fotovatnia & Goudarzi, 2014).

As a part of a figure of speech, metaphor is a context-sensitive phenomenon. It requires the interlocutor to understand the use of metaphors, not straight meanings. Metaphor differs from literal statements in which the speaker also wants the listener to develop an aspect (Genovesi, 2020). Actually, metaphor is central to analogical reasoning; it is an intrinsic part of human creativity and has a significant role in linguistic creativity and change (Lai & Shen, 2014). On the other hand, metaphor is conceptual mappings that in many cases pre-exist communication, structuring our thinking, reasoning, and understanding (Macagno & Rossi, 2019). Metaphor is at the nexus of mind and language. Metaphor is an ornamental aspect of speech and thought (Maltese et al., 2012). So, metaphor is sometimes dangerous in these concepts if spoken at the wrong time or when the speaker uses it with an interlocutor who does not know about it.

Without a doubt that metaphor is one of the types of figure of speech that exist; in fact, metaphor is more than just a figure of speech; it is a particular mental mapping and a type of brain co-activation that significantly affects how individuals reason, think, and imagine in daily life (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Metaphor is not mere poetic device but also language elements which convey specific messages in everyday communication (Muhammad & Rashid, 2014). Additionally, metaphors may be seen as conceptual system organizing models and a novel mechanism in traditional literary contexts that enhance the text's coherence and cohesiveness (Marugina, 2014). On the other hand, conceptual metaphors as the property of the language can become one of the ways of modelling and interpreting literary discourse. Beyond the idea of being figures of speech, metaphor is seen as a style of thinking and a means of communicating information, meaning, or subliminal signals. Metaphors are well-known as central tools in communication and thinking (Rashidin & Jalaluddin, 2014; Potts & Semino, 2019).

To sum up, a metaphor is a phrase or statement that, when used literally, refers to one sort of item but is used to describe another that is very different from the first without making a direct connection. A metaphor is a phrase or word that is used to discuss anything different than its essence or most fundamental meaning (Rasouli & Rahimi, 2015; Deignan, 2005). Indeed, by using certain words and phrases to allude to important subjects when they often refer to other subjects, a writer might use metaphor to achieve certain rhetorical purposes, such as building a relationship with the reader and exercising judgment (Charteris-Black & Musolff, 2003), however, metaphor is a cultural phenomenon and as such it has to be accommodated according to the language (Roldán-Riejos & Cuadrado, 2015). A metaphor is a powerful language tool that adapts to a person's goals and objectives (Solonchak & Pesina, 2015). Semino (2008) points out that metaphor is the practice of comparing one thing to another when speaking or thinking about it (see also Gaho, 2020). Fill and Miihlhausler (2001) reaffirm that living language (used both orally and in writing) represents facts about nature, society, and culture that exist in their environment. As a result, language is not only a record of social facts, but it is also a record of natural facts as a sign that there is a relationship between humans and their natural environment that is recorded in the lexicon of a language. In light of the aforementioned explanation, metaphors in Balinese discourses primarily demonstrate that from a biological perspective, metaphors can make references to inanimate objects, animals, and plants; from a sociological perspective, metaphors are used to convey directives, requests, satire, praise, and suggestions (Kardana et al., 2022).

Grounded by some research on metaphors that have been discussed from many points of view above, none of them discussed metaphors through bibliometric analysis. This study aims at reviewing comprehensive literature to analyse the annual trends of metaphor-related publications in the recent five-decade and the future prediction of the metaphor analysis.

II. METHOD

A. Method

In accordance with the scope of this study, the Scopus database in all years was used to examine the problems with metaphors. The reason why the Scopus database was used is as Scopus covers a more comprehensive journal range, of helps both in keyword searching and citation analysis (Falagas et al., 2008). The keywords (TITLE-ABS-KEY ("metaphor analysis" OR "figurative language" OR "figure of speech") AND TITLE-ABS-KEY ("literary" OR "literature")) were entered into the 'topic' section, and 620 studies were successfully reached (February 15 2022). The 620 studies were classified into several types of publication: 440 articles, 74 reviews, 39 book chapters, 33 books, 24 conference papers, two short surveys, three notes, two editorials, two conference reviews, and 1 article press, as shown in Figure 1.
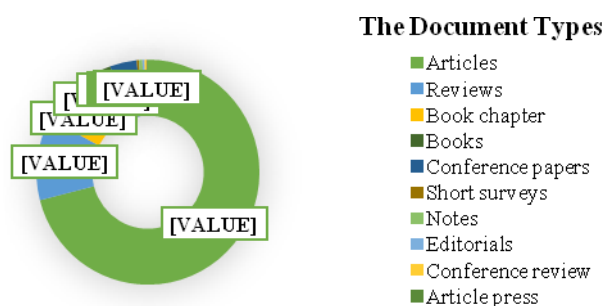
The Document Types

- Articles
- Reviews
- Book chapter
- Books
- Conference papers
- Short surveys
- Notes
- Editorials
- Conference review
- Article press

[VALUE]
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Figure 1. The Types of Publications on Metaphor

B. Data Analysis

To reach the objective of this study, VOSviewer 1.6.5 was applied for the mining and visualization of data. VOSviewer is a software tool to create maps based on network data and visualizes and explores these maps. Thus, the functionality of VOSviewer can be creating maps based on network data and visualizing and exploring maps (van Eck & Waltman, 2010; Waltman & Van Eck, 2012). It is also stated that VOSviewer is intended primarily for analyzing bibliometric networks. It can create, visualize, and explore maps based on network data. Tableau Public software was also applied to obtain an alternative to the analysis. The two software tools can perfectly visualize and map the data.

III. RESULTS

The results of this paper are about the detailed interpretation of some points regarding the annual trends and keyword co-occurrence analysis of metaphor-related publications in 3.1, the co-authorship analysis on metaphor in 3.2, the citation analysis on metaphor-related publications in 3.3.

A. The Annual Trends and All Keywords Co-Occurrence Analysis of Metaphor-Related Publication

(a). The Annual Trends of Metaphor-Related Publication.

One of the uses of the VOSviewer tool is to figure out the annual trends of the publication. In this case, the annual publications regarding metaphor analysis can be shown to recognize how often metaphor has become the topic of research.
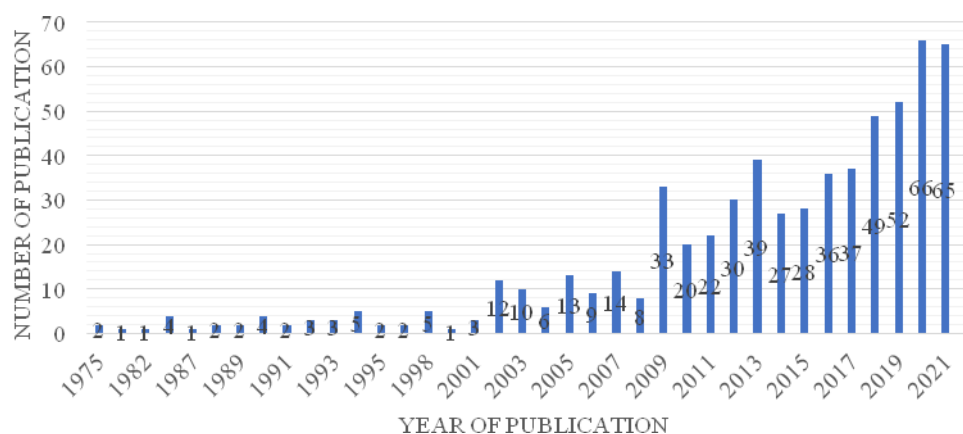
Figure 2. The Annual Trends of Metaphor-related Publication.

Figure 2 shows the annual trends of Metaphor Analysis publications. Metaphor analysis had been carried out since the 1970s, and until 2001 it did not show significant growth in publication. However, from 2002 to 2008, the number of publications significantly increased. Scholars began to conduct more research on metaphors in 2009, and the great jump happened from 2018 to 2021, up to 66 articles per year. This shows that the metaphor evolves from one decade to the next decade. Currently, metaphor analysis has become the focus of research as a metaphor is a linguistic study that people can use to convey moral messages indirectly in literary works. Unfortunately, metaphors are often preoccupied with the local wisdom of particular communities that need to be preserved and developed.

(b). The All Key-Words Co-Occurrence Analysis of Metaphor-Related Publications

Of the total 2771 with minimum number of occurrences of a keyword was determined as 7 and the number of key-words to be selected was automatically stated as 108. The created map is displayed in Figure 3.
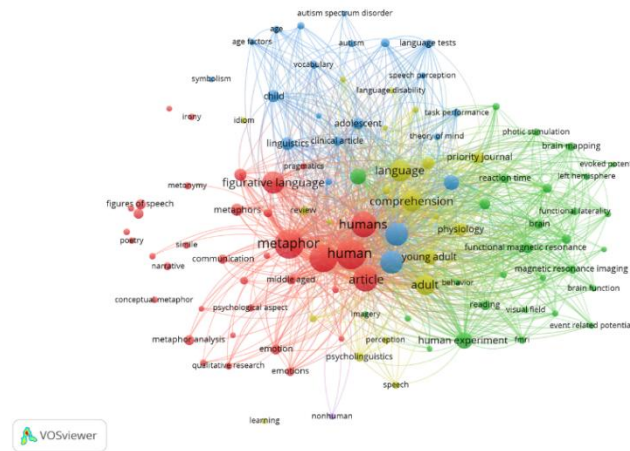

Figure 3. The All Key-words Co-occurrence

Figure 3 shows that there are five clusters. Cluster 1 consists of 36 items with red nodes. The main items of this cluster are mostly related to the metaphor itself, such as "metaphor", "figurative language", "human", and "article". Some other smaller nodes of this cluster are "communication", "emotion", "metaphor analysis", and "middle-aged". This cluster looks to be the main item having close relation to metaphor analysis. Cluster 2 consists of 29 items, and they are in green nodes. Most items of this cluster are likely related to the process of metaphor. The most prominent nodes of this cluster are "semantics", "human experiment", "reading", "language processing", "functional magnetic resonance", "brain", "brain mapping, "reaction time", "photic stimulation", "left hemisphere, and "functional literality". All the big and smaller node items are connected to the main items of cluster 1. Cluster 3 consists of 21 items that are with blue nodes. This cluster is related to the goal of what the metaphor is analyzed for. The dominant items of cluster 3 involve items regarding sex like "male" and "female": related to age like "age", "age factors", "child", and "adolescent", related to human behaviour like "autism", "autism spectrum disorder", "theory of mind", "verbal behaviour" and related to language like "linguistics", "clinic article", "language test", and "speech perception". Cluster 4 consists of 21 items, and they are in yellow nodes. The items are grouped that are related to the understanding of metaphor. The three biggest items are "language", "adult", "and comprehension", and these are very close to the understanding of metaphor. The smaller items are "young adult", "physiology", "language disability", and pathophysiology". Cluster 5, as the last cluster, only consists of 1 item. It is not related to the items discussed previously. The only item of this cluster is "nonhuman" that is in purple node. The location of the item is outside and a little bit far from the main items, but it still connected with the main item of "metaphor."

Furthermore, all key-words co-occurrence from year to year is also displayed through overlay visualization, as in figure 4. The blue and rather dark green nodes signal that the items or the words were mostly used before 2012, light green and yellow nodes tell us the items used after 2012, and even in recent years, the yellow node items are often used. It shows that the items like "physiology", "young adult", "human experiment", "figurative language", "figure of speech", "emotion", "metaphor analysis", "qualitative research", "poetry", "magnetic resonance", "metonymy", and "left hemisphere" are key-words co-occurrence often found from 2015 to present in some sources.
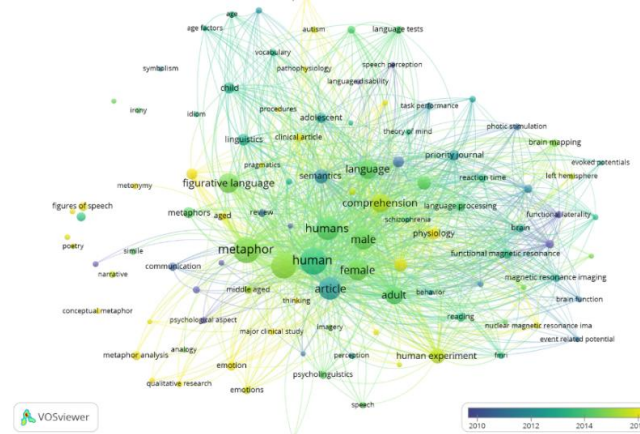

Figure 4. Overlay Visualization of the All Key-Words Co-occurrence

B. The Co-Authorship Analysis on Metaphor

Research fields have a lot of perspective analysis. To obtain a complete and comprehensive analysis of a certain subject, we need collaborative strength among scholars. Thus, co-authorship research becomes an important content of bibliometrics to observe. In this section, VOSviewer software presents the country co-authorship analysis, the author co-authorship analysis, and the organization co-authorship analysis.

(a). The Country-Based Co-Authorship Analysis

The top ten countries with total link strength regarding metaphor analysis can be seen in Table 1. The United Kingdom is the country that has the most link strength number. The United States, Germany, and Italy followed it. Australia and Spain have the same number of link strengths. China and Poland also have the same number of link strengths. Norway and Japan come to rank 7 and 8 before China.

TABLE 1
THE TOP 10 COUNTRIES CO-AUTHORSHIP

No	Country	Documents	Citation	Total link strength
1	United Kingdom	62	1113	28
2	United States	148	2358	25
3	Germany	38	881	24
4	Italy	33	369	16
5	Australia	20	367	9
6	Spain	22	134	9
7	Norway	12	318	8
8	Japan	6	73	7
9	China	16	60	5
10	Poland	16	15	5

The United States has the most citations among the countries but it has less total link strength than the United Kingdom. It means that in terms of co-authorship the number of total link strength becomes a reference to determine the rank.
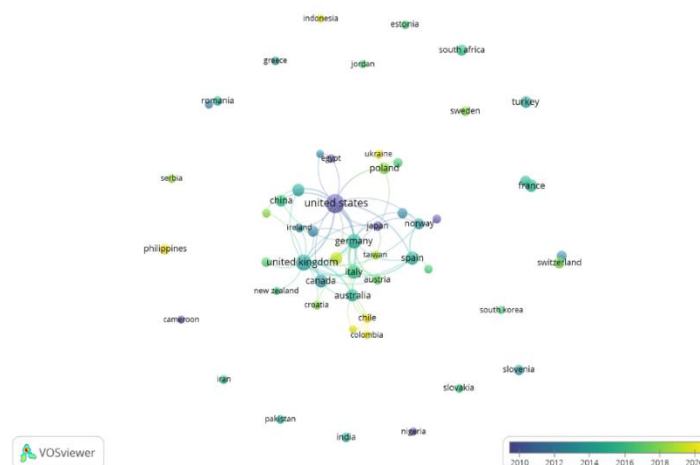
Figure 5. The Overlay Visualization of Country Co-Authorship Network of Metaphor-related Publications

From the Overlay Visualization in Figure 5, the co-authorship network is known based on the publication year. The yellow nodes indicate that Chile, Colombia, Ukraine, Philippines and Indonesia are countries that have co-authorship in publishing metaphors for recent years, precisely from 2018 up to the present. Chile, Columbia, and Ukraine belong to countries that are in the middle, and it indicates they have had plenty of co-authorship in recent years; meanwhile, the position of Philippines and Indonesia are outside of the interconnected circle, and it indicates that both countries only have a few co-authorships in publication. Some countries like the United Kingdom, Canada, the United States, China, Germany, Norway, Spain, Taiwan, Ireland, Australia, Croatia, New Zealand, Norway, and Poland have plenty of co-authorship publications on metaphors before 2018.

(b). The Author-Based Co-Authorship Analysis

Overall, data analysis, explicitly searching author-based co-authorship analysis through VOSviewer, display 1000 names of authors related to the metaphor study, but VOSviewer as an analysis tool only displays authors with high total link strength. The following are the top 10 author-base co-authorship analyses.

TABLE 2
THE TOP 10 AUTHORS-BASED CO-AUTHORSHIP ANALYSIS

No	Author	Documents	Citations	Total link strength
1	Bambini V	5	143	18
2	Chatterjee A	4	129	14
3	Citron F.M.M	5	70	15
4	Oberta A	3	33	16
5	Bellani M	1	9	14
6	Bellni F	1	9	14
7	Bonetto C	1	9	14
8	Brambilla P	1	9	14
9	D'agostino A	1	1	14
10	Finos L	1	1	14

The top 10 authors-based co-authorship analyses, as in Table 2, are obtained from VOSviewer analysis. In the first place, co-authorship is occupied by Bambini, who has a very high number of citations and documents. Then, followed by Chatterjee, who was in second place in obtaining the most citations but slightly lower in obtaining documents compared to Citron, which had five documents but only 70 citations. This figure is lower than Chatterjee's. The co-authorship with the next highest score was Oberta, with 33 but very few documents. In addition, four authors have the same citation number, namely Bellani, Bellini, Bonetto and Brambilla, while the lowest co-authorship positions are D'agostino and Fino. However, they are large in link strength which is 14.

Further analysis, by assigning the number 1 to the minimum number of documents of the author, found 1167 automatically meets the thresholds. For each of the 1167 authors, the total strength of the co-authorship links with other authors would be as much as 1000. However, only 19 items, the largest set of connected items, were shown and divided into five clusters, as shown in Figure 6 below.
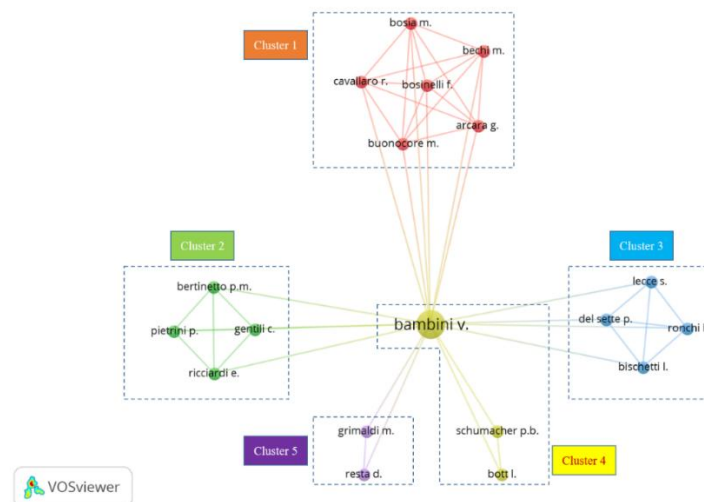
Figure 6. The Network of Author Map From Co-authorship Analysis of Metaphor-related Publications

The first cluster marked with orange consists of 6 people, while the second cluster marked with green consists of 4 people. Furthermore, the third cluster also consists of 4 people marked in blue. There are three people in the fourth cluster, which is marked in yellow. Meanwhile, the fifth cluster marked in purple only consists of 2 people. It can be seen that the relationship between all co-authorships is intertwined with each other, whereas in the network map, Bambini is the centre because it has more documents than the others.

(c). The Organization-Based Co-Authorship Analysis

The organization search specification based on co-authorship analysis through VOSviewer showed 936 organizations, but only organizations with high total link strength were shown. The following are the top 10 organizations selected for the publication of metaphors.

TABLE 3
THE TOP 10 ORGANIZATIONS-BASED ON CO-AUTHORSHIP ANALYSIS

No	Organization	Document	Citation	Total link strength
1	University College London, United Kingdom	4	77	0
2	Department of Psychology, Lancaster University, United Kingdom	3	20	1
3	Department of Education and Professional Studies, King's College London, United Kingdom	2	77	0
4	Ceastic Laboratory (ea 3804) University of Reims Champagne-ardenne, France	2	28	2
5	Department of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation, Sébastopol Hospital, Reims University Hospital, France	2	28	2
6	Humboldt-Universität zu Berlin, Institut für Deutsche Literatur, Germany	2	6	2
7	University of Hildesheim, Institut Für Deutsche Sprache Und Literatur, Germany	2	6	2
8	Advanced Technology System, Romania	2	1	4
9	Ataturk teacher Academy, Cyprus	2	1	4
10	Near East University, Nicosia, Cyprus	2	1	4

Table 3 above shows that the organization with the highest number of documents and citations is 'University College London, United Kingdom. Then followed by 'Department of Psychology, Lancaster University, United Kingdom, which has the most published documents, while Department of Education and Professional Studies, King's College London, United Kingdom is in third position with 77 citations. The next organizations that have the highest citations are the Ceastic Laboratory (ea 3804), University of Reims Champagne-Ardenne, France and the Department of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation, Sébastopol Hospital, Reims University Hospital, France. Then, the position of the organization that has the next highest citation is 'Humboldt-Universität zu Berlin, Institut für Deutsche Literatur, Germany and University of Hildesheim, Institut Für Deutsche Sprache Und Literatur, Germany. Meanwhile, the organizational positions that have the lowest citations are Advanced Technology System, Romania, Ataturk teacher Academy, Cyprus and Near East University, Nicosia, Cyprus. However, these three organizations have great link strength. The criteria for selecting the top 10 organizations in this data are determined based on the number of published documents. In the 620 data used for analysis, there are 936 organizations. However, by assigning a number 2 to the minimum document in the organization, there are only 24 that meet the threshold, as seen in the following organization of density visualization.
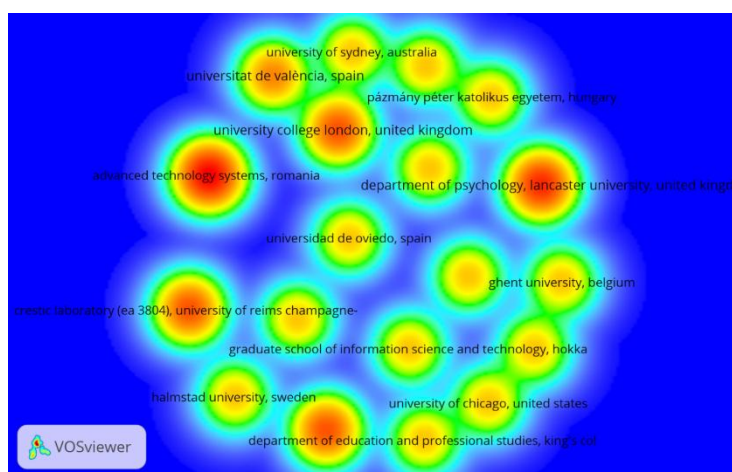
Figure 7. The Density Visualization Map of Organization Co-authorship Map

C. The Citation Analysis on Metaphor-Related Publications

The citation analysis of publications, especially on metaphorical study data in the last five decades, as many as 620 documents, was carried out using the VOSviewer analysis tool. The following data analysis focuses on the search for sources, authors, and countries. The details of the data can be seen in the following description.

(a). The Journal-Based Citation Analysis

Citation analysis in the search for sources of metaphorical publications in this section is presented in the form of graphs and network maps. A total of 620 data were found in 494 sources using the VOSviewer analysis tool. The following are the top 10 journals with the most citations, which can be seen in Figure 8.
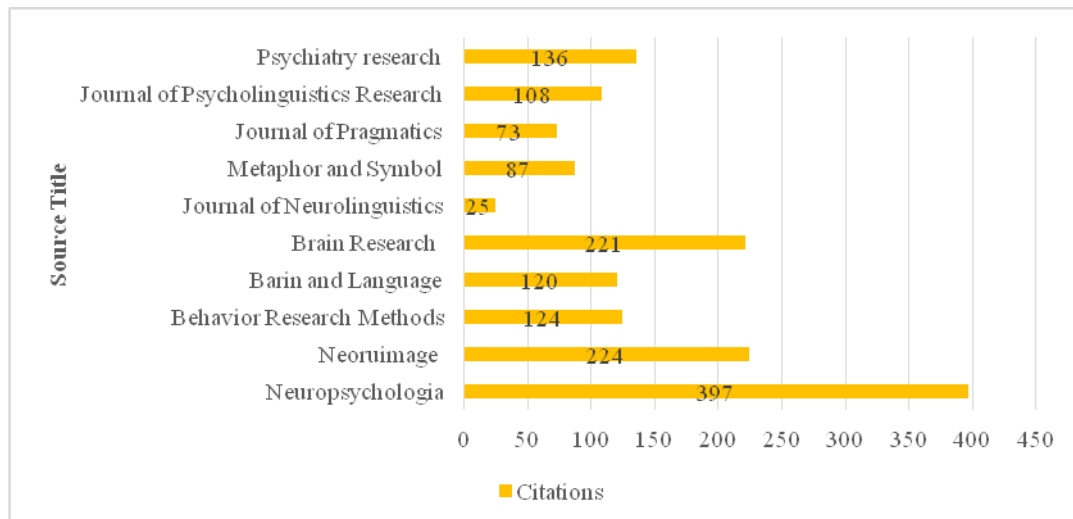
Figure 8. The Top 10 Journal Based on Citation Analysis

It can be seen in Figure 8 that the highest citation gain was "Neuropsychologia" with as much as 397 and then followed by "Neuroimage" with as many as 224 citations. The Brain Research journal has the highest citation, as much as 221. This figure places it in the third most significant position. In addition, there is the journal Psychiatry Research which received 136 citations and was followed by Behavior Research Methods with 124 citations. The journal with the next highest citation was Journal of Psycholinguistics Research' with as much as 108, 'Metaphor and Symbol' with as much as 87 and Journal of Pragmatics with as much as 73.

Meanwhile, the lowest citation gain was occupied by the Journal of Neurolinguistics as much as 25. The top 10 journals based on the citation analysis shown above are all connected. The connection among them can be seen on the network visualization map, as shown in Figure 9.
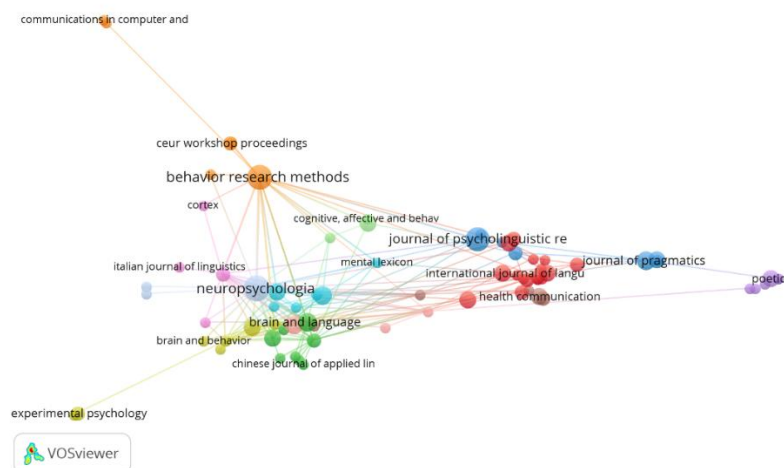
Figure 9. The Network Visualization of Journal-base Citation Analysis

(b). The Authors-Based Citation Analysis

As stated previously that there are 620 documents that were analysed through VOSviewer and interestingly found 1169 authors. However, of the 1169 authors only the authors with the highest total link strength appeared on the VOSviewer screen. Then, the top 10 authors who have the highest citations are filtered as follows.

TABLE 4
THE TOP 10 AUTHORS-BASED CITATION TYPE OF ANALYSIS

No	Authors	Documents	Citations	Total link strength
1	Mashal N	6	292	163
2	Schmidh G.L	2	210	154
3	Jacobs A.M.	4	240	150
4	Bambini V	5	143	147
5	Rapp A.M	3	256	134
6	Altmann U	1	163	116
7	Bohrn I.C	1	163	116
8	Faust M	3	216	109
9	Seger C.A	1	118	108
10	Chatterjee A	4	129	101

Table 4 above shows several authors with a very high number of citations related to the publication of metaphors. The authors were obtained through an analysis tool, namely VOSviewer, which was then classified based on the number of documents, citations and total link strength. In the first position, Mashal is the author who has the highest number of citations on all items. Then, followed by Rapp A.M, who came in second place. Next are Jacobs and Fraust, each of which has the highest number of citations, namely 240 and 216, but the number of documents owned by Fraust is lower when compared to Jacobs. In the fifth position is an author named Schmidh, with a total of 210 citations. More interestingly, some authors get the same number of three items, namely Altmann and Bohrn.

Furthermore, Bambini obtained the highest number of documents after Mashal but had the lowest number of citations. Lastly, there is Chatterjee, who has a higher number of citations than Seger, but in total link strength items, Seger is superior. However, not all of the above writers have a relationship with one another in metaphorical publications, such as Araki, Raney, Mora and Laslo, which appear to be separate. The relationship between them can be seen in the following network map.
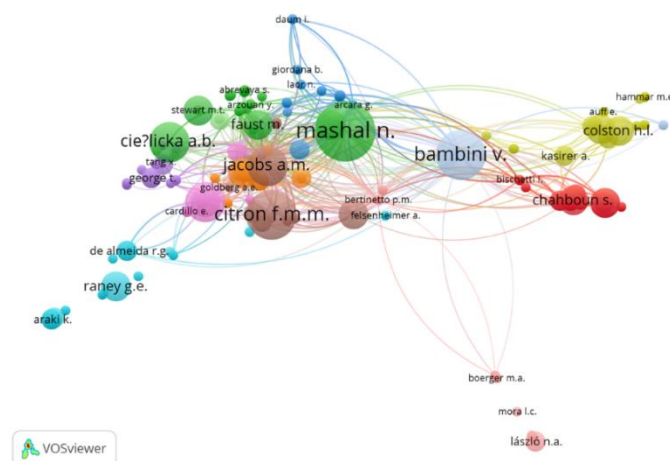
Figure 10. The Network Visualization Map of Authors-based Citation Analysis

(c). The Country-Based Citation Analysis

The results of the data analysis shown below are the top 10 countries that have the highest citations in metaphor publications. By using the VOSviewer analysis tool, 83 countries were found as presented in Table 5. Then, all of those countries were also displayed visually in Figure 11.

TABLE 5
THE TOP 10 COUNTRIES-BASE CITATION ANALYSIS

No	Countries	Documents	Citations	Total link strength
1	United State	148	2358	187
2	United Kingdom	62	1113	92
3	Germany	38	881	138
4	Italy	33	369	84
5	Israel	17	351	64
6	Canada	24	255	52
7	Norway	12	318	29
8	Australia	20	367	16
9	Denmark	4	145	7
10	Netherlands	12	211	7

In Table 5, it can be seen that two countries dominate the acquisition of the highest number of citations, namely the United States at 2358 and the United Kingdom at 1113. Then, followed by Germany and Italy. Furthermore, Australia and Israel, respectively, have the highest number of citations, namely 367 and 351. In addition, Norway and Canada have the highest number of citations, namely 318 citations for Norway and 255 citations for Canada. In the last position is Denmark, which only has four documents and 145 citations, while the Netherlands is superior in the number of documents, namely 12 and 211 citations. The following figure would be clearly displayed the top 10 countries-based citation analysis.

(a)
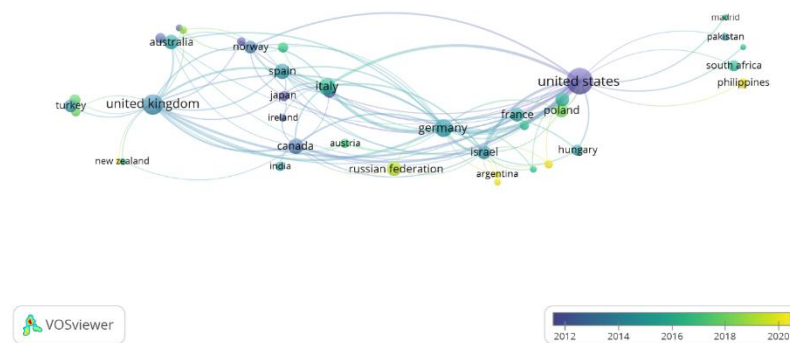
(b)
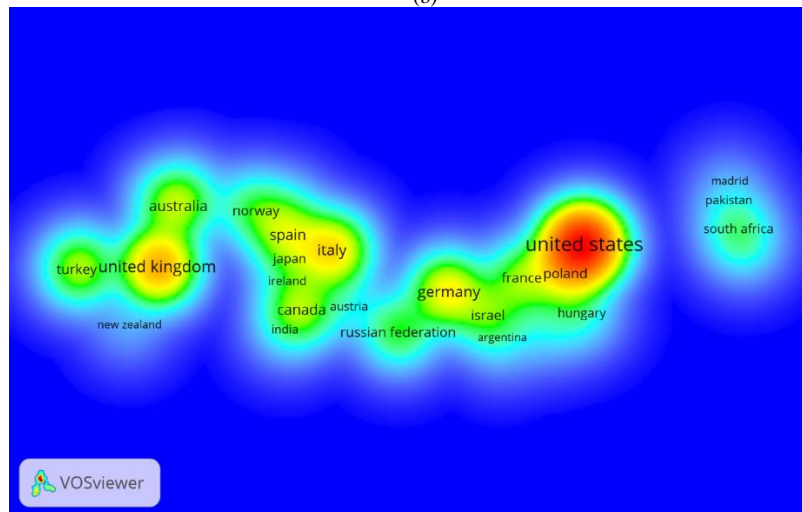
Figure 11. (a) Network Map of the Most-Cited Countries; (b) Density VIEW

If analyzed further, the tendency of the United States and the United Kingdom, especially in the number of metaphor publications and also the acquisition of a high number of citations, only occurred between 2010 and 2014. It is seen in Figures 11 (a) and (b) as follows. Furthermore, Figure 11 (a) shows that the United States marked with purple colour has the highest number of documents and citations only in 2012. Likewise, the United Kingdom dominated only in 2014. Meanwhile, the range from 2015 to 2016 was dominated by Germany and Italy. The trend of these two countries is visible in Figure 11 (b), which is marked with a bright yellow colour. When compared to the latest years, namely 2018 and 2020, only a few countries still dominate in terms of metaphor publications, such as Argentina, the Russian Federation, Poland and the Philippines.

IV. DISCUSSION

The results of the analysis on the study of metaphor literature, especially publications in the last five decades through bibliometric analysis, have been explained clearly. It turns out that there is a significant decrease in the number of metaphor publications in several countries, especially in 2021 (see Figure 2). Of course, these findings do not indicate a drastic decline in researchers' interest in the study of metaphors themselves. This is caused by changes in each country's research issues and research needs. The proof is that some countries are still actively publishing metaphor

studies, and these authors still pay full attention to metaphor studies that are spread across several countries. In fact, the study of metaphor does not only occur in the field of linguistics or the study of pure communication science but also occurs in other disciplines, for example, in the field of technology (see Dronova, 2015; Erman, 2012; Hendricks et al., 2018; Oļehnoviča et al., 2016; Saputra et al., 2022; Trinadi et al., 2022). A study in engineering shows that engineering discourse is highly metaphoric and borrows from multiple metaphoric domains other than the typical engineering jargon. The words such as *port, plant, and bridge,* are polysemous words that depending on the context, can appear in different strata of metaphorization (Roldán-Riejos & Cuadrado, 2015). This is in line with the data shown in Figure 4. Various keywords indicate the domain of symbolic studies, such as humans, animals, plants, psychology, culinary fields, etc. Roldán-Riejos and Plaza (2015) said that the cooking metaphor is widely spread in the metallurgical domain in English and Spanish, although with different nuances in each language due to sociocultural factors. Thus, the field of study that deals with metaphors are not limited. Especially in communication, metaphors are easily recognized (Rewiś-Łętkowska, 2019).

Annual trend analysis and keyword co-occurrence analysis from publications related to metaphors as in 3.1; co-authored analysis of metaphor in 3.2; and the analysis of quotations in publications related to metaphors in 3.3 provides broad knowledge space for readers, academics and even researchers to understand the study of metaphors that are not limited in their fields. It can be concluded that metaphor is a unique and limitless field of research (Ritchie, 2013). It is because metaphor is part of human intellectual production that integrates with culture, technology and science. Again, metaphors used in conversations perform certain communicative functions, most persuasive, social or entertaining (Rewiś-Łętkowska, 2019).

V. CONCLUSION

Grounded on the results of analyzing data of metaphor publication using VOSviewer and Tableau can be concluded that metaphor studies experienced an increase in the number of notable publications from 2000 to 2020. Then, the domains of the analysis material, especially the study of metaphors, are very diverse, almost touching all aspects of life, but still tend and are closely related to human habits, gender (male and female), experiences, emotions, feelings, thoughts, even related to inanimate objects and living things which incidentally are ecolinguistic areas and so forth (see Figure 3). So, it can be concluded that wherever and whenever communication occurred, there is also the use of metaphor. Metaphor is a part of daily human communication that is only used in different ways and interpreted differently (Genovesi, 2020). In addition, the results of this analysis can be used as a reference for further researchers to see opportunities for acceptance of articles in the field of metaphor, especially in trusted journals (see Figure 8), of course, by looking at the results of area mapping carried out in this current study, both organizations, countries as well as previous authors (see Figure 10; Figure 11) which can be used as parameters.

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Ni Made Suryati was born in Batugunung on December 31, 1960. She completed her bachelor degree in the Department of Balinese Language and Literature, Faculty of Arts Udayana University in 1979. Since March 1, 1984 she has been a teaching staff at the Faculty of Letters, Udayana University. In 1997, she obtained her master degree in Linguistics at Padjadjaran University, Bandung. In 2012, she completed her doctoral degree at Udayana University. At the present, she is actively teaching, conducting community service, doing research, and attending seminars as a participant or a presenter in regional, national, and international levels.

I Ketut Jitrnaya was born in Les Village on April 8, 1959. He completed his bachelor degree in the Department of Old Javanese Language and Literature, Faculty of Arts, Udayana University in 1978. Since March 1, 1984 he has been a teaching staff at the Faculty of Letters, Udayana University. In 1992, he completed his master degree in Philology at Padjadjaran University, Bandung. In 2007, he completed his doctoral degree at Udayana University Postgraduate. Now, he is actively teaching, conducting community service and research, also attending seminars as a participant or a presenter in regional, national, and international levels.

I Nyoman Kardana is a professor at Faculty of Letters Warmadewa University, Bali Indonesia. He received his Master Degree in Linguistics from Padjadjaran University, Bandung, Indonesia in 1998. He obtained his Doctorate Degree in Linguistics from Udayana University, Bali, Indonesia in 2004. He has been doing some researches related to the topics about morpho-syntax, semantics, and eco-linguistics. He has supervised many papers, theses and doctorate dissertations. He has also written a lot of articles published in national and international journals. His latest publications are *Revitalizing Local Wisdom in Balinese Simile: An Effort to Enhance Balinese Youth Character* (2022) in Journal of Language Teaching and *Research and Metaphors in Balinese Discourse* (2022) in Proceedings of the 1st Warmadewa International Conference on Science, Technology and Humanity (WICSTH) published by *European Alliance for Innovation*.

Made Sri Satyawati is a professor at Faculty of Humanities, Udayana University, Bali, Indonesia. She obtained her Master's in Linguistics from Padjadjaran University, Bandung, Indonesia, in 1999, and her Doctorate Degree in Linguistics from Udayana University in 2010. Her research interest is in linguistics, and she has conducted some studies about syntax, typology, and semantics. Her publications involve the study of the Indonesian language and some local languages in Eastern Indonesia. She has supervised many bachelor papers, theses, and doctorate dissertations. She has also participated as a guest and invited speaker in several national and international seminars.

The Role Played by Translation Within Cross-Cultural Communication: Case Study From EFL Teachers Based at Haql University College, Saudi Arabia

Ahmed Khider Othman

English Language Department, University College of Haql, Tabuk University, Saudi Arabia

Abstract—This study aims to enhance the cross-cultural communication skills of EFL learners and demonstrate the importance that translation has for cross-cultural forms of communication. A descriptive analytical method was followed in the study along with the distribution of a questionnaire to nineteen EFL teachers so that the necessary data could be collected. There was then statistical analysis of the data collected using the SPSS software 23. Many findings came out of the study, amongst the most important of which are that many skills are required in translation so that the original message can be conveyed into the language being targeted. Cross-cultural skills of communication of the EFL learners are improved in using translation. A number of cultural items that exist within a particular culture may not exist within another culture so there are some cultural items that are untranslatable. A vital role is played by translation in creating a general and universal culture. Without cultural universalities and similarities, people from different cultures have no way to communicate with one another and there will be an impossibility for translation to master the knowledge of differences and similarities between L2 and L1. The language accuracy of translators is developed through use of translation. This study recommends that the original message ought to be conveyed into the language being targeted by translation, and that communicators and learners of EFL ought to be able to communicate culturally through translation, and that translation ought to enable the so-called fifth language skill to be mastered by communicators.

Index Terms—skills in cross-cultural communication, translation, cultural universalities and similarities

I. INTRODUCTION

With it performing the role of a way of communication linking people of diverse ethnic groupings, translation can be seen as a way of facilitating intercultural and interlingual communication (Othman, 2021). Within translation, the cultural factor is both undeniable and obvious. Within the process of translation, it is not only two languages that interact but also two cultures that have both national specificity and common features (Baker, 2000). As a process, translation does not just involve two languages but also a kind of transfer between two different cultures. Translation that involves transposition of thoughts that have been expressed by a social group in one language into appropriate expression for another group involves a process entailing cultural decoding and recoding and also encoding. Since cultures are being brought into contact with each other to an increasing degree, there is the ever-increasing degree to which multicultural considerations are being brought to bear.

An alien culture faces the translator, though the message needs to be conveyed in a way that must not be alien to the recipient. Idiosyncrasies of a culture are expressed in ways that are bound culturally, with particular cultural words, idiomatic expressions and proverbs that are used and that originate in ways that are uniquely and intrinsically tied to the culture in question. As such, translators are required to translate in cross-cultural ways, the success of which depending upon the understanding that they have of the cultures in question (Byram, 1989). Furthermore, the translator can be considered as a kind of mediator between different cultures and languages. Also, the translator may be considered as having expertise in intercultural communication, with the task of creating a bridge and aiding others in crossing linguistic and cultural boundaries. So, the translator ought to master a number of fields such as interpretation, translation, service procurement, work organization and the management of processes of intercultural communication. Indeed, translations represent a place where previously separate cultures can come together and where ongoing relations can be established. As such, it seems quite obvious that translation has considerable importance, with a translator not just a person who works at translating words, but also a person who is able to discover the optimum way in which the key ideas are transposed in order for the intended audience to receive them appropriately. She/he ought to also consider the political and social background in which a particular translation is happening.

The problem statement for the study is:

EFL learners hail from different language and cultural backgrounds and they have to communicate ideas by using a common language; there can be fulfillment of that need through translation.

This study has the aim of:

      a) Enhancing the cross-cultural communication skills of EFL learners;

      b) Demonstrating the importance that translation has for cross-cultural forms of communication.

This study tries to find answers to the following two questions:

      a) By what extent can EFL learners communicate culturally?

      b) What role is played by translation in the enhancement of cross-cultural communication?

This study, then, entails the positing of the following two hypotheses:

      a) There is a need for EFL learners to communicate through lots of cultures.

      b) Cross-cultural communication is facilitated by translation.

With regard to significance of this study, it is considered to be of great importance for teachers and learners of EFL and people learning abroad or who travel for work since it can demonstrate to them that translation has significance for the enhancement of cross-cultural communication.

With regard to methodology for the study, a descriptive analytical method was followed. Within the research study, the population was made up of teachers of English language based at the University College of Haql. A questionnaire was employed in the collection of data which was then analyzed using the SPSS program.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

As a notion, contemplation of culture is considered vital when reflecting upon translation implications. The term 'culture' is in reference to the lifestyle possessed by a collection of people that is relatively specialized in nature. It comprises the beliefs, values, ways of behaving, artifacts and forms of communication of the people in question. Moreover, it involves all that the social group members have developed and produced such as their art, religion, laws, modes of thinking and language. Understanding the role that culture plays within communication is a crucial basis for gaining an understanding of intercultural communication since it happens interpersonally within small groups, within public speaking or within the media. It is also essential for having an appreciation of the principles that lie behind effective forms of intercultural communication (Katan et al., 2021).

In discussing problems for correspondence within translation, equal importance is conferred by Nida to both cultural and linguistic differences between TL and SL (Hervey & Higgins, 2002). Each culture possesses its own communication rules that identify what is considered appropriate or inappropriate. Within some cultures, respect is shown by people through avoidance of direct eye contact when speaking to someone, whilst within other cultures such averting of gaze would signal a level of disinterest. A crucial role is played by translation in making culture that is general and universal. Translation serves as a bridge for communication of all types of languages, particularly those with similarities to one another when considering their cultural customs and linguistic features in all regions of the world. So, translation connects all parts of the planet within a global network. Furthermore, there is a presumption with translation that boundaries exist between different cultures with a translator probably having awareness of those boundaries along with awareness that crossing them will be inevitable.

Without universalities and cultural similarities, people from different cultures have no way of communicating with one another and it will be impossible to have translation. When considering two languages requiring equivalent translation, there is a need for translators to convey the same meanings in interlinked, pragmatic and referential terms. If communication is to be effective it must involve the transmission of information and thoughts in a way that ensures messages are understood by readers or listeners in the manner that was intended by the writer or speaker. So, a communicator who is effective is someone who conveys sentiments, convictions and facts clearly. When translating from a culture and language to another, it is particularly crucial that the communicator is effective. Whilst a translator is clearly not the author, he/she does transfer communication for a client and, before doing anything, the translator has to be sure they have understood both the content of the message and the intention that lies behind it. A failure to gain that understanding means it will be impossible for the message to be communicated effectively within the target language; indeed, that point has particular relevance for technical translation.

A. The Conveying of Tone of Voice

There is also a need for a translator to consider the tone of the voice of the author within their writing. Accuracy in the recreation of factual elements within a text is not all, there also needs to be capture of the sentiment of a message. If translation is to be of a high quality, it ought to capture any emotions, convictions and nuances that are evident within the source, with an understanding of underlying values and motivations. In order to capture all such elements within written form, without the pointers that could be gleaned from intonation and volume, there is a need for careful and artful selection of words.

B. The Choosing of the Right Words

There is little surprise in knowing that the selection of appropriate words is a key aspect of translation, though there is a need to be both articulate and precise, and skillful in getting messages over clearly through the use of language that is respectful and non-judgmental. There is also a need to pitch text at a level that is appropriate for the audience being targeted. If reference is made to a concept or topic that is culturally specific, extra adaptations or information may be

required, if appropriate, to ensure there is communication of those alien concepts to the audience targeted in a manner that is as clear as possible. A vital role is played by translation in making a culture seem general and universal. Translation serves as a form of bridge so that all types of languages can be communicated, particularly those that have similarities in respect to their cultural customs and linguistic features in other regions of the world. As such, all parts of the world are linked within a global network. Furthermore, with the presumption that translation accepts that boundaries exist between differing cultures, the translator has awareness, most probably, of those boundaries and an awareness that they would inevitably be crossed.

Without cultural universalities and similarities, translation would be impossible and people from different cultures would not be able to communicate with one another. With regard to two different languages that have to be translated in an equivalent manner, then there is a need for translators to convey the same meanings in pragmatic, referential and interlinked terms. However, because of the differences between two different cultures, there can be limits to the achievement of semantic equivalence. Since the technology nowadays makes communication between cultures a commonplace and everyday occurrence, the translator does not now see themselves as being isolated, but rather as an ambassador on the global stage that offers services for a market of ever increasing size. It is noticeable that as there is slowly increasing globalization, more cultures are striving to achieve communication with one another, and translators are realizing the growing need for translation (Köksal & Yürük, 2020).

It is increasingly the case that we have to communicate within other languages and, in order for businesses to be successful, we have to respectfully understand different cultural contexts of the people with which we have dealings. Whilst we have more savvy as both consumers and employees, there is a need for translations to be seamless within the native language or that message in question will not succeed, whether a presentation given to employees in relation to a new safety program or an advertisement on behalf of a huge multibillion dollar corporation. For a genuine professional, translation is considered first and foremost an art, afterwards a translator may consider it a craft that they take up. The translation art is not easy since it calls for lots of skills with the translator having the responsibility for conveying an original message within a target language to enable the reader to overlook any difference between the translation and the original and to read it naturally.

C. Cross-Cultural Forms of Communication

Cross-cultural forms of communication relate to points of contact between different cultures that arise at a particular point where there is a meeting of two cultures; for example, if a company that is multi-national hires Chinese laborers within America or if there are Indian scholars of IT that work within New York. As cited within (Qawasmeh., 2022), there must be confrontation of two different cultures in communication that is cross-cultural. Often, communication that is cross-cultural is known as intercultural communication since there is interaction that is taking place between people within similar and different ways or situations. The cross-cultural communication process is one that has a high degree of complexity since there may be certain cultural items that are present within a particular culture that are not present within another culture; as such, certain cultural items can be considered as untranslatable. As noted within (Qawasmeh., 2022), in understanding other cultures, each culture has to be seen in how it relates to those other cultures.

D. Translation Considered as a Means for Cross-Cultural Communication

Rather than solely being an act that is linguistic, translation is also a cultural act that is a form of communication between cultures. It is always the case that translation involves both culture and language simply because it is impossible to separate the two. Language is embedded culturally with it both expressing and shaping cultural reality; indeed, the meaning attached to linguistic items may only be understood if they are considered along with cultural context, within which those linguistic items are utilized. When a text is being transferred from one text of a culture over to another, translators ought to pay considerable attention to the differences in the kind and the degree of conventionalization within both the source and the target cultures. A key characteristic held by translation is the 'double-bind situation', wherein a translator must link a source text within its cultural context over to communicative-cultural condition of the target (House, 2009). Thiruvasagam (2010) noted that translation is needed for there to be cross-cultural communication.

The term 'translation is in reference to cultural communication as well as language communication; considered as such, translation can be considered as an act of transfer of a culture over to another culture. With people traveling all over the world because of lots of different reasons, and the inevitable confrontation of cultures, translation may play a vital role. Different cultures are contacting each other through a variety of ways, such as internet, the media, books and so on, and there is a need for a lingua franca. As different languages and cultures confront each other, people can face many problems with cross-cultural communication that may happen between two languages and cultures or more. Within that type of communication, there is interpretation of one culture with another culture acting as the base; for example, the English culture within England along with Indian culture. If one seeks to understand the manners of the English when eating, there has to be comparison made to the manners with which Indians eat. Again, communication can be considered as a process for understanding the different messages between people or animals to other people or animals, and that process can be non-verbal or verbal. Humans utilize both non-verbal and verbal types of communication, however, since animals do not possess verbal languages they only utilize non-verbal forms of communication (Qawasmeh, 2022).

The process of communication and translation is affected by culture. Primarily, translation uses language as the communication medium. In a broad sense, culture includes customs, sets of beliefs, festivals, views, ways of living, values, routine behavior, clothing, rituals and many other things that affect the way human beings live within a community or well-structured society (Lai et al., 2016). A contact point amongst different cultures situated at a particular point of the meeting of two cultures is indicated by cross-cultural communication. For a culture to be understood through another culture, there has to be a number of things in common. It is impossible for each and every type of cultural item to present within another culture. Indians, for example, have lots of different cultural festivals compared to other European cultures. So, the relationship between culture and translation is an inseparable as is that between culture and language (Qawasmeh, 2022). The aim of cultural translation is to find effective solutions to problems that are inherent within translation, e.g. items that are culturally specific such as rituals, festivals, food, clothing, and ways of worshipping and so on. At the core of cultural translation is the issue of cultural and social equivalence. Broadly, with regard to translation and culture, cultures can be considered as translation processes that constantly shift, multiply and diversify. The cultural translation ideas may serve as an anti-holistic and anti-essentialist metaphor with the aim of uncovering discursive forms, resistant actions and counter-discourses in a culture and the heterogenous types of discursive space that lie in a society. In doing so, a dynamic conceptualization of culture can be enabled to view it as a form of practice for the negotiation of cultural differences, cultural overlap, realization and syncretism.

III. MATERIALS AND METHODS OF THE CURRENT STUDY

The study participants were teachers of EFL based in the University College of Haql at Tabuk University in Saudi Arabia. There was distribution of a questionnaire to 19 EFL teachers so that the necessary data could be collected regarding the role that translation plays within cross-cultural communication. The data that was collected and analyzed statistically using the SPSS program. Within the tables that follow, statistical analyses from the questionnaires are shown.

Analysis of data

It is not easy to perform translation since the task calls for lots of skills to convey an original message over to a target language.

TABLE SM1

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Disagree	1	5.3	5.3
	Neutral	1	5.3	5.3
	Agree	17	89.5	89.5
	Total	19	100.0	100.0

From the statistical analysis in Table SM1, it can be seen that most of the respondents (89.5 %) agreed, 5.3% disagreed and 5.3% were neutral with regard to the translation art not being easy since

the task calls for lots of skills to convey an original message over to a target language.

There is a high degree of complexity in the cross-cultural communication process

TABLE SM2

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Neutral	2	10.5	10.5
	Agree	17	89.5	89.5
	Total	19	100.0	100.0

It can be seen from Table SM2 that most of the respondents (89.5%) agreed and 10.5% of respondents were neutral with regard to there being a high degree of complexity in the cross-cultural communication process. Indeed, certain cultural items are in existence within a particular culture though they do not exist within another culture; hence, it can be said that certain cultural items can be considered untranslatable.

A vital role is played by translation in creating a general and universal culture.

TABLE SM3

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Disagree	1	5.3	5.3
	Neutral	3	15.8	15.8
	Agree	15	78.9	78.9
	Total	19	100.0	100.0

It can be seen in Table SM3 that most of the respondents (78.9%) agreed that a vital role is played by translation in creating a general and universal culture. Meanwhile, 5.3% of respondents were in disagreement with that statement and 15.8% were neutral.

It is particularly crucial for a communicator to be effective when they are translating between a culture and language over to another.

TABLE SM4

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Neutral	1	5.3	5.3
	Agree	18	94.7	94.7
	Total	19	100.0	100.0

It can be seen in Table SM4 that most of the respondents (94.7 %) agreed that it is particularly crucial for a communicator to be effective when they are translating between a culture and language over to another. Meanwhile, 53 % of the respondents in the sample were neutral.

There is a presumption in translation that boundaries exist between differing cultures.

TABLE SM5

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Disagree	2	10.5	10.5
	Neutral	2	10.5	10.5
	Agree	15	78.9	78.9
	Total	19	100.0	100.0

It can be seen in Table SM5 that most of the respondents (78.9%) agreed that there is a presumption in translation that boundaries exist between differing cultures. Meanwhile, 10.5% disagreed with the statement and 10.5% of the respondents were neutral.

Without cultural universalities and similarities, it is not possible for people hailing from different cultures to effectively communicate with one another and, furthermore, it will be impossible to undertake translation.

TABLE SM6

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Disagree	1	5.3	5.3
	Neutral	2	10.5	10.5
	Agree	16	84.2	84.2
	Total	19	100.0	100.0

It can be seen in Table SM6 that most of the respondents (84.2 %) agreed with the statement that without cultural universalities and similarities, it is not possible for people hailing from different cultures to effectively communicate with one another and, furthermore, it will be impossible to undertake translation. Meanwhile, 5.3% of respondents disagreed with the statement and 10.5% were neutral.

With regard to two different languages that are to be equivalently translated, there is a need for translators to convey the same meanings in interlinked, pragmatic and referential terms.

TABLE SM7

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Disagree	1	5.3	5.3
	Neutral	3	15.8	15.8
	Agree	15	78.9	78.9
	Total	19	100.0	100.0

Statistical analysis shown within Table SM7 reveals that most of the respondents (78.9%) agreed with the statement that with regard to two different languages that are to be equivalently translated, there is a need for translators to convey the same meanings in interlinked, pragmatic and referential terms. Meanwhile, 5.3% of respondents disagreed with the statement and 15.8% of respondents were neutral.

Through translation, communicators are enabled to master the 5th language skill

TABLE SM8

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Disagree	2	10.5	10.5
	Agree	17	89.5	89.5
	Total	19	100.0	100.0

It can be seen in Table SM8 that most of the respondents (89.5%) agreed that through translation, communicators are enabled to master the 5th language skill. Meanwhile, 10.5% of respondents were neutral with regard to the statement.

Technology improves the communicative abilities of EFL learners

TABLE SM9

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Neutral	2	10.5	10.5
	Agree	17	89.5	89.5
	Total	19	100.0	100.0

It can be seen in Table SM9 that 85% of the respondents agreed that technology improves the communicative abilities of EFL learners. Meanwhile, 15% of respondents were neutral in that regard.

Translation performance is enhanced through mastery of knowledge of differences and similarities between L2 and L1.

TABLE SM10

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Neutral	1	5.3	5.3
	Agree	18	94.7	94.7
	Total	19	100.0	100.0

It can be seen in Table SM10 that 94.7% of respondents agreed that translation performance is enhanced through mastery of knowledge of differences and similarities between L2 and L1. Meanwhile, 5.3% of respondents were neutral with regard to that statement.

IV. FINDINGS

This study came forward with the eight findings that follow. It was found that the task of translation is a difficult one requiring lots of skills, with the translator having responsibility for conveying the original message within the target language. Also, communication is seen as being cross-cultural with a great deal of complexity since certain cultural items can be untranslatable. The findings showed that a vital role is played by translation if a culture is to be made general and universal, and that it is most likely that the translator has awareness of translation boundaries and awareness that crossing them will be inevitable. The results showed that cultural differences and similarities show that translation is needed and that communicators are enabled in mastering the 5th language skill by translation. Furthermore the findings revealed that translation performance is enhanced by mastery of knowledge of differences and similarities between L2 and L1 and that the use of translation develops the language accuracy and cross-cultural communication of translators.

Based upon the findings, the following four recommendations could be put forward. It is clear that translation ought to convey the original message within the target language. Also, communicators and learners of EFL ought to able to use translation to communicate culturally. It is also recommended that the translator ought to have awareness of the boundaries of translation and awareness that it is inevitable that they would be crossed. Finally, it is recommended that translation ought to enable communicators to have mastery of the 5th language skill.

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Ahmed Khider Othman obtained his PhD in Applied Liguistics from University of Gezera in 2012. He earned his Master's degree (M.A.) in English Language in 2006 and his Bachelor's degree (B.A.) in English Language and literature in 1996.

He is currently assistant professor at University College of Haql, Faculty of Education and Arts, University of Tabuk, Saudi Arabia. He has several publications in Indexed Magazines. His main areas of interest are applied linguistics, error analysis, genre analysi, and discourse analysis.

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